

Research for Labor Empowerment: A Toolkit for Labor Law Reform Advocacy*

Introduction: Globalization and Labor Rights

MDGs, DWA and Labor Law Reforms

The ILO/FTF Council of Denmark and the International Trade Union Council Asia-Pacific (ITUC/AP) are jointly spearheading a review of the labor law system in the Asia-Pacific region in support of a broad regional and global campaign for decent work. The ITUC A/P program for labor law reform is undertaken in the context of the UN's Millennium Development Agenda (MDG) and the ILO's Decent Work Agenda (DWA). The MDG is aimed at the reduction (about 50 per cent by 2015) and eventual elimination of mass poverty in the developing world, while the DWA is focused on the promotion of quality decent jobs obtained in conditions of freedom, equality, security and dignity.

The DWA and MDG goals

The ILO's global campaign for DWA¹ calls for: 1) observance of rights at work; 2) creation of better jobs for women and men; 3) extension of social protection for all; and 4) promotion of social dialogue among the tripartite social actors (government, employers, and workers). Central in this campaign is the observance of internationally-recognized core

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labor rights, in particular the right of every worker to form or join a union for the purpose of concluding a collective agreement governing the terms and conditions of work. The 1998 International Labor Conference reaffirmed – through the Declaration on the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work – the sacred task of ILO member countries to respect the global core labor rights, namely: prohibition of forced labor, freedom of association, right to collective bargaining, non-discrimination at work and elimination of child labor. These international core labor rights are covered by the following international conventions:

1. Convention 29 - Forced Labor;
2. Convention 87- Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise;
3. Convention 98 - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining
4. Convention 100 - Equal Remuneration;
5. Convention 105 - Abolition of Forced Labor
6. Convention 111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation)
7. Convention 138 - Minimum Age
8. Convention 182 – Child Labor

For workers to enjoy these rights, member states of the ILO are duty bound not only to ratify the above conventions but also to enact the enabling national laws and rules.

The MDGs, on the other hand, seek to eradicate mass poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development. Needless to say, these MDG target goals are closely related to the ILO's DWA, particularly poverty reduction, gender equality, and global partnership for development.

The challenge to the Asia-Pacific trade unions affiliated with ITUC/AP is how to make decent work and the MDG goals a reality in the region. This is a complicated and daunting task given the generally difficult labor market and union situation in the region.

Unequal globalisation processes, weak union formations in Asia-Pacific

Much has been written about the propulsive growth of the region under globalisation. However, in its 2006 *Asia-Pacific Human Development Report: Trade on Human Terms*, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) reported that while the region has embraced free trade, free trade has not embraced the region's poor, who were generally left out in the globalisation process. The outcomes of deeper integration and globalization have been unequal and uneven for most countries, even for China, Asia's poster boy under globalisation. In fact, the said UNDP Report said that growth has even been jobless for some Asian countries and unequal for China and other "winners" under globalization.

The foregoing UNDP observations are similar to those made by the ILO's Director-General, in his Report to the 14th Asian Regional Meeting of the ILO held at Busan, South Korea in October 2005. In his *Making Decent Work an Asian Goal* (2005), DG Juan Somavia wrote that globalization benefits and costs are "unevenly distributed" and that there is a huge "decent work deficit" in the region. He wrote that employment creation in Asia has lagged behind its vaunted trade openness and growth. As a result, the fruits of globalisation and economic liberalisation, processes which have brought unprecedented growth in some countries in the region, have been unevenly distributed and have generated prosperity for select minorities of the populations.

Moreover, growth has also been attained largely based on the labor of the numerous but underpaid and overworked workers, particularly in formerly socialist centralized economies such as China, Cambodia and Vietnam and formerly inward-looking economies with large public sectors such as Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Nepal. The situation is further compounded by the low rate of unionism in the Asia-Pacific region, the underdeveloped character of the labor law system in many Asian countries and the weak enforcement or observance of labor rights across the continent. In some countries, the core labor conventions such as ILO Convention No. 87 (Freedom of Association) and ILO Convention No. 98 (Collective Bargaining) are either still unratified or are still to be translated into national laws and rules.

Research toolkit in support of labor law reforms

It is in the context of the foregoing that the LO/FTF Council is supporting the ITUC/AP's program to upgrade the capacity of its affiliates in the region in the formulation and advocacy of needed labor law reforms in the framework of the ILO's DWA and the UN's MDG programs. It is in relation to this upgrading program that this research toolkit is being developed. Specifically, this research toolkit on labor law reforms seeks to strengthen the capacity of Asia-Pacific trade unions in --

- Assessing workers' understanding of their core labor rights and their perception regarding the enforcement or non-enforcement of these rights through solid and scientific research work,
- Analyzing strengths, weaknesses and gaps in the labor law system in their respective countries,
- Identifying needed labor law reform measures, and
- Crafting an appropriate labor law reform agenda based on the foregoing.

By definition, a research toolkit is like a carpenter's box where the tools needed to build a house or do a construction project are kept. In the case of the present labor law reform project, the tools are in the form of research methods and instruments in analyzing strengths and weaknesses in existing labor laws and formulating the needed labor law reforms .

This toolkit covers the following topics:

- Overview of the MDGs and DWA;
- Checklist formula of ILO, World Bank and ADB;
- Proposed analytical framework in formulating labor law reforms;
- Overview of different research methods and tools;
- Basic steps in organizing the research project;
- Conclusions; and
- Annexes
 - use of SPSS in survey/baseline research,
 - model questionnaire,** and
 - SPSS coding guide.**

** omitted in this publication for space reason

Checklist Approach: How the ILO, World Bank and ADB identify gaps in labor laws

Interestingly, the ILO -- as well as the World Bank and ADB in relation to infrastructure projects supportive of the core labor standards – also have a “toolkit” in checking the status of labor rights and their enforcement in member countries. However, their primary methodology is simply a checklist approach, which means checking the status of core international labor conventions in terms of ratification and their translation into specific national laws and enforcement rules, assessment of the implementation of these laws and rules, and listing of measures being undertaken by the member governments in addressing violations and flaws in the enforcement of labor rights.

