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Value Orientations of Central Philippine University Students*

Macario B. Ruiz

This study is a sequel to a previous investigation on the value orientations of teachers at Central Philippine University, a report of which has previously been released. The present investigation aimed to investigate the attitudes of students towards selected dimensions of value orientations and to compare the attitudes of first year and fourth year students. Incidentally, a comparison of the value orientations of the teachers and the students has been included in this report.

SPECIFIC QUESTIONS AND RESPECTIVE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES.

1. What are the value orientations of the students on the Man-Nature dimensions? Are they mastery-over-nature harmony-with-nature, or subjugation-to-nature oriented? Our research hypothesis was that they are primarily mastery-over-nature oriented and harmony-with-nature oriented secondarily.

* This is the second of Dr. Ruiz's studies on value orientations of Central Philippine University faculty and students.

2. What are the orientations of the students on the Time dimension? Are they past, present, or future oriented? We hypothesized that they are primarily present oriented and future oriented secondarily.

3. What are the orientations of the students on the Relational dimension? Are they individualism, collaterality, or lineality oriented? Our research hypothesis was that, as a group, they are individualism oriented primarily and collaterality oriented secondarily.

4. What are the value orientations of the students on the Activity dimension? Are they "doing" (achievement), being-in-becoming, or being oriented? The research hypothesis was that primarily they are being-in-becoming oriented primarily and "doing" (achievement) oriented secondarily.

These research hypotheses were based on two primary considerations: (1) The subjects in this study are all college students, who presumably have been reared into the more modernistic attitudes, such as mastery over nature, preferring things of the present as contrasted with things of the future, institutionalized into the cultural pattern

of self-centeredness of people in most cultures, including those of developing countries; (2) we have been influenced, fortunately or unfortunately, by the findings in the study on the value orientations of the faculty members of this University.

Comparison of Value Orientations of First Year and Fourth Year Students

Are there basic differences in the value orientations of first year and fourth year students on the four dimension? Our hypothesis was that the basic trends of preferences or attitudes towards each of the variations of each value dimension would be the same. For instance, the freshmen would, like the seniors, be mastery-over-nature oriented primarily and harmony-with-nature secondarily. The basis of this research hypothesis is that the questionnaire was intended to measure the value orientations of people from low through the very high educational levels, people from the traditional societies through the most modern ones. However, we further hypothesized that there would be differences in the "amount" or "extent" of preferences as shown by differences in their group scores.

Comparison of Value Orientations of Students and Teachers

Are there basic differences in the value orientations of the students and the teachers on the four dimensions? Our hypothesis, based on the same considerations as above, was that the trends would be the same for both groups but that there would also be minor differences in the "amount" of preferences as shown by their group scores.

Comparison of Value Orientations by Colleges

How do the various colleges compare in value orientations? The research hypothesis was that they would show the same trend of value orientations or preferences in so far as the three postulated variations of each dimension are concerned.

PROCEDURE

The procedure followed in this investigation was the same as that in the study of the value orientations of teachers. The same questionnaire was used. We did not feel the need for repeating the details of the procedure here. (*See Southeast Asia Journal, Vol. 7, No. 1.*)

The Sample. A systematic sampling of one for every fourth student in the enrollment list for the second semester, 1973-1974 was adopted

for purposes of this study, except that in the smaller colleges, all the students were included in the original sample list. A little over one thousand questionnaires were sent through the deans for them to distribute to the pre-selected respondents. Six hundred and ninety-three questionnaires were returned, distributed as follows:

(1) College of Arts and Sciences	145
(2) College of Agriculture	46
(3) College of Commerce	84
(4) College of Education	59
(5) College of Engineering	118
(6) College of Law	3
(7) College of Nursing	210
(8) College of Theology	20
(9) Graduate School	8
Total	693

Some questionnaires came in too late to be included in the computations of the tabulated data for the present report, although they were included in the preparation of the charts.

The sample for the section on a comparison of the value orientations of first year and fourth year students consisted of only one hundred students each, selected from the main sample on a representative sampling design.

FINDINGS. The findings are reported in the succeeding tables. For the first problem, only the relevant

statistical measures have been presented. Frequency distributions may, however, be found in the section on a comparison of the value

orientations of students and teachers.

Value Orientations of Students

1. Man-Nature dimension.

TABLE 1
Value Orientations of C.P.U. Students on the Variations of Man-Nature Dimension

	V a r i a t i o n s		
	Mastery over Nature (N=693)	Harmony with Nature (N=693)	Subjugation to Nature (N=693)
Median	25.15	20.80	13.94
SE _{mdn}	.12	.10	.13
Diff.	+4.35	+6.86	
SE _{diff.}	.16	.17	
CR	27.00	40.00	

Note: A critical ratio (CR) of 2.58 is necessary for the difference in the medians to be significant at the 1 per cent level.

Table reads: Difference of 4.35 in favor of MA over HA is significant at more than the 1 per cent level; the difference of 6.86 in favor of HA over Su is also more than significant at this level. It can be deduced that the difference between MA and Su is also significant.

The data confirmed Research Hypothesis 1. The students would control and/or modify nature or their environment to suit and improve their life style, and secondarily,

they would put up with nature or be in harmony with it. The orientation, then is mastery over nature, harmony with nature, and subjugation to nature in that order. The

obtained critical ratios say that if we select another random sample of 693 students and administer the questionnaire to them, we would be practically certain that the trend of the orientations, mastery over nature, harmony with nature, and subjugation by nature in that order, would be obtained.

2. Time dimension

The data also confirmed our Research Hypothesis 2. The students

are primarily present oriented and secondarily future oriented. They tend to show preference to or have more concern for problems in life that have to do with the present, rather than those which have to do with the future or the past. As in the case of the Man-Nature dimension, we can be sure that if we selected a random sample of 693 from the student body, we would get the same trend – present, future, and past in that order.

TABLE 2
Value Orientations of C.P.U. Students on the Variations
of Time Dimension

	V a r i a t i o n s		
	Future (N=693)	Present (N=693)	Past (N=693)
Median	20.93	22.02	16.80
SE _{mdn}	.12	.11	.12
Diff.	+1.09		
SE _{diff.}	.16		
CR	6.8		

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level.

Note: Since the SE_{mdns} are practically the same, the differences between the Present and the Past Variations or the Future and the Past are also significant at this level. Their respective differences are larger than 1.09.

3. Relational dimension

TABLE 3
Value Orientations of C.P.U. Students on the Variations
of Relational Dimension

	V a r i a t i o n s		
	Individualism N = 693	Lineality N = 693	Collaterality N = 693
Median	22.49	16.79	20.93
SE _{mdn}	.15	.13	.12
Diff (In-Co)	+1.56		
SE _{diff.}	.19		
CR	8.5		

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level.

Table reads: The difference of 1.56 score points between Individualism and Collaterality in favor of the former is very significant, the obtained CR being 9.5. There was no point computing for the significance of the other pairs of median (*In* vs *Li*, and *Li* vs *Co*). Their differences are also significant at the 1 per cent level.

The data confirmed Research Hypothesis 3 that the students are individualism, collaterality, and lineality oriented in that order. They tend to be individualistic, to see each individual in society as one responsible to himself, to be autonomous, rather than to see each

individual as a part of the social order. Secondly, they would have preference to group authority as against the authority which comes from rank or age. The obtained critical ratio of 8.5 says that if we selected a random sample of 693 students from the same population

of C.P.U. students, we would be practically certain that we would get the same trend of preferences on this dimension.

4. Activity dimension

Research Hypothesis 4 was also confirmed by the data. The students, as a group, are primarily being-in-becoming oriented, and achievement oriented secondarily.

TABLE 4
Value Orientations of C.P.U. Students on the Variations of Activity Dimension

	V a r i a t i o n s		
	Doing (Achievement) N = 693	Being-in-becoming N = 693	Being N = 693
Median	19.22	23.99	16.68
SE _{mdn}	.13	.13	.13
Diff.	2.54	+4.77	
SE _{diff.}	.24	.24	
CR	10.6	19.00	

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 at the 5 per cent level.

Table reads: The difference of 4.77 in the median of Column 2 and Column 1 is significant at the 1 per cent level; the difference of 2.54 between Column 1 and Column 3 is significant at the 1 per cent level. It can be assumed that the difference between Column 2 and Column 3 is significant at the 1 per cent level.

They are motivated to become someone or to be worthy, successful in life. But the goal, which is the primary consideration, is self-oriented. As achievement (doing)

oriented, the source of satisfaction (or happiness) is in the activity, the process, not in the ultimate attainment of the purpose of this activity, although such goal is not entirely

ignored. They have to do something or "bust" as the idiom goes. As in the case of the other dimensions, if a random sample of 693 students from the students were chosen and if given the same questionnaire to accomplish, the chances would be

better than 99 per cent that the trend would be the same as in the present sample.

Comparison of the Value Orientations of First and Fourth Year Students.

5. Man-Nature dimension

TABLE 5
Comparison of Value Orientations of First Year and Fourth Year Students, Man-Nature Dimension

Score	First Year (N = 100)			Fourth Year (N = 100)		
	MA (1)	Ha (2)	Su (3)	MA (4)	Ha (5)	Su (6)
30	—	—	—	1	—	—
29	2	—	—	5	—	—
28	12	—	—	8	—	—
27	14	1	—	20	—	—
26	14	—	—	21	—	—
25	12	1	—	13	1	—
24	17	6	—	13	4	—
23	11	9	1	11	9	2
22	5	16	2	3	23	1
21	5	16	0	2	20	2
20	5	16	2	1	24	2
19	2	19	4	0	9	2
18	1	7	6	0	4	2
17	—	6	10	0	2	4
16	—	2	13	0	1	8
15	—	1	8	1	2	14
14	—	—	18	1	1	11
13	—	—	12	0	—	13
12	—	—	18	0	—	20
11	—	—	4	—	—	17
10	—	—	2	—	—	2
Median	24.84	20.44	14.28	25.74	20.85	15.35
SD	2.52	2.17	2.69	2.51	1.94	2.90
SE _{mdn}	.32	.28	.34	.32	.25	.37
Diff.			+.93	+.90	+.41	
SE _{diff.}			.50	.45	.37	
CR			1.86 (ns)	2.00	1.1 (ns)	

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the median difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 at the 5 per cent level.

Table reads: Differences between Column 1 and Column 4 is +.90 in favor of the seniors; between Column 2 and Column 5 is +.41 in favor of seniors; and between Column 3 and Column 6 is +.93 in favor of freshmen.

TABLE 6
Comparison of Value Orientations of First Year and
Fourth Year, Time Dimension

Score	First Year (N = 100)			Fourth Year (N = 100)		
	(Fu (1))	Pr (2)	Pa (3)	Fu (4)	Pr (5)	Pa (6)
30	—	—	—	—	—	—
29	—	—	—	—	—	—
28	1	1	—	—	1	—
27	—	1	—	—	1	—
26	3	4	—	2	5	—
25	4	3	—	3	14	1
24	9	8	—	6	17	—
23	13	14	2	10	14	1
22	11	15	2	15	10	2
21	13	23	4	17	14	2
20	21	11	13	11	13	9
19	12	7	12	17	8	8
18	6	11	14	8	1	8
17	3	1	19	9	1	28
16	3	0	15	1	—	18
15	1	0	11	—	—	12
14	—	1	7	1	—	6
13	—	—	1	—	1	3
12	—	—	—	—	—	1
11	—	—	—	—	—	1
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
Median	20.81	21.33	17.86	20.68	22.68	16.83
SD	2.48	2.37	2.18	2.37	2.44	2.29
SE _{mdn}	.32	.30	.28	.30	.31	.29
Diff.	+1.13		+1.03		+1.32	
SE _{diff.}	.44		.43		.40	
CR	.4 (ns)		2.4		3.0	

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the median difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 at the 5 per cent level.

