

Review of Gender Equality in Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (DRRM)



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Acronym

AADMER	ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response
ADB	Asian Development Bank
APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation
BPFA	Beijing Platform for Action
CA	Christian Aid
CAS	Country Assistance Strategy
CCA	Climate Change Adaptation
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CNDR	Corporate Network for Disaster Reduction
CRED	Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
DBM	Department of Budget and Management
DENR	Department of Environment and Natural Resources
DILG	Department of Interior and Local Government
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DRRM	Disaster Risk Reduction and Management
DRRNet	Disaster Risk Reduction Network
EO	Executive Order
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GAD	Gender and Development
GAR	Global Assessment Report
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GDI	Gender and Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
IPC	Institute for Philippine Culture
IFRCRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
KRDFI	Kasanyangan Rural Development Foundation, Inc
LGBT	Lesbian, Gays, Bisexuals, and Transgenders
LGC	Local Government Code
LGU	Local Government Units

MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NCR	National Capital Region
NCCAP	National Climate Change Action Plan
NDCC	National Disaster Coordinating Council
NDRRMC	National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council
NEDA	National Economic Development Authority
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NSCB	National Statistics and Census Board
PD	Presidential Decree
PDNA	Post-Disaster Needs Assessment
PCW	Philippine Commission on Women
PAGASA	Philippine Atmospheric Geophysical and Astronomical Services Administration
PKKK	Pambansang Koalisyon ng Kababaihan sa Kanayunan
PPGD	Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development
RA	Republic Act
SEWA	Self-employed Women's Association
TS	Tropical Storm
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UN ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNISDR	United Nations Office for Disaster Reduction
UN OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
VAW	Violence Against Women
WB	World Bank
WDR	World Disaster Report

Glossary

Discrimination Against Women

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

Disaster

A serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources. (UNISDR, 2009)

Disaster risk

The potential disaster losses, in lives, health status, livelihoods, assets and services, which could occur to a particular community or a society over some specified future time period. (UNISDR, 2009)

Disaster risk reduction

The concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyze and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events

(UNISDR, 2009)

Disaster risk reduction and management

The systematic process of using administrative directives, organizations, and operational skills and capacities to implement strategies, policies and improved coping capacities in order to lessen the adverse impacts of hazards and the possibility of disaster (DRRM Act of 2010).

Gender

Refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes.

Gender Equality

Refers to the principle asserting the equality of men and women and their right to enjoy equal conditions realizing their full human potentials to contribute to and benefit from the results of development, and with the State recognizing that all human beings are free and equal in dignity and rights (Philippine Magna Carta of Women).*

Gender Equity

Fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs, and often re-

quires built-in measures to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages of women (IFAD Gender Glossary).

Gender Mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in all areas and at all levels, and as a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality (UN ECOSOC Agreed Conclusions 1997/2).

Hazard

A dangerous phenomenon, substance or human activity that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, property damage, loss of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental damage (UNISDR, 2009).

Preparedness

Provides for the key strategic actions that give importance to activities revolving around community awareness and understanding; contingency planning; conduct of local drills and the development of a national disaster response plan (DILG, 2011).

Prevention/mitigation

Provides key strategic actions that give importance to activities revolving around hazards evaluation and mitigation, vulnerability analyses, identification of hazard-prone areas and mainstreaming DRRM into development plans (DILG, 2011)

Recovery/rehabilitation

Priority area cover areas like employment and livelihoods, infrastructure and lifeline facilities, housing and resettlement, among others. These are recovery efforts done when people are already outside of the evacuation centers

(DILG, 2011).

Response

Gives importance to activities during the actual disaster response operations from needs assessment to search and rescue to relief operations to early recovery activities are emphasized (DILG, 2011).

Violence Against Women

"Violence Against Women" refers to any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life. It shall be understood to encompass, but not limited to, physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated within the household, in the community and workplace and by the State (Philippine Magna Carta of Women).

Vulnerability

The characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard (UNISDR, 2009).

* In the context of the paper, the term "gender equality" or "equality" was used to include all gender identities (including lesbian, gays, transgenders and bisexuals, or LGBT) and the concept of gender equity.

Executive Summary

Natural disasters are increasingly becoming part of the people's realities worldwide – and a critical global and national concern intersecting issues of food and human security, displacement and forced migration, economic development, environmental protection and management, among others. This is very much true in the case of the Philippines which has been ranked as the most disaster-prone country in the world (World Disaster Report 2012). It is estimated that 50.3 percent of its total land area and 81.3 percent of its population are vulnerable to disasters. From 2000 to 2012 alone, the Center for Research on Epidemiology of Disasters recorded 207 significantly damaging natural disasters in the country. Tropical storms and floods in particular have been the most frequently occurring and most destructive: in a span of only four years, the country experienced four major tropical storms which resulted to damages amounting to at least PhP77.31 billion (approximately USD 1.8 billion).

While the geophysical location and characteristics of the Philippines is a factor, literature also points to the uneven economic development and inefficient political systems as deeper reasons behind the large negative impact of disasters. Another important factor highlighted is the social marginalization of certain groups which also influences their access to resources which could have lessened their vulnerability to disasters. Far from an equalizing event, disasters often magnify and aggravate existing inequalities in society, including gender-based inequalities. As lessons from disasters around the world show, women and girl children are one of the hardest hit populations when disaster strikes. Mor-

tality and morbidity rates among them are high, and in some cases, there is an increased risk of sexual and other gender-based violence against women and girls in times of disaster. Long-term impacts include lowered life expectancy and higher incidence of poverty in female-headed households. Based on the limited data on the gendered impact of disasters on LGBTs (lesbians, gays, bisexuals and transgenders) and men, it is also shown that they too suffer from the neglect of their gender-specific needs in times of disasters.

The above forms the context of the report which aims to present an overview of issues in current DRRM policies and practices in the Philippines and which hinder promotion of gender equality, and forward recommendations to address these. The specifically, the objectives are:

1. Identify the pertinent policies on gender equality and DRRM in the Philippines;
2. Determine their key features and assess if these policies promote and enhance gender equality in the four (4) thematic areas of DRRM, namely: prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response, and rehabilitation/recovery;
3. Identify good practices in DRRM in relation to gender equality that can be promoted and be made sustainable by policies; and,
4. Provide policy recommendations vis-à-vis promoting gender equality in DRRM.

Data was collected from secondary sources as well as interviews with representatives from government agencies (Official of Civil Defense, Department of In-

terior and Local Government, Department of Social Welfare and Development, the National Economic and Development Authority, National Anti-Poverty Commission – Disaster Victims Sector, and the Philippine Commission on Women) and non-government organizations (Center for Disaster Preparedness, Christian Aid and Corporate Network for Disaster Response). A focus group discussion was also conducted with DRRM program staff of Oxfam.

Several conditions influenced the substance of the report. These are mainly the short timeframe to complete the project and the limited secondary data on the gendered impact of disasters in the country both in terms of scope (mostly focused on disaster response issues) and reference to experiences of other groups apart from women and girl children (e.g. LGBTs, men). While the study forwarded the World Bank's framework on gender equality (World Development Report 2012) as basis, the framework cannot be maximized in the analysis because of the data gaps.

Key findings of the study are:

- Based on international indices, the Philippines ranks from high (Gender Gap Index) to medium (Gender and Development Index) in terms of its achievement of gender equality. While this is a good indicator of progress, it cannot be taken as an accurate reflection of gendered experiences of women and men in the country. Gender-based discrimination is highly contextual and, as with disasters, often localized in its impact. Thus, within the country, there are communities and families where women still experience forms of discrimination and violence which are already minimized if not eradicated in some areas. The GDI scores of provinces may be a starting point in identifying areas where women vulnerability to disasters may be high. Moreover, it was also noted that some of the bottom provinces with regard to GDI scores were also identified as belonging to the poorest provinces and very highly at risk of climate change impacts (i.e. temperature change, droughts, increased rainfall and flooding).
- Gender inequality (or equality) where it exists, influence DRRM-related interventions, from disaster prevention and mitigation, to disaster recovery and rehabilitation. Gender stereotyping of women and men's ability and interests are sometimes manifested in the activities conducted. For instance, the community deems that search and rescue trainings are for men because it requires physical strength, while women are tapped as volunteers because they have more "free time". Unchecked, this is lost opportunity for DRRM practitioners to mainstream gender equality in their work and in their communities.
- Gender-based discrimination happens in disaster situations, and in some cases is aggravated by the event. The breakdown of social order during disasters provides a context for gender-based violence, specifically domestic and sexual violence, and mostly against women and children. Even female staff of humanitarian agencies can be vulnerable to sexual harassment while working in emergency situations. Other forms of gender-based discrimination in disaster situations documented are non-provision of necessary gender-specific needs (e.g. reproductive health services) and multiply burdening of women (and LGBTs) with reproductive and productive work as well community service. Gender stereotyping also influences coping mechanisms of women and men during disasters and, in the case of men, often hinders them from availing services (e.g. psychosocial services to address emotional trauma)
- The breakdown of social order and also the opportunity disasters provide to reconstruct communities also opens doors to more equitable gender-relations. Examples here are the (temporary) sharing of caring work and decision making between husband and wife, women are allowed to engage in paid work, women becoming more involved and visible in community work and leadership. Oftentimes, the change is out of necessity and only temporary until the household or community is able to recover from the disaster. However, there are also cases of more lasting shift from gender stereotyping to gender equality, for instance, women DRRM volunteers being elected to local government posts.
- The institutionalization of gender main-

streaming as a strategy to facilitate achievement of gender equality in the country has also influenced the way DRRM is conceptualized and practiced. That is, the national DRRM Law is explicit in its aims to promote principles of gender inclusivity and equality in all aspects of DRRM operations. However, more time and effort is needed before this is fully realized. Although women's participation in DRRM planning and operations have been increasing, there is yet to be a systematic assessment on its quality. One important dimension of this assessment is whether women's participation is contributing to their empowerment and to the recognition of gender equality in the community in general, or it is merely adding to women's already multiple reproductive and productive work.

- In addition to the previous point, there are “windows of opportunity” opened by disasters to promote gender equality: LGUs and CSOs engaging women in DRRM work which develops their self-esteem and public leadership skills; the shifts in gender roles wherein men also share in caring for household members; provision of livelihood opportunities so that women can support their families and have a measure of financial independence. The experience of disasters have also provided impetus for organizing women to be more visible and assertive in “building back better” their communities. More humanitarian agencies are also conscious of the gendered reality of disasters and have taken steps to address specific needs of vulnerable groups. These actions have influenced DRRM practice at the ground level. The participation of the private sector in DRRM also holds promise in strengthening people's capacities against disasters. Beyond disaster relief initiatives, the private sector can contribute much to disaster prevention and mitigation by investing in strategic projects such as accessible communication technologies for early warning and disaster information, low cost housing to benefit people living in danger zones, and risk financing.

Given thus, three core issues regarding to promoting gender equality in DRRM were identified: (1) the existence of gender-based discrimination which in-

creases women's vulnerability in times of disasters; (2) women's vulnerability in the disaster context relates not only to the hazard itself but also to gender-based violence and discrimination with regard to access to goods, services and opportunities at the onset of disasters and in period of rehabilitation and recovery; and (3) gender mainstreaming, as the government's main strategy in facilitating gender equality in the country is yet to be fully appreciated by government agencies and local government units.

Although the study set out to identify policy recommendations, an observation in the literature and in the interviews and FGD is that there are already good policies in place to ensure DRRM initiatives -- especially those of the government -- are gender-sensitive and gender-responsive. The challenge, however, lies in the implementation of these policies. Documentation and monitoring are particularly cited in this regard. There is also a need to review policies enacted in the light of the progressive frameworks forwarded by the three major laws on gender and DRRM: the national DRRM law (2011), the Climate Change Law (2009) and the Magna Carta of Women (2009).

The recommendations of the study are the following:

- Strengthen the monitoring and compliance systems for the implementation of gender-related laws and the national DRRM Law.
- Review policies on environment, particularly provisions on natural resource ownership, control and utilization from a gender and DRRM perspective
- Build the capacities of stakeholders – government agencies and local government units – on gender and development planning, as well as disaster risk reduction and management planning.
- Provide private sector incentives to encourage their engagement in vulnerability reduction through post-disaster initiatives such as health, livelihood and housing programs or projects which, among other criteria, should be gender-sensitive and responsive.
- Implement zoning policy that would put people away of harm's way. There is also

a need to improve the relocation framework of the government to include livelihoods and not only housing, as well as explicitly gender-sensitive and responsive.

- Conduct more studies on the gender dimensions of disasters in the country.

Introduction

1

Natural disasters have increasingly become part of people's realities worldwide – and a critical global issue intersecting concerns of food and human security, displacement and forced migration, economic development, environmental protection and management, among others. As the 2011 World Disaster Report notes, millions of lives and livelihoods from both developed and developing countries have been lost to major natural disasters such as those arising from earthquakes, cyclones, and tsunamis from the period of 2009 to 2011. The cost of natural disasters continue to rise and in the future can seriously threaten economies of low income countries. While to some extent, the increased frequency and intensified impact of natural hazards can be attributed to geophysical conditions of specific countries and climate change in general, the experience of disasters in this period also showed how the gaps in urban and rural development strategies of countries can magnify disasters. Emerging risks and new vulnerabilities arising from threats on technological systems were also highlighted. For instance, the case of the Japan nuclear power plant meltdown in 2011.

It is in this light that the need for integrating Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (DRRM) in national development plans and programs has been emphasized. However, it is also important that DRRM is sensitive and responsive to the differential impact of disasters, especially on already marginalized groups on whom the disaster impact is greater and more destructive. This is especially true for girls

and women living in societies where there is a high degree of gender-based discrimination. Unequal gender relations are magnified in times of disasters or re-introduced as the case may be in some disaster affected communities, which have been progressive in its outlook before. Readily apparent manifestations of this inequality are the high rates of mortality and morbidity among women, and the increased cases of domestic and sexual violence against women in times of disaster. Long term impacts include lowered life expectancy and education and higher rates of poverty among women and female-headed households than male-headed households.

On the other hand, where DRRM processes are gender-sensitive and conscious to mainstream gender equality, disaster resilience of households and communities are strengthened. Community organizers have also noted that women's participation in decision-making processes have resulted to a more inclusive local development. At the international level, addressing gender issues is a prominent feature of United Nations (UN) interventions, including DRRM, recognizing that gender equality is a human right thus intrinsic to social justice. The Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) on disaster risk reduction is a good tool to use in pushing for more equal and equitable gender relations in DRRM as it identifies gender as one of the cross cutting issues in its operationalization. Supporting the HFA are the international human rights instruments and standards on gender equality (e.g. the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination

Against Women) or integrating its principles (e.g. the Millennium Development Goals). Recently, World Bank in its 2012 World Development Report forwarded gender equality as “smart economics” and a necessary component to achieve national economic growth.

In this context it becomes relevant to assess the extent of gender mainstreaming in the Philippines DRRM policies and practices, and how gender mainstreaming in DRRM has influenced outcomes, if at all. The Philippines is known to be one of the more progressive countries in Asia with regard to gender equality as evidenced by its ranking in international gender equality indices. It is also known to be the third most disaster-prone country in the world according to the 2012 World Risk Report . While the reality of natural disasters can be attributed to the country’s geophysical location and characteristics, economic, social and political factors which influence people’s resources and capacities to deal with natural hazards also play a major role. To what extent does gender shape people’s vulnerability and resilience to disasters in the country? What are the gender issues in DRRM and how are these addressed in national and local policies?

1.1. Objectives and Key Questions of the Report

This report on gender and disasters in the Philippines was commissioned by the World Bank (WB) office in Manila as part of their periodic gender assessment which in turn informs the Bank’s programming and the gender dimensions of its Country Assistance Strategy (CAS). As such, the general objective of the report is to present an overview of issues in current DRRM policies and practices in the country which hinder promotion of gender equality, and forward recommendations to address these.

The specific objectives are as follows:

1. Identify the pertinent policies on gender equality and DRRM in the Philippines;
2. Determine their key features and assess if these policies promote and enhance gender equality in the four (4) thematic areas

of DRRM, namely: prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response, and rehabilitation/recovery;

3. Identify good practices in DRRM in relation to gender equality that can be promoted and be made sustainable by policies; and,
4. Provide policy recommendations vis-à-vis promoting gender equality in DRRM.

To achieve these, the study sought to answer the following key questions:

For objective 1:

- What are the gender and disaster risk reduction and management (DRRM) policies, and framework in the Philippines?; and,
- How were these conceptualized? What is the socio-political context behind their ratification/implementation?

For objective 2:

- What are the key features of the identified policies, and framework?
- How do these policies, and frameworks promote or hinder gender equality in terms of economic opportunities, agency and endowments?; and,
- What are the gaps, issues, challenges, and concerns vis-à-vis the four thematic areas in DRRM?

For objective 3:

The key question to address this objective is:

- What are the good practices in DRRM in relation to gender equality that can be promoted and be made sustainable by policies?

For objective 4:

- What are the specific policy recommendations needed at the national and local level that can promote and enhance gender equality in DRRM?

1.2. Methodology

The report was based on the findings of the literature review, interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) with government agencies and non-govern-

ment organizations conducted in June 2013. The presentation of the draft report to stakeholders was conducted on 17 July 2013. The comments and additional input from the participants, as well as the World Bank Office in Manila were integrated in the final version of the report.

1.3 Scope and Limitations of the Report

The research is primarily a review of literature on gender and DRRM in the Philippines. It highlights the discussion of national and international standards and laws on gender and DRRM shaping the practice of DRRM in the country, together with corresponding interventions and situations in selected recent disasters (i.e. Tropical Storm Ketsana, Parma, Washi and Bopha). That said, the data, statistics, and examples of good practices presented in the study were mainly drawn from desk review, supplemented by data gathered from consultations with government and non-government stakeholders.

Second, the study did not include operational policies (e.g. guidelines, department orders), programs and plans in its review. Although some of these were mentioned in the report, it was done so for illustrative purposes rather than as part of the main discussion.

Third, the research mainly focuses on the experience of the country of natural hazards, and mostly hydro-meteorological disasters. Flooding and landslides, while can be considered human-made disasters, are also included as much as they are also triggered by natural hazards like cyclones or earthquakes.

Fourth, the report more often than not highlights women's experiences of disasters. This is mainly because almost all literature and reports on gender and DRRM focuses on the vulnerability of women and only minimal references were made of men's gendered experiences of disasters, or that of lesbian, gays, bisexuals and transgenders (LGBT).

Lastly, this report does not claim to be a comprehensive reference on gender and disasters in the country. Lack of gender-disaggregated data on disasters and other quantitative information have hindered a deeper analysis on the situation of women and men in communities directly affected by disasters. At best, the study can point out directions for further inquiry on gender equality and development in the context of disasters.

Disasters, Vulnerability, and Gender Equality 2

While the terms are often confused and used interchangeably in common parlance, international definitions of “disaster” and “natural disasters” differentiate the occurrence of hazards from the disaster itself. Hazards, specifically natural hazards are a result of natural processes or phenomena occurring in the biosphere and have the potential to create harm on people and the environment (UNISDR). Natural hazards include those of geological (e.g. earthquakes, volcanic activities, tsunamis), hydro-meteorological (e.g. typhoons, storm surges, drought) or biological (e.g. plagues and epidemics, severe infestations) origins.

A disaster on the other hand is --

a serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources. A disaster is a function of the risk process. It results from the combination of hazards, conditions of vulnerability and insufficient capacity or measures to reduce the potential negative consequences of risk. (UNISDR)

The hazard is only one component of disasters; the ability of individuals and communities to mitigate risks is another. A key concept is the role of people’s vulnerabilities and capacities to manage risks and recover from disasters as a determinant of disas-

ters. Particularly in the context of natural disasters, DRRM practitioners and development workers in general are emphasizing the importance of building people’s capacities to deal with natural hazards such as cyclones, tsunamis and earthquakes, and reducing their vulnerabilities to these hazards. Capacity increases in direct proportion to the material and non-material resources which an individual or household can command, their strengths and attributes. At the same time, vulnerability (the susceptibility of individuals, households and communities to the impact of disasters) tends to go down as capacities increase because people and households have more options in protecting themselves from disaster.

Concurrent with this view of disasters is the recognition that socio-cultural and political factors are major factors in people’s capacities and vulnerabilities. That is, these define people’s access to goods, services and opportunities, as well as the extent of their influence in development processes and outcomes. From a capacity and vulnerability perspective, there is very little in “natural disaster” that is “natural”, and disasters surface, reflect or magnify existing inequalities in society which are deeply rooted in the prevailing economic and political systems. The occurrence of hazards (e.g. typhoons, earthquakes, droughts) per se is not a disaster, rather the extent of its negative impact on the population or the environment determines if it is (Wisner et al., 2012).