With regard to enforcement, these institutions rely on views and opinions of key informants (government officials, employers, trade unions, etc.) and focused group discussions with informed stakeholders. Additionally, the ILO sends “high-level missions” to select countries to inquire into their compliance with the core labor conventions, particularly in relation to ILO Conventions No. 87 and 98 (Freedom of Association and Collective Bargaining). The following are two prime examples of the checklist toolkits used by the ILO and ADB:

- ILO, 2007. *Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work*, Geneva: ILO. This book describes the different labor standards and how development agencies (e.g., government bodies and donor agencies) can apply standards in development and employment planning. A series of “diagnostic” questions on awareness of such standards is given to these development agencies. The questions inquire if such standards are used in work, if development staff are given training on core labor standards, and if there is collaboration between or among national institutions on these standards.
- ADB and ILO, 2006. *Core Labor Standards Handbook*, Manila: ADB. This book is essentially a listing of core labor standards based on core ILO Conventions and Recommendations. Accordingly, a borrowing country’s adherence to core labor standards is part of the inquiry of a “development mission” organized by the Asian Development Bank (ADB). This is specifically raised in relation to ADB-funded infrastructure

projects. The inquiry on adherence means an examination of a member country's labor laws, policies, regulations and institutions, which should be consistent with or supportive of the core labor standards.

Like the ADB, the World Bank has a checklist toolkit, which is described below:

- World Bank, *Core Labor Standards Toolkit*. This is downloadable at [http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/ TOPICS/EXTSOCIALPROTECTION/](http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTSOCIALPROTECTION/). This reference material provides for a three-step process that the World Bank staff must observe in determining a country's adherence to core labor standards. These steps are :

Step 1: Understanding core labor standards. This simply involves consultation with the ILO sources.

Step 2: Locating information on core labor standards in specific countries. This usually entails compilation of a country's labor laws.

Step 3: Diagnosing core labor standards in a member country. This involves a four-step process –

- First, legal and institutional assessment. This means an inquiry of the ratification of core labor conventions, enactment of corresponding national laws (non-ratification does not mean non-legislation of appropriate laws) and enforcement provisions in the labor law system.
- Second, factual assessment. This means an inquiry of what is happening in practice despite the protective provisions in the law.
- Third, measures taken to correct abuses based on government actions.
- Fourth, dialogue by the Bank with a borrowing country on the enforcement or non-enforcement of core labor conventions.

ILO source materials

The ILO is, of course, the main source of information and materials on core and other labor standards. These standards are generally developed through the adoption of Conventions and Recommendations, which are the subject of ratification by member countries. In addition to monitoring the ratification and implementation of ILO Conventions and Recommendations, the ILO provides technical assistance to member countries on both processes. It has, for example, a “Special Action Program to Combat Forced Labor” (SAP-FL), which seeks to raise global awareness of forced labor in its different forms.

Key sources of information on core labor standards available online from the ILO are the following:

- Ratification of the fundamental conventions by country. This table contains a current record of the core conventions ratified by each country.
- ILOLEX, a database of international labor standards and reports from ILO supervisory mechanisms. Useful information from this database are: Observations from the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, which is responsible for examining compliance with ILO standards based on reports sent by member governments.
- Reports from the Freedom of Association Committee. This tripartite nine-member body reviews complaints on country compliance with the principles of freedom of association.
- Follow-up to the 1998 Declaration. The 1998 ILO Declaration on the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work includes new procedures for reporting on un-ratified conventions. ILO member governments are required to submit annual reports on the principles underlying each of the eight conventions relating to core labor standards that they have not ratified. The ILO Secretariat publishes the reports along with comments from employers and trade unions from the respective countries. The ILO also publishes an annual global report on one of the core labor standards.

Other source materials

There are other useful sources of information or materials on core labor standards and their enforcement or non-enforcement in a given country. These include the following:

- *Country reports* on core labor standards by the International Trade Union Council (ITUC). The Council produces an annual global report on violations of labor rights occurring in different countries. These are readily available on the internet (check www.ituc.org).
- *Human Rights Watch World Report*. Human Rights Watch is an international non-profit, non-governmental organization that does research and advocacy on human rights. While the report does not provide a systematic evaluation of core labor standards, it does include discussion of how basic worker rights are treated in many countries.
- *US State Department Country Reports on Human Rights Practices*. The United States produces annual reports on the status of human rights in each country that (a) receives US foreign aid and/or (b) is a member of the United Nations. The reports are submitted to US Congress each year and includes a discussion on discrimination and core labor standards, particularly the right to strike and “acceptable conditions of work” (including health and safety and minimum wages) standards. In addition, the US State Department also produces an annual report on Trafficking in Persons, which provides detailed information on this form of forced labor.
- *Amnesty International (AI) Annual Report*. AI produces reports on human rights violations worldwide. The reports include summary of the human rights situation in each country or territory and describes AI’s specific human rights concerns. Worker rights, including core labor standards are sometimes included.

Strengths and weaknesses of checklist approach

The checklist approach of the ILO, World Bank, ADB and other sources listed above provides researchers, trade unionists and policy makers quick and rich information on the state of ratification (and non-ratification) of core labor standards in a given country, the enactment (or non-enactment) of appropriate labor laws (even without the ratification of the corresponding ILO conventions), and the reported violations of labor rights as monitored by these agencies. In addition, the ILO provides detailed information on the various ILO Conventions and Recommendations, including the non-core but important ones such as minimum wage and other working condition standards.

However, the weakness of the checklist approach is its inability to capture certain gaps in labor law formulation, enforcement and interpretation. For example, violations on minimum wage adjustments in a country may be due not only to poor law enforcement but also failure of the law to create a wage-fixing body in a given country, or failure of the law to specify procedures and criteria that must be followed in fixing minimum wages, or failure of the law to categorically state penalty for non-compliance, or failure of the law to provide arbitration procedures to tackle wage disputes and so on and so forth. Note that one can have a detailed checklist of core and non-core labor standards together with the corresponding national labor laws recognizing these standards or rights. But such a listing does not mean much if there is no mechanism for labor standard enforcement, interpretation and dispute settlement.

This is why the labor laws of a country are voluminous and are compiled into a “labor code” that runs to hundreds of pages, excluding interpretative judicial rulings on specific labor cases which form part of a country’s “labor jurisprudence”.

Analytical framework: building upon the checklist approach

The ITUC/AP research toolkit developed here builds upon the checklist approach, which is used as the initial instrument for labor law analysis. This is followed by an in-depth assessment of the labor law system using a composite of analytical and research instruments. Perhaps the best way to understand the proposed ITUC/AP labor law formulation process is to clarify immediately the overall analytical framework being proposed here in analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of a country’s

labor law system and in identifying possible labor law revisions and amendments. This is shown in Figure 1 with its three interrelated columns or boxes.

Figure 1. Framework for analyzing labor law weaknesses and reforms (Ofreneo model).