Relational dimension

TABLE 7
Comparison of Value Orientations of Freshmen and Seniors, Relational Dimension

Score	First Year (N = 100)			Fourth Year (N = 100)		
	IN (1)	Lin (2)	Co (3)	IN (4)	Lin (5)	Co (6)
30	—	—	—	—	—	—
29	—	—	—	2		
28	1			3		
27	1			9		
26	4		2	11		1
25	14		6	11	1	5
24	11		6	9		7
23	12		12	15		17
22	13	7	13	9	1	10
21	10	10	14	9	5	20
20	12	8	15	8	6	19
19	8	12	11	4	7	11
18	6	16	9	3	12	5
17	4	16	9	3	12	3
16	2	13	2	1	12	1
15	1	7	—	2	20	1
14	1	4	1	—	6	—
13	—	5	—	—	10	—
12	—	2	—	—	9	
11	—	—	—	1	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
Median	21.97	17.69	20.72	23.17	15.96	21.0
SD	2.85	2.51	2.53	3.36	2.71	2.15
SE _{mdn}	.36	.32	.32	.43	.34	.27
Diff.		+1.73		+1.90		+2.28
SE _{diff.}		.86		.56		.42
CR		2.0		3.4		.6(ns)

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 at the 5 per cent level.

Activity dimension

TABLE 8
Comparison of Value Orientations of Freshmen and Seniors, Activity Orientation

Score	Freshmen (N = 100)			Seniors (N = 100)		
	Do (1)	Bb (2)	Be (3)	Do (4)	Bb (5)	Be (6)
30						
29		2			1	
28		2			4	
27		6			6	
26	1	10				1
25		18	2	2	12	1
24	4	13	—	5	13	—
23	10	16	1	6	19	—
22	6	14	—	10	12	3
21	10	4	6	14	9	1
20	20	5	9	19	3	8
19	9	4	12	17	5	8
18	16	2	12	12	3	10
17	11	2	22	7	—	15
16	7	0	11	5	1	20
15	0	2	16	2	—	17
14	4	—	6	1	—	11
13	2	—	1	—	—	4
12	—	—	1	—	—	1
11	—	—	1	—	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
Median	19.55	23.58	17.14	19.82	22.40	16.35
SD	2.66	2.78	2.45	2.30	2.58	2.50
SE _{mdn}	.34	.35	.31	.29	.33	.32
Diff.		+1.8	+79	+27		
SE _{diff.}		.48	.45	.44		
CR		.37(ns)	1.7(ns)	.60(ns)		

Note: A CR of at least 1.96 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 5 per cent level; 2.58 at the 1 per cent level.

The data confirmed the Research Hypothesis that each group would show the same trend of their value orientations -- mastery-over-nature, harmony with nature, and subjugation to nature in that order. However, it appears that the seniors are more mastery-over-nature oriented than the freshmen, the difference of +.90 being significant at the 5 per cent level. It was found that neither of the two groups is more harmony with nature nor subjugation by nature oriented than the other. The small differences are probably due to sampling errors.

As in the case of the Man-Nature dimension, the two groups show the same trend of preferences for the three variations of the Time Dimension -- present, future, and past in that order. Neither of the two groups is more future oriented than the other, the median difference being insignificant at the 5 per cent level. The freshmen are, however, more past oriented than the seniors. The difference of 1.03 score points is significant at the 5 per cent level, but not at the 1 per cent level. On the other hand, the seniors are more present oriented than the freshmen. The difference of 1.32 is significant at the 1 per cent level.

The same general trend of the value orientations has been found for both the freshmen and the seniors -- individualism, collateral-ity, and lineality in that order. The seniors appeared to be more individualism oriented than the freshmen, but the freshmen were more lineality oriented than the seniors. In both cases the median differences are significant at the 1 per cent and 5 per cent levels respectively.

The data confirmed the research hypothesis in that the general trend of orientations of both group is the same -- "being-in-becoming, doing, and being," in that order. There appears to be no differences between the two groups in so far as the three variations are concerned. The respective median differences are all insignificant.

It appears from the above table that although the average development score of the seniors is higher by .81, this difference is not significant. The null hypothesis has thus been accepted and that the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Both groups are, statistically speaking, equally oriented. Using the criterion adopted (Table 9), we can say that the seniors fall within the "high" total development category,

whereas the freshmen come within the "medium" total development category, just a fraction of a decimal below the high category.

The data confirmed the basic research hypothesis, that both groups have the same trend in their attitudes towards the three postulated variations of the Man-Nature dimension— mastery over nature, harmony with nature, and subjugation by nature in that order.

The table shows that (a) the teachers are definitely more mastery over nature oriented than the students, the median difference of 1.70 being significant at the 1 per cent level (See Columns (1) and (4)); (b) the students are generally more harmony with nature oriented than the teachers, the difference of .43 score points being significant at the 5 per cent level (See Columns 2 and 5); and (c) not surprising at

TABLE 9

Comparison of Average Development Score of First and Fourth Year Students

Dimensions	First Year (N= 100)		Fourth Year (N= 100)	
	Median	SE _{mdn}	Median	SE _{mdn}
Mastery over Nature	24.84	.32	25.74	.32
Future	20.81	.32	20.68	.30
Individualism	21.97	.36	23.17	.43
Doing (Achievement)	19.55	.34	19.82	.29
Total	87.17		89.41	
Average	21.79	.335	22.60	.335
Difference			+ .81	
CR			1.7	

Note: A CR of at least 1.96 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 5 per cent level; 2.58 at the 1 per cent level.

TABLE 10

Comparison of Value Orientations of Faculty
and Students— Man-Nature Dimension

Score	Faculty (N= 165)			Students (N= 693)		
	Ma (1)	Ma (2)	Su (3)	Ma (4)	Ha (5)	Su (6)
30	. 5	—	—	1	—	—
29	30	—	1—	29	—	—
28	36	—	—	74	—	—
27	40	—	—	95	1	—
26	20	—	—	111	1	2
25	11	1	1	103	4	—
24	12	2	—	115	10	2
23	3	6	—	66	28	4
22	2	23	—	39	78	1
21	3	45	1	23	126	9
20	—	41	2	18	145	10
19	—	27	1	8	138	19
18	—	13	3	1	92	28
17	—	5	3	2	38	53
16	1	2	2	3	21	71
15	—	—	11	4	7	84
14	—	—	21	1	7	112
13	1	—	36	—	1	103
12	1	—	35	—	—	110
11	—	—	42	—	—	70
10	—	—	6	—	—	15
Median	26.85	20.37	12.50	25.15	20.80	13.94
SD	2.63	1.54	2.60	2.52	1.91	2.63
SE _{mdn}	.305	.16	.26	.12	.10	.13
Diff.	+1.70				.43	+1.44
SE _{diff.}	.327				.18	.29
CR	5.2				2.4	5.0

Note: A CR of at least 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at 1 per cent level; 1.96 to be significant at 5 per cent level.

TABLE 11
Comparison of Value Orientations of Faculty and
Students, Time Dimension

Score	Faculty (N = 165)			Students (N = 693)		
	Future	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past
30	—	—	—	—	—	—
29	1	—	—	—	—	—
28	—	1	—	1	7	1
27	1	3	—	1	13	—
26	1	9	1	19	19	1
25	1	10	1	28	59	2
24	10	15	—	37	91	3
23	4	21	1	69	98	6
22	18	29	—	98	124	12
21	23	24	4	97	113	29
20	31	22	2	114	73	47
19	28	8	6	81	49	65
18	21	8	19	56	33	98
17	9	1	24	31	7	118
16	8	8	34	16	2	106
15	5	2	25	5	4	106
14	2	1	15	1	1	67
13	2	—	16	—	—	24
12	—	—	4	1	—	6
11	—	—	2	—	—	1
10	—	—	1	—	—	1
Median	19.74	21.70	16.07	20.93	22.02	16.80
SD	2.58	2.94	2.35	2.42	2.33	2.42
SE _{mdn}	.25	.29	.23	.12	.11	.12
Diff.				+1.19	+32	+73
SE _{diff.}				.27	.31	.26
CR				4.4	1.03	2.8

Note: A CR of 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 to be significant at the 5 per cent level.

Relational dimension

TABLE 12

Comparison of Value Orientations of Faculty and Students, Relational Dimension

Score	Faculty (N = 165)			Students (N = 693)		
	In (1)	Lin (2)	Co (3)	In (4)	Lin (5)	Co (6)
30	—	—	—	—	—	—
29	—	—	—	4	—	—
28	3	—	—	15	—	1
27	25	—	—	35	3	5
26	23	—	1	56	1	16
25	23	—	3	78	2	24
24	32	1	5	70	4	55
23	29	1	16	87	10	78
22	10	2	26	97	24	96
21	7	—	38	71	29	125
20	4	6	36	54	38	119
19	1	5	16	32	70	78
18	4	11	10	30	91	50
17	2	18	10	31	104	29
16	1	28	3	10	89	11
15	—	30	—	13	99	3
14	1	26	1	5	58	2
13	—	24	—	2	47	—
12	—	10	—	1	23	—
11	—	1	—	2	1	—
10	—	1	—			1
Median	24.27	15.15	20.67	22.49	16.79	20.93
SD	2.49	2.36	1.85	3.16	2.74	2.38
SE _{mdn}	.25	.22	.18	.15	.13	.12
Diff.	+1.78				+1.64	+2.6
SE _{diff.}	.29				.25	.22
CR	6.0				6.5	1.2

Note: A CR of at least 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 to be significant at the 5 per cent level.

all is the observation that the students are definitely more subjugation to nature oriented than the teachers (See Columns 3 and 6).

The obtained critical ratios (CR) say that if groups of 165 faculty members and 693 students were chosen at random and asked to answer the same questionnaire, the chances are more than 95 out of a hundred that the same trend of differences would be obtained; the teachers would be more mastery-over-nature oriented, that the students would be more harmony with nature oriented, and more subjugation by nature oriented than the teachers.

The table shows that both teachers and students have the same preference to the three postulated variations of the Time dimension – present, future, and past in that order. In this respect, the data confirmed the research hypothesis.

On the basis of the scores, both groups appear to be equally present oriented. It is to be noted that the median difference of $+0.32$ in favor of the students is not significant. The CR of 1.08 says that we get a random sample of the same number of students and teachers and ask

the group to answer the questionnaire, there is no assurance that there will be a difference in favor of the students.

The table also reveals that the students as a group are more future oriented than the teachers, as shown by the fact that the difference of 1.19 score points in favor of the students is significant at the 1 per cent level. What this says is that if another sample of the same number were asked to answer the questionnaire, the chances are 99 out of a hundred that there will be some difference in favor of the students. This is why one says the difference is significant at the one per cent level.

Similarly, the students appear to be more past oriented than the teachers. The median difference of $.73$ in their favor is significant at the 1 per cent level.

Table 12, above, shows that the teachers are more individualism oriented than the students, the difference of 1.78 score points, with a critical ratio of 6.0, indicates that this difference is significant at the 1 per cent level.

On the other hand, it appears from the table that the students are more lineality oriented than the

Activity dimension

TABLE 13
Comparison of Value Orientations of Faculty and
Students, Activity Dimension

Score	Faculty (N = 165)			Students (N = 693)		
	Do (1)	Bb (2)	Be (3)	Do (4)	Bb (5)	Be (6)
30	—	—	—	—	—	—
29	—	2	—	—	13	—
28	—	12	—	—	19	—
27	1	21	—	—	71	1
26	1	25	—	2	94	—
25	2	20	1	10	97	4
24	3	29	—	28	103	4
23	8	17	—	38	113	4
22	15	18	4	56	68	16
21	20	8	3	74	50	25
20	23	8	8	107	25	46
19	28	4	11	110	15	68
18	32	—	20	93	10	89
17	16	—	20	76	9	108
16	9	1	23	53	3	109
15	4	—	32	24	1	103
14	3	—	30	12	1	56
13	—	—	5	8	—	41
12	—	—	5	2	—	15
11	—	—	1	—	—	3
10	—	—	—	—	1	1
Median	19.16	24.40	18.88	19.22	23.99	16.68
SD	2.38	2.53	2.32	2.57	2.64	2.65
SE _{mdn}	.33	.24	.22	.13	.13	.13
Diff.		+41		+06		+80
SE _{diff.}		.27		.35		.25
CR		1.5		.17		3.2

Note: A CR of at least 2.58 is necessary for the difference to be significant at the 1 per cent level; 1.96 to be significant at the 5 per cent level.

teachers. The difference of 1.64 in favor of the students is significant at the 1 per cent level.