From this viewpoint, it is clear that disaster risk reduction and management entails a wide-range of in-

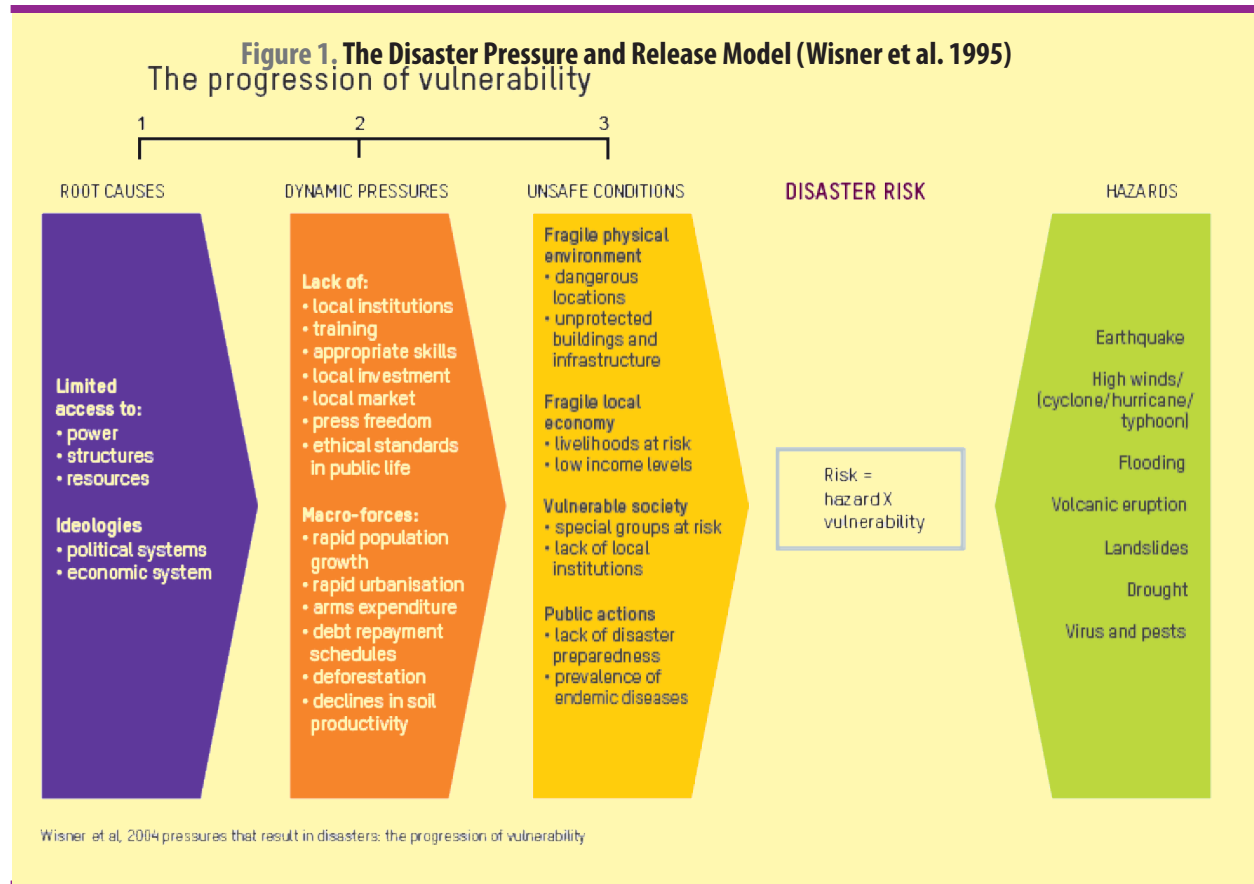
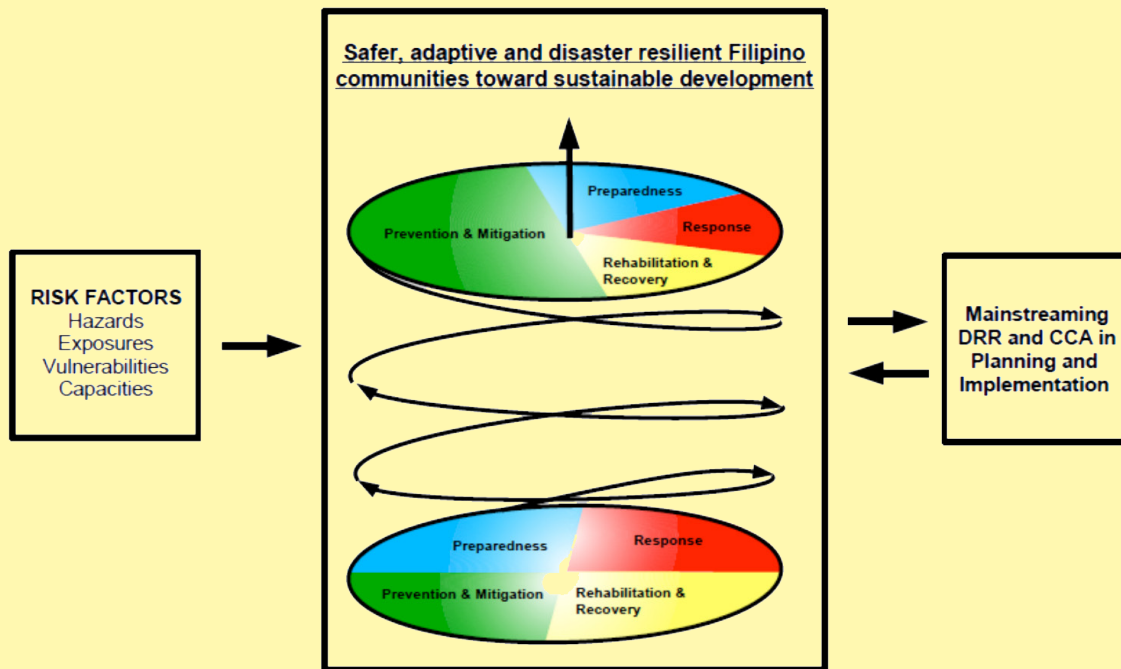


Figure 2. National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Framework



Source: National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council

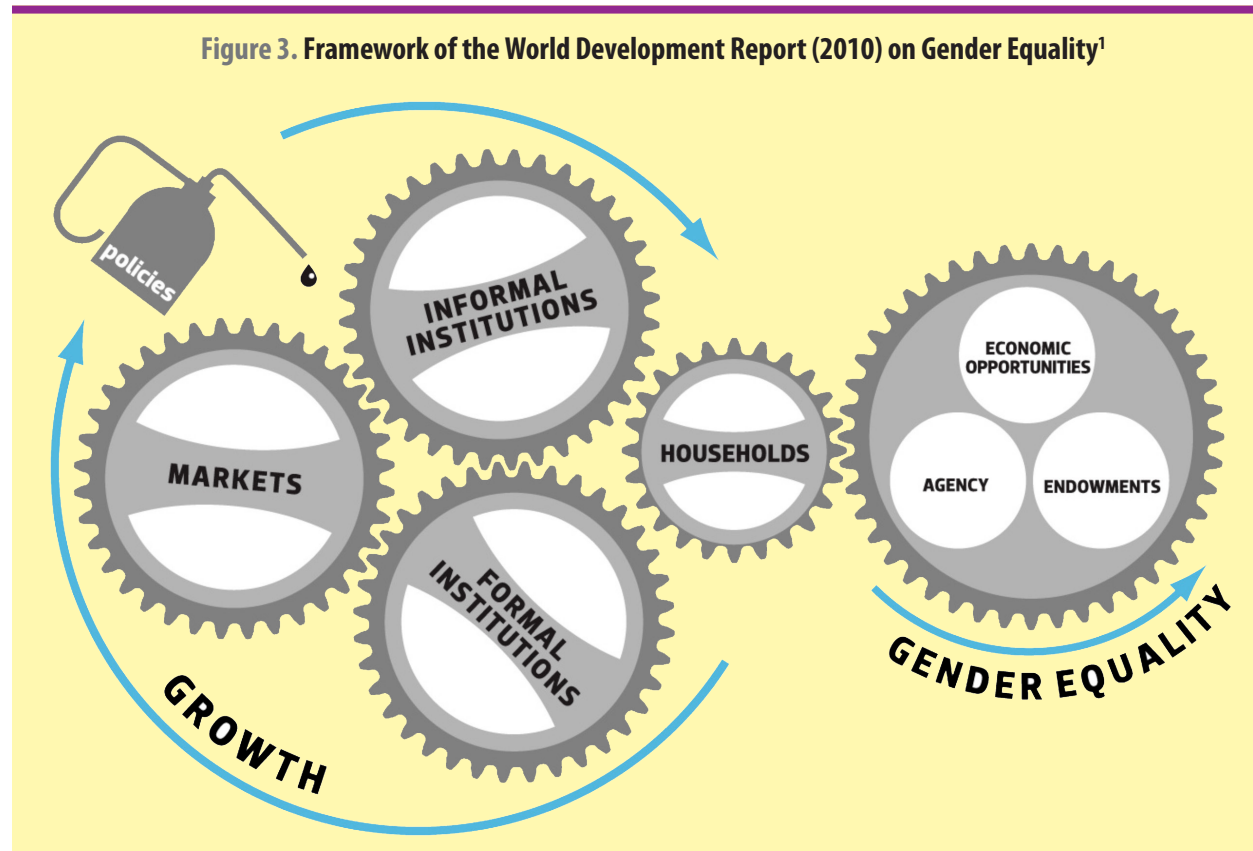
terventions aimed at reducing people's vulnerability to disasters and increasing their resilience to cope and recover from the event. This is clearly captured in the National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Framework (NDRRMF) of the Philippines. Specifically, DRRM activities are classified into the following themes: disaster prevention and mitigation (avoid hazards and mitigate their potential impacts by reducing vulnerabilities and exposure and enhancing capacities of communities); disaster preparedness (establish and strengthen capacities of communities to anticipate, cope and recover from the negative impacts of emergency occurrences and disasters); disaster response (provide life preservation and meet the basic subsistence needs of affected population based on acceptable standards during or immediately after a disaster); and disaster rehabilitation and recovery (restore and improve facilities, livelihood and living conditions and organizational capacities of affected communities, and reduced disaster risks in accordance with the "building back better" principle).

2.1. Gender and Disasters

Gender is a pervasive division affecting all societies, and it channels access to social and economic resources away from women and towards men.... Since our argument is that less access to resources, in the absence of other compensations to provide safe conditions, leads to increased vulnerability, we contend that in general women are more vulnerable to hazards. (Blaikie et al., 1994).

Although income (class) is a readily apparent variable in determining people's position in society, there are other variables – or identities – which also affect their exposure and vulnerability to discrimination within various situations, including disasters: gender, ethnicity, age and religion, among others. Gender in particular, as an organizing principle in society, is far from an objective categorization of people. Rather gender relationships, from intimacy to political participation contexts, are often hierarchical and unequal. It is also recognized globally that women and girls are disproportionately targeted

Figure 3. Framework of the World Development Report (2010) on Gender Equality¹



by gender-based discrimination.

The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women defines “discrimination” as –

... any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field (Article 1).

More concretely, the manifestations of gender-based discrimination in society are usually categorized as follows: stereotyping (projection of socially negative attributes as natural to one gender), subordination (maintaining control over a person on the basis of gender i.e. because the other gender is inferior or incapable), marginalization (giving low priority to addressing one needs on the basis of gender), multiple burden (unequal division of labor on the basis of gender) and violence against women (physical, psychological and sexual violence).

The World Development Report on Gender Equality (2012) traces the cause and effect of gender equality (or inequality as the case maybe) to the interaction of households, formal and informal institutions and the market as factors influencing gender relations, and thereby gender equality. Gender equality is defined by three components:

- *Endowments* refers to the material and non-material resources that the individual has on-hand. This covers the individual’s education, health, land, material assets and financial resources;
- *Economic opportunities* are avenues open (or closed) to individuals to translate their endowments and time into incomes or acquisition of more resources; and,
- *Agency* or the ability of the individual to make decisions for oneself and actualize these decisions. This includes the individual’s control of resources (as differentiated

from ownership), influence on family decision-making, freedom from violence and ability to have a voice in society.

Far from static, the status of gender equality in a particular place or situation is dynamic and is continually shaped by or negotiated within its socio-cultural environment, from the micro to macro levels. Public policies play a key role in the fulfillment of gender equality by influencing its context especially through defining social norms and creating mechanisms to enforce and eventually institutionalizing these norms.

Disasters surface, reflect or magnify existing inequalities in society. Thus, it is important to recognize that women’s experience of disasters cannot be isolated from their everyday reality of gender-based discrimination in their households and in society in general. Using the gender equality framework above, disasters can be viewed as a wedge that disrupts the functioning of (the gears of) households and community, thereby also affecting social relations, including gender dynamics. As an external shock, it has been noted that it can reverse or even erase gains made in promoting gender equality whether temporarily or permanently. Gender inequality has resulted to women more than men being disadvantaged with regard to factors affecting vulnerability (and invariably, resilience) to disasters such as nutrition, literacy and health; access to information, resources and legal protection; survival skills; and influence over decision-making processes.² The landmark study of Neumeyer and Plümpert (2007) of the gendered nature of disasters is significant to note in this regard. The study forwarded that the women’s (and girl children’s) vulnerability to disasters is closely linked to the social construction of their gender and their socio-economic status. The inequality between female and males are reflected in the disaster mortality rates i.e., women who in normal or optimal conditions live longer than men, experience a higher mortality rate during disasters. Natural disasters also narrow down the gender gap in life expectancies for females and male in most of the countries they studied.

Below are the gender issues in disasters identified from literature review categorized according to dis-

aster preparedness, response, and rehabilitation and recovery which can further highlight the links between disasters and gender (in)equality.³

2.2.1. Disaster preparedness

Women's timely access to information, for instance, was a critical factor in the 1991 Bangladesh cyclone, 1993 Maharashtra earthquake, Cyclone Nargis in Myanmar, and the Indian Ocean tsunami where women accounted for 61 to 90 percent killed in these disasters. In societies where women's mobility is restricted to their homes and family plots, community announcements of disaster information do not always reach them. Furthermore, socio-cultural norms on women's mobility also hindered them from leaving their homes to seeking protection in temporary shelters without their husband or an adult male family member.

Intersecting gender with other factors such as location and economic status, rural poor women also have limited access to communication devices such as televisions, radios or mobile phones as alternative sources of information. They are also most likely to live in unsafe locations and their houses made of light materials which may easily collapse from the strong winds.

The exclusion of women from community life, including decision-making processes, also meant that there is little assurance that their knowledge and experience of disasters would be taken into account in planning. Women's agency is also ignored in community discussions of disasters such as access to water in times of drought and dwindling food sources and firewood due to deforestation despite of its direct impact on women.

2.2.2. Disaster response

The most telling indicator of women's vulnerability is the high mortality rates in times of disasters. For instance, women comprised 60 to 90 percent of deaths in the 1991 Bangladesh disaster, Cyclone Nargis in Myanmar and the Indian Ocean tsunami in Indonesia, India and Sri Lanka. A study conducted in 141 countries showed that women's life expectancy is reduced during disasters due to the higher

number of deaths among women than men, and at younger ages (Neumeyer and Plümper 2007). However, intersecting data on gender with socio-economic status, the same study found that women of higher status were less vulnerable to the negative impact of disasters.

While gender per se does not determine the physical capacities of people, socio-cultural norms which influence their movement and mobility do (Neumeyer and Plümper., 2007). In societies where women's mobility is limited to smaller spaces (for instance, around their houses and family plots), women are often rendered less equipped to deal with the physical impacts of hazards. Women are less likely to be able to run fast and climb trees or high locations of safety, nor are they taught life skills such as swimming. These factors were found to be true in the case of the cyclones and tsunamis that hit South Asia in the past two decades.

Domestic and sexual violence increases in times of disasters, especially in the acute phases when there is a breakdown of social order and disruption of support systems (IFRC 2010). Hurricane Katrina in the United States, particularly in the states of Louisiana and New Orleans generally showed that women are more at risk than men during disasters because of the child-caring responsibilities they have, as well as the occurrence of gender-based violence in some cases (IWPR 2010).

Apart from socio-cultural norms, the fear of violence explain the reluctance of women to stay in temporary shelters. Women survivors of the Indian Ocean tsunami reported experiencing physical, verbal or sexual abuse in evacuation centers, particularly around the toilets (Hutton 2008). Sexual violence against women and girls in the form of rapes, harassment, trafficking and prostitution also increase after the disaster event. Forced marriages of girls to older men were also reported as a household measure to cope with the impact of disasters. Lack of privacy or separate quarters for women and men in shelters is also another gender issue related to violence.

Women's reproductive work is doubled in times of disaster as they struggle to maintain household functioning through care work (e.g. food sourcing

and preparation, care of children and other household dependents) with meager resources. It was observed that in some cases, gender politics in the household place the male members as priority in food allocation thus women and girls bear the brunt of food inadequacy in times of disaster (Neumeyer and Plümper, 2007; Blaikie et al., 1994). Relief aid is almost never adequate in disasters and households sometimes sell their rations to meet other needs, for instance health services for serious injuries or illnesses, or even to buy necessary toiletries not included in relief kits.

Gender-based discrimination against women also increases their vulnerability to poverty in times of disaster. First, discriminatory laws or practices which put the ownership and control of household property and assets on the husbands bar women from mobilizing these to meet family needs in the event that her husband dies or abandons them. Second, because social norms delegate husbands as heads of families, relief aid, cash assistance or credit is often extended only in their names. There is evidence that in gender unequal households, women have little influence on how family resources are used, and that meeting the needs of male family members are more favored over that of females. However there are also documented cases where men are pressured by their gender role of a provider, and were ashamed to receive relief assistance or ask for credit (WHO 2002).

The reproductive health of women and girls also decreases in times of natural disasters (Swatzyna & Pillai 2013). Reproductive health services are severely limited during disasters. In addition to services to address basic gender-specific sanitation and health needs (e.g. menstruation pads, private and safe female-only toilets) gender-based violence, food hierarchies discriminating women, information and services on sexual health, family planning and HIV/AIDS are also inadequate. Maternal mortality and illness is also likely to increase in emergency situations as a result of the increase in underlying risk factors such as inadequate pre-natal care which is necessary for the early detection of complications; under-nourishment; undesired pregnancies and induced septic abortion due to sexual violence and interruption of family planning services; insuff-

icient staff and resources for hygienic non-emergency deliveries; inadequate referral systems and/or transportation for obstetric emergencies; unsafe delivery and post partum follow up practices that cause infections (Abdallah & Burnham 2007).

Apart from the lack of reproductive health services, social norms is also a factor. For instance, during the 1998 Bangladesh floods, many adolescent girls have reported perineal rashes and urinary tract infections because they were not able to wash their menstrual rags properly in private. Some of them wore still damp cloths as they did not have a place to dry them (WHO 2002).

Productive work as an option for women to increase their economic resources is also limited by the lack of available employment for them. As with other forms of disaster aid, re-establishing men's livelihood (because they are the heads of households) is the priority of many aid agencies. Where opportunities for paid work are available to women, these are usually extensions of their reproductive roles and low-paying (e.g. cooking, laundry work) or inaccessible to many women because of their lack of skills. Violence against women and cultural limitations was also observed to limit women's participation in paid work. On the other hand, some literature pointed to practices of mobilizing women as unpaid "volunteers" in relief work, while men are engaged in cash or food-for-work schemes.

2.2.3. Rehabilitation and Recovery

The period of disaster rehabilitation and recovery is characterized by efforts to restore "normality" in community and household life and to improve systems to reduce disaster risk. However, as Blaikie et al., (1994) noted, gender inequalities from "normal" situations are often carried over to this period thus women have to work harder in both paid and unpaid work in this context. To the extent that the children and other dependent household members (e.g. the elderly and sick) are more likely under the charge of women than men, this affects their relative vulnerability. Women may also be more prone to post-disaster disease, largely as a result of poorer initial conditions (e.g. nutritional deficiencies, physical susceptibility).