(A) Coverage of existing labor law system →	(B) Weaknesses in labor law system →	(C) Needed reforms in labor law system
Basic labor rights <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • labor standards • freedom of association • collective bargaining • due process 	Gaps in labor law system <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Missing labor laws on labor rights, standards • Missing rules and procedures 	Filling in the gaps <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Needed labor laws • Needed rules and procedures
Enforcement	Problems in enforcement	Correcting enforcement problems
Dispute Settlement	Problems in dispute settlement	Correcting weaknesses in dispute settlement
	----- Problems in politico-economic system	----- Enhancing politico-economic environment in support of labor law system

The first Box (A) means a listing of labor rights based on labor standards laws such as minimum wages, hours of work, etc., and labor relations laws dealing with freedom of association, collective bargaining, etc. This is where the ILO-ADB-WB checklist approach comes in handy.

However, laws recognizing labor rights also require laws on how these can be implemented, for example, unionism requires not only a law recognizing unionism as a right but also a law on how unions can be registered without any undue outside interference. Otherwise, there will be confusion and so much disorder. And, if there are disputes on any labor concern, there should be a system of settling disputes, which is a system seen as fair and transparent to all concerned.

Box B is an assessment of weaknesses and gaps in the existing labor law system. More specifically, the focus of the assessment is on the weak or missing labor laws in support of certain labor rights, for example, a law on union registration may allow management, instead of becoming a mere by-stander, to intervene in the process by authorizing management

to question the results of a union election, which is supposed to be internal to the union. This can be considered a labor law weakness. On the other hand, the absence of a law on how to register a union can be considered a gap. There can also be problems in enforcement, for example, the absence of an enforcement machinery with sufficient number of inspectors (gap), or a law authorizing a political party to participate in inspection (weakness). The same process can be applied to dispute settlement, meaning there may be no institutions in place to process unresolved worker grievances and/or the institutions in place are in no position to give objective decisions based on merits, for example, an arbitration body dominated by employer nominees.

One good method in analyzing weaknesses is to do a compilation of illustrative cases, for example, how a union with majority support fails to get government certification or accreditation, which can be due to employer intervention in the certification process or weaknesses in the government's certification process, both of which require some remedial legislative measures (e.g., a law penalizing employer intervention in union affairs and a law clarifying rules on certification process which government must observe).

Box C then flows naturally from the logic of the discussion in Box A and B, meaning labor law remedies can be formulated in relation to the weaknesses and gaps identified in Box A and B. These remedies can be in the form of legislative and executive measures to recognize certain labor rights, supply needed provisions on enforcement, amend weak and faulty provisions in existing labor law system, and so on and so forth.

Caveat: At the bottom of Box B and Box C is a reference to problems arising from the politico-economic system. This is in recognition of the fact that many labor rights violations (or non-observance) are not necessarily due to lack of relevant laws and procedures. They may be due to the problems arising from the weaknesses of the economy or divisions in the political system of a country. Hence, not all labor problems can be cured through labor law reforms. However, without labor law reforms, problems originating from the economy and the political sphere are likely to be compounded if the labor law system is weak and underdeveloped.

Research methods: overview of various research tools

Are research methods beyond the comprehension of trade union leaders and organizers? Is research only for research professionals?

Research and the trade union movement

The second question must be answered first. One must debunk the notion that research is a boring intellectual work reserved exclusively to academics and professional researchers. This is particularly true in social science research, especially one inquiring into the social and labor conditions in a given society. Trade unions and civil society organizations do research to bolster their arguments for needed policy changes based on solid data and analysis of social reality. As the saying goes, there is no substitute for concrete analysis of concrete reality. Without solid research, such analysis becomes weak and the arguments articulated by social advocates degenerate into ad hominem exhortations. This is one reason why well-meaning trade unions often lose out in policy formulation. For example, one can not just demand in a CBA negotiation for a certain percentage of wage increase without gathering data (or researching) on the profit and loss situation of the company, price movement of goods and services in a given period, share of labor cost in total cost of business operations and so on and so forth.

As to the various research methods, they range from simple data gathering such as the compilation of price data in support of CBA demands to more complex ones such as administering a survey questionnaire to gauge workers' attitudes on declining trade union movement in society. The union officials need not master all these methods. What is needed is for the trade union leaders to have some familiarity with the array of research methods that can be used based on the nature of the social phenomenon being investigated or analyzed. This is what this toolkit is all about.

Trade unionists may or may not do the research work themselves. For technical statistical analyses, the organization can enlist the assistance of trained professionals or researchers or even graduate students without losing the power to understand the underlying logic behind the conduct of the survey. What is important is that trade union leaders are able to give general supervision over the conduct of the research work based on their understanding of the overall research problem. This they can do if they have some familiarity with the overall research process and the various research methods that may be employed in the research work.

Now a quick tour of the types of the different social science research methods.

Classifying research in terms of purpose

As pointed out above, research need not be the exclusive of academics and so-called professional researchers. This is especially true in social science research where the laboratory is the larger society and the subjects of inquiry are the interests and patterns of behavior of people who make up society.

Now what research methods should be used in an inquiry on labor law problems? Before answering this question, it is important to clarify first the types of research in terms of purpose or expected outcomes. There are basically two :

Theoretical research - This type of research is usually focused on causal relations and seeks to explain the underlying reasons for these relations, for example, why a surge in unemployment during summer months, which may be explained by the entry of young graduates in the labor market or the slack in jobs during summer period (but all this requires marshalling of statistical data to buttress the argument).

Policy research - This type of research is specifically undertaken to help clarify or formulate needed policies, for example, research on how to minimize worker pains arising from corporate restructuring. Often, policy research involves a certain level of participation of the "role holders", for example, assessment on why legal cases tend to languish in the courts or salas of some arbitrators may involve sharing of views and experiences of the judges and litigants themselves.

How about the so-called "***action-oriented research***" or "***action-oriented research advocacy project***"? This type of research belongs to the category of policy research. The "action" here is expressly stated to underline the fact that the research being undertaken is in support of desired or needed policy changes, for example, an action-oriented research on labor law reforms. However, this does not mean that rigor in research is being set aside. Rather, the organizers of the research are simply saying that they are not conducting research for research's sake. It is being undertaken to achieve positive changes in the policy regime.

Classifying research in terms of methods used

There are several ways of classifying research in terms of methods. But in general, research can be classified in terms of methods in two ways:

Quantitative research - This is focused on quantification, particularly in establishing statistical relationships related to certain social phenomena in large populations, for example, why the shopping patterns of “house husbands” are markedly different from those of “housewives”. In short, quantitative research analyze social phenomena through quantifiable evidence. Hence, its reliance on statistical analysis to make reliable general claims, e.g., workers doing outsourced jobs in the garments industry have very low awareness of their rights.

The most popular or commonly used quantitative method in social sciences is the baseline survey (based on a sample of a population), which is also called communication research (see later discussion on details on how to conduct baseline survey). Other methods: census survey (for the entire population), marketing research, regression analysis, labor market data analysis, etc.