The table shows that both groups are equally collaterality oriented. The difference of +.26 in favor of the students is not significant.

As in the case of the three previous orientations, the data confirm the research hypothesis, that both groups would have the same trend of preferences in the three postulated variations of each value dimension. The table also reveals that the two groups did not differ in their preferences in the achievement and the being-in-becoming variations, al-

though the students seem to be more being oriented than the teachers. The difference of .80 in favor of the students is significant at the 1 per cent level.

Comparison of Average Development Scores. It has been postulated that of each of the three variations of the four dimensions, there is one which is characteristic of developed countries, and are indicative of development orientation.

These are (1) individualism, (2) achievement (doing) (3) future, and mastery-over-nature. The data were analyzed to compare the development orientation of the teachers

TABLE 14
Comparison of Development Orientation of Faculty and Students

Variations	Faculty		Students	
	Median	SE _{mdn}	Median	SE _{mdn}
1. Mastery Over Nature	26.85	.305	25.15	.12
2. Future	19.74	.290	20.93	.11
3. Individualism	24.27	.250	22.49	.15
4. Achievement	19.16	.330	19.22	.13
Average	22.480	.294	22.197	.127
Difference	+ .283			
CR	.9			

and the students. The research hypothesis was that the teachers were more development oriented than the students. The respective group medians and the standard error of the median were averaged for purposes of analysis. The findings are reported in Table 14.

The data did not confirm the research hypothesis. There is no evidence to show that the teachers are more development oriented than the students. The difference of .283 score points in favor of the teachers is too small, which may be due to sampling errors.

The median total development score of the teachers is around 90, and that of the students is 89. Considering the fact that the range of the "high total development score" is 88–103, one can assume that the faculty and the students are "highly development oriented.*"

Summary and Implications of Findings.

It has been shown that the students at Central Philippine University, like their teachers, would rather modify and/or control their environment, rather than be in harmony with it or a slave to it. Like their teachers, they tend to be more concerned about problems that have to

do with the present, rather than those that have to do with the future or with the past, believing, possibly, that the future is vague and unpredictable, that the past is "history"—as it were—and has little or nothing to do with meeting the problems of the work-a-day world. They tend to be individual, rather than group oriented. They see the individual in society as one who should be responsible to himself, to regard their autonomy as a precious facet of their life-style. If authority has to be a part and parcel of social life, it must be that of the group, not that coming from age, or rank, or position. They tend, finally, to be motivated in their activities to become someone worthy or respected by others. The goal for each activity is, more often than not, self-oriented, for self-actualization, not to say, survival. Secondly, they also tend to find satisfaction in the activity, the process, not necessarily in the ultimate purpose of the activity.

What is the implication of the fact that, basically, the students and their teachers have the same value orientations in the four dimensions?

Values, we are told, exert a great force in making rational or on-the-spot decisions. Since this is so, we

can assume that ordinarily, both student and teacher would have about the same attitude towards a given issue. There is no problem of "generation gap." Suppose, however, a teacher is "past oriented" and keeps harping about the "good old days" and refuses to "learn" from the "new dimensions of cultural change." If the students are present and/or future oriented then there would be an endless conflict of perspectives, which widens the generation gap.

As we are trying to re-formulate our objectives in the light of government expectations and the New Society and in the midst of a world energy crisis and population explosion, what shall we, for one thing, do? Shall we teach students to exploit Nature for the sake of survival in the present, or shall we teach students to live in harmony with nature for the sake of a philosophy of hope? Shall we idealize or idolize group living over and above self-centeredness and individualism? These are basic issues that cannot be decided by fiat. Whatever the decisions, somehow they have to be reflected in the basic goals we are trying to achieve.

The data also revealed that the teachers as a group are not more

development oriented than the students. It is fortunate that this is definitely so. For if the students were more development oriented than the teachers, they may lose — in a manner of speaking — admiration for them. In this context, we pose a rhetorical question: If a teacher is subjugation to nature, past, lineality, and being oriented and his students are mastery-over-nature, future, individualism and activity oriented — that is, in complete contrast with the teacher — what will happen during the days and weeks and months that the teacher and the students come in contact with each other?

For a final word: We have mentioned that the literature on social change suggests that mastery, achievement, individual, and future orientations are associated with planning development — social development, education development, and all other forms of development. These orientations, above all, influence our attitudes towards even the least fundamental issues in the classroom. Maybe, teachers should be aware of these, not only for today and tomorrow and the next day, but for all days, so that they will help enhance a development perspective in the context of school business.

Abstracts:

SEÑERIZ, NELLY S. "A Comparative Study of the Relative Effectiveness of the Ward Method and the Conventional Methods of Teaching Music in Grade Two." M.A.Ed. Central Philippine University, 1974.

It was intended in this study to use the Ward method of teaching music to grade two children in Tinaytayan Elementary School. District of Dumarao, Capiz, in order to determine its effectiveness in teaching music as compared with the conventional methods, in terms of pupils' achievement, as revealed by testing.

There were two sets of tests (written and practical) which were prepared by the researcher with the help of three competent music teachers namely, Mrs. Concepcion Pestaño, Mrs. Elora Jordan, and Miss Grace Abellano. The same tests, both written and practical were administered during the initial

and the final stages. Before administering the written test to the subjects, the researcher tried to determine its validity and reliability. The validity of the test was determined by item analysis, and the reliability determined by the Spearman Brown Prophecy Formula was found significant at the .05 level.

The grade two pupils of Tinaytayan Elementary School, seventy-four in number at the start of the school year, were divided into two groups by means of randomization technique. These pupils were put into groups according to the lots that they drew. Those who got "W" were put in the group to be taught by the Ward method (Group A), and

those with "C" were taught by the conventional methods (Group B). Group A was composed of eighteen boys and nineteen girls; Group B comprised seventeen boys and twenty girls. The subjects were equated for age, average grade in grade one, and initial test.

At the end of the school year, there were only fifty-eight pupils who completed the requirements for the experiment. Group A had eleven boys and seventeen girls while Group B had thirteen boys and seventeen girls. The remainders of the two groups were again equated and the findings showed that they were still from the same population and could be considered equivalent as far as average grade in grade one and the result of the pre-test were concerned.

Due to the difficulty of equating control and experimental groups in all variables, the analysis of covariance was further computed to take care of the imperfections in equating the groups.

When the experimental teaching was to be started, the researcher administered the written test and the practical test to the subjects. Since there were two sets of tests the scores of each pupil were transformed into standard scores. The obtained means for the experimental group

and the control group during the initial test were 51.26 and 48.80 respectively. There was a difference of 1.11 in the means and an S.D. difference of 1.29 as revealed by the use of the t-ratio. The critical value of t to be significant at .05 level is 2.00. The difference between the means and the S.D. of the two groups were therefore insignificant.

At the end of the school year, 1972, the final test, both written and practical, was given using the same procedure as that followed during the initial test as explained in chapter IV. In the final test the obtained means for the experimental group and the control group were 54.39 and 45.89 respectively. The mean difference was 5.05 and the S.D. difference was .54 as shown by the computation of the t-ratio. These findings revealed that Group A, the experimental group, showed better achievement than Group B, the control group. The insignificant difference of the standard deviations between the two groups revealed that the method was not associated with or influenced by the variables.

Another statistical measure, the analysis of covariance, was used. In the analysis of variance of X (initial) and Y (final) scores, which were treated separately, the computed

F on X was .21 and the F on Y was 6.58. The variance was insignificant since it did not reach the value significant at the .05 level. The F value on the final (Y) scores was definitely significant since it was greater than 4.00, the tabled value significant at the .05 level of significance.

In the computation of the analysis of covariance the obtained F on Y and X combined was 15.79 which was much greater than the value significant at .05 level. Further statistical procedures were required for the .05 level of significance in order to get the adjusted Y means. The correlation and regression coefficient (b) were then computed and it was found out that the b within was .63. Since b within is the most unbiased of the regression of Y on X, it was then proper to use this for the computation of the adjusted Y means. The adjusted Y means for the experimental group and the control group were 53.62 and 46.66 respectively. The mean difference was 6.96. The final test of the significance of difference between the adjusted Y means revealed that the SED was 1.43 and to be significant at .05 level it must be 2.86 ($2.00 = 1.43$). Therefore the mean difference of 6.96 is significant at .05 level.

CONCLUSION

At the start of the experiment the researcher assumed that the Ward method is as effective as the conventional methods. The experiment sought to answer the question: Which of the two methods, the Ward or the conventional methods, is more effective in the teaching of music in Grade II. The two groups of subjects were successfully equated as shown statistically. The test was proven to be valid and reliable. The final achievement test revealed that the mean difference was significant at .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that the Ward method is more effective in the teaching of music in Grade II.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the above conclusion, the following recommendations are presented.

First, the Ward method should be used in teaching music to Grades I and II pupils and also to other grade levels.

Second, music teachers should attend workshops, seminars, and demonstrations on the Ward method; right now only few of the teachers are familiar with this method.

Third, division and district levels should hold seminars, workshops, and demonstrations on this method in order that all the teachers can avail of the opportunity of knowing the techniques and methods of teaching the Ward way.

Fourth, books and materials in the teaching of the Ward method

should be provided to suit the needs of Grade I and II pupils.

Fifth, universities and colleges training teachers should include the Ward method in their music methods class.

Sixth, further research on music teaching should be conducted. Experiments similar to this may be conducted for other grade levels.

CALZADORA, CIPRIANO AÑONUEVO. "The Relative Effectiveness of Two Methods in Teaching Reading in the Vernacular in Grade One: Analytic-Synthetic and Cartilla Method." M.A.Ed. Central Philippine University, 1974.

The purpose of this experiment was to compare the effectiveness of the Cartilla method and the Analytic-Synthetic method in teaching reading in the vernacular in Grade I and to find out whether there is any difference in the resulting variability of the two groups. Answers to these questions were sought: Which of the two methods is more effective, Cartilla method or the Analytic-Synthetic method? Is there any difference in the resulting variability of the two groups, one taught by the Cartilla method and the other by the Analytic-Synthetic method? Which of the two methods is more effective for the high I.Q. group?

Which of the two methods is better for the low I.Q. group?

The study was conducted in Puro Elementary School, Placer District, Division of Masbate. The subjects involved were Grade I pupils—forty boys and thirty-four girls—divided into two parallel groups based on the following criteria: age, sex, intelligence test, reading readiness, and socio-economic status.

The Otis test was used in obtaining intelligence test scores. The exercises in reading readiness were used to obtain reading readiness scores of the pupils and the economic survey form was used to obtain the socio-economic scores.

These three testing instruments were borrowed from the Central Philippine University Research Center. The means and the standard deviations of scores on these three factors were computed to determine the T-scores of the pupils in each test. The T-scores of the pupils in the intelligence test, reading readiness, and socio-economic were added in order to derive the composite scores. Two boys with the ages of seven or eight and whose composite scores are the same or nearly the same were paired. The same procedure was followed for the girls.

In order to test the equatedness of the two groups in the factors previously mentioned, the difference between the means of composite scores of two groups was tested for significance with the use of the t-ratio. The difference between the standard deviations of the two groups was computed in order to determine whether they were equated in variability. Both findings showed that the obtained difference between two standard deviations was insignificant at the 5 per cent level.

The means and the standard deviations of Group A and Group B in the I.Q., reading readiness, and socio-economic are almost identical,

showing the original pairing of scores to have been quite satisfactory.