Literature on women's situation in the disaster recovery and rehabilitation reports similar trends with the emergency or relief phase: women's increased vulnerability to violence; heavier work as family care provider with significantly smaller resources; limited economic opportunities, whether for paid work, credit or livelihood assistance; exclusion from rehabilitation programs which prioritizes male heads of households. Many women, especially rural women, do not have savings or social security which they can use to recover from disasters (Enarson 2000; Fletschner et al., 2011). This is partly attributed to the informality of many women's paid work, hence their earnings are small and irregular. It is often that these informal work are the hardest hit by disasters and least able to recover from its effects (Nelson et al. 2002 as cited in Araujo & Aguilar-Quesada n.d.). Similarly, lack of information about available welfare programs and eligibility requirements also hindered poor women's recovery from disasters, although among women with higher income status were able to access these.

Adverse reproductive health outcomes following disasters were also noted - early pregnancy loss, premature delivery, stillbirths, delivery-related complications and infertility (WHO 2002).⁴ The Food and Agriculture Organization (2000, as cited in Araujo and Aguilar-Quesada n.d.) also noted that the nutritional status of women prior to the disaster is an important factor in this regard. Women are more prone to nutritional deficiencies, especially iron which is important for their reproductive health. In South and Southeast Asia, 45 to 60 percent of women of reproductive age are underweight and 80 percent of pregnant women are iron-deficient. A study on post-2008 earthquake reproductive health in China reported that pregnancy-related complications were higher among women who were pregnant when the disaster struck. These complications include cases of anaemia, diabetes, heart disease, nephropathy and hepatitis (Huan He et al., 2008).

Other trends were also noted:

- In addition to their health concerns, older women also face economic difficulties because of lack of income sources to support themselves, and in some cases, grandchild-

ren under their care (whether these children were orphaned by the disasters or were left temporarily to them by the parents) (Hutton, 2008).

- The limited mobility of women with disabilities impedes their access to much-needed support services. Moreover it was noted that women with disabilities are subject to higher rates of sexual violence and partner abuse which may increase during the post-disaster period (Gender and Disasters Network n.d.).
- Gender-based roles and the threat of violence play a part in the continuation of girls' education following a disaster. In Africa, the significant increase of housework, particularly the longer time needed to get water, has led many girls to drop out of school. (Enarson 2004; Inter-Parliamentary Union & UNISDR 2010). Similarly, closing of nearby school due to damage wrought by disaster meant that girls have to walk farther and longer to get to school. This has implications to their personal security (Enarson 2004).

There were also gender-based discrimination against men and LGBTs (lesbians, gays, bisexuals and transgenders) found in literature. Gender stereotypes of males as protector also resulted in the high number of deaths of men due to their risk-taking behavior in disaster rescue and post-disaster clean-ups (Fothergill 1998; WHO 2002). There were also criticisms that psychosocial interventions in disasters focus only on women and children and overlook the needs of men. Counseling and other support for widowed men who after the disasters have to cope with earning a living and household management is also neglected in the range of disaster interventions.

On the other hand, the criminalization of homosexuality and the impunity enjoyed by those who discriminate against LGBTs in many parts of the world are major reasons for the marginalization of this group, especially in times of disasters. There are documentations of violence against LGBTs in evacuation camps (Haiti), their exclusion from relief services

as well as from rehabilitation programs (India), even limiting the food aid given households which has a *meti* (gay) member (Nepal). Also in Nepal, *metis* were also given last priority in homestead land distribution which had affected their livelihoods and recovery from disaster (Knight et al., 2012). The exclusion of LGBTs from community decision-making processes, including in DRRM, also resulted to the neglect of their needs for protection against harassment and for sexual health services in times of disaster (Knight et al., 2012; Gaillard et al., n.d.).

2.2.4. Cross-cutting gender issues: DRRM practices

Gender mainstreaming in DRRM remains low and women and children are still largely regarded as victims and beneficiaries of aid. Literature also identified barriers to effective gender mainstreaming in DRRM such as lack of gender disaggregated information on communities affected or gendered information on communities in general; lack of time during disasters to consider gender issues (the “tyranny of the urgent” (Enarson, 2000); low visibility and influence of women in DRRM work. Moreover, where the programs and services addressing gender issues in disasters are available, they are often based on sexist stereotypes of women as victims and are heterosexist. The sexual and reproductive health of unmarried adolescents and women and LGBTs are also neglected in drafting disaster laws and plans (Murthy 2008).

Gender mainstreaming in government DRRM policies and practices remains problematic as well. A finding from the UN ISDR Global Assessment Report (2011) reveals that only 26 percent of the countries achieved substantial accomplishment in this area. Only 15 percent of the countries reported having gender disaggregated vulnerability and capacity assessments; 23 percent have undertaken measures to address gender issues in recovery; and 27 percent adopted gender responsive methodologies in post-disaster needs assessment. There was a relatively higher percentage of countries which have gender-sensitive contingency plans (41 percent) and women-specific provisions in shelter and emergency medical facilities (39 percent).

2.2.5. Windows of Opportunity

Documentation of windows of opportunity to promote gender equality in the recovery and rehabilitation phase was also found. This included cases of more active participation of women in disaster planning and rehabilitation work as in the case of women’s cooperatives in Mexico and the SEWA in India. Male flight from drought-stricken communities in Zambia also resulted to women stepping into leadership positions in what were once male-dominated social structures. Likewise there are reports pointing to the importance of inclusion of LGBTs i.e., that inclusion of LGBT groups can enhance broader community disaster response (Balgos et al., 2012; Knight et al., 2012).

Another window of opportunity for promoting gender equality is the growing sensitivity of development agencies and workers to gender issues in disaster risk reduction and management (see for instance Oxfam GB 2012b). This has resulted to more women being involved in community-based DRRM actions, from planning to leadership in evacuation centers. There are also rehabilitation programs which integrated measures to meet not only women’s practical and immediate needs for housing, food and livelihood but also achieve their strategic goals as well. Examples of the latter are ensuring women are also recognized as owners of family land by way of joint titling; investing in maternal health and girl children’s education and nutrition; training and mainstreaming women as leaders; and raising community awareness of gender issues.

In summary, literature on gender and disasters highlight the following points: First, there is little that is “natural” in what is called “natural disasters”. Disasters to a large degree is a result of social, political and economic forces which shape the conditions of people who will experience the natural hazard (e.g. tropical storms, sea surges, earthquakes). Thus natural disasters will not affect people equally: people who have more access and control over resources are more likely to experience destruction less, or can recover more quickly from it, compared to those who do not have the same level of access and con-

trol over resources.

Second, gender is a socially constructed categorization of people which influences the extent of their access and control over resources. Gender-based inequality exists in society and mostly women, girls and LGBTs. This inequality manifested in different forms and in different settings, including disaster situations, and has serious implications on the quality of life of these groups. The most glaring example of this is the high rate of female mortality relative to men in disaster times.

Third, as destructive as disasters are in the lives of people, it can also provide windows of opportunity to build back better in terms of gender relations. Gender mainstreaming is gaining momentum among stakeholders including governments, international humanitarian agencies and local organizations. There is a growing awareness on the differential impact of disasters along gender lines thus more responsive interventions are developed and implemented. Furthermore, monitoring systems are now including gender as a criteria, for instance, in the UNISDR follow up on the Hyogo Framework of Action commitments of governments.

Notes:

1. The application of this framework to analyze the data collected for the report is limited, mainly because of the data gaps. As noted in the report, the literature on gender and disasters in the Philippines seems to be at its nascent stages, with most of the data focused on women in emergency situations and disaster response.
2. Recognizing the differential context and thereby impact of disasters on women and men, the Oxfam GB (2012a) forwarded "gendered" guidelines for the use of the Disaster Pressure and Release Model. The guideline frames the components under the Progression of Vulnerability (root causes, dynamic pressures, unsafe conditions) to surface women's and men's experiences, thereby deepening analysis and understanding of the disaster risk.
3. The discussion and examples below draw mainly from the following references: Enarson & Hearn Morrow, eds. (1998); Ford-

ham (2012) in Wisner B., Gaillard, J.C. & Kelman, I. (Eds.); the World Bank guidance notes on gender and disaster risk management in East Asia and the Pacific (retrieved from <http://go.worldbank.org/HA7P1N-F0Q0>); and from the online resources of the Gender and Disasters Network (<http://gdnonline.org/>)

4. According to the World Health Organization, "Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." Based on this framework, the WHO forwards that reproductive health "...addresses the reproductive processes, functions and system at all stages of life. Reproductive health, therefore, implies that people are able to have a responsible, satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so."

Gender and Disasters in the Philippines: 3 A Situationer

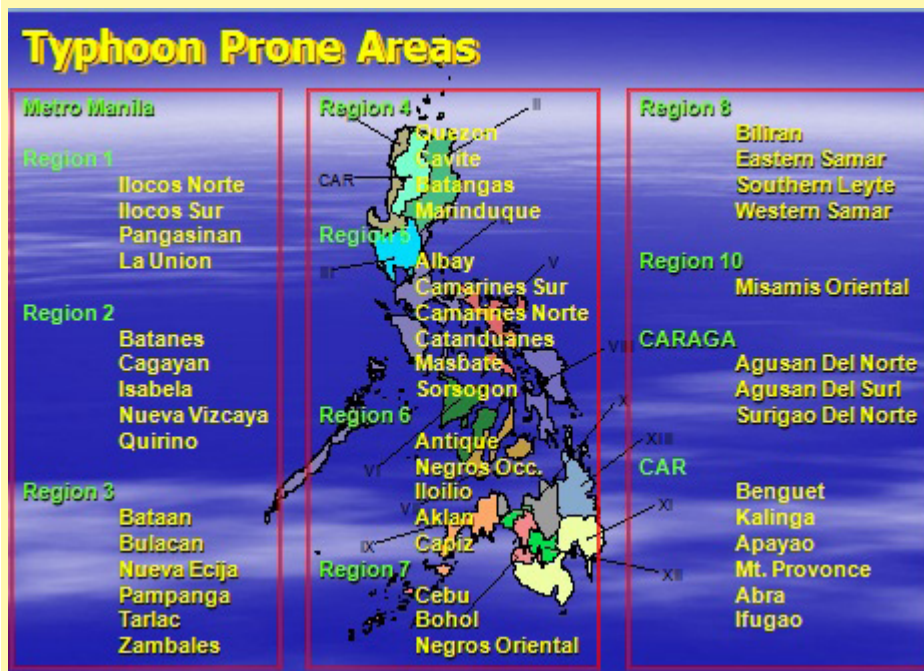
3.1 Hazards

The Philippines is the third most disaster-prone country in the world (World Disaster Report 2012), with an estimated 50.3 percent of its total land area and 81.3 percent of its population vulnerable to natural disasters. From 2000 to 2012 alone, the Center for Research on Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) recorded 207 significant damaging natural disasters in the country. Tropical storms and floods were the most frequently occurring hazard, and had also caused the most damage. The Philippines have also experienced major disasters involving earthquakes, landslides, drought and volcanic activity in the past two decades (SEPO 2013).

Situated along the “Pacific Ring of Fire” and in the middle of the Pacific “typhoon belt” the country is at risk from earthquakes, volcanic activity, tropical storms and sea level rises. It is bisected longitudinally by a major tectonic fault line which has

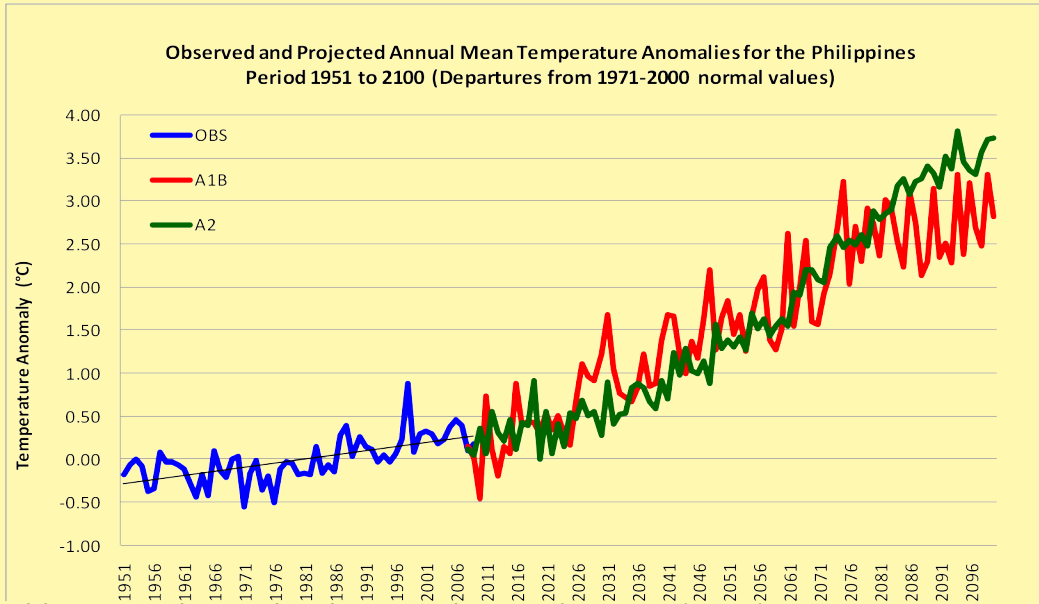
many subsidiary faults, including one which crosses its capital region, Metro Manila. The Philippines also has 220 volcanoes, 22 of which are considered active. With regard to hydro-meteorological hazards, storm surges and sea level rises are also natural hazards threatening communities along the country’s extensive coastline where 60 percent of the population resides (World Bank 2003). Typhoons are the most frequent and destructive hazard, with average of 20 typhoons affecting the country annually, and 8

Figure 4. Typhoon Prone Areas in the Philippines



Source: Office of Civil Defense

Figure 5. Projected Change in Mean Temperature



Source: Philippine Atmospheric Geophysical Astronomical Services Administration (PAGASA)

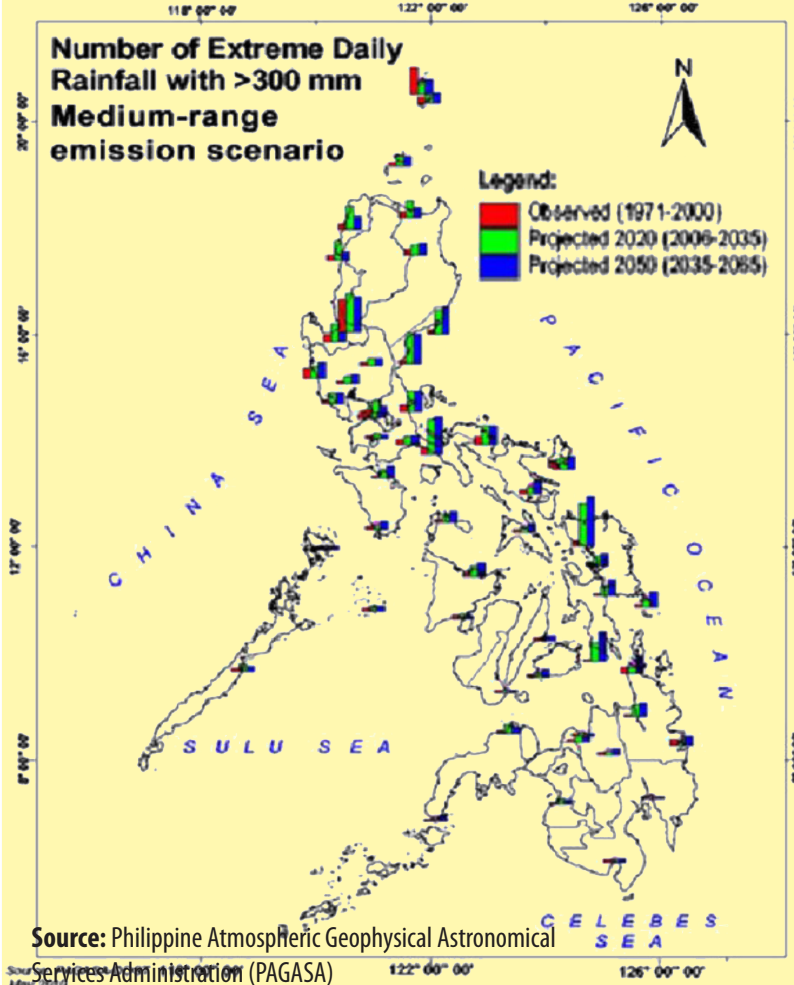


Figure 6. Current and projected rainfall in the Philippines in 2020 and 2050 under mid-range scenario.

Source: Philippine Atmospheric Geophysical Astronomical Services Administration (PAGASA)

to 9 typhoons making a landfall (PAGASA 2009).

It is significant to note that hydrometeorological hazards, specifically tropical storms and flooding, are the most destructive type of disaster in the country based on damages it caused, including number of households affected (Citizens Disaster Response Center 2012). Climate change will likely exacerbate the vulnerability of the country to climate-related hazards such as typhoons, droughts and heat waves, which are projected to increase in frequency and intensity. The Philippines ranked 3rd in the 2013 Climate Vulnerability Index which is based on the country's exposure to hazards, susceptibility to damage (based on national economy and infrastructure), ability to respond and to adapt to climate change issues in the next 30 years. Manila, the nation's capital on the other hand, ranked 2nd out of 197 cities in the same index (Dinglasan 2013). The adverse effects of climate change, including on agriculture, water availability and the severity of natural hazards, can very well threaten and reverse the national development if setting up of mitigation and adaptation are neglected.

The Philippine Atmospheric Geophysical and Astronomical Services Administration (PAGASA) already noted increased temperature from 1971-2000, and projects that by 2020 and 2050 all parts of the Philippines will get warmer and rainfall will be reduced in most parts of the country. (NCCAP 2011)

3.2. Vulnerabilities

In 2012, the Philippines was ranked as the most hazard-prone country in the world based on the Global Focus Model adopted by the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA). However, as previously mentioned, exposure to hazards is only one of the dimensions of disasters: DRRM literature also raises concerns over the country's vulnerabilities and capacities to address disaster risks, if not eliminate them altogether. For instance, if a tropical storm of the same intensity hits the Philippines and Japan, the mortality in the Philippines will be 17 times higher despite Japan having 1.4 percent times more people exposed to the hazard. Several factors contribute to this, including

Table 1. Top 10 Poorest Provinces in the Philippines (2012)

Province	Poverty Incidence Among Families (%)
1. Lanao del Sur	68.9
2. Apayao	59.8
3. Eastern Samar	59.4
4. Maguindanao	57.8
5. Zamboanga del Norte	50.3
6. Davao Oriental	48.0
7. Ifugao	47.5
8. Sarangani	46.5
9. Negros Oriental	45.3
10. Masbate	44.2

Source: NSCB 2013

Table 2. Top 10 Poorest Provinces in the Philippines (2012)

Province	Poverty Incidence Among Families (%)
1. 2nd district of NCR (Mandaluyong, Marikina, Pasig, Quezon City, San Juan)	3.1
2. 4th (Las Pinas, Makati, Muntinlupa, Paranaque, Pasay City, Pateros, Taguig) and 1st districts of NCR (City of Manila)	3.8
3. Cavite	4.1
4. Benguet	4.3
5. 3rd district of NCR (Caloocan, Malabon, Navotas, Valenzuela)	4.9
Laguna	6.3
Pampanga	6.4
Bulacan	6.7
Bataan	7.3
Rizal	7.6

Source: NSCB 2013

the economic standing of the country. The mortality risk for equal numbers of people in low-income countries exposed to a hazard is 200 times higher than in OECD countries (UNISDR 2009 as cited in Inter-Parliamentary Union & UNISDR 2010).

At the national level, poverty is also a major factor in the high vulnerability of people to disasters in as much as it reflects the location of their houses (for instance, on hazard-prone areas like flood plains, steep slopes, around volcanoes and mining areas), access to basic services (water, health, education), their livelihoods (agriculture-based, informal work) and other resources (credit, support services). Poorer communities suffer worse in times of disaster, and particularly at the household level, poverty is the single most important factor in determining vulnerability (NDCC¹ and World Bank, 2003.). Similarly, the World Bank (2013) notes that the areas vulnerable to climate change impacts such as typhoons and flooding are generally those with high poverty incidence and under LGUs which are relatively poorer in terms of fiscal capacity (See Annex 1 for the list of the provinces most vulnerable to climate change impact).

Poverty incidence in the country remains high, with 27.9 percent of the population (or around 22.3 percent of total households) determined living below poverty line² in the first semester of 2012. Of this figure, 10 percent is considered “extremely poor” i.e., their incomes fall short of the minimum amount needed to meet even their monthly food requirements³ (NSCB, 2013). Even more striking, is the existence of poverty in the midst of wealth in the country. At its core, poverty is about the economic, social and political system which condones the highly uneven distribution of wealth and control over natural and technical resources. In 2011, it was reported that two of the wealthiest people in the country have assets equivalent to six percent of the national economy and 40 of the richest family account for 76 percent of the national Gross Domestic Product; on the other hand while 25 million Filipinos live on US\$ 1 or less per day. This economic disparity between the rich and poor in the country is the highest in Asia (Agence France-Presse 2013).