Qualitative research - This is focused on a deeper interpretation or understanding of social phenomena, for example, why disciplinary sanctions do not have the desired effects in a given enterprise. Qualitative research seeks to analyze social phenomena through direct observation, communication/interview with participants, analyze specific texts and documents, and scrutinize contextual and subjective background of said phenomena, for instance, why do workers in a highly-profitable company gets a pittance of a wage increase in their CBA while workers in an average company in the same industry manage to get twice those in the former.

The most popular or commonly used qualitative method in social sciences is the **case study** (see detailed discussion in later sections), which may involve the use of other qualitative methods such as interviews with key informants, focused group discussions, analysis of specific documents, direct observation of a process being analyzed (for example, conduct of arbitration), etc. Other qualitative methods: participant-observation (researcher immerses himself/herself in a group

or community being studied), life history of individuals or communities, ethnography (patterns of behavior), etc.

From the foregoing, research methods do vary a lot, from a census of millions or a survey of several hundreds representing thousands to a case analysis of what is happening at the shop floor or case documentation of negotiation tactics across the bargaining table.

In addition, there are other research methods in industrial relations, namely:

Legal research. The present labor law research can also be classified as legal research, which, by definition, focuses on the “practices and reasoning of the legal system”. Legal research is also qualitative research, although research work entails mainly paper analysis. This means researchers navigate through or analyze various labor law materials. A good approach here is to establish a hierarchy of laws, starting with the “checklist” on international labor standards and their corresponding enabling national laws as discussed earlier. These national laws are analyzed based on their consistency with a country’s constitution and coherence of the implementing or interpretative rules. These laws are also subject to judicial clarifications when contested by a party regarding their non-implementation, inconsistency with the constitution or in relation to other legal questions. Hence, judicial rulings or opinions, especially the so-called “doctrinal” or precedent-setting ones, are also considered in legal research analysis.

In the present study of labor laws, it is proposed that practices, good or bad, by actors involved in labor law enforcement be analyzed too. This means case studies of some legal problems and interviews with some labor law practitioners as well as focused group discussions with key stakeholders such as groups of trade unionists.

Historical-institutional study. This historical method is closely associated with both institutional economics and industrial relations. Applied to labor laws, this method means tracing the history of evolution of labor laws, “deconstructing” the reasons (legal, political and economic) why they were enacted or developed the way they are, and analyzing the political-economic environment of the period that gave rise to these laws.

In short, the historical-institutional approach is more like a political-economic analysis on why certain laws were developed or muzzled depending on the politico-economic environment prevailing in certain periods. This approach is useful in explaining the backwardness of labor laws on account of sad historical episodes like military rule or colonial subjugation of a nation, historical periods that are not sympathetic to the cause of labor. On the other hand, the historical-political approach can explain more fully why labor rights are more fully recognized during democratic restoration periods in formerly authoritarian regimes.

Of course, there is a great deal of subjectivism in the historical-political approach because its application is dependent to a great extent on the idiosyncratic or political perspective of the researcher. If the researcher is a trade unionist, then the story that is likely to come out will hew closer to the trade union view of how labor laws evolved or developed. This again is an argument why trade unions should develop their own capacity for undertaking research.

Benchmarking. In recent years, corporations, under the competitive pressures of global competition, have popularized the method of “benchmarking good practices” in business management, which means comparing one’s practices with the most competitive companies in the same industry within and across national boundaries in order to be at par with the best or the leaders in competition. Sometimes, these so-called good practices degenerate into bad practices in human resources management because the comparison is focused on how to cheapen labor cost, evade labor obligations and roll back labor rights. This leads to what trade unionists call as “race to the bottom”.

However, benchmarking can also be used in labor law research, for example, comparing a country’s labor law system with countries with more advanced and more progressive labor laws. The comparison becomes compelling in terms of policy making when the comparison is made with countries at similar levels of economic development and yet have better labor laws, for example, in the areas of union recognition and collective bargaining. In short, benchmarking, which can be both

quantitative (based on quantitative indicators, e.g., performance) and qualitative (e.g., based on nuanced explanations for certain behavioral outcomes) can also be a research weapon for trade unionists.

Why a composite of research methods?

Increasingly, many researches are using a composite or combination of research methods. This is so because of the complexity of social life, which can not be answered or explained by only one research method. Take the failure of enforcement of a labor law. The failure may be established through a composite of methods – survey among complaining workers (on the most common non-enforcement issues), technical analysis of gaps in labor law formulation (specifically in relation to basic steps to be observed to implement a given law), illustrative case studies (on weaknesses of institutions in implementing the law), etc. Another example: research on why indigenous farmers do not easily adopt modern farming methods. This might entail the use of quantitative baseline survey among a sample of farmers and qualitative case studies of innovating and non-innovating farmers.

Incidentally, both the theoretical and policy researches as discussed above can use a composite of quantitative and qualitative research methods. However, researchers tend to go quantitative when the task is to generalize conclusions based on the ***behavior of large populations (macro)***; and they tend to go qualitative when the issue is interpreting ***behavior at the firm or enterprise level (micro)***. But they can always use a composite of quantitative and qualitative methods at both levels.

As to the present labor law research project, the prescribed approach is to go composite, that is, use a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods such as survey (to establish baseline data on general awareness of workers on their rights), case study (to analyze specific problems on labor law gaps and weaknesses), interviews (to get insights and views from labor law practitioners), etc. The analytical framework discussed earlier clearly points to the need to go composite.

Organizing the labor law reform research

One can now proceed with organizing the research for labor law reforms using the analytical framework outlined earlier and choosing the appropriate research methods as discussed above.

First step. The first step in any research process is clarifying the purpose or objectives of the research. In the present labor law research project, the ITUC/AP, with the support of LO/FTF, has made it clear that the project is to help formulate a set of labor law reforms in the context of the MDGs and DWA for ITUC affiliates in Asia-Pacific (see discussion at the beginning). For this purpose, ITUC/AP and LO/FTF had conducted research consultations with officers of ITUC affiliates in select countries. The consultations included orientation for special research teams constituted or formed by the ITUC affiliates themselves.

Developing baseline data

Second step. The next step is to ***develop the basic baseline data*** on the subject of inquiry, labor law weaknesses/gaps and possible remedies/reforms. Baseline data are initial basic information on the subject being investigated. Once established, these baseline data are useful in guiding the research team on what to “probe” in terms of weaknesses/gaps and needed remedies/reforms in the labor law system. They are useful in monitoring and tracing subsequent progress in the research-advocacy on labor law reforms.