The two methods used in this study were the Analytical-Synthetic method and the Cartilla method. Method I, the Analytic-Synthetic method was used in Group A and Method II, the Cartilla method was used in Group B. The daily subject-matter was made comparable as much as possible. The same teacher—the investigator—taught reading in both classes. The procedures as prescribed in the outline of work on both methods were strictly followed.

There were two teacher-made tests given to the pupils within six months of the experiment. The first test was given primarily to familiarize the pupils with printed tests and acquaint them with printed letters, words, phrases, and even long sentences before taking the final test.

The achievement test was given to determine the effect of the two methods. The means and the standard deviations were statistically treated. The mean difference between the two groups was tested for significance with the use of the t-ratio. The difference between the standard deviations of the two

groups was also tested for significance in order to determine the variability of the two groups.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

At the close of the experiment, it was found out that:

1. The difference between the means between Group A and Group B was insignificant at the .05 level

2. The difference between the standard deviations was also insignificant at the 5 per cent level.

3. The difference between the means between Group A and Group B with high scores in the I.Q. test was not significant at the 5 per cent level.

4. The difference between the means between the two groups with the low scores in the I.Q. test was not also significant at the .05 level.

The following conclusions on the basis of the above results yielded by the two methods used in the study are:

1. Neither of the two methods is better than the other for teaching of reading in the vernacular in Grade I and neither of the two methods is

better than the other for teaching of reading to Grade I pupils with high scores in the I.Q. test nor to the Grade I pupils with low scores in the I.Q. test.

2. The difference in variability of the two groups was not affected with the methods used.

Since the results of the investigation revealed that neither of the two methods is more effective than the other, it is recommended that:

1. The Grade I teachers be given the option as to which method to use in the class. The selection of the two methods will depend upon the availability of the needed materials and the cost of labor incurred in preparing them.

2. A replication of the research be done in the central school where the environment and family background of the pupils involved are quite different from those in the barrio.

It would be of some use to education and to Grade I teachers if research be done on this problem: What are the teachers', parents' and pupils' attitudes towards the method used in teaching reading?

FAVILA, PAZ. "The Effect of Homework upon the Achievement of Pupils in Grade Five Arithmetic." M.A.Ed. Central Philippine University, 1974.

The purpose of this study was to find out whether homework has significant effect upon the achievement of the pupils in Grade V arithmetic.

The study was conducted in Puro Elementary School, District of Placer, Division of Masbate, and the subjects involved were Grade V pupils matched on the bases of age, sex, socio-economic status, arithmetic rating of pupils in Grade IV, and an initial test. There were fifty Grade V pupils with eight boys and seventeen girls in each group.

PROCEDURE

In order to have matched groups the raw scores in the above mentioned criteria were recorded. The mean and the standard deviations for the data were computed for the purpose of solving the T-score of each pupil in each test. The T-scores of each pupil in age and socio-economic status were given a weight of one each while the T-scores on the arithmetic rating in

Grade IV and the initial test in arithmetic were given a weight of two for the purpose of matching the two groups. The sum of the T-scores was used as the preliminary step in equating the two groups. The coefficient of correlations between the different variables were computed in order to check whether there was justification for adding the T-scores. Two pupils with the same or nearly the same composite score were paired. The same procedure was done to the girls. The means and the standard deviations of Group A and Group B were computed in order to determine the significance of the difference between the means and the standard deviations.

Two teachers were used in this study. They were more or less equated in their educational qualifications, training experience, sex, and the performance rating for the last three consecutive years. Teacher I, the experimenter, prepared the lesson plan for both groups, but

Teacher 2 was brief always on what to do before the period.

The study lasted for four grading periods. Teacher I taught Group A, with homework and Teacher 2 taught Group B without homework. In the second grading period, they exchanged class but still each used her procedure of teaching arithmetic to her respective class. In the third grading period they taught the same group, that is, Teacher 2 taught arithmetic with homework and Teacher I taught arithmetic without homework, but they exchanged their teaching procedure. In the fourth grading period, Teacher I returned to Group A and Teacher 2 to Group B, but still they used the same procedure of teaching arithmetic as in the third grading period. This plan was followed to minimize adjustments that student had to make and to minimize the effect of teacher as a variable. The same textbooks and materials were used to both groups. The subject matter was made comparable throughout the study. At the end of every grading period, a periodic test was conducted to both groups. The same type and forms of the tests were administered to the two groups. Four tests were given to the pupils till the culmination of

the investigation. Analysis of the four teacher-made tests showed that they were sufficiently reliable. The analysis of co-variance was used for the total test in order to control the possible effect of intelligence which has not been included as one of the criteria for matching the groups because of lack of facilities.

FINDINGS

The results on the four teacher-made tests showed that Group A, with homework got relatively higher means than Group B, with no homework. On the first two periodic tests the obtained t-ratio showed that the mean difference was insignificant at the .05 level. The obtained t-ratio on the first periodic test was 1.64. For the second periodic test, the t-ratio was 1.97. This showed also that the difference was insignificant at the .05 level. The third and fourth periodic tests revealed that the differences between means were significant at the .05 level. The obtained t-ratio of the third periodic test was 3.96. A t-ratio of 2.72 was found on the fourth periodic test. The analysis of co-variance confirmed the result when the t-ratio was used. The obtained difference of 5.65 was higher

than the required difference of 5.51, which is the minimum difference to be significant at the .05 level.

The differences of the SDs on the four tests were constantly insignificant at the .05 level. They showed no effect on the relative variability of the two groups.

From the results of the study, it was revealed that:

(1) Teaching arithmetic in Grade-

(1) Teaching arithmetic in Grade V with homework is better than teaching arithmetic with no homework.

(2) The insignificant differences on the first two periodic tests may be due to the adjustments of the pupils to the modern method of teaching arithmetic.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher suggests the following recommendations:

(1) In teaching arithmetic in any grade in the intermediate, homework should generally be the supplementary activities of the class work.

(2) A replication of the study be done in other elementary schools, where big number of pupils are involved and where family background of the pupils is better and more varied than in the barrio.

(3) It would be useful to education if a study is done on the attitude of classroom teachers, parents and pupils toward the giving of homework.

GAPE, PEDRO S. "The Study of Personnel Management Practices of Full-time, Non-Administrative College Instructors in Member Colleges and Universities of the Association of Christian Schools and Colleges." M.B.A. Central Philippine University, 1974.

This study investigated the personnel management practices of full-time, non-administrative college instructors in twelve member colleges and universities of the Association of Christian Schools and Colleges. The data were gathered mainly through the use of questionnaires

which were sent college or university Presidents/Directors or other authorized administrative officers.

The questionnaire sent is composed of two general parts. Part I asked for general information, such as the total enrolment at the collegiate level and the number of full-

time, non-administrative college instructors. Part II solicited information covering six areas of personnel management practices—recruitment and selection practices, orientation or induction practices, development or in-service programs, salary administration practices, faculty turnover (a facet of personnel retention and dismissal), and faculty benefits and services.

A personal interview was not used because of the wide distances separating the member colleges and universities. To ensure the speedy mailing and returning of the questionnaires and the early response to follow-ups, air mail, special cargo and telecommunication services were used.

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Concerning Personnel Management Practices in Twelve Member Colleges and Universities

The recruitment of personnel for full-time, non-administrative college instructors was mostly based on application letters sent in voluntarily by applicants. Recruitment from a school's own graduates is the second most used procedure. When finally deciding on whom to invite to teach, member colleges and universities again relied heavily on application letters. Recommendations of the college dean, President or Di-

rector, the applicant's scholastic records and previous teaching experience are other frequently used bases for selection. Majority of member colleges and universities usually had their teachers sign yearly contracts. They did not use a common basis of putting college instructors to a regular, full-time status. Individual conferences of teachers with department heads was the most relied orientation program in member colleges and universities. Three other programs—general faculty meetings, the giving of information regarding teaching assignments, and group conferences for new teachers—were also frequently used.

More than one-half of the twelve member colleges and universities provided such faculty development or in-service programs as faculty meetings, conferences and conventions, workshops, professional studies and lectures. Majority of them reported paying their full-time, non-administrative college instructors on 12-months' pay for 10-months' work and 10-months' pay for 10-months' work bases; the former more commonly used in large and city-schools, and the latter among small and town-schools. In small schools, all full-time, non-administrative college instructors, both holding the bachelor's degree and master's degree, were receiving monthly

salaries lower than the Association's median salary; in large ones, the majority of these teachers received monthly salaries within or higher than the Association's median. Only in large and city-schools were full-time, non-administrative college instructors, with doctor's degrees teaching. Member colleges and universities were beset with faculty turnover. Sixty-three new applicants were accepted for full-time, non-administrative college teaching; fifty-one full-time, non-administrative college instructors either left voluntarily or were separated by the school.

Majority of the twelve member colleges and universities provided such faculty benefits as maternity leave, social security, medicare and vacation and/or sick leave. Majority of them also provided such faculty services as bulletin board, faculty lounge, living quarters for teachers, recreational facilities, mail boxes and loan assistance.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following were recommended for member colleges and universities to consider for the improvement of their present practices.

1. Member colleges and universities should review their practices in drawing-up teachers' contract. The

teachers' length of service and status would be worthwhile considered.

2. Member colleges and universities should also consider adding such orientation programs as furnishing of information about community and community problems, to increase teachers' awareness of the community he is working in; and school socials, to bring about a closer understanding and fellowship among teachers.

3. In-service or development programs like teachers' participation in preparing instructional materials, exchange teachings, experimentations, demonstration teachings, intervisitations, and participation in community activities should also be added to the already provided ones.

4. Faculty benefits like retirement and tuition payments for faculty's children should also be given attention to by member colleges. These would help increase the feeling of loyalty and security among teachers.

5. Providing faculty members with a well-stocked professional reading center, entirely separate from the college or university's library, should also be given attention to by member colleges and universities.

Suggestions for further research were:

1. A more intensive study on faculty turnover not only of full-time, non-administrative college instructors but also of full-time, non-administrative high school and elementary teachers.
2. A study on personnel management practices of non-teaching per-

sonnel, and also of full-time, administrative heads in Association's member colleges and universities.

3. A study on faculty ranking, evaluation and merit-rating practices in member colleges and universities of the Association of Christian Schools and Colleges.

DIGNADICE, MILAGROS V. "The Employment of Women in Certain Financial Institutions in the City of Iloilo." M.B.A. Central Philippine University, 1974.

The objective of this research was to study the practices on employment of women in financial institutions in the City of Iloilo. The result of this study would be valuable to the institutions, the women, educators, and the economy as a whole.

Specifically, this research attempted to seek answers to the following questions:

1. What age levels, civil status, academic preparations, and/or experience do financial institutions desire in women they hire?
2. What are the salary rates in different companies, and what benefits do they offer to women?
3. Are there opportunities for

promotion for women employees in the financial institutions?

4. What is their rate of labor turnover?

5. What are their problems in relation to their jobs?

To answer the questions posed, two sets of structured questionnaires were designed to obtain the necessary data. One set was for the women employees, which asked for practices on (1) hiring, (2) salary and benefits, (3) promotion opportunities and (4) problems in relation to their work. A separate schedule was prepared by the researcher for the gathering of data concerning the labor turnover of women.

The other set was for the executive, designed (1) to gather data which could not be furnished by women employees because these were about management functions; (2) to get an evaluation in general of the job performance of women employees; (3) to know the problem of executives in relation to the women employees; and (4) to check on the information given by the women by giving both groups identical questions for example in the matter of benefits granted by the company. In cases of contradictory answers to an identical question, the researcher decided to count as awarded only those benefits about which at least one-half of the total women employees in an individual financial institution agreed in answer with their own executive.

There were thirteen financial institutions employing women and operating for at least three years in the City of Iloilo. These were all included in the study. The institutions were categorized as to (1) size: small, medium, or large on the basis of the number of employees and (2) type of ownership: private, and public and quasi-public. Each institution was represented by one ranking executive, all of whom returned their filled-in copies of their questionnaire.