The causes and manifestations of poverty are close-

ly intertwined with social issues which also figure in DRRM literature: environmental degradation, rural underdevelopment and rapid urbanization. It was noted that the poorest provinces in the country have economies which are heavily reliant on the utilization of natural resources for instance, farming, fishing, logging and mining, thus natural resource management is critical to poverty alleviation in these areas. Agriculture-based livelihoods are very much vulnerable to the physical impacts of natural hazards particularly climate variability, extreme climate events and climate change which can lock small farming households and landless farm workers in a cycle of debt and worsening poverty.

Environmental degradation has also been linked to the industries of logging and mining. For instance, increased cases of flooding in rural areas has been linked to deforestation, notably the 1994 Ormoc flooding which claimed at 4,299 lives with 3,000 people missing and presumed to be dead (Benson 1997). Deforestation, excessive logging and commercial and illegal small-time mining activities in Southern Mindanao were also identified to have aggravated the impact of TS Washi in 2011 (ABS-CBN News 2012) and TS Bopha in 2012 (Macaraig 2012). Both these tropical storms were regarded as one of the most destructive storms in the country’s recent history; the damage cost of TS Bopha in particular reached more than PhP 37 billion (approximately US \$860 million). Underlying these issues are criticisms over the lack of political will on the part of the national and local governments to establish policies and services to improve the well-being of the rural population without sacrificing natural resources for short-term gains.⁴

On the other hand, the National Capital Region (NCR) registered the lowest percentage of poverty incidence at less than 5 percent in all its districts. Similarly, except for Bataan and Benguet, the top 10 provinces with the least poverty incidence are adjacent to NCR. This is not to say, however, that these areas are less vulnerable to disasters. A case to point is TS Ketsana which submerged several Metro Manila cities and nearby provinces in flood waters in 2009. The damage wrought by TS Ketsana in the capital region alone was already staggering: 8.3 percent of the region’s population, or around 9.8

Allegations of aid politicization in Philippines ahead of elections

Caridad Calungsod and her three children have been living in a makeshift shelter along the highway leading into Baganga, a coastal farming municipality in the southern Philippine province of Davao Oriental on Mindanao Island that was among the hardest hit by typhoon Bopha last December.

Like many others, her family's survival now largely depends on aid they say has been slow in coming, either due to poor logistics or what many allege has been the disorganized and politicized process of distribution.

Government social workers have struggled to reach remote areas, some accessible only by hours-long hikes. Calungsod, and activists, say relief goods that have made it are parcelled out to local officials who distribute them along political lines.

Survivors IRIN interviewed say unscrupulous politicians are using relief goods to boost their campaigns as the country prepares to vote on thousands of local officials in mid-term elections in May, from village council officials and mayors, to members of Congress and senators.

In January, more than 5,000 frustrated residents barricaded the national highway to protest against what they said was the government's "selective" relief delivery system which, they alleged, favoured large vote-rich areas rather than smaller communities in need of help.

The protest closed the highway for hours, stranding thousands of commuters and motorists. The impasse ended only after local government leaders came to the scene and distributed sacks of rice and other items to the protesters, with a promise to improve delivery to their communities soon.

International humanitarian agencies are reticent to comment openly about the situation because they are required to work closely with the very politicians accused of profiteering, but have expressed concern that tensions in storm-hit communities may rise if aid is blocked during the lead-up to the May local elections.

Local groups whose volunteers have been actively working in storm-hit communities say politicians and their campaign machinery routinely take credit for relief goods, which they distribute in areas where they have big constituencies.

"In some areas the relief packs are repackaged and are being sold," said Vencer Crisostomo, chairman of Anakbayan, a national youth volunteer organization. "The government's Social Welfare Department should unconditionally release relief items to those in need, rather than [allow them to] be inadvertently used by politicians as a means to campaign."

The relief efforts, he said, have become a tool for politicians to "build mass bases and political machineries" in the Philippines, where analysts blame corruption for pockets of poverty in the lower middle-income country.

Source: IRIN (2013, February 22) Retrieved from <http://www.irinnews.org/report/97529/allegations-of-aid-politicization-in-philippines-ahead-of-elections>

million people, were directly affected by the tropical storm; some 65,521 houses and 357 schools were damaged or destroyed; and infrastructure damage was estimated at PhP 1.3 billion (Virola 2009). Although it was a fact that the amount of rainfall brought by Typhoon Ketsana exceeded by almost 150 percent the monthly average over a period of 50 years (Virola 2009), it also surfaced critical lessons on the effects of concentrated economic opportunities in urban centers vis-à-vis rural poverty, and the rapid and unplanned urbanization in the context of

disasters: among others, rising number of migrants and migrant families resulting to higher population densities in cities; increasing number of informal dwellings in hazard-prone areas; and severely constrained basic services delivery in cities, with or without disasters.

Corruption in local governments and national agencies is also an issue closely linked to poverty, specifically as manifested in times of disasters. Corruption intensifies disaster impacts and delays recovery of

Table 3. Profile of Tropical Cyclones Ketsana, Parma, Washi and Bopha

Tropical Cyclone	Year	Area Affected	No. of Households Affected	Estimate Cost of Damages
Ketsana	2009	NCR, Central & Southern Luzon, and some parts of Visayas and Mindanao (NDCC, 2009)	185,004 Damaged Houses (NDCC, 2009)	Infrastructure & Agriculture- PHP 11 Billion (NDCC, 2009)
Parma	2009	Pangasinan and other North Luzon provinces (NDCC, 2009)	61,869 Damaged Houses (NDCC, 2009)	Infrastructure & Agriculture- PHP 27.29 Billion (NDCC, 2009)
Washi	2011	Region X (particularly Cagayan de Oro City and Iligan City) (NDRRMC, 2012)	51, 114 Damaged Houses (NDRRMC, 2012)	Infrastructure, Agriculture, & Private Property- PHP 2.07 Billion (NDRRMC, 2012)
Bopha	2012	Regions IV-B, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, XII, CARAGA and ARMM were affected (NDRRMC, 2012)	216,817 Damaged Houses (NDRRMC, 2012)	Infrastructure, Agriculture, & Private Property- PHP 36.95 Billion

Source: Office of Civil Defense

affected communities when it siphons funds meant for needed infrastructures and services, circumvents regulations on natural resource use, or diverts humanitarian assistance away from the people who need them.

3.3. Impact of Disasters

Ironically, the direct costs as well as long-term impacts of disasters are borne most by ordinary people (Esplanada 2013).

Overall, the cost of disasters to the country is significant, averaging to US\$ 259.04 million per year based on the EM-DAT data from 2000 to 2012 (as cited in SEPO 2013). The years 2009 and 2011 in particular posted the highest figures in terms of financial costs largely because of severe tropical storms which occurred in those years i.e. Typhoons Ketsana and Parma in 2009 and Typhoon Washi in 2011. In 2009, US \$962.11 million was spent on dis-

aster-related initiatives, with the costs of Typhoons Ketsana and Parma alone already representing a 2.7 percent loss of the gross domestic product (GDP) that year. On the other hand, disaster costs in 2011 reached US \$703.30 million.

These trends unabated could result to a significant drain of public resources to respond to and recover from disasters as the costs may easily outpace the national revenues. The expenditure for disaster relief and recovery from typhoons alone averages 0.5 percent of the annual GDP (NDCC and WB n.d.). It is also projected that the Philippines could suffer up to a maximum of 27 percent of the government revenue from earthquakes and typhoons which can potentially result to an increase in its national debt (UNISDR 2013). There are also estimates that the Philippine could face costs up to 18 percent or more of its total public expenditure in the event of a 200-year disaster (Jha & Stanton-Geddes 2013). In terms of economic growth rate, countries exposed to frequent cyclone-related disasters such as the Philip-

Typhoon Bopha: A Tale of Two Stories

“In my entire life, never have I experienced anything like this...” not one but all the survivors expressed similarly. And this had truly never happened here. “We didn’t even know what the typhoon warning meant...,” 52-year old banana plantation worker Evangeline Roa said. “Typhoons always happen somewhere else not here, we don’t even understand what the warning signals mean....”

Evangeline and her family survived by hiding in the irrigation ditches around the banana fields. “Those ditches saved our lives...,” she said.

Aside from the falling trees, what did the most harm were the metal sheets commonly used as roofing here. Bopha ripped them off houses and they sliced through the air like giant razor blades.

But it was his entire house falling on him that caused the big scar that now marks 10 year old Gerald Panal’s face.

“We started to flee only when we could suddenly hear water rushing our way...but we didn’t get out in time...,” his mother Elisa explained. Her sisters who lived nearby came and helped them out of their ruined home. “Then we all lay on the street clinging to each other so as not to be separated should we be carried by the flood...” She is

grateful they all survived. They were injured... but they’re alive. So many others were not as fortunate. Floodwaters more than a metre high swept through many other communities leaving nothing in its wake.

The first few days after Bopha struck, survivors wandered around shocked and in a daze. When they found the energy to speak, they clustered around each other and traded muted stories of horror and fear. They had had to watch helplessly as their lives were turned upside down. Bodies were washed down rivers from the mountains in the distance. One community thought they were safe having no river nearby... but water from a lake atop the mountain suddenly poured over them like a mega-force waterfall with catastrophic effects.

All around cries for help were being overpowered by the sound of the wind. Even evacuation centres were destroyed.

“It’s like a terrible dream...,” a stunned local journalist said.

Source: Marga Ortigas, Typhoon Bopha: A tale of two stories. Retrieved from <http://blogs.aljazeera.com/blog/asia/typhoon-bopha-tale-two-stories>

piners experience lower GDP growth in the decades following the disaster compared to what could have been the growth rate without it (UNISDR 2013).

The above figures, while already daunting, represent only a fraction of the total costs of disasters to the country since it is only focused on the direct costs, and mostly in economic terms. Largely unreported and unstudied are the indirect and secondary effects (Benson 1997; NDCC and WB 2003).⁵ Indirect costs of disasters are those arising from the disruption of the flow of goods and services including loss of incomes and livelihoods, and productivity loss. They also include medical expenses from disaster-related deaths, injuries and diseases. Secondary costs cover short and long-term effects of disasters on the overall economic performance of a country such as the

impact on trade and industry at the macro-level, the government’s internal and external debt,⁶ and poverty incidence.

National figures also often overlook the impact of natural hazards which were not formally classified as “disasters” although these localized “everyday disasters” may have a greater impact on the well-being of communities and households in the long term (NDCC and WB 2003; Gaillard 2012). Related to this, it is significant to note that the impact of disasters on agricultural production and food security on a national scale is relatively small (a little over 1 percent of the GDP at the maximum). It is at the provincial and household levels where the shortages of production and food supply caused by disasters can be acutely felt (Israel et al., 2012).

Table 4. Gender and Development Index (GDI) Top and Bottom Provinces (2009)

Top 10 Provinces			Bottom 10 Provinces		
Rank	Province	Score	Rank	Province	Score
1	Benguet	0.800	69	Basilan	0.313
2	Rizal	0.700	68	Agusan del Sur	0.332
3	Laguna	0.667	67	Sulu	0.337
4	Bulacan	0.665	66	Maguindanao	0.348
5	Bataan	0.663	65	Davao Oriental	0.356
6	Cavite	0.662	64	Saranggani	0.408
7	Cagayan	0.634	63	Romblon	0.422
8	Biliran	0.625	62	Masbate	0.424
9	Iloilo	0.618	61	Mountain Province	0.430
10	Batangas	0.616	60	Ifugao	0.441

Source: 2012/2013 Human Development Report

3.4. Gender Equality in the Philippines

The extent to which gender is a factor in vulnerability to disasters can be drawn out from data linking gender to poverty, and to social and political marginalization. Despite the favorable ranking of the Philippines in international indices,⁷ not all groups of women are able to benefit from the advances made to fulfill gender equality and development in the country. This is evidenced by the findings in the 2012/2013 Philippine Human Development Report (Human Development Network) which shows the disparity of provinces with regard to their scores in Gender and Development Index (GDI). The GDI measures the quality of life in terms of life expectancy (health), education (knowledge) and per capita income (economic status) adjusted for the inequalities of achievement between females and males. The table on the next page shows the scores of the 10 top and the 10 bottom provinces with regard the GDI.

Informal institutions such as social norms, beliefs, cultural practices continue to be formidable barriers to the full realization of gender equality in the country, even when at the formal sphere policies and mechanisms exist to ensure equality.⁷ Many women continue to struggle with gender-based discrimination and violence in their families and communities on a day-to-day basis, and many of these experienc-

es remain unscrutinized in official reports, if not undocumented (CEDAW Watch-Philippines 2009; See also data on violence against women in this chapter). Intersecting gender with other factors such as poverty, ethnic marginalization, low educational attainment, and physical disabilities, the inequality in access and control of resources even among women themselves becomes clearer.

Some of the manifestations of gender-based discrimination against women in the country are illustrated below:

3.4.1 Economic Opportunities

Women are among the poorest groups in the country

Women, especially those in rural areas, are included in the “poorest of the poor” in the country. Poverty incidence among women was 25.1 percent in 2009⁸ (NSCB 2012) which puts them as the fourth poorest basic sector following fisherfolks (41.4 percent), farmers (36.7 percent) and children (35.1 percent). In terms of numbers, however, women comprise the second poorest sector with 11.2 million, following the children’s sector (12.4 million).

This poverty is due in part to the low participation rate of women in paid employment as well as the low valuation of their work in monetary terms. There are more female than males reported to be unpaid workers, especially in family-owned farms or businesses (2.3 million women compared to 1.8 million men). They also receive lower wages compared to men for the same line of work. For instance, the disparity in daily wages in agricultural industries was 13.09 percent in 2010; in non-agriculture work, women are paid 5.20 percent less than men.

Moreover, when women do engage in paid work, these are mostly in employment which is low-skilled and low-paid. DeJardin (2010 as cited by Raquiza 2010) noted, there is a correlation between women's employment and the country's economic situation from 2008-2009. That is, as main breadwinners lose their jobs during periods of economic downturn, families mobilize additional income-earners from their members, usually the women who are very young (15-19 years old), older workers (55-64 years old), and those without secondary education. This means however that women now worked longer hours as they have both reproductive and productive work (Raquiza 2010, Buenaventura 2010).

There was a slight increase in women's participation in the labor force from 49.3 percent in 2009 to 49.7 percent in 2010, although this was still 29.3 percent lower than male participation (DOLE 2011). Many of the jobs of women are essentially "care work" or extensions of their reproductive work which are generally low-valued and low paid. Occupations where females are the majority of workers include private household work / house help (84.48 percent), education (74.57 percent), social work and health service (71.62 percent), wholesale and retail trade (including sari-sari store operations, 60.18 percent), financial intermediation 56.50 percent) and hotel and restaurants (54.05 percent). The same trend was observed in the profile of women overseas workers where they are employed in private households, nursing homes, hotel and restaurants and similar establishments (72.83 percent). Another trend of women's employment is it is considered as "informal labor" characterized by underpayment for long hours of work, low social protection and low job security (Buenaventura 2010).

3.4.2. Endowment

Women still do not fully enjoy equal access and ownership of resources with men

Resource ownership, specifically farm ownership obtained through land reform (emancipation patents and certificates of land ownership) also show the large disparity between the number of women and men i.e., 643,695 compared to 1,550,660 (NSCB 2013b).

Gender inequality with regard the management of natural resources also persists despite the policies from the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) that specifically mandate equality of treatment between women and men.¹⁰ In 2007, women comprise significantly less than half of the patent holders (39.4%), and beneficiaries of miscellaneous sales applications (42.5%) and homesteads (44.6%) relative to men (Illo et al., 2010). The same trend was noted in the fisheries sector. Buenaventura (2010) traces this exclusion of women from ownership of resources, as well as government interventions in the fisheries and farming sectors to the dominant view of females secondary workers (relative to their husbands, even if women put in longer hours) and the multiple burden of women's productive and reproductive work.

Women's access to formal credit is also limited despite national laws stating the rights of women to equal access as men. In some areas, credit extended to women by financial institution are smaller than what they would grant male borrowers (ADB 2008). Land titling practices of putting the land under the man / husband's name has also implications to women's access to credit from formal institutions. Some institutions ask women to show proof of husband's permission to put up their lands (or any asset assumed to be jointly owned) as collateral, whereas the same requirement was not imposed on male borrowers.

Proper health care, specifically reproductive health services, for women are largely unavailable to poorer populations

**Table 5. Poverty Incidence and Magnitude of Poverty
Among Basic Sectors in 2009**

Basic Sector	Poverty Incidence (%)	Magnitude
Children	35.1	12,414,811
Farmers	36.7	1,685,148
Fishers	41.4	346,345
Migrants	16.7	3,118,701
Senior Citizens	15.8	1,181,121
Urban Poor	12.8	5,709,170
Women	25.1	11,169,745
Youth	21.8	5,367,308

Source: NSCB 2013

The maternal mortality ratio in the country as of 2011 is 221 deaths per 100,000 live births; the MDG target of the Philippines is at most 53 deaths per 100,000 live births by 2015. The Department of Health called this as alarming considering maternal health is one of the key indicators of the government's performance in improving the health of its citizens (Alave 2012). Although reproductive health services are technically available even at the village levels through barangay health centers, gaps in government support exposes women to various health risks. Moreover, national data show that women from the poor areas have little or no access to proper health care especially during pregnancy.¹¹ Women from poor families, rural areas and with limited formal education are also more likely to be pregnant at an earlier age (15 to 24 years old) which puts their health at high risk.

Republic Act 10354 or the Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act was enacted by Congress in 2012. Reiterating the people's right to health information and services, including those on reproductive health, the law also mandates age-appropriate sexuality education in public schools, availability of comprehensive family planning information and services, and integration among others. However, the Supreme Court temporarily stopped its implementation in early 2013 due to cases filed by the conservative Catholic lobby groups (Torres 2013).

3.4.3 Agency

There are still many cases of violence against women happening in the country

Violence against women is a major factor to women's poverty by limiting or impeding their education, mobility, access to and ownership of resources, political participation and other freedoms necessary to attain a quality of life. Data from the NSCB (2013b) show that at the household and community levels:

- One in five women aged 15 to 49 experienced physical violence since age 15;
- Almost one in 10 women aged 15 to 49 experienced sexual violence;
- 14.4 percent of ever-married women experienced physical violence from their husbands; 8.0 percent experienced sexual violence; and,
- The most common form of emotional and economic violence include insulting the women or making her feel bad about herself (10.9 percent), followed by not allowing her to engage in any legitimate work or practice her profession (8.9 percent) and saying or doing something to humiliate her in front of others (7.4 percent).

Lack of coordinated reporting and monitoring systems in tracking VAW cases has resulted to varying sets of data among relevant government agencies (e.g. the Department of Social Welfare and Development, Department of Health, the Philippine National Police, Local Government Units). It is possible that the number of VAW cases is higher than what is reflected in official statistics. Moreover, socio-cultural beliefs and norms, as well as stereotypes of family coherence, propriety and women's behavior can also deter reporting of gender-based violence (Buenaventura 2010).

Women are still under-represented in public offices

The number of women in elective posts is still very low in both the national and local government levels. After the 2010 elections, women comprise only 20.6 percent of the officials at the national level (president, vice-president, senators and representatives) and only 18.5 percent at the local government positions (excluding barangay-level positions) (NSCB 2013b).

Women exercise the right to vote more than men in the recent elections although this has yet to be mobilized and translated into a political force to push for progressive and people-inclusive reforms. Despite the increasing presence of women in public office over the years, there have been relatively few advances in gender sensitivity and gender equality in government policies. One factor in this may be the lack of identification of women in politics with the gender equality agenda and its role in promoting economic and social justice. It has been observed that the presence of women in electoral politics more often than not is connected to political dynasties.¹²

Notes:

1. The NDCC (National Disaster Coordinating Council) has been renamed to NDRRMC (National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council) after the enactment of Republic Act 10121, or the DRRM Law, in 2010, to reflect its wider mandate i.e. beyond disaster response initiatives.
2. The poverty threshold incorporates basic non-food needs, such as clothing, housing, transportation, health, and education expenses, among others. This was computed at PhP 7,821 per month for a family of five during the first semester of 2012 (poverty line).
3. During the first semester of 2012, it was calculated that a Filipino family of five needed PhP 5,458 to meet basic food needs every month.
4. In response to the mining issues highlighted in the wake of TS Washi, President Benigno C Aquino signed Executive Order No.79 in

July 2012 which, among other things, expanded the coverage of “no mining zones”, suspended the issuance of new mining permits until a new law on mining revenue sharing is enacted, and opened mining rights to competitive public bidding (Palatino 2012). This EO has been criticized however as still favoring large (foreign) mining companies. The moratorium on new mining permits was lifted in March 2013.