How then does one develop the baseline data? In relation to the labor law research project, there are at least two ways:

One, develop a state of the arts. Academics usually start with what they call as “state of the arts” before embarking fully in the research process. In ordinary layman’s terms, the state of the arts simply means the latest technology available in a given field, for example, latest technology in catching solar power for home use. In social science research, the state of the arts is an overview of the latest available knowledge on the subject of inquiry. Thus, research reports by masteral and doctoral students usually start with an overview of available studies and findings on the subject of inquiry, knowledge gaps and research recommendations. For example, a study on the role of migration in the development of a labor-sending country would have a state of the arts detailing statistics on migration and remittances, recent studies on how migration has

contributed to the development of certain economic sectors like the real estate and wholesaling-distribution sectors, and so on and so forth. Then the researcher would mention the gaps in knowledge and give the rationale for the new migration study being made.

In the study of labor law reforms in a given country, the state of the arts would include a summation of studies and researchers on labor law reforms that are available as well as the key issues and gaps in labor law reform enactment, enforcement and so on. In this regard, the **checklist approach** (see earlier discussion) identifying international labor standards and their application or non-observance in a given country often serves as a starting point for researchers, who give an initial assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of labor laws based on the latest research literature. In the analytical framework proposed in this project, such an assessment (see Box A) should try to measure the adequacy and coverage of existing labor laws. As pointed out at the beginning, a simple approach is to do a checklist of International Labor Conventions (ILCs) on core labor rights (freedom of association, collective bargaining, non-discrimination, non-use of forced labor and elimination of child labor) and find out if there are corresponding national laws recognizing these rights.

Eventually, the state of the arts should help the research team in coming out with an outline of existing labor laws, rules, relevant jurisprudence and analyses and studies of different research, labor, academic and non-governmental institutions. As much as possible, the compilation should be comprehensive, whether the materials are published or not. In particular, researches and commentaries on workers' rights violations should be given special attention, particularly the following:

1. job security, tenure, employment contracts;
2. outsourcing, flexible hiring arrangements;
3. work hours and overtime;
4. wages, including bonus and calculations and manner of payment;
5. leaves and other benefits;
6. social insurance, pension schemes;
7. occupational-safety-health (OSH) concerns;
8. environmental hazards within and outside the work premises;
9. freedom of association and collective bargaining;

10. employer harassment and retaliation;
11. grievances, strikes and dispute resolution;
12. presence of bonded and child labor;
13. apprenticeship arrangements; and
14. obstacles in the observance of core and other labor standards and labor relations rights.

In the presentation of labor laws, it is best that these laws or rights be clustered into three groups – the **labor standards laws** (wages, hours of work, leaves, etc.); **OSH laws** (safety, medical assistance, etc.); and **labor relations laws** (unionism, collective bargaining, dispute settlement, termination, etc.).

Two, conduct of baseline survey. As pointed out earlier, baseline survey, which is also called communication research (or communication survey research), is the most popular quantitative research method. It is usually used in measuring people's awareness, perception, knowledge, attitudes and behavior in relation to certain social phenomena. In the present labor law research project, the focus is on workers' awareness about their labor rights under the labor law system and their perceptions or knowledge about these rights, their violations and the gaps in legislation, enforcement and so on. Together with the state of the arts materials, research data gathered through the baseline survey form important baseline information materials on the state of labor laws and labor rights and how these can be further improved.

The workers being surveyed may be coming from critical industries for union organizing such as the garments industry, construction industry or banking industry, or they may be chosen to represent certain geographical areas of the country, or both. A sample survey of this type is one of the most important research tools being promoted by ITUC/AP and LO/FTF because such a survey, conducted properly and rigorously, provides ITUC affiliates with "scientific arguments" on the weaknesses of the labor law regime and the need for reforms. The survey helps establish the overall picture – at the macro or industry level – of the state of workers' appreciation of their rights and their observance.

The conduct of a baseline study uses a uniform field questionnaire administered to a sample of respondents. With some orientation and with the help of some professional or academic research institutions, trade unions can do such an exercise with little difficulty. **Annex A** is a brief overview of how a questionnaire-based baseline study can be conducted through the use of simple sampling procedures and the application of the

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Simple frequency and percentages tables and averages can be developed, along with cross tabulations, to illustrate levels of understanding of labor rights and perceptions of compliance or non-compliance with these rights.

Why do sampling? Typically, a target population can be very large, for example the labor force in general or the work force in a huge industry like garments where there may be several millions of workers. A 'sample' thus forms a manageable (cost-effective and practical) subset of a population. The process of collecting information from a sample is referred to as 'sampling'. However, sampling process requires faithful representation and reliability. As discussed in Annex A, sampling methods may be either 'random' (random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling) or non-probability (purposive sampling, etc.).

Analyzing weaknesses and gaps in the existing labor law system

Third step. Once the baseline data are established, an in-depth analysis of the weaknesses and gaps in the labor law system can now proceed in accordance with Box B of the analytical framework. This analytical process starts with the gaps and weaknesses uncovered in the baseline data.

Then the process should move into a ***closer reading of the existing labor laws***. This may involve the following research work:

Reading of the texts of the labor laws (see earlier discussion on legal research). Special attention should be given not only on comprehensiveness or adequacy of the laws but also on the legal phraseology which may strengthen or water down labor rights. For example, a legal provision stating: "freedom of association is recognized *except in special industrial parks for export producers...*". The exception portion is dangerous because it means limitation of the application of the right being recognized, a case of one hand giving and the other hand taking.

Case studies. The use of illustrative case studies to analyze more clearly weaknesses in the law and weaknesses in enforcement is necessary. A trade union research team should be able to identify and document cases that shed light on the dynamics or complexity of labor law legislation and enforcement, which can not be readily established through a field questionnaire administered to a large population or sample. In

fact, it is interesting that one of the most common definitions of a case study as a research method or strategy refers precisely to the need to shed light on the dynamics or complexity of a given social phenomenon, as follows :

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

Some examples of good topics for case study:

- Case study of non-payment and/or underpayment of wages and benefits. Why does this happen despite the existence of labor standard laws? Are there remedies based on existing laws? If none or are very limited, why?
- Case study of the collapse of a union organizing drive. How did this happen despite labor laws recognizing unionism? What was the role of the employer – a neutral bystander or an aggressive intervenor? Was the union registration office a help or a hindrance? Was the law an ally or an enemy? In what way?
- Case study of a dispute settlement failure. What was the settlement procedure adopted? How was the worker or union represented? Delays in the settlement process and causes? Neutrality and professionalism of the labor judge? What changes in the dispute settlement system should be made?
- Other possible case studies: success or failure of labor-management cooperation, intra- and inter-union dispute (involving quarrels between and among trade unionists), fly-away shop (investor who “disappeared” by relocating overseas), outsourcing and agency hiring to avoid hiring of regular workers, etc.