In these financial institutions there were 120 permanent women employees who served in different categories of management. They were all included in the study; however, only 103 or 86 per cent, responded.

The data obtained were tabulated, treated statistically, presented in various tables, analyzed, and interpreted to determine the practices of financial institutions as regards the employment of women.

This study gathered information regarding the practices in the employment of women in financial institutions in the City of Iloilo. Based on the findings of the study, the conclusions reached were presented in two sections: (1) those based on the analysis of the responses of the women personnel, and (2) those based on the analysis of the responses of the executives.

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions reached, based on the analysis of the responses of the women personnel.

1. In all categories of financial institutions in the City of Iloilo; the women comprised about a fourth of its total labor force. The financial institutions in Iloilo City tended to employ more males.

2. In all categories of financial

institutions, a great majority of the women, specifically 88.4 per cent, were performing nonsupervisory work. In comparison, only 11.6 per cent were in the supervisory level.

3. Financial institutions tended to hire women in their early twenties (20–24) age level; these usually are single, holders of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Commerce, and with work experience. Only the medium, private institution tended not to consider experience strongly in the hiring of women.

4. Financial institutions tended to pay good salaries. The private institutions tended to pay significantly higher salaries than the public and quasi-public ones. However, the median salary of the women in the supervisory rank did not differ significantly from the median salary of those in the nonsupervisory category.

As to benefits, the financial institutions tended to award several expensive benefits. The large, public ones and the medium private institutions tended to award more, and costly, benefits to their women personnel. The women in the nonsupervisory ranks seemed to enjoy the same type and number of benefits as those in supervisory ranks.

5. Promotions were not wanting

in all categories of financial institutions. The number of promotions were not related to tenure, but promotion and seniority were found to be highly associated.

6. Women personnel in financial institutions on the average tended to have low labor turnover rate. Large (private and public) institutions tended to have the lowest labor turnover rates.

7. The women in financial institutions tended to have no problems in relation to their work as revealed in the trend of their responses to the sixteen questions asked in the questionnaire. The women personnel in financial institutions in Iloilo City seemed to be satisfied with their jobs, felt duly recognized or credited for work done, had meaningful jobs, had opportunities for advancement, enjoyed relatively good working conditions, enjoyed congenial relationship, and had confidence in the competence of their leaders.

In summary, one may conclude that the organizational climate of financial institutions was favorable and satisfactory.

Conclusions reached based on the analysis of the responses of the executives of financial institutions:

1. Recruitment Practices. All financial institutions tended to rely

on unsolicited letters of application as a major source of office help. Recommendations of present employees, of relatives and/or friends, and of schools and colleges are the second important sources of office personnel for the small institutions.

2. Selection Practices. Financial institutions tended to consider age, personality, interview, and tests basic for hiring. Civil status, experience, and recommendation are other important bases for selection.

On the whole financial institutions tended to hire women in their early twenties who are single, with "personality," and with adequate academic training.

3. Employment Status. Financial institutions adopted the six-month probationary period. A new appointee acquired permanent employment status and was entitled to enjoy the benefits granted by the institutions only after six months of good performance.

4. Criteria of Promotion. Financial institutions tended to adopt efficiency and seniority as principal criteria for determining promotions.

5. Evaluation of Job Performance. Financial institutions rated the performance of their women employees as good or even better.

6. Problems Relating to Women

Employees. The responses of the executives to the twenty questions asked in the questionnaire, asking about causes of problems, tended to reveal that the women were interested in their jobs; usually followed orders; were usually conscientious in their work, satisfactory in their attendance; usually made sure that their equipment was in good condition; usually had good working knowledge of their job; usually maintained neat and clean working space; were usually cooperative, truthful, honest, and loyal; had high personal standards; were usually dependable and reliable; usually met schedules; could usually get along well with co-employees and other people; usually showed good judgment and emotional stability.

Similarly, on the other questions, the executives responded favorably. The executives indicated that their women employees were not complaining about the treatment accorded to them, did not usually pass the buck to other employees, and did not usually go on maternity leaves when married.

It was only in two items that the women were considered problems: They usually made personal telephone calls, and they usually found time to gossip.

In summary, financial institutions seemed to be ideal places for women to seek employment. The difficulty is in getting in; but once they are in, women found the institutions ideal places to work.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the observations and conclusions, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. For the school guidance service. It is suggested that the school guidance service advise girls who wish to work in financial institutions that they should obtain a college degree preferably Bachelor of Science in Commerce; try to get in when they are in their early twenties and are still single. Furthermore, the girls should take up personality development courses. If no such courses are offered, personality development should be integrated in their college training, as well as the ability to "sell" their services in application letters and in interviews.

2. For financial institutions. Financial institutions should increase the participation of women in their work force.

Recommendation for further studies. The following are suggested for further research:

1. A study of the employment of women to include other labor markets in the City of Iloilo.

2. A comparative study of the salaries and benefits of the supervisory and nonsupervisory women employees in the financial institutions and those of women in other labor markets.

3. A comparative study of the rates and causes of labor turnover of men and women employees in financial institutions and those of employees in other labor markets.

4. A larger study of the employment of women in financial institutions, to include the whole Western Visayas.

The Bisayas of Borneo and the Philippines: A New Look at the Maragtas

*Demy P. Sonza**

In Borneo and in the Philippines today there are people who are known as Bisayas (Bisayans). Did the Bisayas of the Philippines originate from the Bisayas of Borneo? This question has been the subject of inquiry among historians and anthropologists for many years. So far, no definite answer has been arrived at.

In Borneo the Bisayas live in Sabah, Brunei, and Sarawak. They inhabit the areas along the Klias, Padas, Lawas, and Limbang rivers in the periphery of Brunei Bay. In 1951, there were 7,866 Bisayans in Sabah, 35 in Brunei, and 1,125 in Sarawak or a total of 9,826.¹ This figure seems small, but according to Brunei traditions, these Bisayans are only a pagan relic of a once much

larger population which covered Brunei and which became Malay in the familiar process of cultural assimilation.²

In the Philippines on the other hand, it is estimated that there are more than 10,000,000 Bisayans as of 1970. Moreover, the term Bisaya (Visaya) as applied in the Philippines, does not only refer to people but also to geography and language. Geographically, the Bisayas cover the islands of Tablas, Romblon, Siquijor, Panay, Guimaras, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, Bantayan, Camotes, Masbate, Leyte, Biliran, Samar, and numerous smaller islands in the central Philippines. Linguistically, the word Bisaya refers to the language of the people in the region. It should be noted, however,

* The author is the Executive Secretary of the Iloilo Provincial Historical Committee; President, Iloilo Chapter, Philippine Historical Association, 1973-74; and the Executive Assistant to the Governor, Province of Iloilo.

¹ John Carroll, "The Word Bisaya in the Philippines and Borneo," *Sarawak Museum Journal*, IX (July-December 1960), p. 532.

² Tom Harrison, "Bisaya: Borneo-Philippine Impacts of Islam," *Sarawak Museum Journal*, VII (June 1956), p. 43.

that Bisaya comprises several closely related dialects, principally Aklanon, Kiniray-a, Hiligaynon (Ilongo), Sugbuhanon (Cebuano), and Waray-Waray.

What is the origin of the word *Bisaya*? Many theories have been advanced in this regard. In 1926 Dr. H. Otley Beyer suggested that the name came from the empire of Sri Vijaya.³ In 1954 Dr. E. D. Hester of the University of Chicago Philippine Studies Program commented that etymologically the name may be related to Sri Vijaya,⁴ and in 1956 Tom Harrison of the Sarawak Museum wrote, "I might suggest a link to the Buddhistic empire of Sri Vijaya which certainly reached West Borneo in the 12th century."⁵

In 1960, however, Eugene Verstraelen, professor of linguistics at the University of San Carlos, Cebu City, raised a doubt because, according to him, linguistically the deriva-

tion of Vijaya would not be Bisaya but Bidaya or Biraya.⁶ Besides, the "rhyming game" of matching sounds is not reliable.

Juan Francisco, in an extensively researched paper, points out that the Sanskrit "J" in its development in the Western branch of the Malayo-Polonesian languages never shows an "s" or "sh" form.⁷ He, however, suggests that Visaya may have derived from Sanskrit Visaya meaning "sphere, country, territory, dominion, kingdom." Yet he dismisses the earlier theory of the Philippine Bisayas having been a territory of the Sri Vijayan Empire for it is not in the list of dependencies — Sanskrit or Chinese — of the empire.⁸

John Carroll, also in 1960, suggested that perhaps the origin of the name Bisaya is not an empire of Sri Vijaya, which perhaps never existed, but a culture hero named Sri Vijaya.⁹

³Cited by Elizabeth Hassel, "The Sri Vijayan and Majapahit Empires and the Theory of Their Political Association with the Philippine Islands," *Philippine Social Sciences and Humanities Review*, XVIII (March 1953), p. 35.

⁴E.D. Hester, *The Robertson Text and Translation of the Povedano Manuscript of 1572* (Chicago: Chicago University, 1954), p. 5.

⁵Harrison, *op. cit.*, p. 46 fn.

⁶Eugene Verstraelen, "An Essay Towards a Historical Description of Tagalog and Cebuano Bisaya," *Philippine Studies*, VIII, No. 3 (July 1960), p. 514 fn.

⁷Juan R. Francisco, "Sri Vijaya and the Philippines: A Review," *Philippine Social Sciences and Humanities Review*, XXVI (March 1961), p. 101.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 101-102.

⁹Carroll, *op. cit.*, p. 503.

Fray Alberto Santamaria suggested in 1960 that the word *visaya* is not Filipino or Malayan but is derived from Sanskrit Vijaya meaning "victory" or "victorious."¹⁰

From the Borneo Bisayans has come another theory. There is a Borneo Bisayan legend, recorded in 1950 by Derek Headly, which says that the Sultan of Brunei, upon seeing the beautiful land of the Bisaya, exclaimed, "Bisai-yah!" meaning "How beautiful!"¹¹

The foregoing are all theories and speculations. Perhaps we will never know the origin of the name Bisaya. Be that as it may, it would be too much if we take it as a mere coincidence that two peoples, separated by a thousand miles of water, would be carrying the same name. There must be a connection between them.

This is what we would like to find out in this paper.

The oldest reference to Bornean origin of the Bisayan people of the Philippines is found in the *Maragtas*, a traditional account of the

An English translation of the Santaren texts of the *Maragtas* was published in limited edition by the University of Chicago in 1954. These texts, however, show that Fr. Santaren himself composed the two versions, basing them on several manuscripts in his possessions.¹³

Another version of the *Maragtas* is that of Pedro Monteclaro, first published in 1907,¹⁴ which, like the Santaren texts, is not also a transcription nor a translation, but a composition based on old writings. The many Spanish words found in both the Santaren and Monteclaro versions show that the two authors have made interpolations on the account and hence, coming of the Bornean migrants to the Philippines. The first texts of this account are said to have been written by Fr. Tomas Santaren in Janiuay, Iloilo, in 1858 who said that he copied them from old manuscripts written in romanized Ilongo. These texts were first published in 1902.¹²

¹⁰ Alberto Santamaria, "Visaya, 'El Victorioso,'" *Unitas*, Año 33, p. 345. Cited by Francisco, *op. cit.*, p. 93.

¹¹ Derek Headly, "Some Bisaya Folk-Lore," *Sarawak Museum Journal*, V (September 1950), quoted by Carroll, *op. cit.*, p. 504.

¹² As an appendix to Angel Perez, *Igorrotes: Estudio Geografico y Itnografico sobre Algunos Distritos del Norte de Luzon* (Manila, 1902).

¹³ Carroll, *op. cit.*, p. 505.

¹⁴ In the Hiligaynon newspaper, *Kadampig sang Banwa*, Iloilo, 1907.

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their texts are probably of 19th century vintage.¹⁵

It is regrettable that no copies of the earlier accounts could be found. This being so, the *Maragtas* does not carry the weight of early historical documents like the Povedano Manuscripts¹⁶ and the Pavon Manuscripts.¹⁷ The *Maragtas* remains a legend, a tradition, at best a folk-history.