Also in 2012, and in the context of TS Bopha, the Department of Environment and Natural Resources, Department of Interior and Local Government and the Armed Forces of the Philippines signed Resolution 2012-005. The resolution in effect put the Armed Forces of the Philippines at the forefront of the campaign against illegal logging in Mindanao to counter one of the identified blocks in the implementation of the logging ban i.e. the presence armed groups which are operating or are involved in illegal logging (Mayuga, 2012).

5. Several reasons underlie the lack of data on these effects of disasters. Specific to the Philippines, problems with the quality and coverage of disaster reports are traced to (1) lack of standardized guidelines and measurements across government agencies to assess the damage wrought by disasters; (2) lack of staff capacity to conduct the assessment; (3) lack of coordination among government agencies which sometimes result to conflicting figures for the same assessment category, and there is no clear system for reconciling the differences in figures; and (4) lack of baseline data to reference assessment, among others (NDCC and WB n.d.). Benson (1997) also noted that disaster data is often generated to inform relief and recovery initiatives thus focused largely on certain data such as number of people and households affected and infrastructure damage. Disaster data collection to inform local and national development plans is yet to be mainstreamed.
6. Debt servicing remains the single largest expense in the national budget with a 16.6 percent in 2013 (Office of the President, 2012). There is no data found on the total amount of loans obtained by the Philippines specifically for post-disaster reconstruction and other disaster-related projects. In one report,

- it was stated that the country received US\$ 5 billion in grants and loans for the recovery and rehabilitation post-typhoon Ketsana and Parma (Diaz 2010). The World Bank also extended a loan of US\$ 500 million to the country post-typhoon Washi under its Catastrophe Deferred Drawdown Option (Cat-DDO) window.
7. The Philippines was within middle levels (77 out of 157 countries) of the UNDP Gender Development Index which assessed gender equality in terms human life expectancy, labor force participation and school enrolment. In terms of the Gender Empowerment Measure, also by the UNDP, it ranked 45 out of 177 countries indicating a positive progress towards gender equality in political participation and income (UNDP, 2011). More significantly, the Philippines was consistently ranked as one of the top 10 countries with low levels of gender disparity in the Gender Gap Index by the World Economic Forum. The Philippines was ranked 6th in 2006 when the Gender Gap Index was first published; it stood at 8th place among 135 countries in the 2011 index (Philippine Commission on Women, n.d.).
 8. See Feliciano and Vargas-Trinidad (2000) for a compilation of laws on Filipino women. Moreover, several landmark national policies have been enacted since the said publication. To name a few: the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Law (2003), Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Law (2004) and the Magna Carta of Women (2009). The Reproductive Health Law was passed in 2012 however its implementation is still suspended (See also section on women's health in this chapter)
 9. Poverty incidence among women refers to the proportion of women whose per capita income is lower than the per capita poverty threshold
 10. As cited in Illo et al. (2010), equal treatment of women and men has been inscribed in the Revised Regulations Governing the Integrated Social Forestry Program (or Administrative Order [AO] No. 91-04); Rules and Regulations for the Implementation of the Community-Based Forest Management Strategy, or CBFMS (AO 96-29); and Removal of Gender Bias in the Acceptance and Processing of Homestead Patent Applications and Other Public Land Applications (AO 2002-13).
 11. See for instance data from the National Demographic and Health Survey from years 2003, 2006 and 2008 as cited by CEDAW Watch (2009), the Philippine Commission on Women (<http://pcw.gov.ph/statistics/201205/statistics-violence-against-filipino-women>) and UN Women (http://www.endvawnow.org/uploads/browser/files/vaw_prevalence_matrix_15april_2011.pdf). Also the World Bank overview on the state of the reproductive health in the Philippines (2011).
 12. In a speech by Senator Miriam Defensor Santiago (2013), she cited the following statistics on political dynasties: based on the 2010 elections, there were 178 dominant political dynasties. Majority of the seats in the Senate and in the House of Representatives, including Party-List seats, are filled by legislators from political dynasties, at 80 and 74 percent respectively. At the provincial level, 73 out of the 80 provinces of the country have political dynasties and in every one, there are at least two political families.

Gender Mainstreaming in Disaster-Related Policies and Operation Standards

4

4.1 International and Regional Standards

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights which states people's right to equality regardless of sex (Article 1) and the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) form the foundations of advocacy for gender equality at the international level. Both of these international standards were adopted (or ratified) by the Philippine government to be part of its national laws.

Although the CEDAW does not have specific provisions regarding disasters, it laid down the principles and the States Parties' obligations with respect to gender equality critical in reducing women's vulnerabilities to disasters and increasing their capabilities.

The CEDAW was translated into more concrete and actionable terms during the Fourth World Conference on Women held in China in 1995. The outcome document, the Beijing Platform for Action, identified 12 critical areas of concern with corresponding actions for government and non-government stakeholders. Disaster was not specifically discussed in the Beijing Platform for Action, although the section on "Women and the Environment" can also be relevant to gender and DRRM. Hazards and disasters were mentioned in relation to environmental degradation which impact women's livelihoods, health and overall security. In this context, the Beijing Plat-

form for Action called on governments and other stakeholders to –

- Take appropriate measures to reduce risks to women from identified environmental hazards
- Encourage social, economic, political and scientific institutions to address environmental degradation and the resulting impact on women
- Integrate women, including indigenous women, their perspectives and knowledge in decision-making on matters to address environmental degradation
- Ensure adequate research to assess how and to what extent women are particularly susceptible or exposed to environmental degradation and hazards
- Promote knowledge of and sponsor research on the role of women in natural disaster prevention
- Develop gender-sensitive databases, information and monitoring systems and participatory action-oriented research, methodologies and policy analyses on the impact on women of environmental and natural resource degradation arising from natural disasters.

The Beijing Platform for Action also forwarded the strategy of gender mainstreaming to promote gender equality and ensure that it is a primary goal in all areas of social and economic development. At the

United Nations (UN) level, it adopted gender mainstreaming in 1997 which thus required all its divisions and offices to:

[assess] the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels.... [to make] the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated (ECOSOC agreed conclusions 1997/2).

The links between gender equality and disasters (and sustainable development) was further strengthened by ECOSOC resolution 2002/5 on women's empowerment and gender equality in disaster situations. Said resolution is the first comprehensive set of global policy recommendations specifically on this concern. It forwarded the following recommendations:

- Policies, strategies and methodologies for disaster reduction should be people-centered and inclusive of women and men. Barriers to their participation, including gender-specific constraints should be identified and addressed.
- Work in disaster reduction should be explicit on the role of social factors, including gender perspectives. This requires moving away from the view of women as victims to recognizing their contributions and potentials.
- The research, experiences and good practices on gender and environmental management, risk assessment and management, and emergency management and response should be systematically compiled in a format useful to policy makers and administrators.
- A critical area of research should be developing deeper understanding of gender, environments management and disaster reduction, and the policy implications of these.

- Guidelines should be developed on the types of gender-specific questions that can be raised in relation to environment management, risk assessments and emergency response and management.
- Collection of sex-disaggregated data should be obligatory in all areas of work on natural disasters.

The Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) is a comprehensive document outlining the basic principles and measures to address the growing international concerns over the impact of disasters on individuals, communities and national developments. Shared commitments were signed by 168 governments, including the Philippines, at the World Conference on Disaster Reduction, held in the Hyogo prefecture in Kobe, Japan in 2005 but these commitments are not legally binding.

Gender was identified as a cross cutting theme of the framework i.e.:

A gender perspective should be integrated into all disaster risk management policies, plans and decision-making processes, including those related to risk assessment, early warning, information management, and education and training (Part III, 13(d))

The commitment to gender mainstreaming in relation to HFA is monitored by the UN ISDR with respect to availability of: (1) gender disaggregated vulnerability and capacity assessments; (2) measures taken to address gender-based issues in recovery; (3) post-disaster needs assessment methodologies which include guidance on gender aspects; (4) contingency plans with gender sensitivities; and (5) dedicated provision for women in relief, shelter and emergency medical facilities.

At the regional level, the ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response (AADMER) is a regional treaty on disaster risk reduction and management which came into force in December 2009. Its aim is to increase the effectiveness of disaster response among ASEAN member states and provide stronger bases for regional cooperation on the same. Although based on the Hy-

ogo Framework of Action, its text has no specific provisions regarding gender equality or addressing the gender issues in disasters. However in its Work Programme for 2010-2015, the necessity of integrating gender perspectives in implementation of activities and monitoring was recognized. Gender mainstreaming was also identified as one of the basic courses for DRRM stakeholders, especially AADMER trainers, based on the AADMER Work Programme.

4.2. Voluntary Standards

While the above are internationally adopted standards relevant to DRRM -- hence there is a commitment from governments to adhere to them -- there are also the guidelines and protocols of international humanitarian agencies which have also been adopted by national and local governments and civil society groups in their disasters intervention. Some of the well-known voluntary standards are the following¹:

- Code of Conduct for the RCRC (Red Cross and Red Crescent) Movement and NGOs in Disaster Relief

The Code of Conduct forwarded 10 principles to guide signatory organizations in their disaster response work and describes the relationship they should seek with the affected communities, host governments, donor agencies and the UN system. Gender equality was not specifically mentioned in the list of principles, however it is assumed given the RCRC mandate to provide protection and assistance to people affected by disasters and conflicts, without discrimination.

- Sphere Handbook – Humanitarian Accountability Partnership Standard in Humanitarian Accountability

This lays down the internationally-recognized principles and minimum standards for the delivery of humanitarian assistance. It covers four primary areas of intervention:

(1) water supply, sanitation and hygiene promotion, (2) food security and nutrition, (3) shelter, settlement and non-food items, and (4) health actions. Gender equality as human rights is strongly emphasized in the document. (IASC 2008).

The Sphere Project / Handbook also forwards the implementation of the Minimum Initial Service Package (MISP) for sexual and reproductive health. It is a coordinated set of priority activities to reduce sexual and reproductive health-related mortality and morbidity during emergency situations (WHO 2012).²

- IASC Operational Guidelines on the Protection of Persons in Situations of Natural Disasters

The document promotes a rights-based approach to disaster relief, particularly emphasizing its integration in all phases of disaster response operations, and that the affected people are fully consulted and engaged in the process. There is also specific section in the guidelines regarding the protection against gender-based violence.

Particular to gender issues in disasters and DRRM, the IASC also established its Guidelines for Gender-Based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings in 2005. These guidelines were published a year later, in 2006, as the IASC Gender Handbook in Humanitarian Action. Both the guidelines and the handbook focused on interventions to prevent and address gender-based violence from the outset of disasters and during emergency phase.

4.3. Application of International Standards

The UN ISDR (2009) points to several gaps in gender mainstreaming in DRRM, specifically as regards its adoption by governments and in community-based initiatives. Despite the active promotion of gender mainstreaming by international bodies such as the UN, donor agencies and the academic com-

munity, progress has been slow and inconsistent.

Commitments to international gender and disaster frameworks are not always translated to tangible results in regional and national policies and gender-sensitive practices. As previously mentioned, the 2011 Global Assessment Report noted that only 26 percent of the countries have substantial accomplishments in gender mainstreaming. It is not also clear to what extent DRRM agencies have also adopted and practiced gender-sensitivity in all phases of its work and if gender relations were addressed at all at the field level.

On the other hand, the growing literature on gender in the context of disasters is an indication of the increasing recognition of gender equality as a cross-cutting concern in all phases of DRRM. Gender perspectives were highlighted in many reports and analyses of recent major disasters such as the Indian Ocean tsunami, Hurricane Katrina and Haiti and Indonesian earthquakes. Some cases wherein women's participation in DRRM has made communities more resilient in disasters are cited below:

- During the Yogyakarta earthquake, women acted as humanitarian workers helping survivors, care-givers to the children and elderly, caretakers of family assets and valuables, as supervisors and budget managers during house reconstruction, as designers who helped plan the house interior to minimize hazards, and safety wardens for their family members (World Bank 2011).
- Disaster responses to the Merapi eruptions (Indonesia) benefited from women's participation and their involvement in pre-disaster preparations. The visibility of female police and volunteers in emergency shelters helped keep the figures of gender-based violence low compared to other disaster situations (World Bank 2011).
- The Indian Ocean tsunami where there were high rates of deaths among women spurred helping agencies and affected communities in Sri Lanka, India and Indonesia to consciously involve women in DRRM activities, including capacity building activities in some areas (e.g. swimming lessons for

children, livelihood trainings). (UN ISDR 2007).

- A disaster agency in La Masica, Honduras had provided gender-sensitive community education on early warning systems and hazard management six months earlier. Women took over from men the abandoned task of continuously monitoring the early warning system. As a result, the municipality was able to evacuate the area promptly when Hurricane Mitch struck in 1998. No casualties were reported following the hurricane (Aguillar 2004).

In the Philippines, Republic Act 10121 or the DRRM Law draws from the standards of the Hyogo Framework of Action in its conceptualization of disasters and disaster risk reduction. Apart from this, there are no explicit references found in literature as regards the application of international standards in the formulation of national or local DRRM programs and activities in the country, although a rights-based approach to development has been adopted by many government and non-government stakeholders engaged in DRRM.

4.4. National Policies and Action Plans³

There are in general four major laws that can be taken into consideration that provide the basic State policy with regard to gender and disasters, in addition to the 1987 Philippine Constitution which guarantees equal rights and freedoms to all peoples in the country as well as social protection. These laws are the Magna Carta of Women, the DRRM Law, the Climate Change Act and the Local Government Code. A fifth national policy, the Women in Nation-Building Act, is also presented in this section as the law which mandated gender mainstreaming in all government agencies and units.

Other policies such as administrative orders and national action plans are presented as well.

4.4.1. The Magna Carta of Women (RA 9710)

The Magna Carta of Women (Republic Act 9710), which is considered as the translation of the UN

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Violence Against Women (UN CEDAW) in the Philippine context provides the basic State policy with regard women and disasters though it has no provision that relates to women and disaster prevention, mitigation and preparedness. Specifically, it provides that:

Women have the right to protection and security in times of disasters, calamities, and other crisis situations especially in all phases of relief, recovery, rehabilitation and construction efforts. (Chapter IV Section 10)

In the same section, it also outlines the duties of the State in this regard:

The State shall provide for immediate humanitarian assistance, allocation of resources and early resettlement, if necessary. It shall also address the particular needs of women from a gender perspective to ensure their full protection from sexual exploitation and other forms of sexual and gender-based violence committed against them. Responses to disaster situations shall include the provision of services such as psychological support, livelihood support, education, psychological health and comprehensive health services, including protection during pregnancy.

Although the specific provisions of the Magna Carta in relation to DRRM seems to place women in the role of victims and beneficiaries, it is important to consider that these provisions in the context of the whole law promotes women's participation in all spheres of decision-making; the elimination of gender-based discrimination in settings such as the school, workplace and the family; and the mainstreaming of gender in all government agencies. These, as a whole, contribute to the removal of barriers to women's capacity building and subsequently reduce their vulnerability to disasters. The Magna Carta of Women also operates together with – and thus strengthens – earlier enacted policies addressing various forms of gender-based violence (e.g. the

Anti-Rape Law, the Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Law, the Anti-Trafficking Law) and discrimination (e.g. the Family Code, Indigenous People's Rights Act, the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Law, the Agriculture and Fisheries Modernization Act) which are relevant as well in the context of disasters.

4.4.2. Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (RA 10121)

The law on Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (Republic Act 10121) was enacted in 2010, superseding Presidential Decree 1566 which was passed in 1978. The new law presented several changes in the national disaster framework. Among its salient features are (DRRNet-Philippines 2011):

- 1) Coherence with international frameworks, particularly the Hyogo Framework for Action;
- 2) Adherence to universal norms, principles, and standards of humanitarian assistance;
- 3) Capitalization on good governance through transparency and accountability;
- 4) Stronger DRRM institutional mechanisms;
- 5) Emphasis on the integration and coordination of sectors and agencies for DRRM, and adoption of community-based approach for disaster risk reduction;
- 6) Promotion of LGU and civil society organization partnership;
- 7) Mainstreaming of DRRM in development planning and even in the school curriculum
- 8) Establishment of a DRRM fund at the local and national levels; and,
- 9) Provisions on the declaration of a state of calamity and its implications, remedial measures and identification of prohibited acts and corresponding penalties.

Under the DRRM Law, it is the policy of the State to “ensure that disaster risk reduction and climate change measures are gender responsive” (Section 2 (j)). It also makes mandatory that gender analysis should be part of post-disaster and early recovery needs assessments (Section 9 (m)) and practical needs of women addressed (Section 12 (c -16)). It would have helped better understand the law if these

terms – gender, gender responsive, gender mainstreaming – are included in the list of definition of terms in Section 3.

The Philippine Commission on Women also sits in the national and local councils for DRRM (Section 5 (w) and Section 11 (a-7), respectively). In Section 12, it was stated that part of the responsibilities of the local DRRM offices is to:

(16) Respond to and manage the adverse effects of emergencies and carry out recovery activities in the affected area, ensuring that there is an efficient mechanism for immediate delivery of food, shelter and medical supplies for women and children, endeavour to create a special place where internally-displaced mothers can find help with breastfeeding, feed and care for their babies and give support to each other....

4.4.3 Climate Change Act of 2009 (RA 9729)

It is also relevant to cite the gender-related provisions in the Climate Change Act of 2009 (Republic Act 9729), particularly as it intersects with managing the risks and physical impact of natural disasters. The Climate Change Act also recognizes the vulnerability of women to the issues arising from climate change, including natural disasters, and promotes gender sensitivity in its approaches (Section 2 on the Declaration of Policy, para. 3). Along this line, the law identifies gender mainstreaming as one of the key components in framework strategy and program (Section 12), and plans (Section 13).⁴

4.4.4. Local Government Code (RA 7160)

The Local Government Code provided for a wider avenue for people to participate in and shape national and local governance and development. It devolved certain functions of the national government, including disaster risk reduction and management, to the local government units (LGUs) with the view that this will facilitate more responsive, relevant and timely actions to the particular needs of the communities. The participation of women as a sectoral group in local governance was specifically identi-

fied in Book I, Title 2, Chapter 1, Section 14.

In relation to disaster risk reduction the city, provincial and municipal governments shall “[A]dopt measures to protect the inhabitants of the province from harmful effects of man-made or natural disasters and calamities, and to provide relief services and assistance for victims during and in the aftermath of said disasters and calamities and their return to productive livelihood following said events.” Some of the devolved responsibilities to the local government related to DRRM are the following: infrastructure projects, social welfare services including recovery and rehabilitation activities, and post-disaster agricultural extension services and support (Benson 1997). Furthermore, a minimum of 5 percent of the regular budget of LGUs can be mobilized to address needs arising from calamities which occurred during the fiscal year.

4.4.5 Women in Nation Building Act (RA 7192)

The foundations of gender mainstreaming as the main government strategy for promoting gender equality are laid down by this law. It provides for non-discrimination against women, particularly on the basis of their civil status, to engage in paid work, enter into contracts and access credit among others.

Government agencies are also directed to mainstream gender in the design and implementation of their programs, projects and other activities, as well as ensure equality in outcomes. To do this, the agencies should maintain a gender-disaggregated database which will inform planning. Another key feature of the law is the requirement that 5 percent of the budget of all overseas development aid (ODA) projects be used for strengthening gender equality.

The institutionalization of this Gender and Development (GAD) Budget is further strengthened by its integration in the General Appropriations Act (national government budget) which is enacted by Congress every year.

4.4.6. Administrative Guidelines

There are several administrative guidelines on DRR that represent gender considerations. Among those

are some of the policies of Department of Health (DOH) regarding documentation. The DOH Administrative Order 2012-2014 states that there is a need to have a “gender disaggregated data on casualties, recording of reproductive health issues, and the monitoring of breastfeeding promotion and nutrition in evacuation centers”.

The National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Plan (2011-2028) also mentions gender as a cross-cutting concern and addressing gender issues as part of actions towards national development. However specific details on how to operationalize the principle and intent are minimal or otherwise assumed to be understood and will be integrated by implementers.

In addition to these operational guidelines specific to DRRM and gender are the general guidelines on gender mainstreaming which should guide government agencies and LGUs in the preparation of their gender and development plans and budgets (under which DRRM activities promoting gender equality can be supported). The GAD Plan and Budget are mandated under the Women in Nation Building Act and the Magna Carta of Women. The Philippine Commission on Women, together with the National Economic Development Authority (NEDA) and the ODA-GAD Network, published the Harmonized Gender and Development Guidelines for Project Development Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation (2009).