Interviews with key informants and focused group discussions (FGDs). The idea here is to clarify things further. Key informants are persons who are knowledgeable or have in-depth knowledge about the workings of the labor laws, their enforcement, the violations of workers’

rights and the possible remedies. They include officials of trade union federations and confederations, union presidents, labor lawyers or advocates, personnel/HR managers, government officials dealing with labor issues, etc. They are interviewed to give insights or deeper analysis of certain problems, e.g., on delays in dispute settlement or subversion of union organizing efforts. However, care should be taken with regard to the answers of selected informants for they naturally bring in their own individual perspectives.

Interviews with key informants and the focused group discussions (FGDs) help fill gaps in the review of literature and supplement the information culled from the questionnaire. FGDs, properly organized by an expert facilitator, are very good in drawing out views and information from like-minded individuals, for example, an FGD of shop stewards or an FGD of union organizers, or an FGD of union officials. Participants tend to volunteer more information and shed light or views on hazy areas, for example, analyzing rampant labor rights violations despite good labor laws on paper. However, good documentation is necessary.

Formulating alternative or remedial labor law reform measures

Fourth step. Finally, the research team has to address the challenge of formulating needed labor law reforms (or drawing up a ***Labor Law Reform Agenda***), after perusing the baseline data (results of the state of the arts and baseline survey) and the findings from the weaknesses/gaps analysis of the labor law system. The task of formulation should specifically address the following:

- Listing of needed labor laws
- Listing of needed labor law amendments
- Listing of needed labor law rules and procedures
- Policy changes to cure weak labor law enforcement
- Remedies to cure weaknesses in dispute settlement

One should be reminded that a good labor law system should contain at least –

- Laws needed to define labor rights.
- Laws needed to enforce the laws on labor rights.
- Laws needed to interpret/clarify the laws on labor rights.

In the illustrative case studies mentioned above, the reform measures may include the following:

- On non-payment and/or underpayment of wages and benefits despite the existence of labor standard laws. Legal remedial measures: laws imposing stiff penalties on erring employers, strengthening labor inspectorate, and encouraging unions to monitor violations, etc.
- On the collapse of a union organizing drive despite labor laws recognizing unionism. Legal remedial measures: laws requiring employers not to interfere in any union formation activity (only to serve as neutral bystander), enshrining the principles of unfair labor practice (which considers employer interference and other forms of union busting as acts inimical to the freedom of association and are punishable under the law), etc.
- On delays and corruption in labor courts. Legal remedial measures: laws clarifying procedures and timelines that must be observed to resolve a dispute, identifying standards of behavior that the labor judge and the parties must observe, establishing more labor courts to de-clog salas of overburdened judges or arbiters, etc.

Now, finally, not all labor rights violations or non-enforcement are due to weaknesses in the labor law system. In fact, a country may have a comprehensive and pro-labor legal system and yet may still come up with a large number of labor rights violations. This is where the **politico-economic environment** mentioned at the bottom of Box B and Box C comes in. Not all labor problems can be solved through labor law amendments or labor rights legislations. However, without the enabling labor law system, the enforcement of labor rights in a country may be trampled upon with impunity as what we have seen in many dictatorial regimes. Thus, the challenge for trade unions in addressing observance of labor rights concerns is twofold – advocacy for reform of the labor law system and advocacy for the development of a politico-economic system conducive to the welfare and rights of the workers.

Conclusions

Analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of a country's labor law system and identifying and formulating possible remedies and adjustments in the system is not an easy process. In fact, labor law amendments often take years of politicized debates before they are resolved, not necessarily to the satisfaction of everyone, particularly the labor and other marginalized sectors.

However, labor law research, properly conducted, can be an ally in winning the arguments for labor reform policy in accordance with the principles of DWA and MDGs as propounded by the trade union movement. Research may be expensive and sometimes time-consuming. And yet, without good quality research, the reform process becomes even more time-consuming, more expensive, more exhausting and more perilous to reform-minded policy advocates. This toolkit is a modest contribution to making research a weapon for the trade union reform advocates.

Annex "A"

Use of SPSS in the Conduct of Baseline Survey Study

Everyone can do a simple scientific research called baseline survey or communication research even without a background in research and statistical methods. All you need are: 1.) research topic; 2.) objectives of the research or what you want to find out or prove; 3.) hypothesis; 4.) SPSS program; and 5.) patience and perseverance.

Conducting survey is very important if you want to get information from a group or sample of people representing a target population. Questionnaires are formulated to fit this sample group. It can be a group of managers, supervisors, or rank-and-file employees in a manufacturing industry like garments, construction or metal-based industry. Target sample may come from unionized or non-unionized companies. The formulation of questions will depend on the nature of the study and objectives of the researcher.

Hypothesis

One of the most important parts of a survey research is the hypothesis. This should be written and formulated carefully by the researcher because researches revolve around the research hypothesis and the null hypothesis. A hypothesis is a conjectural statement of the relationship between two or more variables, for example: "wages in a unionized company are higher than in a non-unionized company".

The null hypothesis is what the researcher tries to disprove, reject or nullify, for example: "there is no significant difference in wages in unionized and non-unionized companies". On the other hand, the alternative hypothesis is what the researcher really think is the reality or cause of a phenomenon, for example: "wages in a unionized company are higher than in a non-unionized company". A research conclusion is made by rejecting or accepting the null hypothesis. Then the researcher comes up with an alternative hypothesis to strengthen the research conclusion.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a series of questions organized to obtain statistically useful information from a sample of respondents about a given

topic. Properly constructed and administered, questionnaires become a vital instrument by which statements can be made about specific groups of people or entire populations, for example: workers' views on unionism, labor rights and labor laws. Adequate questionnaire construction is critical to the success of any survey. Inappropriate questions, incorrect ordering of questions, incorrect scaling, or bad questionnaire format can make the survey valueless, as it may not accurately reflect the views and opinions of the participants.

Before doing the questionnaire, the researcher should know the target respondents, their type of work, and the country where the survey is being conducted. These are useful guides in the formulation of the types of questions that are going to be asked. There are also some labor terms, practices, cultures or situations in a specific work setting which are very unique. The researcher should find these out and take these into consideration in phrasing questions to firm up the connection of the questionnaire to the respondents. Questions should be written in simple terms and straight to the point. If a survey will be conducted in a non-English-speaking sector and yet the original questionnaire is in English, it is best to adopt the language of the respondents.