We have to resort to other historically accepted sources, if there are any, to prove that the Bisayas of the Philippines are related to the Bisayas of Borneo.

When the Spaniards came to the Philippines in 1521, they did not hear of the Bisayas although they reached the region and recorded many names like Zugbu, Mactan, Bohol, Cagayan, and even Borney which they passed on their way to the Mollucas. The expeditions that followed Magellan also failed to note the name Bisaya as applied to

the islands of the Central Philippines, although they learned of a port of Bisaya somewhere in Eastern Mindanao. And after Legaspi had established the first permanent Spanish settlement in Cebu in 1565, he gave the name "Pintados" to the people of the Bisayan islands because the natives had tattoos on their bodies.¹⁸

It was not until Legaspi had transferred his headquarters to Panay in 1569 that he learned of the existence of the Bisayas.

These facts tend to show that at the time of the Spanish arrival the term Bisaya was only applied to the people and language of Panay and Negros. Povedano, in 1572, titled his writings as "La Isla de Negros y las Costumbres de Visayos y Negritos."

Yet it is intriguing to note that in the same work and in his manuscript of 1578, Povedano states that the people of Negros were the

¹⁵ Besides the Monteclaro and Santaren texts, there are still other unpublished texts of the *Maragtas*. Two of these are the municipal histories of Miagao and Cabatuan, Iloilo that were submitted to the National Library in compliance with an executive order of the Governor-General in 1911.

¹⁶ Written by Diego Lope Povedano in Negros, 1572 and 1578. English translation by James Robertson, published by the University of Chicago, 1957.

¹⁷ Written by Jose Ma. Pavon in Negros, 1838-1839. English translation by James Robertson, published by the University of Chicago, 1954.

¹⁸ Miguel de Loarca in his *Relacion de las Filipinas, 1580*, in Emma Blair and James Robertson, *The Philippine Islands: 1543-1898* (Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Publishing Co., 1903-1909), Vol. V, pp. 115-117, says, "The men tatto their bodies with very beautiful figures, using therefore small pienes of iron dipped in ink."

Haguecina, who lived along the coast; the Haraya who lived on the lowlands; and the Igneine who lived in the uplands.¹⁹ The same observation was made by Loarca in Panay in 1580, but added that the Haguecinas were also called Yliguenes.²⁰ Which I think are the present-day Hiligaynon.²¹ Loarca also noted that the Yliguenes believed that the soul of the dead went with the god Siburenen to a very high mountain in Borney.²²

In 1570, when Legaspi invaded Manila from Panay, an anonymous chronicler wrote the first reference to Visayas by the Spaniards:²³

Having prepared the things necessary for the said voyage, the field marshal (Martin de Goiti) with the said captain (Juan de Salcedo) in two of our small ships, with three pieces of heavy artillery with fourteen or fifteen ships of the Pintado Indians, our friends, who in their language are called *Vesey*s, left the Panay River in the year (15) 70 above-mentioned, on the day of the Holy Cross, the third of May.

It is my opinion, therefore, that the name Bisaya first applied only

to the people of Panay and Negros. Perhaps it was only the Hiligaynon (Yliguenes) who carried the name or maybe the Hiligaynon, Haraya, and Igneine collectively referred to themselves as Bisayas. The name must have been applied to the rest of the islands in Central Philippines only later by the Spaniards.

That the Bisaya of Panay and Negros would give their name to the people of the other islands may be deduced from the fact that Oton and later Arevalo and Iloilo became the center of Spanish activities in the south for many years.

Another theory may also be presented in this respect and it is that people from Panay migrated to the neighboring islands just as the *Maragtas* says. Official census figures during the Spanish period show that Panay, particularly Iloilo, was the most densely populated place in the Philippines. As late as 1857, the census figures showed Iloilo as the biggest province in population, having more people than the then

¹⁹ Rebecca P. Ignacio (tr.), *The Povedano Manuscript of 1578* (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1954), p. 9.

²⁰ Loarca, *op. cit.*, p. 121. Loarca also applied the term Yliguenes to coast-dwelling Cebuanos and Boholanos.

²¹ In Iloilo today, if a man speaks Hiligaynon the non-Hiligaynon-speaking Ilongos refer to him as Haguecina.

²² Loarca, *loc. cit.*

²³ In Blair and Robertson, *op. cit.*, Vol. III, p. 141.

province of Manila.²⁴ The population of Iloilo compared with the other Bisayan provinces as follows:

Iloilo	— 527,570
Cebu	— 267,540
Negros(whole island)	— 113,379
Bohol	— 175,686
Samar	— 117,686
Leyte	— 134,493
Antique	— 77,639
Capiz	— 143,713
Romblon	— 17,068
Masbate	— 10,992

The island of Panay (Iloilo, Capiz, Antique) had almost half of the inhabitants of the whole region.

CONTEMPORANEOUS to the time Legaspi discovered the existence of the Bisayas in Panay, the Europeans learned of the existence of the Bisayas in Borneo. A map in Florence, Italy, dated 1563, shows the name Bisaya for the territory immediately north of Brunei Bay.²⁵ A Dutch historian, Jan Huygen van Linschoten, included in his book published in 1595 a map of the

East Indies which also shows the name Bacaija in the same place in Borneo.²⁶

In 1578 and 1579, only a few years after the Spanish conquest of Manila, the third governor-general of the Philippines, Francisco de Sande, organized two expeditions to conquer Brunei. During his first expedition, a Spaniard and two Filipinos were captured by Sultan Lijar (Saif-ul-Rejal)²⁷ of Brunei. In his letter to Sultan Lijar demanding release of the captives, Sande referred to them as "a Christian Spaniard named Diego Felipe and two Visayans, natives of Cubu (Cebu), Christians. . ."²⁸ By 1572, therefore, the Spaniards had already started calling Cebuanos as Visayans.

The invasion of Sande of Brunei is very relevant to our study because one of the reports, dated March 22, 1579, states that Sultan Lijar summoned "all his Bisayan and Moro allies to build a fort. . ."²⁹

²⁴ *Gula de Forereros*, 1858, cited in John Bowring, *A Visit to the Philippine Islands*, new ed. (Manila: Filipiniana Book Build, 1963) p. 67.

²⁵ Noted by Robert Nicholl, *The Sarawak Gazette*, April 30, 1960.

²⁶ Reproduced in C.A. Gibson-Hill, "Singapore Old Strait and New Harbor, *Memoirs of the Raffles Museum*, No. 3 (December 1956), p. 10.

²⁷ Sultan Saif-ul-Rejal, the seventh sultan of Brunei. Cf. F. Delor Angeles, "Brunei and the Moro Wars," *Brunei Museum Journal*, I (1969), p. 123.

²⁸ Blair and Robertson, *op. cit.*, Vol. 4, p. 152.

²⁹ Affidavit of Si Magat, recorded by Juan Arce, Blair and Robertson, *op. cit.*, Vol. 4, p. 198.

and Sande received an intelligence report that Sultan Lijar was hiding in "the river of Bisayans in the province of Melano, near to Saragua."³⁰

These statements reveal that at the time of Spanish conquest of the Philippines, the Bisayans of Borneo were living in the province of Melano. This indicates possible affinity between the Bisayans and present-day Melanaos who live along the coast of Sarawak from the mouth of the Rejang River to the mouth of the Baram River. If the Bisayans mentioned in the *Maragtas* accounts were Bisayans, they must have come from the River of Bisayas in the province of Melano near to Saragua.

A statement by R.A. Bewsher who had worked among the Bisayans in the Limbang area in Borneo, may be relevant in this connection. It shows that the Bisayans had migrated from one place to another within Borneo. Bewsher says:³¹

Limbang Bisayans suggest that their own migrations are very recent subsequent to the beginning of the Murut decline in that river, and contemporaneous with the flight of others to Labuan

and the Padas River (North Borneo) under pressure from Baram headhunters upon their homes in the upper Belait and Tutong Rivers.

Here is where I would like to point out some suggested connections between the Philippine Bisayas and the Borneo Bisayas. First, I would like to call attention to the river named Saragua mentioned in the report to Sande and the Sirawagan (Siwaragan) River in Panay where the Borneans of the *Maragtas* were supposed to have landed. It is possible that the Borneans of *Maragtas* named the river in Panay after the river in Borneo. The difference in spelling may just have been due to the Spaniards' known difficulty in spelling words ending in "n" and "ng." For example, they shortened Ilong-Ilong to Iloilo, dropped the "g" from "Ilong" and spelled Hiligaynon as Yliguene.

Second, the *Maragtas* says that Datu Puti and his companions fled Borneo because of the oppressive rule of Sultan Makatunao. Among the Melanaos there is a tradition that says:³²

Over five hundred years ago, before the coming of Islam, the Melanaos were

³⁰ *Ibid.*

³¹ B.A. Bewsher, "Bisayan Accounts of Early Bornean Settlements in the Philippines Recorded by Father Santaren," *Sarawak Museum Journal*, VII (June 1956), p. 48.

³² See R. G. Aikman, "Melanaos" in Tom Harrison, *The Peoples of Sarawak* (Kuching: Government Printing Office, 1959).

all pagans and were ruled by their own chiefs, the most famous of whom was the legendary Tugau, who dwelt in the Retus, a tributary of the Igan. . . Tugau. . . though himself strong enough to challenge the might of Brunei. . . after two decisive victories by the Sultan's forces the Melanaus were beaten and their territory, from the Tutong to the Igan, became a part of the Brunei empire."

It is possible, and this theory was first advanced by Carroll, that before the advent of Islam, a chieftain named Makatunao (Tugau, Megat Tung-ao, Maha Tung-ao) gained power in the area of the Retus and Bintulu Rivers. This Melanau chieftain oppressed the people in "the river of Bisaya" (now known as the Bintulu Melanau) thereby causing a large group headed by Datu Puti, Datu Sumakwel, Datu Paiburong and others, to leave. On their *benidays* they sailed towards the northeast until they reached Panay where they settled. These *Maragtas* people became the Haraya or Kinaray-a speaking inhabitants of Panay.

Datu Puti later returned to Borneo, enlisted the aid of the sultan of Brunei and attacked Makatunao in his stronghold of Odtojan (Tutong?). Makatunao was able to repel this attack. Later, perhaps after ten years when Labaw Donggon and Paibare, the sons of Datu Paiburong of Iloilo, had grown up

to be strong warriors, they led the Brunei forces in a second assault against Makatunao, killed him, sacked his city, and brought the survivors to Panay as slaves.

The victory was resulted in Brunei domination over the Retus and Bintulu Rivers. In subsequent years immigrations from Borneo to Panay continued, the immigrants coming from different Borneo cultural-linguistic groups like the Kalimantanans, Kedayan, Bisayans, Muruts, Dusuns, Tutongs, etc. The later immigrants became the Hiligaynon-speaking Bisayans of the Philippines. The *Maragtas* account says that the Borneans who came to Panay were from different places in Borneo which explains the differences in language.

The later immigrants to Panay and other islands pushed the Kinaray-a-speaking inhabitants towards the interior just as the latter had earlier pushed the proto-Malay (Igneine) to the uplands. By the time the Spaniards came there might still have been migrations going on from Borneo to the Philippines, particularly the Bisayans.

While this is just a theory, it somehow gives support to the *Maragtas*. We should also recall, as mentioned earlier, that Loarca noticed among the Yliguenes (Hiligay-

nons) there was still a belief that when they died their soul would go to a high mountain in Borneo. This belief could have been a vestige of their religious beliefs in Borneo.

Bewsher's statement on the Limbang Bisaya migration from the upper Tutong and Belait Rivers is also significant. It shows that the Bisayan migration was from areas to the south and nearer to the Bintulu Melanau which has been suggested as "the river of Bisayas."