Strengthening the Harmonized Gender and Development Guidelines is the Joint Circular of the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW), NEDA and the Department of Budget and Management (DBM) on GAD budget preparation (PCW-NEDA-DBM JC No. 2012-01). If fully adopted, the documents submitted in this regard can facilitate monitoring the progress of gender equality promotion from the national agency to the local government levels. In the same joint circular are the guidelines for preparing the accomplishment reports with regard to the provisions of the Magna Carta of Women. Another reference with regard the GAD Budget is the Commission on Audit (COA) issued Memorandum 2009-080 on the auditing of GAD funds and activities of government agencies.

The Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development (PPGD) 1995-2025 is the main reference document with regard to implementing the country’s commitments to promoting gender equality, specifically as laid down by the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA). It was adopted by virtue of Executive Order No. 273 in 1995. As with the BPFA, the PPGD does not have specific provisions on women and disasters, although this concern is integrated in the section on women and the environment. The PCW also facilitates a “time-slice” planning with government agencies every three years to put in more detail on current and emerging gender issues identified in the PPGD and draft actions to address them. The current time-slice plan (the “Women’s Empowerment and Development and Gender Equality Plan 2013-2016”) includes a specific section on disaster risk reduction.⁵

Moreover, gender equality is stated as one of the 16-point agenda of the Aquino administration (NEDA, 2011), noting that the “promotion of equal gender opportunity in all spheres of public policies and programs” is necessary. This is clearly articulated in the Philippine Medium Term Philippine Development Plan (2011-2016). Likewise disaster risk reduction is integrated in the document, specifically under poverty alleviation.

Notes:

1. See also UN OCHA (n.d.) for a list of international and regional regulatory policies in disasters
2. See also Reproductive Health Response in Crisis Consortium (2012). The Minimum Initial Services Package (MISP) for Reproductive Health in Crisis Situations. (<http://misp.rhrc.org/>).
3. See Annex 2 for the matrix of national laws related to gender and DRRM.
4. Financing climate change adaptation is stated specifically by Republic Act 10179, or the People’s Survival Fund Law. The law, enacted in 2012, amends the following provisions of the Climate Change Law:
 - establishment of a National Commission on Climate Change (Section 4),
 - drafting of a National Strategic Framework on Climate Change (Section

12), and

- allocation of P1 billion as an initial fund for adaptation programs and projects under the said National Framework (Section 18).

It maintains gender sensitivity and gender mainstreaming as important components of climate change adaptation, from the National Framework to its translation to programs and projects. Responsiveness to gender-differentiated vulnerabilities is also a criteria in the assessment of initiatives to be supported under the People's Survival Fund (Section 24 (g)). Women and children in rural areas were identified as especially vulnerable groups to climate change.

5. This plan is yet to be finalized at the time of writing of this report

Gender Issues in Disasters and DRRM in the Philippines

5

This section presents the gender issues in DRRM and in times of disasters, as categorized by themes: disaster prevention and mitigation, disaster preparedness, disaster response, and disaster rehabilitation and recovery.¹ In many cases, though, the identified gender-based issues presented overlap, which reflects their rootedness in the everyday life of people, only translated in the context of the disasters, specifically in the aforementioned themes.

Broadly speaking, gender issues refer to cases of gender-based discrimination and violence as defined by the UN CEDAW, however not only limiting it to only women's experiences. Where data is available, the gender-specific concerns of men and LGBTs are also presented in this section. The data is also mostly focused on the impact of recent disasters brought about by TS Ketsana ("Ondoy"), Parma ("Pepeng"), Washi ("Sendong") and Bopha ("Pablo").

5.1 Disaster Prevention and Mitigation

In the country, disaster prevention and mitigation is usually associated with infrastructure i.e. putting up or reinforcing structures such as dams, embankments which prevent or minimize the physical impact of natural hazards on the population. Because these are regarded as highly technical and skilled domains, the extent of people's participation in the planning process on these projects is not clear, much less the women's role in it.

In 2004, the Environment and Natural Resources of the Department of Environment and Natural Resources launched a gendered Information, Education and Communication (IEC) in Rizal, Naga, Legazpi, Southern Leyte, Surigao City, Misamis Oriental, and Davao that seeks to empower women by providing them information on managing disaster risks. The project is ongoing and one of the concrete results is the increasing number of women attending the IEC sessions (UNISDR 2007).

What was noted in literature however is how the gendered roles of women and men influence their access to information about hazards and their capacities to deal with them. In many contexts, Raralio and Ebo (2009) observed that men have better access to early warning mechanisms due to their more visible presence in public spaces, access to various communication media and interactions with public officials. Women on the other hand are more engaged in household work, which limits their interactions with people beyond their immediate neighborhood.

Nevertheless, women do engage in disaster prevention and mitigation activities, which have a direct impact on their households. For instance, Christian Aid observed that some urban poor women became more assertive to their husbands about accepting the LGU offer of relocation after Typhoon Ketsana.² The experience of Typhoons Ketsana and Parma also resulted to women's increased visibility in community-based flood warning and disaster prevention activities in Laguna, Marikina, Pasig, Quezon City

and Rizal (Institute for Popular Culture 2011).

Women's concerns on disaster preparedness and mitigation may also be different from how it is defined by development planners: beyond structures and early disaster warnings, women also considered increasing economic opportunities and their participation in decision-making as part of building their capacities against climate change and disasters in general. In Agusan del Sur, the municipalities of Bayugan City and Esperanza in collaboration with a local NGO, Kasanyangan Rural Development Foundation, Inc (KRDFI) conducted a participatory capacity and vulnerability analysis (PCVA) in five barangays which identified women's concerns on climate change. In the context of livelihood adaptation to climate change, an issue raised is the land titling under the names of men alone. Other issues identified were male dominance in family and community decision-making and limited access to livelihood trainings and credit. Multiple burden from household management and supplemental income-generating activities (to be able to pay off family loans) were also raised. This input was used to develop the Climate Change Adaptation and DRRM plans of the municipalities which were eventually integrated in their local development plans.

5.2 Disaster Preparedness

All of the DRRM practitioners interviewed said that women comprise the majority of the participants in disaster preparedness trainings – to the extent that some of them remarked that it is the men now who should be encouraged to join. Women comprise more than 90 percent of barangay (village) health workers and 30 to 60 percent of the barangay disaster action teams – two community-based groups which are at the frontline service in DRRM (IFRCRC 2009b). The active participation of women in DRRM activities is true even in search and rescue trainings which traditionally are associated with men because of the physical demands of the task. However, the physical aspect of search and rescues do not deter practitioners from encouraging women to participate in the training. In the case of Oxfam, their trainers scale down the exercises when the par-

ticipants are mostly women. One trainer explained that most women are not used to doing some of the tasks involved in search and rescues, or they cannot sustain it for long periods. Examples of these tasks are running and carrying heavy loads. Many women are also less fit because their movements are usually confined to smaller spaces i.e., around their house, within their communities and doing repetitive tasks. Another life skill which many women lack is swimming – even if the women live in coastal areas. Particularly in conservative communities, women are not taught to swim or allowed to swim because of reasons relating to modesty: they have to wear shorter, tighter clothes or wet clothes cling to their form.

The Oxfam trainer clarified though that search and rescue in disasters involve more than running and carrying people, and increasing women's knowledge and skills in disaster preparedness will benefit her household at least.

That the Philippines is one of the more progressive countries in Asia with regard to its promotion of gender equality is also another factor in the visibility of women in DRRM activities (IFRCRC 2009). On the other hand, the factors identified by DRRM workers related more to the gender roles and division of labor in households wherein DRRM is an extension of the caregiving work of women. The reasons cited were --

- Women have more free time to attend trainings; men are often out the whole day working
- Women need it more than men because they are the ones left at home
- The trainings as part of unpaid community work is traditionally a domain of women as is reproductive work; men's domains are productive work and community leadership

There are communities however wherein women's participation in public activities such as trainings are limited or conditional. Specifically mentioned in this regard are conservative Muslim communities in Mindanao (Oxfam) and indigenous peoples in Pampanga (Christian Aid) and Aurora (CNDR). Particularly in working with conservative Muslim

areas, Oxfam emphasizes the importance of a culturally sensitive practice vis-à-vis a gender sensitive one: because women's interaction with males who are not their relatives, especially male strangers, is forbidden in their culture, Oxfam would organize an all-women training instead, with women facilitators. It was the experience of Oxfam that in mixed group trainings (where this is acceptable), men are the dominant group. Even in a training where 98 percent of the participants are female, it is the males who mostly direct the discussions making collective decisions difficult or to some extent impossible.

In Pampanga, Christian Aid related that involving indigenous women in DRRM activities would have been difficult without the expressed approval of the council of elders. In this case, the council of elders, which is composed of only males, placed the responsibility of DRRM on the women, which can be taken as an indication of their trust in their capacities. On the other hand, the experience of CNDR staff with the Dumagat tribes in Dingalan, Aurora showed the traditional gender division of labor in the community: only men attended community meetings and capacity-building activities while the women performed household chores, and attended to food preparation and serving during the training.

5.3 Disaster Response

Most of the data gathered on gender and disasters are related to disaster response. This is not surprising given the dominant paradigm on disasters, which emphasizes the hazardous event itself rather than the factors aggravating it to cause wide-scale damage (Gaillard 2012), and the idea of women as victims arising from stereotypes of women as the weaker sex (Enarson 2000; Fordham 2012). Gender issues in disaster response can be categorized into the following: gender-based violence; access to shelters, aid and other resources, stereotyping and gender-based division of labor; and participation in decision-making.

5.3.1. Gender-based violence

Documented forms of gender-based violence during

disasters are sexual violence (sexual harassment, prostitution, sex trafficking and rape) and intimate partner violence (ADB 2008). The Norwegian Refugee Council and the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre report (2012) on the impact of Typhoon Bopha on Cagayan de Oro and Iligan mentioned that women and girls were at risk of gender-based violence (GBV), engaging in transactional sex, and being trafficked. It was also noted in the report that while their survey did not include specific questions on sexual violence, women themselves raised this issue during the FGD stating that these have occurred and still occurring in the emergency shelters. Related to this, and also on Typhoon Bopha, the CNDR staff noted the "casual" way women referred to their experience of sexual harassment (e.g. peeping, unwanted touching) and marital rape when asked about gender issues in evacuation centers, as if these are "not issues" or they do not want to "make a big deal" of them.

There were also a few cases of gender-based violence documented by IASC protection clusters in evacuation centers, relocation sites and communities-at-risk (as cited in the PDNA of Typhoon Ondoy and Pepeng).

Whether cases of gender-based violence increase during disasters cannot be clearly established due to lack of quantitative data found. Only in one report

...climate variability, floods, drought water stress and food shortage are some of the negative effects of climate change forcing the women to engage in other income generating activities. Worse, some women have to leave their homes, leaving the care of the children and other household tasks to their husbands as they seek employment as house-helpers. When this happens, it is now the wife who sustains the needs of the family. The power to decide which traditionally is lodged on the man is now transferred to the woman.

Source: Elbat, Charity Grace; and Alburo, Daisy. Gender Role and Climate Change Mitigation Practices among B'laan Tribe in Glan, Sarangani Province, Philippines. January 2012.

– from the Pambansang Koalisyon ng Kababaihan sa Kanayunan (PKKK) – was there mention of an observed increase of violence against women and trafficking in the rural areas post-Typhoon Ketsana (Baladad n.d.).

Another issue related to gender-based violence in disasters was raised by the CNDR: sexual harassment of female humanitarian workers and protective measures against violence in the field, particularly when traveling in conflict areas.

5.3.2. Gender-based division of labor

As noted by the Institute for Popular Culture (2011) the gender division of labor in times of disasters tends to be more equitable, with the tasking more determined by expediency than gender. Men also engage (albeit often in a limited way) in reproductive work such as taking care of the children and washing clothes while women go out to source food and other needed supplies. While securing income is still men's responsibility, women also look for paid work which can sustain the family. Migration to other areas for work – usually an option only for male members -- is also considered by women if there is an opportunity to do so (e.g. to work as domestic helpers).³

However, this division of labor is usually temporary and people revert back to the traditional gender division of labor once a level of stability in the household is achieved. Some tasks were also observed to remain gendered even in disasters: rebuilding or repairing the house are still largely on the men's shoulders, while women are the ones ultimately responsible for setting up a semblance of organization in household chores (e.g. organizing meal times, caring for the sick). Comparing the work load of women to men, data show that it is the women who are more burdened by multiple concerns – from their household needs to mobilizing whatever resources available so that her family could eat. The Institute for Popular Culture (2011) also noted that some women cut down their food intake so that their family members could have more to eat. Some women are also engaged in volunteer DRRM activities (e.g. as evacuation center leaders, health workers) which also adds to their daily work.

The gays (“*baklas*”), on the other hand, face a different situation of multiple burden wherein they are given by their parents with more physically demanding chores which spans both the stereotyped chores for males and for females (e.g. cleaning the house in the aftermath of flash floods) (Gaillard 2012).

There are also cases where the shift in gender roles was brought about by the change of the household structure, for instance by the death of one or both of the parents, or their migration in search for paid work.

5.3.3. Access to shelters, aid and other resources

Issues regarding the state of evacuation centers during disasters are numerous – from its accessibility to communities, the physical security it provides to people living there, to its management. In almost all cases, it is the women evacuees who bear the brunt of these issues.

During evacuation, women (or mothers) often have the task to bring the children and elderly household members to the emergency shelters while the men stay behind to secure the house. There have been cases where women and their charges were washed away by the flood because they have started out late and the waters have already become very deep along the way to the evacuation center.

Accessibility to emergency shelters is not only critical during evacuation but also after because it is where most relief goods and services are being channeled. Proximity to evacuation centers is also important to families who did not leave their houses during the typhoon but in need of aid as well. Relief distribution based on a first-come-first-served basis, or giving out of relief stubs discriminate against those who are not in evacuation centers because they have to travel early or far to be able to receive aid. Women are especially burdened by this as they are often responsible for caring for household members, which entails ensuring their health and nutrition. In cases where women themselves are not healthy, accessibility of aid when it is channeled through evacuation centers also discriminates on the basis of ability.⁴

Another way relief distribution systems can become discriminatory is if it is inflexible to the gendered reality of households and community. The concept of “household head” as male for instance, can result to female-headed households being overlooked, or the relief goods not reaching the target beneficiaries. In one case related by the Oxfam staff, a woman had some difficulty getting a relief pack for her family because it was given to her husband who was no longer living with them. The matter was resolved after the former husband agreed that the relief pack should go to the woman and their common children.

One of the reasons why families do not go to evacuation centers, even if there is a need to do so, is the congestion of people and lack of privacy in them. These conditions are added stresses for women and girls particularly in the context of socio-cultural norms on female modesty as well as in terms of its implications to their security. Gender issues raised in this regard include lack of private spaces for personal hygiene needs such as toilets and bathrooms (especially needed during their menstruation) and vulnerability to sexual violence. At night, without electricity, women and children fear using the toilets and bathrooms which are sometimes at a distance from where their family members are sleeping.

Clean and private spaces for breastfeeding is also an issue in some cases because of social or cultural norms prohibiting women from baring their breast in public, even if it is to feed their infant.

5.3.4. Health

One of the more devastating impacts of disasters is the loss of lives. There are no gender-disaggregated data found on the number of lives lost or missing in the recent super typhoons in the country.

The absence of a gendered perspective in DRRM has resulted to the neglect of critical gender-specific aid and services, especially as these concerned health needs. This is more apparent in unorganized communities or communities where gender and DRRM have not been mainstreamed, according to the CNDR staff. Basic hygiene and sanitation facilities crucial for pregnant and lactating women and post-natal services for the mother and her newborn

are lacking in most evacuation centers. Separate and secure toilets and bathrooms for females are also important because of reported cases of violence against women and girls occurring in these places. As a result women and girls use these facilities as less as possible which has implication to their physical and mental health.

This is not to say that organized communities are better off but there is effort on their part to comply with standards such as setting up a breastfeeding station and having separate toilets for females and males.

Another health issue specific to pregnant and lactating women – and which is often overlooked – is poor nutrition and vitamin and iron deficiency which may lead to anemia, a condition fatal to pregnancy. Furthermore, availability of reproductive health services is important because there is an increased risk of unplanned pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections during disasters (ADB 2008).

Men’s health is vulnerable because of their risk-taking behaviors (as influenced by gender stereotypes of men) in disasters including not going to evacuation centers, or going there much later and when the travel conditions may be no longer safe, in order to safeguard their houses from looters, or wading through dirty flood waters where they can be infected by diseases such as leptospirosis. Stereotypes of men’s toughness and emotional strength can result to their denial of stress and trauma arising from the disaster event, or deter them from seeking psychosocial support. This in turn may affect their mental health, if not their physical health as well. It is also a gender issue if there are no psychosocial services available for and accessible to men, whether in evacuation centers or outside. (See Box below)

Discrimination which can result to mental anguish is also a health concern, especially among the LGBTs in evacuation centers. Gaillard (2012) mentioned the lack of privacy given to gays (“*baklas*”) and their being ridiculed over their appearance as a source of stress.

Male Suicides

An evacuee who was reported to be suffering from trauma brought by Tropical Storm Sendong committed suicide Wednesday dawn at the Tent City 3 in Sitio Calaanan, Barangay Canitoan.

Jesus Noel Buenvenido, 42, a resident of Zone 7 Acacia in Barangay Carmen, was found dead lying inside his tent with a nylon tied around his neck.

Buenvenido has long been separated from his wife. He was staying in the tent with his 20-year-old daughter and a grandchild.

The victim reportedly displayed “unusual behavior” before he was found dead at around 7 a.m.

His sister-in-law said the night before he died, Buenvenido asked all the other survivors at the Tent City to “evacuate since the water is already high.”

“He said there were already many people and trees. He even dragged his grandchild who was sleeping, saying that they would evacuate,” the sister-in-law said....

In January, another Sendong survivor committed suicide inside a room at the City Central School where he was staying with his family. Their reported exclusion from the list of those who will be transferred to the Tent City and the loss of his house and properties were allegedly the reason why he committed suicide.

Because of this, the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) in the region will reportedly expand and strengthen intervention

activities to internally displaced persons (IDPs) living inside evacuation camps and temporary shelters starting Thursday.

Daisy Babiera, focal person for Camp Management and Coordination Cluster of DSWD, said the department will continue to conduct psycho-social activities and other therapeutic activities to the IDPs in close coordination with the Department of Health (DOH), the lead agency in conducting the activities.

Babiera stressed the importance of expanding and strengthening partnership between the DSWD and religious groups and other faith-based organizations in launching activities that will boost the spiritual status of IDPs.

“The victim (Buenvenido) was seemingly depressed of his present condition, having no means of living at present. Furthermore, the need to avail of psychiatric services may have been overlooked since he already had hallucinations of seeing scenarios associated to flash-floods the night before the incident,” she said.

Babiera said the DSWD provided counseling to the family of the victim on Wednesday while the City Social Welfare and Development Office also promised to extend help to defray the cost of funeral services.

The DSWD assures the public of its continued coordination with the IDPs in evacuation camps and temporary shelters to attend to their needs, not only on relief goods and shelter but also on their emotional conditions.

Source: Ricalde, A.L. (2012, February 23) Another Sendong Victim Kills Self. Sun Star Cagayan de Oro. Retrieved from <http://www.sunstar.com.ph/cagayan-de-oro/local-news/2012/02/23/another-sendong-victim-kills-self-207654>

5.4. Disaster Rehabilitation and Recovery

Baladad (n.d.) found that women are generally resilient to disasters. In the Quezon province, women mobilized their family members and whatever credit

and material support they can access from the local government and private institutions they were able to build up a livelihood activity or start a backyard garden to cultivate food for consumption. In general, women avoided loaning from formal institutions like commercial banks because of its rigorous pro-

cesses and high interest rates.

Women's reproductive work extended to giving moral support to family members who became depressed after the disaster that had happened. Moreover, there was an increased pressure on them to engage in productive work to support the daily needs of their families. With regard to paid work, women tend to prefer home-based work so as not to take them away from their domestic chores (e.g. tending sari-sari stores). However, in the case of Metro Manila-based survivors of Typhoon Ketsana, it was observed that livelihood options for women within

their areas were limited. The demand for their (unskilled) labor – for instance domestic work for private households -- dropped after Typhoon Ketsana and Parma. On the other hand there was an increase in men's (skilled) labor such as carpentry, fixing electrical appliances. In the rural areas hit by Typhoon Washi, some women in communities affected by floods in Agusan del Sur migrated to Metro Manila to work as domestic helpers in order to support their families. Women also worked as itinerant farm laborers (*naghuhurnal*) for the same reason.