A useful method for checking a questionnaire and making sure it is accurately capturing the intended information is to **pretest** among a smaller subset of target respondents. This means you have to select a small sample of the targeted respondents. If the target are the rank-and-file employees of unionized companies, then the pre-testing should be done with a number of them. This pre-testing will help detect weaknesses in the construction of the questionnaire such as poor sequencing of the topics (sometimes zig-zagging or jumping from one topic to another), redundant or repetitive phrasing of the questions, etc. In other words, pre-testing means checking the flow of the questions and validating the importance of each of the issues raised in the questionnaire. Also, as a rule, a questionnaire should not be too taxing to both respondents and interviewers, meaning it should not be very long. An ideal questionnaire should be completed in half an hour (it should not exceed an hour!).

The result of any study depends on the answers written by the interviewer (or by the respondent himself/herself) in the questionnaire. It is very important that questionnaires are conducted in places where the interviewer and interviewee are comfortable, in areas where they can hear each other properly and is not under time pressure. For example, it is hazardous to interview or administer the questionnaire to a union organizer right within the company premises or under the watchful eyes of a manager.

Each question is very important so it should be communicated correctly. If the respondent cannot understand the question being asked, it should be translated verbatim depending on the language the respondent is more familiar with, so long as the translation is accurate and the meaning of the question is unaltered.

Interviewers

The research team can administer the survey forms as finalized after the pre-testing. But if this is not possible, the team can hire people to do the survey for them. These people should have a background on the study being surveyed. They should undergo a training or a formal introduction about the study so that they will be conversant with the logic of the questions and they can answer questions raised by the respondents. The questionnaire should be discussed thoroughly – item by item -- with the hired interviewers. Each question should be explained properly by the research team to the ones who will administer the survey to be able to have a common understanding and avoid misinterpretation. An interviewer's misreading the question will greatly affect the whole study, for the respondents will have the tendency to give the wrong answer. The interviewer should study carefully the questionnaire. They should be very familiar with the flow and direction of some questions. They should also be aware of questions that need single answer [SA] and multiple answers [MA]. Mastery of the questionnaire will avoid delays and hassles in interviewing the respondents.

Respondents

Selecting the right respondents for the survey is very important. The ideal number of respondents is **five (5) per cent** of the total population of the target group. This is difficult, time-consuming and extremely expensive if the group is very large, for example five per cent of two million garments workers means a sample of 100,000 respondents.

An alternative approach is to get a smaller sample using a stratified random sampling method. This involves dividing the population into homogenous groups or "strata". You can group respondents by the type of products they make, or by the companies they come from (small, medium or large companies), or by the type of occupational work they are doing, e.g., cutters, sewers, etc. After grouping and reducing the number

of groups levels, you can now select by random sampling a manageable number of respondents, say 1,000 respondents. This number will already be a good representation of the study.

Another approach is to use the purposive statistical method. After grouping the respondents by strata, you can select respondents by simply picking up an employee after every given interval number, say every 50th employee, from the list of selected companies or from an area with large concentration of target respondents.

Once a respondent has been chosen, the interviewer should introduce himself or herself and explain his/her purpose. Questions should be read clearly and an illustrative “showcard” should be on hand for questions that have many choices. This will make it easy for the respondents to understand the questions and choose the right answers.

Using SPSS to encode data

One fear often expressed by non-professional researchers is how to do communication survey in a scientific way and manage and interpret the data collected in a scientific manner too. This fear can be overcome by spending a little time in understanding the research process (see overview in the toolkit paper) and appreciating the use of the SPSS statistical program, a user-friendly computer-based program which both professional and non-professional researchers can easily use.

SPSS stands for the “**S**tatistical **P**ackage for the **S**ocial **S**ciences”. It is popular among non-academic institutions such as non-governmental organizations. The SPSS program is also downloadable from the internet, which also has a number of on-line tutorials on how to use the program. Once the SPSS program is in place in your computer and you have gathered the returned questionnaires, you can start working or doing the data management process.

First make a template of the questionnaire using the SPSS program. With the SPSS program open in the computer, note the two tabs below on the left side of the screen: the **data view** and the **variable view**. Click on the variable view to be able to enter the **variable names, variable type, labels, value labels, missing values, and measurement level**. Please follow the SPSS coding guide of the questionnaire on entering the code of each answer. All answers should be entered and coded properly. Failure to do so will affect the results and will give different interpretations. Now some clarifications on the following:

a. Variable names

These are the variables you measure in your questionnaire. In other words, each question represents a variable name. Variable names must be unique. No duplication is allowed. This variable name can be alphanumeric or mixed with numbers. Look at the example below, Respondent number is represented with a variable name of “resp#” and name of respondent is represented with a variable name of “name”. In the question about gender, you can put a variable name of “gender” because gender is already a short word. In the highest educational level, you can have “educ” as a variable name which represents education. Variable names can be any short cut word depending on how each reminds you of the question. For example,

Question	Variable name
1. Respondent number	resp#
2. Name of respondent	name
3. Gender	gender
4. What is your highest educational level	educ

In the variable view tab of the SPSS, this is entered in the first column part. Clicking on the data view tab, these variables will appear as heading in every column.

b. Variable type

The variable type is like a description of the expected answers in each question. This could be numeric for answers with numbers like age, it could be date, currency, or string for open-ended answers. Looking at the example below, the variable resp# is numeric because the answers are numbers; the variable name is string because names or respondents are the answers; gender is numeric because gender is represented by numbers 1 for male and 2 for female; educ is numeric because each level is represented by a number. For example,

Variable name	Type
resp#	numeric
name	String
gender	numeric
educ	numeric

c. Labels

These are the full descriptions of the variable name. These labels are needed to remind you of what was asked in the question. For example,

Variable name	Label
resp#	Respondent number
name	Name of respondent
gender	Gender
educ	Highest educational level

d. Value labels

Value labels are where you enter the codes of each answer.

Variable name	Label	Value labels or codes
resp#	respondent number	none
Name	Name of respondent	none
Gender	Gender	1 - male 2 - female
Educ	Highest educational level	1 - not completed primary 2 - completed primary 3 - not completed secondary 4 - completed secondary 88 - others, pls specify

In the box on value labels, notice that the variables “resp#” and “name” have no corresponding value labels because these questions can not be represented with a specific answer. The value labels in these type of questions are usually left blank.

Based on the sample SPSS guide attached in this manual, you will notice that there are consistent codes like “77 - **don't know**” and “88 - **other answers**”. Please follow accordingly so that there will be consistency in the data when it is processed.

Note: For questions that requires **multiple answers**, each answer will have a separate column and will have a code of yes or no. Example question: Can you please tell me which of these benefits you receive?

- d.1 Attendance bonus
1 – yes ; 2 – no
- d.2 13th month pay
1 – yes; 2 – no
- d.3 Transportation allowance
1 – yes; 2 – no

With this example, the encoder will enter 1 in the column of the attendance bonus if it was selected and 2 in the 13th month pay column if it is not selected and so on.