Another supporting evidence of the Borneo-Philippine Bisaya connection is language. In 1958, Father Francisco Araneta and Father Miguel Bernad of the Ateneo de Manila University, on invitation of the Sarawak Museum, stayed for a time with the Bisayans in Borneo and made a study of their language. Their study disclosed significant similarities, both in vocabulary and usage, between the Borneo Bisayan and the Philippine Bisayan (Ilongo and Cebuano) as well as Tagalog.³³

It may also be of interest to point out, in this regard, that Tagalog is very similar to Ilongo although a sea divides the Tagalog region from Panay while it is very different from

Pampango although the Tagalogs and the Pampangos live on the same plain in Central Luzon.

The *Maraytas* says that from Panay, Datu Balensusa and Datu Dumangsil settled at the mouth of the River Taal and from them sprang the Tagalog people.³⁴

To cite some examples of vocabulary similarities between the Bisaya (Ilongo) and the Borneo Bisaya, here are the following:

English	Ilongo Bisaya	Borneo Bisaya
Father	Amay	Hamat
Son	Anak	Anak
Husband	Bana	Lakih*
Head	Ulo	Ulu
Eyes	Mata	Mato
Neck	Liog	Liao
Bird	Pispis	Maanok**
Dog	Idu	Asu***
Sea	Lawod	Laut
Island	Pulo	Pulao
Stone	Bato	Battu
Mountain	Bukid	Bukid
I	Ako	Aku
You	Ikaw	Ikkao
That	Ina	Inah
What	Ano	Anh
Walk	Lakat/Panaw	Manao
Kill	Patay	Mamatay
Inom	Inom	Minom

³³ F. Araneta and M. A. Bernad, "Bisayans" of Borneo and the "Tagalogs" and "Visayans" of the Philippines," *Sarawak Museum Journal*, IX (July-December 1960), pp. 542-564.

³⁴ Bewsher, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

* In Ilongo Bisaya, "laki" means paramour or man.

** In Ilongo Bisaya, "manok" is chicken.

*** It is also "aso" in Tagalog.

A look at the map of Borneo will easily reveal that many major place-names, especially in Melanau area, have counterparts among place-names in the Philippine Bisayas. Among these place-names are Sibiu, Linao, Bulu, Bulan, Baloi, Igan, and Dala. Moreover, Bewsher believes that the name "Panay" is Kalimantan.³⁵

Aside from language, there are also many similarities in the tools, utensils, weapons, and other ethnographic materials between the two peoples. In the Sarawak and Brunei museums are displayed many objects of the Bisaya and Bisaya-related tribes of Borneo (Like the Tutongs and Dusuns) that are very much the same as those found in the Bisayas of the Philippines.³⁶

For example, *tadyaw* (jar) in the Philippine Bisayas is also *tajau* (jar) in the Borneo Bisayas. Another example is *dulang* (earthen plate) which is common to both cultures.

COMMENTS AND SUGGESTIONS

In recent years, there has been gathering an opinion among anthro-

pologists and historians (especially among Filipinos) to dismiss the *Maragtas* as pure myth. One of the arguments presented to support this opinion is the discovery in Panay archeological diggings of Chinese trade porcelain wares belonging to the Sung Dynasty which was in power in China from the 10th to the 13th century (960-1279 A.D.).

Critics of the *Maragtas* argue that the sale (or barter) of Panay between the Borneans and the Negritos could not be true because if it was true, how could one explain the presence of Sung porcelain in Panay? These critics contend that Negritos did not carry on trade with the Chinese.

This opinion is not necessarily true. It is largely based on the belief or assumption that the *Maragtas* events occurred in the 13th century as reckoned by Beyer, Zaide, and company. Zaide estimated the migration took place in 1250 A.D.³⁷ Beyer put it at the first half of the 13th century.³⁸

But it is possible that the *Maragtas* events happened earlier than the

³⁵Bewsher, *loc. cit.*

³⁶In the summer of 1971, the writer had the opportunity to visit museums in Kuching, Brunei, and Kota Kinabalu when he went on the Travelling Symposium on Museum Development in Southeast Asia, sponsored by the Ford Foundation.

³⁷Gregorio F. Zaide, *Philippine Political and Cultural History* (Manila: Philippine Education Co., 1950), p. 60.

³⁸Quoted by Hassell, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

13th century! After all, the *Maragtas* texts do not carry any date. It is possible that the first Bisayans came to Panay from Borneo in the 11th century or even earlier and were the very people who conducted overseas trade with mainland China, Annam, and Siam.

Despite the paucity of conclusive historical evidence, there are very strong indications that the Bisayas of the Philippines came from the Bisayas of Borneo. This writer would also advance that the name Bisaya did not have its origin in the empire of Sri Vijaya as Beyer, Hester and Harrison suggest, nor in the culture hero named Sri Vijaya as Carroll intimates, nor even from the San-

skrit Vijaya (victory) as Santamaria claims. Rather, it has its origin in the river BISAYA in Borneo, the home of the original Bisayan people.

This writer would further suggest more comparative studies among the Borneo and the Philippine Bisayans, especially on linguistics, physical and social anthropology, ethnography, and also folklore. I say folklore because, as Bascom has pointed out, any study of a culture that does not include folklore is incomplete and that "folklore may suggest clues to past archaic customs."³⁹

Who knows that beneath the veneer of fiction in the *Maragtas* legend lies a solid core of historical facts!

³⁹William R. Bascom, "The Four Functions of Folklore," in Allen Dundes, *The Study of Folklore* (Englewood, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 284.

Agrarian Reform, Conflict, and the Use of the Courts: The Case of Dingle, Iloilo

*G. Sidney Silliman**

Programs such as land reform or the establishment of cooperatives among tenant farmers are likely to produce a degree of conflict among the members of a community experiencing these reforms. Such conflict might appear in the form of elections, petitions to government officials for redress of grievances, or group violence. Court cases is another form in which struggles may appear. Courts are one of the arenas to which persons bring their conflicts: thus an examination of disputes, in this case those related to land, is one method by which the nature of conflict may be better understood.

The focus of this essay is a rural community and its court cases with the intent of setting forth some observations about the nature of conflict in relation to the present Philippine government's agrarian reform

program. The court cases examined in this essay are those filed during 1973 from the municipality of Dingle, Iloilo. This rural community of approximately 27,000 persons is of particular interest in that it was the focus of a variety of government reform programs in that year. Operation Land Transfer was begun in Dingle shortly after the declaration of Presidential Decree No. 27, when the Department of Agrarian Reform (hereafter DAR) began the process of identifying tillers and landowners in early December, 1972. In May, 1973, DAR Secretary Conrado Estrella came to participate in the distribution of Land Transfer Certificates (LTC) to some tenants of the town and the surrounding areas. In conjunction with this program and in line with Presidential Decree No. 175, the Department of Local Government and Cooperative Development

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established seventeen Samahang Nasyon (barrio associations) as a first step toward forming agricultural cooperatives. Both of these programs are intended to redistribute power and wealth to some degree by transferring control over land, credit, status, and organizations from one group to another. Such a redistribution produces struggles in a community.

This essay will not discuss all conflict related to the agrarian reform program which occurred in this municipality in 1973. The discussion will be restricted to some general observations about those conflicts revealed in court cases docketed in the Court of Agrarian Relations (located in Iloilo City) and civil cases filed in the Dingle Municipal Court. There will generally be no discussion of the 35 criminal cases filed in the Municipal Court due to the difficulty in relating them to the agrarian reform program and individual cases will not be discussed. It is the apparent pattern which is significant and which will be pursued in this essay.

The primary observation is that the number of cases filed in the Court of Agrarian Relations (hereafter CAR) from Dingle was higher than in previous years and that

more cases were filed from Dingle than from other towns of Iloilo Province.

The monthly reports of the CAR show that a total of forty-five cases involving land in Dingle were filed in 1973.¹ In contrast, the number of cases filed in previous years was much lower:

1972	26 cases
1971	15 cases
1970	7 cases
1969	4 cases
1968	1 cases

Not only are the number of cases greater than in previous years, Dingle has more court conflicts entered in the CAR than other towns of the province. In 1973 a total of 422 cases were filed with the CAR from 39 places. Three towns had forty-three cases; three had 20 to 23 cases; five had 14 to 18 cases; four had 10 to 11; the remaining towns had 7 or fewer cases. Dingle, with forty-five, filed the highest number, seconded only by Bingawan and Sara with forty-three cases each. Oton ranked third with twenty-three.²

The second observation is that the conflict reflected in court cases does not appear to be related to a significant degree to Operation Land

Transfer or to the establishment of the Samahang Nayon.

According to a late 1972 and 1973 survey by the DAR and the Bureau of Lands, Dingle has 513 owners of rice and corn land and 959 tenants. It is precisely these two large groups that Operation Land Transfer was designed to affect. When OLT initially was implemented in Dingle, 468 land transfer certificates were issued to the tenants of eighty landowners.³ It is expected that such a program of social change will produce a large number of court conflicts. But of 45 CAR cases filed from Dingle, only in nineteen had a LTC been issued in the name of one of the parties. In only four of the fourteen civil cases filed in the Dingle Municipal Court had a LTC been issued to one of the defendants, and two of these cases involved the same person. With regard to landowners, only ten of those affected by OLT were involved in disputes in the CAR and only two were party to a civil suit in the municipal court.⁴

It is also observed that there is no major correlation between the litigants in the courts and those holding official positions in the Samahang Nayon. These barrio level groups are composed largely of

tenant farmers, although small landowners could, and a few did, join. The Samahang Nayon has been organized as part of the support for the land reform program and is designed to improve the lot of tenant tillers through cooperative economic effort. It is expected that the Samahang Nayon or its membership might have participated in various conflicts, being competitive with moneylenders, with the Farmers Cooperative Marketing Association (formed under the Agricultural Credit Administration), and with landlords in that the organization is geared to support the transfer of land from one social stratum to another. An examination of the data shows that only seven officers out of a total of ninety-eight for the seventeen Samahang Nayon were parties to a CAR case or a civil suit. An additional five serving on Samahang Nayon committees were also involved in court cases. Yet even this total of twelve persons is not high. Examining the total number of CAR, civil, and criminal cases, in only fourteen instances were one of the litigants an officer or a committee member of the Samahang Nayon (and included in the figure are two persons involved in two cases each).

Furthermore, there appears to be no correlation between the rank of

the towns according to the number of cases filed in the CAR and the number of LTC distributed. Pototan, for example, had the most number (906) of LTC issued but it only had twenty CAR cases. Tigbauan which comes second to Pototan in the number of LTC issued (618) had only five CAR disputes. Sara with 157 LTC issued and Bingawan with none, on the other hand, had 43 cases each.

This lack of correlation is significant. One possible explanation for this apparent lack of struggle is that the mere fact of martial law discourages conflict. A better explanation is that the reform programs had not progressed far enough in 1973 to provoke significant levels of conflict: less than 16% of Dingle landowners were affected by Operation Land Transfer; less than 50% of Dingle tenants received LTC; and no transfer of land actually transpired. The Samahang Nayon were still in the process of being organized and trained and posed no direct threat.

The third observation is that the number of cases filed in the CAR is directly related to the dynamic role played by a particular attorney of the Bureau of Agrarian Legal Assistance (BALA) of the DAR.

The **Monthly Report of the CAR-Iloilo** lists the lawyers for each of the litigants in a particular case. For the year 1973 the records show that a single attorney from the BALA served as counsel in thirty-four of the forty-five cases. The role of this attorney becomes even more significant in light of the fact that not a single case was filed from Dingle after he resigned in late September, 1973, even though a new BALA lawyer replaced him at the end of October. A comparison between this attorney and his replacement reveals a difference in attitudes and style.