With regard to participation in community activi-

Table 6. Gender Division of Labor Before, During and After Disasters

Gender Roles	Before disaster		During disaster		After disaster	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Individual/ Family						
Organize and keep important things	√	√	√		√	
Ensuring food availability	√		√	√	√	
Care for children	√		√	√	√	
Collect water	√			√	√	
Collect fuel	√		√		√	
Go to the market	√		√		√	
Clean house and wash clothes	√	√			√	√
Take care of the sick	√		√		√	
Give health education	√		√		√	
Repair house	√	√			√	√
Guard house	√					
Get capital for small business	√					
Community						
Attend community hearing	√	√			√	√
Draw evacuation plans	√	√		√	√	√
Receive warnings / information	√	√	√	√	√	√
Evacuate families and others	√	√	√	√	√	√
Clean surroundings (e.g. cut trees)	√	√	√	√	√	√
Make list of totally destroyed houses / affected families	√	√	√	√	√	√
Help officials distribute relief and other assistance	√	√	√	√	√	√
Identify safe place for evacuation	√	√	√	√	√	√
Monitor / check conditions of residents	√	√	√	√	√	√

Source: APDC 2004 as cited; Albay focus group discussions (APEC Secretariat 2008).

ties, one post-disaster assessment (Institute for Popular Culture 2011) noted that the increase of women's community participation post-TS Ketsana and Parma is more of an isolated case than a rule. With regard to the women's influence in her household, the same report stated that in only 1 out of the 19 research sites was there an observed increase in the decision-making power of women in the household post-disaster. Women however were active in participating in livelihood activities promoted in their areas during the recovery phase.

In contrast, Baladad (n.d.) reported that the experience of natural disasters (i.e. TS Ketsana) empowered women in Quezon province to engage the local government to draft a local gender-responsive rural development plan. *Bayanihan* was still practiced in the community which facilitated help during the crisis and after. Similarly, the women in Maguindanao who were affected by TS Washi wrote a petition to the regional DENR office asking for the suspension of logging permits in northern part of the province and in the town of Upi. The Christian Aid and Oxfam also noted that if there are no socio-cultural constraints on women in the community, it is the women who are more involved in volunteer community work, including DRRM activities, with or without the experience of disasters. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to be active if there is some compensation involved (e.g. allowance or salary).

Other gender-related issues found in literature were the following:

- Apart from the unavailability of jobs and basic social services in the resettlement areas (including health services), it also mentioned reports of violence against women in resettlement sites arising from spatial issues.
- Spatial issues also included the lack of land for household vegetable patches (usually managed by women) which migrants from rural areas used to enjoy. This has implications on the food security of the household.
- There were more male youths as *tambays* after TS Ketsana and Parma because they

dropped out of school or had become unemployed. This had a negative impact in the sense of security in the communities, especially of women's. People cited the possible scenarios of increased drug use, crimes and gang violence. In some areas, there were reports of violence against women in resettlement sites.

Notes:

1. The data for this section is culled from the desk review of secondary materials and interviews with stakeholders from government and non-government agencies. A focus group discussion was also conducted with the Oxfam DRRM field staff in the Philippines and their local partners. In general however, there is a dearth of information on the gendered impact of disasters in the country, nor a standardized documentation and data retrievals system for gender disaggregated data on disasters.
2. In contrast, other urban poor women in Metro Manila also participated in anti-relocation activities because proposed relocation sites are far from their sources of income in the city and thus result to more hardship for them. See Racelis (2012)
3. Ferris et al. (2013) noted reports of the presence of "recruiters" [quotation marks in the original] in villages affected by Typhoon Bopha promising women jobs as domestic workers in the Middle East, hinting that these job offers may not all be legal or through legal means.
4. In the story "Treasured Envelope" (Redome in Oxfam, 2011), a female survivor of Typhoon Ketsana narrated how relief goods for distribution prioritized people in evacuation centers, thus people who already went back to their homes had to find ways to keep themselves updated of the relief distribution date. They had to come especially early sometimes walking long distances to claim vouchers for relief packs. The above system of relief distribution discriminated against women with disabilities or health conditions (e.g. asthma or heart ailment) who are not staying in evacuation centers.

Policy Implementation and Governance and Windows of Opportunity

6

Overarching the issues described in the previous chapter are policy frameworks on gender equality and DRRM. That is, the mainstreaming of gender equality in DRRM remains to be a challenge to practitioners, from government and non-government agencies alike. Stakeholders observed that the gaps in gender mainstreaming in DRRM is not with the policies per se, but with how the policies are implemented, or not implemented as the case may be.

6.1 Policies on Disaster Risk Reduction and Management

Although the Philippine law on DRRM has been lauded for its progressive stance (Lim Ubac 2012), its implementation at the local level where it matters the most falls short of expectations according to the key informants interviewed i.e., the approach to DRRM is mostly reactive and focused on disaster response. Three years into its implementation (the law was enacted in 2010) its mainstreaming in national and local development planning is still problematic. Groups like Oxfam noted the slow progress to adopt a more holistic perspective and approach to disaster risk reduction. As one staff asked, until when will LGUs continue to use their DRRM funds to purchase rubber boats?

The gaps identified by the Department of the Interior and Local Government (DILG) regarding disaster preparedness and mitigation prior to the enactment

of the DRRM Law still holds true at present (EC, UNESCAP, ADPC and NDCC 2008):

- political commitment and institutional arrangements of LGUs – most LGUs do not have permanent offices for disaster management and local disaster coordinating councils (LDCCs) are ad hoc in nature.
- risk identification, assessments, monitoring and early warning – it was discovered that most LGUs lack the skills in identifying, assessing, and monitoring risks brought by hazards in their respective jurisdictions.
- knowledge management – LGUs lack the skills in data banking and in determining what data to collect that will be useful in disaster management and public dissemination.
- risk reduction – LGUs experience difficulty in implementing existing laws related to disaster risk reduction (DRR), such as building codes, land use, and zoning because of the lack of appreciation of DRR

Furthermore, the DILG back in 2008 cited the lack of reference materials to guide LGUs in DRRM, specifically a compendium on norms and standards on how to deal with specific hazards and a national guide on how to mainstream DRR in local development plans and programs.

At the national level, a recent report assessing the capacities of the Office of Civil Defense (OCD), which is the secretariat of the National DRRM Council (NDRRMC), noted the gaps in the following areas (Center for Disaster Preparedness 2012):

1. human resources both in terms of number and specialized knowledge and skills to fulfill the office's functions under RA 10121;
2. standardized tools for documentation, database management and training modules;
3. physical facilities and communication equipments; and
4. coordination i.e. irregularity of meetings among personnel and of the NDRRMC members leading to difficulties in addressing issues and disagreements

6.2. Gender Mainstreaming in DRRM

Similarly, and specific to gender and DRRM, organizations like Oxfam and the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW) noted a lack of more specific gender equality provisions in government plans and operations. The DRRM Law and its Implementing Rules and Regulation (IRR) only briefly mentions gender mainstreaming as a cross cutting concern in DRRM; there is yet to be a clearer articulation of how DRRM can be a channel to promote gender equality, or gender equality as a requisite to good DRRM practice. Clear guidelines and benchmarks can be used as tools for advocacy and for demanding accountability from national and local government units with regard to ensuring gender-based discrimination and violence does not happen, or at least not aggravated, during disasters.¹

The issue of monitoring and ensuring compliance was also raised in the interview and FGD: which agency monitors that gender equality is embedded in the DRRM process and practices? how will monitoring be done? The DRRM Law does not say and admittedly, the PCW staff interviewed said the agency's human resource is already thinly stretched across its functions. One major gap in monitoring progress in gender equality promotion is the lack of gender disaggregated data. Primary and secondary sources consulted for the report also noted the same

problem exist in disaster monitoring.

However, as pointed out by Christian Aid, having good policies is not enough nor is an assurance that there will be a change in the system. Both literature and observations of the key informants interviewed noted that even provisions already specified by law are not uniformly followed at the ground level, with some agencies more conscious to comply with policy standards, while others have yet to commit to them. Gender mainstreaming, which was mandated as early as 1992 by virtue of the Women in Nation-Building Act, is an example of such policy. Mechanisms, such as the gender focal system and the gender and development (GAD) planning and budgeting, are yet to be fully appreciated by government agencies even after 20 years since the said law was passed.

Several points regarding the challenges to gender mainstreaming in DRRM were raised by practitioners interviewed: First, gender is often seen as an add-on to the practice, and particularly in disaster response, something which can be set aside to address more urgent issues. The Oxfam DRRM practitioners acknowledge that there are added costs to activities for initiatives that truly integrate women in the process, and not just encourage their attendance. The additional costs are both in material and non-material resources. For instance, conducting separate trainings for women in conservative communities which do not encourage certain joint activities of women and men, compensating women (not necessarily in monetary terms) for participating in DRRM activities over and above their reproductive and productive work, or putting up or designating spaces for pregnant and lactating women in already cramped emergency shelters – these entail accommodations which some stakeholders are not willing to invest in.

Second, DRRM practitioners themselves – particularly at the level of national and local government agencies – need capacity building on gender mainstreaming – its concept and implications to their work, among others. Although conducting gender sensitivity trainings (GSTs) have been mainstreamed in many local government units (as requisite of the mandated establishment of VAW desks),

gender and development planning and budgeting lags behind. An indication of this is found in the implementation of the Gender and Development Budget. The percentage of the GAD Budget allocation in the national budget from 1995 to 2010 was only 0.32 percent – far from the mandated 5 percent GAD budget allocation. Even more significant to note is the fluctuating percentage allocation through the years. The highest percentage GAD Budget allocation was 0.57 percent in years 1997, 1999 and

developing even stronger links of coordination, monitoring and evaluation with other agencies.

The third challenge identified to gender mainstreaming in DRRM is related to above: the generally low status of gender mainstreaming among the priorities of local and national government agencies also affects how DRRM is practiced in the country. The quotes below from Philippine government report regarding HFA implementation progress (2011) is

Table 7. Trends in GAD Budget Allocation from 1995 to 2010

Year	Total National Government Budget Allocation (in PhP billion)	GAD Budget Allocation (in PhP billion)	GAD Budget as % of National Government Budget
1995	372.1	1	0.27
1996	416.1	1.3	0.31
1997	491.8	2.8	0.57
1998	537.4	2.7	0.50
1999	293.6	3.4	0.57
2000	682.5	3.2	0.47
2001	710.8	2.9	0.41
2002	742.0	0.8	0.11
2003	826.5	4.7	0.57
2004	86.70	3.9	0.45
2005	947.6	2.2	0.23
2006	1,044.8	1.1	0.11
2007	1,155.5	0.9	0.08
2008	1,314.6	1.1	0.08
2009	1,426.0	6.5	0.46
2010	1,541.0	1.3	0.08

Source: SEPO (2010 citing BESF-DBM, NCRFW)

2003; the lowest was 0.08 percent in the years 2007, 2008 and 2010 (SEPO 2010 citing BESF-DBM, NCRFW) (See table above)

The Philippine Senate in its policy brief on GAD budget implementation attributed the low compliance to weak institutional mechanisms for monitoring. Among its recommendation are monitoring and evaluating the impacts of GAD-related programs and projects; setting clear targets and benchmarks;

particularly telling:

During a disaster or emergency situation, it is doubly difficult to incorporate DRR objectives and gender concerns while planning for the recovery and reconstruction of a disaster-affected area. The tyranny of urgency to bring back normalcy as soon as possible puts certain priorities always on top of the agenda, and DRR and gender

concerns may fall by the wayside in the desire of the officials and people to go back to their feet.

Also,

Gender concerns have yet to be fully integrated in the provision of relief, shelter and emergency medical facilities. Some palliative gender-fair measures were instituted in the past, but these measures have yet to be institutionalized.

There are certain national agencies, such as the Department of Social Welfare and Development, which are more conscious of the differential impact of disasters along gender lines and thus developed programs to address gender-specific issues. However, extent with which other government agencies also promote gender equality in their DRRM-related programs, projects and activities needs further study.²

6.3. Resource Mobilization³

Resource mobilization to promote gender equality and DRRM are also intertwined. Similar to the concept of the GAD Budget, the DRRM Law states that a minimum of 5 percent of the LGU development fund can be used to address disaster-related concerns, especially relating to post-disaster interventions. As the key informants observed there are LGUs, which would rather utilize their budget for rescue equipment and material aid, rather than invest in building the capacities of the residents against disasters. Most LGUs also have a fragmented view of planning and budgeting, thus DRRM requirements are confined to the 5 percent budget specified by law which in some cases, is inadequate. Instead, DRRM practitioners advocate for an integrated view of planning and budgeting where in some of the requirements for DRRM mainstreaming can be sourced from other budget allocations such as the GAD budget (e.g. raising awareness on gender equality in the context of disasters) and SK funds (e.g. mobilizing the youth for DRRM activities) so long as these activities also contribute to fulfilling the goals underlying these budget allocations (i.e. gender equality and youth empowerment,

respectively).

Finally, an important cross-cutting issue identified across the DRRM themes is the government corruption in relation to the use of DRRM funds and especially during disaster response. This was raised by all the informants from the non-government sector. The CNDR staff in particular pointed to the rampant corruption (whether perceived or in fact) and lack of transparency of LGUs in disaster relief operations as a barrier to partnership between government and its corporate members. According to CNDR, many in the private sector would rather have their own relief distribution programs coursed through and implemented by the CNDR than work directly with LGUs which they do not trust with their donations. Similar sentiments were raised by some survivors of Typhoon Ketsana in Laguna and Rizal (Oxfam 2011).

6.4 Windows of Opportunity

Despite the issues presented in the previous sections, opportunities for gender mainstreaming are also found in the context of disasters and how DRRM is implemented at the community level. A major factor in this are the incremental changes in Philippine society that has made gender equality more tangible in certain domains, for instance in education and, to some extent, employment, which in turn influenced how gender and gender roles are conceptualized and performed. Alongside these are the policy measures which strengthened the assertion of rights against gender-based discrimination and violence. Civil society organizations (CSOs) also play a critical role as change agents in communities where they work, filling the gap in government interventions, including awareness raising and education on gender equality.

Some of these positive changes noted from literature and as identified by key informants are the following ways:

- Many national policies, including the DRRM Law, are more conscious to integrate a provision on gender mainstreaming in their text. This can be used as a tool to lobby for more gender sensitive public programs and services, as well as increased

spaces for women's meaningful participation in DRRM.

- Some measures reflective of gender sensitivity and responsiveness are already being undertaken by government agencies, in particular the Department of Social Welfare and Development. Gender-specific support activities conducted by the DSWD during Typhoon Washi, for instance, included orientations and handing out informational materials on gender-based violence, and organizing sub-clusters to address the protection of women and girls in disasters. Aside from disaster response, the DSWD flagship anti-poverty program, the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) also integrates discussions on gender equality and disaster preparedness in its regular family orientations with beneficiaries.⁴
- International humanitarian agencies and donor groups also contribute to preventing gender-based discrimination and violence in disaster situations. These include the UNFPA chaired sub-cluster on gender-based violence, which provided assistance to 10,000 affected people, mostly displaced women and girls. In coordination with the local government service providers (e.g. police, social welfare and the health offices) they sub-clusters conducted information sessions on reproductive health and rights, as well as put up “women-friendly” spaces in evacuation centers during Typhoons Ketsana, Washi and Bopha
- Women in disaster-affected communities are given access to livelihood services and other resources as part of the LGU or CSO's rehabilitation programs, which may not have been available or accessible to them otherwise. In some ways gender stereotyping also contributed to the perception that women are more trustworthy with finances and more meticulous with recording which makes them better partners in livelihood programs than men. The ripple effect of the intervention is also greater if women were helped because women would use most, if not all, their earnings on improving their family's welfare.
- Shifts in gender roles to a more equitable sharing of tasks is also observed during disasters, decreasing somewhat the burden of reproductive work of women and enabling them to engage in other activities (e.g. paid work, community service). Related to this, disaster contexts can also be an opportunity to make more tangible the importance of complementation of roles, rather than subordination of one gender in a household or community.
- Women participating in voluntary DRRM work (e.g. attendance to trainings, doing vulnerability assessments, acting as evacuation center leaders, volunteer health workers) also increased their capacities for public leadership. In some cases, women DRRM volunteers ran for and were elected to local government posts (see women's stories in Oxfam 2011).
- Women's engagement in productive work contributes to their self-confidence and enhances their economic empowerment. Moreover, this can lead to incremental changes in decision-making where women can equally share with the men decisions over important matters at the household level.
- Private sector involvement in DRRM is also increasing, and goes beyond traditional forms of assistance such distribution of relief goods (disaster response). These included providing technology and capacity building assistance, materials and seed funds for projects related to disaster mitigation (e.g. building or retrofitting schools and other structures which also double as emergency camps in times of disasters, technical assistance in crafting LGU disaster plans, disaster preparedness trainings).⁵

Notes:

1. An exception to this is the APEC Secretariat study on gender and disasters (2009), where results of their survey of government agencies (self-rating) showed that the Philippine National Police and the Provincial Planning and Development Office “always” have reports on casualties disaggregated by sex and gender, while the Department of Education and Philippine Information Agency “sometimes” have these reports.
2. See for instance Illo et al. (2010). Although their study was not focused on DRRM, the case studies on the Department of Environment and Natural Resources, Department of Public Works and Highways and Department of Agriculture can also provide insights on gender mainstreaming in these agencies which are also stakeholders in DRRM, particularly in programs for disaster prevention and mitigation.
3. More information on financing DRRM can be found in Jose (2010) For an analysis of the GAD Budget policy and implementation, see Illo et al. (2010)
4. The Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) is a conditional cash transfer program which targets the “poorest of the poor” for financial assistance. The modest support (maximum of PhP 1,200 or US\$ 28.50 a month) covers education and health services for children and their mothers. There are 3,014,586 beneficiary households in the across 79 provinces as of 27 June 2012 (DSWD website)
5. It is not yet clear how and to what extent are gender equality concerns are addressed by initiatives from the private sector, or even how they engage women in these actions. However, it is widely agreed that the private sector should be more active in DRRM. Ramon Isberto, head of SMART Telecom Public Affairs and president of the Corporate Network for Disaster Response, puts the role of the business sector in DRRM as such: “...[T]he primary and the greatest contribution of the private sector in disaster was to keep operating and get back to normal as quickly as possible and to strengthen family resilience among their employees...” (2013, UNOCHA Policy Forum in the Asia Pacific). See also Annex 3 for the 14-point APEC Public-Private Partnerships and DRRM guidelines forwarded during the 2013 APEC workshop on the same topic.

Analysis, Conclusion, and Recommendations

7

7.1 Analysis

Disasters are a part of Filipino reality. Owing to the country's geophysical location and features, the country is prone to hazards such as typhoons, sea surges, earthquakes, strong volcanic activity and droughts and flooding brought by the El Niño and La Nina phenomenon, respectively. These are further aggravated by global climactic changes.

However, geophysical characteristics are not the only factors in the intensifying disasters experienced in the Philippines, and in many cases, may not be the main reason for the extensive damage sustained by communities in its wake. For a low to medium developing country such as the Philippines, it is equally important – if not more so – to look at the interplay of economic, social and political forces which defines people's vulnerability and capacities to absorb or resist the physical impact of hazards. Disasters are a development issue. It is important that any discussion on disasters should be cognizant of broader development issues: natural resource utilization and management, underdevelopment in rural areas and in pockets of urban areas, unemployment, the national budget and debts, among others. There is also an equally important need to review some policies for its negative impact on the long-term development of the country. Laws pertaining to industries which build on natural resource extraction like logging and mining in particular have been criticized by various sectors as aggravating the impact of natural hazards (e.g. severe flooding, landslides,

mine tailings) as well as causing displacement of people from access to and control over their source of livelihoods and identity (as in the case of indigenous peoples).

The interplay of economic, social and political forces as an underlying cause of disasters also surfaces how power differentials among various groups in society has bearing on their vulnerability and resilience to disasters. Far from the popular idea that a disaster is an equalizing event, disasters actually show that some groups are more able to adapt or recover from disasters, while others become locked into poverty and marginalization. More than at the macro level, it is in the local level – in the impoverished communities and households – where the impact of disasters is more keenly felt. However, it is also in these levels where more sustainable approaches to development in terms of increasing people's economic, social and political power are mostly lacking.