Open-ended questions are considered string and answers should be encoded as is. In the measurement column in the variable view tab, you can adjust the number from 8 to 255 to accommodate the long answers. After all questionnaires are entered in the SPSS, the open-ended answers will be summarized for the interpretation and discussion of results.

e. Missing values

Chances are some questions shall be left unanswered by some respondents. You have an option to leave it blank or assign a missing value code. If you choose the latter, then the code depends on what variable type are the answers. In the example below, *resp#* has no missing value codes because each respondent has a corresponding number; *name* is a *string* type so if the respondent does not want to disclose his name and is left blank, you can put a missing value code of *z*; *gender* and *educ* are numeric types so if these are not answered by the respondents, you can put a missing value of 9 or any number not used in the codes.

Variable name	Missing value codes
resp#	abc
name	Z
gender	9
educ	9

f. Measurement level

This is identifying the level of measurement of the variable. This could be scale, ordinal or nominal.

Variable name	Label	Value labels or codes	Measure
resp#	Respondent numbers	none	scale
name	Name of respondent	none	
gender	Gender	1 - male 2 - female	nominal
educ	Highest educational level	1 - not completed primary 2 - completed primary 3 - not completed secondary 4 - completed secondary 5 - not completed tertiary 6 - completed tertiary 88 - others, pls specify	nominal

Scale. Data values are numeric values on an interval or ratio scale--for example, age or income. Scale variables must be numeric.

Ordinal. Data values represent categories with some intrinsic order (for example, low, medium, high; strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). Ordinal variables can be numeric values that represent distinct categories (for example, 1 = low, 2 = medium, 3 = high).

Nominal. Data values represent categories with no intrinsic order--for example, job category or company division. Nominal variables can be either string (alphanumeric) or numeric values that represent distinct categories--for example, 1 = Male, 2 = Female.

Using SPSS to interpret data

In SPSS, the most common statistical methods used in interpreting the data are 1) the frequencies where you get the mean, median, mode and standard deviation, and 2) the cross-tabulation, where you also get the Pearson chi-square result. Frequency is simply defined as the number of times of the occurrence of an event or an answer. Mean usually refers to the arithmetic average of the distribution of variables in a frequency; median, the middle value in the distribution; mode, the value with the most number of cases or the variable which occurs most frequently; and

standard deviation, measure of dispersion of variables. Cross-tabulation is used to show relationship between two or more variables. The Pearson square, in layman's terms, means finding the right mix of two or more components; in research statistics, Pearson's chi-square is used to assess two types of comparison: tests of goodness of fit and tests of independence. The first test (goodness of fit) establishes whether or not an observed frequency distribution differs from an established theoretical distribution. The second test (independence) assesses whether paired observations on two variables are independent of each other, for example, whether workers from different regions differ in frequency when they support or join unions.

a. Frequency

Frequency tables are developed to determine measures of central tendency and variability. In the SPSS program, select Analyze menu, click descriptive statistics and then click on frequencies. A frequencies dialog box will appear. Select the variable that you want to measure like gender, then click the arrow pointing to the right. Click on the statistics to open the statistics subdialogue box. Click on the items needed like quartiles, standard deviation, mean, median, and mode, then click continue. Another dialog box will open for the charts. You can choose whatever chart you need. Click continue and then ok.

The summary of the chosen variables will appear and its quartiles, standard deviation, mean, median and mode, along with the type of chart that you chose. You can then interpret the results such as which answer is the highest and which is the lowest or the most commonly used depending on the question.

b. Cross-tabulation

As mentioned, cross-tabulations are used to reflect correlations between two or more variables. The Pearson's chi-square tests are used to measure relatedness or independence of the variables.

In the SPSS program, select the **Analyze** menu, click on the **descriptive statistics** and then on **crosstabs**. In the **crosstabs dialogue box**, select a **row variable** and click the arrow to the right then select a **column variable** and click the button to the right. Click on the **statistics button** below to open the **statistics subdialogue box**. Click on **chi-square** and then continue and click on the **percentages** button and then ok. A table will appear with a **cross tabulation** of the two variables

selected and the **chi-square tests** results will also appear. Here, you can see the count and percentages results of the dependent and independent variables or the variables you selected. In the chi-square table result, you need to look at the **Pearson chi-square** on the first cell in the table and its significance level. Usually the alpha level in chi-square is .05, so if the significance level shown in the table is below the alpha level of .05, the two variables that are cross-tabulated are considered significantly related, but if it is above the alpha level, we can say that there is no significant relationship between the two variables.

There are independent and dependent variables. Statisticians refer to the independent variable as the variable that is being changed or manipulated, and the dependent variable is what comes out of the change process. A simpler discussion: the independent variable is the cause and the dependent variable is the effect. A simple illustration: the independent variable of unionism can influence the dependent variable of higher wages. Over time, the higher the degree of unionism, the higher the rate of wage increases. Researchers can test this relationship by looking at the wage behavior in unionized and non-unionized companies and find out if there is statistically significant difference in the relationship between these variables in unionized and non-unionized settings.



Another example: You want to know if a person with high educational level has high income. So your independent variable will be the educational level and the dependent variable will be the income. You can cross tabulate the two variables to see if those with high education levels have high income.

c. ANOVA

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is often used in cases where there are more than two groups, to measure variability. It is used to compare the means of more than two samples.

One-way ANOVA. A One-Way ANOVA is a statistical technique by which we can test if three or more means are equal. It tests if the value of a single variable differs significantly among three or more levels of a factor.

Two-way ANOVA. This is when the research involves two factors each with multiple levels.

There are different types of ANOVA tests. There are the One-way between groups ANOVA with planned comparisons, One-way between-groups ANOVA with post-hoc comparisons, One-way between groups ANOVA with planned comparisons, Two-way between groups ANOVA, One-way repeated-measures ANOVA, and Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA. All of these can be done in SPSS program. Just select the Analyze menu, and from there you can choose whatever ANOVA test is appropriate in your research.

To conclude, all of these and more statistical methods can be done using the SPSS program. The **frequency** and **cross tabulation** are the easiest statistical methods that can be done through the SPSS program. You can easily get the results and interpret them. It is important, however, that all answers are encoded properly and accurately in the program. For more complicated statistical methods and analysis, you can always get a statistician to identify which statistical method is applicable and to help in interpreting the results. But for a simple survey study seeking to measure awareness of the rights or perception of rights violations, simple frequency and cross-tabulation of the results should be sufficient.

Endnote

¹ Details on the ILO's Decent Work campaign is available at: <http://www.oit.org/global/About_the_ILO/Mainpillars/WhatisDecentWork/lang>.

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