The first lawyer maintained his residence in the poblacion and was readily accessible to the tenant farmers. On almost any day, it was possible to find farmers at his house bringing complaints or seeking legal advice. The availability of this attorney was complemented by his empathy for the tenants. He frequently provided bus fare out of his own pocket for needy clients from Dingle to the CAR in Iloilo City. He crossed rice fields to visit homes of some farmers. In addition, he favored a radical land reform program and believed that the retention limit for landlords should be zero. His replacement, however,

feels that the retention limit for owners should be twenty-four hectares (in contrast with Presidential Decree 27 which established seven hectares as the retention limit) and that tenants should migrate to new areas if they wish land. This replacement attorney maintains his residence in Iloilo City and only comes to Dingle once a week. He is very reluctant to take the initiative in using the court to protect the interests of tenants and often advises his clients to settle out of court.

The differences between these two attorneys is reflected in the number of cases in which they were involved. While the second attorney initiated no cases, the first attorney participated in over 75% of the cases filed in the CAR in 1973.

The fourth observation is that the role of the active BALA attorney is part of a pattern of participation in court cases by government organizations.

Forty-one of the forty-five cases from Dingle were disputes in which one of the several lawyers from the DAR served as counsel. In addition, a BALA attorney served as counsel in two of the fourteen civil cases in the municipal court. This pattern of participation extends back to

1972 when the predecessor of the BALA, the Office of Agrarian Counsel (OTAC)⁵, served as counsel in nineteen of the twenty-six cases filed in the CAR.

The non-legal staff of the DAR also plays a role with regard to conflict in the courts. The broadest dimension of this role is that of mediator. Periodically the regional office of the DAR and the field technicians receive complaints. They investigate the situation, then hold a conference between the parties to seek some form of resolution. DAR personnel play mediator roles, as in the conflict over irrigation water in one of the barrios of Dingle. In this conflict, the National Irrigation Administration and the president of the Small Landowners Association filed criminal complaints against the president of a barrio association for interference with an irrigation canal and for "grave coercion." Staff members from the regional office of the DAR and Dingle field technicians intervened and tried to persuade the parties to settle the conflict amicably. But where mediation is unsuccessful, as in the above case, DAR personnel actively support tenant farmers. In the above case, the DAR demonstrated support for the tenant by

providing a jeep to transport an attorney from the Citizens Legal Assistance Office in Iloilo to Dingle to defend the barrio association president. In another instance, a BALA lawyer assisted tenant-farmers in drawing up a petition of grievance which was sent to the President of the Philippines and to several national administrative agencies. Another example is that DAR farm management technicians frequently participate in the sharing of crops. This is especially so in those situations where there is a dispute over the correct portions for the owner and the tenant. The technicians legally witness the sharing and also provide moral support to the tenants. This kind of role may be best summarized by the concept that some of the DAR staff, especially the field technicians, have formed a clientele relationship with the tenant farmers.

This clientele relationship is one which has replaced a similar type of relationship between the farmers and the PANELFU (formerly Panay-Negros Laborers and Farmers Union, now the Philippine Association of Nationalistic Employees, Laborers, and Farmers Union). This private association had been active in organizing strikes and demonstrations and had provided legal assistance

for farmers. In this regard, the records of the CAR indicate that in 1971 the PANELFU defended litigants in eleven of the fifteen cases filed from Dingle while the OTAC was involved in only three cases for the same period. Yet in 1972 and 1973 PANELFU only counseled one case in each year from Dingle while the OTAC and the BALA were involved in 18 cases in 1972 and 41 cases in 1973. Thus the government agency has replaced a private association as a major source of support for the tenant farmers.

Another example of this pattern of participation by government organizations in court cases is found in the record of the number of civil cases filed in the Dingle Municipal Court for the past few years:

1973	14 cases
1972	3 cases
1971	2 cases
1970	1 case
1969	4 cases
1968	0

Of the fourteen cases filed during 1973, eight were filed by the Agricultural Credit Administration for collection of overdue loans.

The general pattern of increased organizational involvement is reflected as far back as 1948. Since

then there have been six years in which the number of civil cases exceeded ten and in four of these six years a government agency filed a large number of suits. In 1952 eight of the total of thirteen cases were filed by the Provincial Fiscal for real estate taxes. In 1952 there were a total of thirty-five civil cases with thirty-two of these filed by the Republic of the Philippines for the cost of fertilizer. In 1960 twenty-three of twenty-seven cases were filed by the Agricultural Credit and Cooperative Financing Agency. However, in 1957 and in 1967 the situation was slightly different in that the largest number of complaints was filed, not by a government agency, but by private individuals for a sum of money.⁶ Yet the years 1952, 1954, 1960 and 1973 do show significant involvement by the government.

The fifth observation is that associational groups did not play a major role in court conflicts in 1973. Reference has already been made to the minimal involvement of the PANELFU. The limited role of the Dingle Federated Farmers Association and the Dingle Small Landowners Association should also be noted.

The Federated Farmers Association was formed in March, 1973

and is composed of six barrio level organizations. Formed under the guidance of DAR technicians, its membership is largely tenant farmers. It might be expected that such organization would be involved in agrarian conflict. Yet its involvement in court cases is low. Several members are parties to disputes but there is no permanent fund established for the purpose of helping members who are involved in court cases. In two instances, the membership was asked to donate small sums of money to help defray the cost of transportation to the CAR in Iloilo City and to provide rice for the families of two members involved in court cases. While the leadership argues that the litigants are "fighting on behalf of all tenants," the organization has not adopted formally or consistently a strategy of group pressure through the courts.

However, the president of the Federated Farmers Association does play a role in some conflicts. The president encourages the members to support their fellow tenants. This most often takes the form of exhortation at group meetings and seldom involves discussion of particular types of actions which might be taken. He talks of group solidarity, common interests of tenant-

tillers, and the need for mutual support. The president of the federation also serves as a go-between. In the irrigation dispute mentioned previously, the president attempted to persuade one of the plaintiffs to withdraw the charges and settle out of court. In other situations tenants approach the president with regard to a dispute and he would then bring it to the attention of the proper authority, such as the DAR technicians, the BALA attorney, or local officials. In some instances conflict was resolved without a court case. But in some instances a court case was initiated as a consequence of the president's action. Outside of the above, the federation has not participated in court conflicts. Members who face court cases pursue them without this organization's support.

One other associational group expected to be involved in cases reflecting conflict over the agrarian reform program is the Dingle Small Landowners Association. This group was formed in late 1971 after the passage of Republic Act 6389 (Code of Agrarian Reforms) with the purpose of promoting". . . the interest and welfare of small landowners economically, socially, and politically. . . ."7 It has been an active interest group, circulating

among its membership and presenting to the government petitions seeking changes in the agrarian reform laws in January and in November, 1972. In February, 1973, the association tried but was unsuccessful in mounting a letter-writing campaign regarding agrarian reform.

But the Landowners Association during 1973 was not particularly active with regard to litigation. Only one of its officers was in a CAR case and only two others were parties to municipal cases. The president of the organization is a lawyer, yet he is not inordinately involved as counsel. Of the forty-five cases involving land from Dingle in the CAR, he is counsel in only four.⁸ It is true, however, that the president had filed a complaint, along with the National Irrigation Administration, against the president of one of the member groups of the Federated Farmers Association. Some tenants state that his action is part of a landowner conspiracy to stop the land reform program. They argue that this president of one of the local tenant groups is being taken to court as an example and so that the farmers will become "cool" towards land reform.

The sixth and final observation is that the landowners of Dingle

have made minimal use of the CAR in pursuit of their conflicts while tenant use has been relatively higher.

The summary records of the CAR (as well as the docket of the Dingle Municipal Court), such as the monthly reports, do not indicate whether the parties to a dispute are tenants or landowners. However, the records do list the type of action requested by the plaintiff and, based on the assumption that certain types of action are requested by landowners and certain types by tenants, it is possible to identify the status of the plaintiff from these records. It is assumed that requests for "ejectment" and "forcible entry" are normally made by landowners and that "fixing of rentals", "shifting to leasehold", and "re-instatement" are normally requested by tenants. Thus it is possible to tabulate the number of cases in any one year which request the above types of action and reveal the pattern of use of the CAR.

The data suggests that landowner use of the CAR has been rather low. Over the past five years there are no requests for "forcible entry," and the requests for "ejectment" are as follows:

1973	4 cases
1972	6 cases
1971	3 cases

1970	5 cases
1969	2 cases

In contrast, tenant use of the CAR has been relatively higher, as indicated by the following figures:

1973	35 cases
1972	17 cases
1971	14 cases
1970	2 cases
1969	2 cases

These are requests for reinstatement, fixing of rentals, and shifting to leasehold.⁹ These figures not only indicate a greater use of the CAR by tenants but also point that the increase after 1970 correlates with the role played by formal organizations such as the PANELFU in 1971 and the OTAC and the BALA in 1972 and 1973.

The civil cases in the Dingle Municipal Court provide an interesting comparison with the above pattern of use. For all the years since 1948, there has not been a single request for fixing of rentals, shifting to leasehold, or for reinstatement. Tenants may have initiated cases in the Municipal Court for other actions but it appears that they do not use this court for resolution of agrarian conflict. Landowners, on the other hand, have used the Municipal Court. In the

years 1969 to 1973, there was one request for ejectment and eight cases of forcible entry. This pattern may be extended in that from 1948 to 1973, there was a total of forty-eight requests for forcible entry and four requests for ejectment. These cases come to slightly more than 25% of the total of 200 civil cases heard by the Municipal Court.¹⁰

The generally low use of both the Municipal Court and the CAR by Dingle landowners suggests that they have not needed the courts to resolve agrarian conflicts as they have sufficient independent power to handle disputes by other means. For example, some landowners refused to allow tenants the use of their water pumps. Others closed private roads, thus preventing crops from being taken to market. Still others forcibly plowed already planted fields and replaced the crop with sugar cane. The tenants, with no alternate sources of power, have utilized the CAR to resolve their struggles.

During the last three years these struggles have been closely related to the implementation of a portion of the Philippine Government's land reform program. Prior to 1971 (the data is available back to 1964) there was not a single case filed in

the CAR from Dingle requesting either shifting to leasehold or fixing of rentals. Yet in 1971 there were eleven requests for shifting to leasehold and one request for fixing of rentals. In 1972 there were fifteen requests for the latter and thirty-two in 1973.¹¹ This reflects the fact that under the present laws, the tenant has a right to a leasehold relationship with his landlord rather than share tenancy and that the land reform agencies have implemented this provision in Dingle. The municipality was declared a land reform area in April, 1971 (thus there should have been an automatic shift to leasehold), and the first cases appeared that year. But in this respect the courts are used more often in 1973, a reflection of the activity of the DAR.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that the preceding observations are based exclusively upon the study of cases from a single municipality. The observations cannot be regarded as conclusive: yet these points do suggest that it would be useful to study the cases of other rural towns in that such disputes provide a perspective for studying conflict. To the extent that conflict is related to change, court cases provide an index of change.

NOTES

1. Reference to cases in the Court of Agrarian Relations from Dingle means cases involving land in that community. The summary records of the CAR do not show the towns in which the litigants reside but do show where the land in question is located.
2. Clerk of Court. *Monthly Report of the Court of Agrarian Relations-Iloilo, 1968 to 1973.*
3. The actual number of tenants who received LTC is in doubt. Some tenants received two certificates while some did not receive any because of errors or because of non-attendance in the distribution ceremony. But over 400 tenants received LTC as a result of the May, 1973 distribution.
- 4; Based on a comparison of the DAR's "Master List of Tenants Issued Land Transfer Certificates", the court docket of the Dingle Municipal Court, and the *Monthly Report of the CAR.*
5. The Office of the Agrarian Counsel was abolished by President Marcos' Letter of Implementation No. 4 of October 23, 1972. OTAC records, equipment, and some personnel were transferred to the Bureau of Agrarian Legal Assistance of the DAR.
6. Docket of the Dingle Municipal Court.
7. "Constitution and By-Laws of the Dingle Small Landowners Association." Article 1, p.1.
8. *Monthly Report of the Court of Agrarian Relations-Iloilo, 1973.*
9. *Ibid.*, 1969-1973.
10. *Op. Cit.* Docket of Dingle Municipal Court.
11. *Op. Cit.* Monthly Report of the CAR- Iloilo, 1964-1973

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