To what extent do disasters aggravate the existing gender inequalities? To what extent does gender equality eliminate or reduce disaster risks, and contribute to family and community resilience? It is difficult to make a more comprehensive analysis of the situation given dearth of gender-disaggregated data on disasters and DRRM, as well as the generally low level of gender mainstreaming in DRRM-related work. However links can be drawn from the qualitative data found in literature and in the interviews and FGDs conducted for the report:

- Based on international indices, the Philippines ranks from high (Gender Gap Index) to medium (Gender and Development Index) in terms of its achievement of gender equality. While this is a good indicator of progress, it cannot be taken as an accurate reflection of gendered experiences of women and men in the country. Gender-based discrimination is highly contextual and, as with disasters, often localized in its impact. Thus, within the country, there are communities and families where women still experience forms of discrimination and violence which are already minimized if not eradicated in some areas. The GDI scores of provinces may be a starting point in identifying areas where women vulnerability to disasters may be high. Moreover, it was also noted that some of the bottom provinces with regard to GDI scores were also identified as belonging to the poorest provinces and very highly at risk of climate change impacts (i.e. temperature change, droughts, increased rainfall and flooding).
- Gender inequality (or equality) where it exists, influence DRRM-related interventions, from disaster prevention and mitigation, to disaster recovery and rehabilitation. Gender stereotyping of women and men's ability and interests are sometimes manifested in the activities conducted. For instance, the community deems that search and rescue trainings are for men because it requires physical strength, while women are tapped as volunteers because they have more "free time". Unchecked, this is lost opportunity for DRRM practitioners to mainstream gender equality in their work and in their communities.
- Gender-based discrimination happens in disaster situations, and in some cases is aggravated by the event. The breakdown of social order during disasters provides a context for gender-based violence, specifically domestic and sexual violence, and mostly against women and children. Even female staff of humanitarian agencies can be vulnerable to sexual harassment while working in emergency situations. Other forms of gender-based discrimination in disaster situations documented are non-provision of necessary gender-specific needs (e.g. reproductive health services) and multiply burdening of women (and LGBTs) with reproductive and productive work as well community service. Gender stereotyping also influences coping mechanisms of women and men during disasters and, in the case of men, often hinders them from availing services (e.g. psychosocial services to address emotional trauma)
- The breakdown of social order and also the opportunity disasters provide to reconstruct communities also opens doors to more equitable gender-relations. Examples here are the (temporary) sharing of caring work and decision making between husband and wife, women are allowed to engage in paid work, women becoming more involved and visible in community work and leadership. Oftentimes, the change is out of necessity and only temporary until the household or community is able to recover from the disaster. However, there are also cases of more lasting shift from gender stereotyping to gender equality, for instance, women DRRM volunteers being elected to local government posts.
- The institutionalization of gender mainstreaming as a strategy to facilitate achievement of gender equality in the country has also influenced the way DRRM is conceptualized and practiced. That is, the national DRRM Law is explicit in its aims to promote principles of gender inclusivity and equality in all aspects of DRRM operations. However, more time and effort is needed before this is fully realized. Although women's participation in DRRM planning and operations have been increasing, there is yet to be a systematic assessment on its quality. One important dimension of this assessment is whether women's participation contributes to their empowerment and to the recog-

inition of gender equality in the community in general, or it is merely adding to women's already multiple reproductive and productive work.

It is important to note that gender issues in disasters cannot and should not be taken in isolation of the everyday reality of women and men. That is, disasters only provide a context wherein unequal power relations on the basis of sex and gender identity, socio-economic class, age and physical abilities are played out. Thus the similarity of issues raised in times of disaster: gender-based violence; neglect of gender-specific needs in terms of supplies, health services, and facilities (breastfeeding area, separate toilets); and exclusion from community decision-making and leadership, among others.

Gender-based discrimination in resource ownership, education and employment are also DRRM issues because these affect the vulnerability of people to disaster as well as their recovery and resilience. Women's access to formal credit, which is important in rebuilding destroyed houses and livelihoods, may be hampered by their lack of collateral. While they may have land or vehicles, they cannot put them up as collateral simply because their name is not included in the titling of these assets. In this case, many women turn instead to informal credit sources (e.g. money lenders) which may charge them higher interest for the loan.

Disasters also magnify the gaps in the implementation of the otherwise progressive policies on gender equality and DRRM: ensuring the participation of all people regardless of gender in DRRM planning processes; protecting vulnerable groups of women and children against physical or sexual violence; and provision of basic health services, including reproductive health services. As mandated by law, government agencies, including LGUs, should have a DRRM plan and a GAD plan which should address the gender-related concerns arising from disasters; however this is not always the case. Documentation and gender-disaggregation of data, monitoring of GAD and DRRM plans submission is also problematic. In this regard, both the PCW and the study of the Center for Disaster Preparedness (2012) on OCD capacities noted the inadequate hu-

man resource to effectively carry out their mandated functions as a factor in this gap. Another factor cited was the lack of specific protocols and guidelines which translate gender equality principles in terms of DRRM operations.

Given that the policies on gender mainstreaming in government agencies have been in place for two decades, it is also alarming that the gender issues are still regarded as secondary priority to the more urgent concerns in disaster-affected areas. To quote from the country's interim progress report to the HFA, "The tyranny of urgency to bring back normalcy as soon as possible puts certain priorities always on top of the agenda, and DRR and gender concerns may fall by the wayside in the desire of the officials and people to go back to their feet."

The above quote reflects what may be the general attitude in relation to gender equality and DRRM that is, they can be isolated from each other and still be effectively realized. The segmented view of GAD plans and budgets in relation to the overall LGU development plan is another indication of this attitude. This observation was not explored in the course of data gathering, and needs validation by further study. However, based on the literature on the challenges of gender mainstreaming in the country, it can be forwarded that one possible reason for this attitude is the misconception of "gender" to mean "women only", thus "gender equality" is a concern mainly of women and not a pre-requisite to community and national development. This narrow appreciation of gender equality has implication on how gender mainstreaming is operationalized in disaster contexts including the neglect of the specific needs and concerns of LGBTs and men in DRRM planning and emergency and recovery programs. The case of the man committing suicide after he found out that his family was not in the list of relief beneficiaries is one example.

The findings of the report also show the "windows of opportunity" brought about by disasters to promote gender equality: LGUs and CSOs engaging women in DRRM work which develops their self-esteem and public leadership skills; the shifts in gender roles wherein men also share in caring for household members; provision of livelihood opportunities

so that women can support their families and have a measure of financial independence. The experience of disasters have also provided impetus for organizing women to be more visible and assertive in “building back better” their communities, as in the case of women in Agusan del Sur (See section on gender issues in disaster mitigation and prevention). More humanitarian agencies are also conscious of the gendered reality of disasters and have taken steps to address specific needs of vulnerable groups. These actions have influenced DRRM practice at the ground level. The participation of the private sector in DRRM also holds promise in strengthening people’s capacities against disasters. Beyond disaster relief initiatives, the private sector can contribute much to disaster prevention and mitigation by investing in strategic projects such as accessible communication technologies for early warning and dis-

aster information, low cost housing to benefit people living in danger zones, and risk financing.

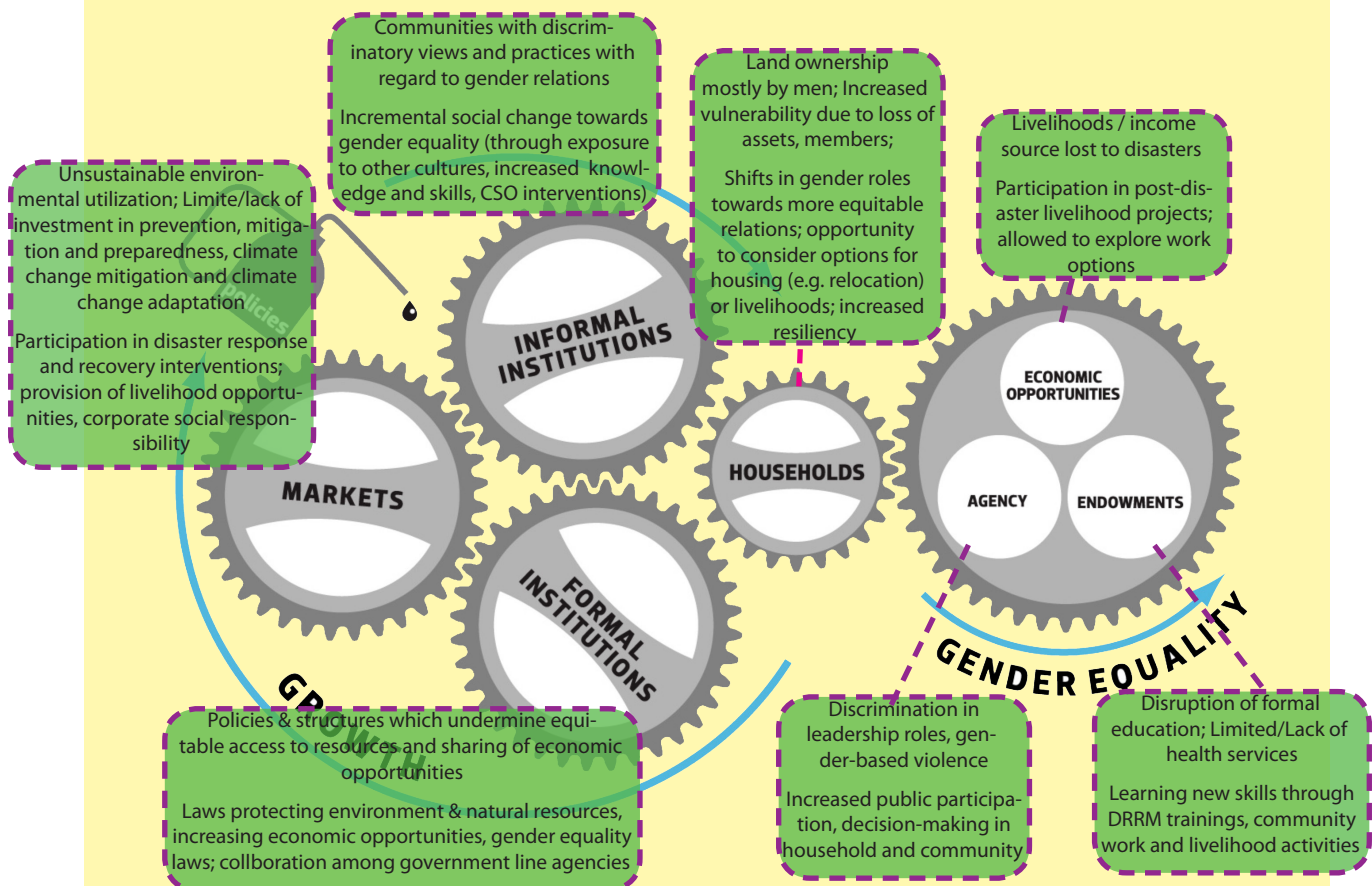
In this context the main challenge is how to maximize the windows of opportunities for gender equality and sustain its positive outcomes, at the same time address the barriers which can undermine these.

The diagram below presents a summary of the barriers and opportunities for the promotion of gender equality in the context of disasters using the WDR framework.

7.2 Conclusion

The report is not a comprehensive study on gender

Figure 6. A Diagram of Barriers and Opportunities in the Promotion of Gender Equality in DRRM



and disasters, especially given the limitations of lack of gender disaggregated national data on disasters as well as the time frame for the study. However three key issues on gender and disasters can be already culled out from the data gathered:

- Gender biases influence the distribution of resources and power in society. Intersected with other forms of marginalization, for instance on the basis of socio-economic class, education, age, religion and ethnicity, the social, political and economic inequality between women and men and among women becomes more defined, especially in times of disasters.
- Women and girls have experienced forms of gender-based discrimination in all themes of DRRM, including gender-based violence. Documentation of less apparent forms of discrimination such as stereotyping with regard to capacities and endowments, marginalization in decision-making bodies were also found. The data presented in the report is mostly on the experiences during the emergency and post-disaster phases. However this is mainly due to the lack of data in the other DRRM themes, namely disaster prevention and mitigation, and disaster preparedness.
- There is still a low appreciation of gender mainstreaming in many government agencies, especially at the LGU level. Ironically, rather than a cross-cutting concern, as stated in the DRRM law and other national development policies and plans, gender equality is regarded as a separate or special issue which can be isolated from the broader context of socio-economic poverty, people's empowerment and disasters.

Based on the findings of the report, policy enactment alone as a response is inadequate to facilitate the process. The case of gender mainstreaming and GAD Budgets is a good example in this regard: two decades after the enactment of the Women in Nation-Building Law, gender-based discrimination and violence are still regarded as secondary concerns to

more urgent issues in disaster situations.

There are no clear-cut solutions to the above issues; rather a very general statement can be forwarded that a gender perspective must be mainstreamed into DRRM initiatives – whether these are in the form of trainings, provision of services or engaging people in community leadership and livelihood activities. Reducing gender-based vulnerability to disasters will entail addressing power differentials in the different sectors of society. Gender issues cuts across concerns on education, health, work, access to resources and political power – and reducing gender-based vulnerability to disasters will entail addressing power differentials in the different sectors of society. This goes beyond ensuring a 50-50 representation of women and men on lists: it entails understanding why disparities in numbers exist, its implication on the vulnerabilities of household and communities to disasters, and providing support systems so that equality in numbers and equality in outcomes can take place.

7.3 Recommendations

Prevention and Mitigation

Review policies on environment, particularly provisions on natural resource ownership, control and utilization from a gender and DRRM perspective.

While several laws have provided for equal ownership and titling of natural resources (e.g. farm lands) to women and men, in practice, these are not strictly followed. In some cases, the property regime favors men over women. Thus, the need to review these laws and enforce or amend them, as necessary, to ensure gender equality.

Policies regarding the control and ownership of natural resources for industries such as mining, quarrying and logging should also be reviewed in light of its immediate and long-term impact on host communities, especially as regards disasters. Another set of policies that needs to be reviewed and possibly updated are those pertaining to violations of environ-

mental laws and industry or corporate responsibility over disasters directly or indirectly caused by their activities.

In the meantime, however, there should be a tighter enforcement of existing penalties for companies which were proved to have violated these policies.

Conduct more studies on the gender dimensions of disasters and disaster resilience in the country.

In general, the scholarship on gender and disasters is still in its nascent stages in the country, and much more needs to be done to map out the impact of gender equality (or inequality) on people's vulnerabilities and resilience to disaster. There is also a need for more studies beyond women's situation at the onset of disasters and early recovery period which most of the time portray them as victims. Further studies can be done on the dynamics of gender identities (including LGBTs), roles and relationships in the community and the division of work in disaster mitigation, prevention, preparedness and recovery.

Related to this, the study emphasizes the need for stronger and coordinated monitoring and documentation systems among government agencies and LGUs with regard to disasters specifically, and gender and development in general.

Preparedness and Response

Develop guidelines and standard operating procedures (SOPs) for government DRRM operations.

There is a need for specific and standardized guidelines and operations procedures on certain DRRM operations and how to ensure gender-based discrimination does not occur in the process or as a result of these operations. This can cover early warning systems; systems for forced evacuations and return; evacuation center management; risk and vulnerability assessments; and documentation and data retrieval, among others.

These guidelines and SOPs should clearly identify

the role of different stakeholders involved in the operations, and coordination processes especially if they are inter-agency guidelines. These documents can also be bases for monitoring and demanding accountability.

Similarly, government and humanitarian agencies undertaking emergency response should also have guidelines on the protection of their staff from possible gender-based violence in the field.

Rehabilitation and Recovery

Encourage private sector engagement in DRRM activities, particularly in efforts to reduce people's vulnerability to disasters through post-disaster initiatives such as health, livelihood and housing programs or projects which, among other criteria, should be gender-sensitive and responsive.

Implement zoning policy that would put people away of harm's way. There is also a need to improve the relocation framework of the government to include livelihoods and not only housing, as well as explicitly gender-sensitive and responsive.

Program Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation

Strengthen the monitoring and compliance systems for the implementation of gender-related laws and the DRRM law (Republic Act 10121).

The study forwards that there are already good policies and standards in place to make DRRM gender sensitive and responsive. Supporting Republic Act 10121 (DRRM Law) which directly addresses disaster response and management concerns, are other policies on gender, climate change, economic development and poverty alleviation which can and should inform DRRM strategies from the national to the barangay level. Moreover, DRRM practitioners and other stakeholders can also draw on international and regional operational standards to improve

their service delivery systems in disaster response and disaster recovery and rehabilitation.

The gap is in implementing the provisions of these policies. In particular, compliance to requirements that contribute to the prevention or mitigation of disasters and reducing the vulnerability of people should be closely monitored. Examples of these are: compliance to land zoning and building codes, natural resource use, conducting disaster preparedness activities, and establishing VAWC (Violence Against Women and Children) Desks in police stations and barangays.

Moreover, submission and implementation of GAD and DRRM plans and budgets as required by law should also be checked.

Build the capacities of stakeholders – government agencies and local government units – on gender and development planning, as well as disaster risk reduction and management

planning.

The recommendation particularly focuses on government agencies and LGUs because of their mandates under the law. Building their capacities refer to both their human resources and technical capacity. The lack of human resources from the national to the barangay level is one factor in the limited implementation and sustainability of both gender mainstreaming and DRRM activities. In line with this, the study recommends creating a plantilla position for a DRRM officer in LGUs, in addition to a gender focal point.

Developing GAD and DRRM plans and budgets are some of the areas identified for technical capacity building, apart from general orientations and trainings related to mainstreaming gender and DRRM in the LGU and communities. In general, these topics should be part of the basic package for DRRM capacity building at the LGU and community-level.

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Annex 1

Philippine Provinces Most Vulnerable to Climate Change Impacts

Level of Risk	Temperature Change	Rainfall Change	El Niño	Typhoons	Flooding
Very high risk	Sulu Basilan Lanao del Sur Maguindanao	Metro Manila Albay Pampanga Ifugao Rizal Cavite Sorsogon Laguna Biliran Batangas Pangasinan Masbate Tarlac Nueva Ecija Northern Samar Aklan Capiz La Union	Sulu Basilan Maguindanao Lanao del Sur Lanao del Norte Davao del Norte	Ifugao La Union Cagayan Ilocos Sur Albay Mountain Province Kalinga Pangasinan Sorsogon	Pangasinan Nueva Ecija Pampanga Maguindanao Tarlac Cagayan Leyte North Cotabato Negros Occidental
High risk	Lanao del Norte Davao del Norte Zamboanga del Sur Tawi-Tawi Misamis Occidental Camiguin Siquijor Misamis Oriental Cebu Agusan del Norte Zamboanga del Norte Saranggani Negros Oriental Ifugao Negros Occidental	Western Samar Romblon	Misamis Occidental Saranggani Zamboanga del Sur South Cotabato Zamboanga del Norte North Cotabato Sultan Kudarat Siquijor Tawi-Tawi Negros Oriental Camiguin Davao Oriental Misamis Oriental Bukidnon	Pampanga Camarines Sur Catanduanes Nueva Ecija Ilocos Norte Northern Samar Tarlac Apayao Rizal Benguet Camarines Norte	Iloilo Bulacan Camarines Sur Agusan del Sur Zamboanga del Sur Davao del Sur Sultan Kudarat Oriental Mindoro Davao del Sur Zambales Isabela

Source: World Bank 2013 as cited in Balabo 2013

Annex 2

Matrix of Major National Laws on Gender Equality and Disaster Risk Reduction and Management

Law	General Description	Relevance to Gender Mainstreaming in DRRM
<p><i>Republic Act 10121 (Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Act)</i></p>	<p>The DRRM law strengthens the country's disaster risk reduction and management system, providing for the national disaster risk reduction and management framework and institutionalizing the national disaster risk reduction and management plan, and budget appropriation</p>	<p>Women identified as a vulnerable and marginalized group in relation to disasters</p> <p>Sec. 3 Definition of Terms Sub-section (oo) "Vulnerable and Marginalized Groups"- those that face higher exposure to disaster risk and poverty including, but not limited to, women, children, elderly, differently-abled people, and ethnic minorities</p>
<p><i>Republic Act 9729 (Climate Change Act including the Action Plan)</i></p>	<p>The Climate Change law allows for the mainstreaming of climate change into government policy formulations, establishing the framework strategy and program on climate change, and the creation of the climate change commission</p>	<p>Gender mainstreaming as a component of the national climate change strategic framework and action plan</p> <p>Sections 12 and 13 of the CC Act highlight gender mainstreaming components of the framework strategy on climate change and the national climate change action plan.</p>
<p><i>Republic Act 9710 (Magna Carta of Women)</i></p>	<p>The Magna Carta is a comprehensive law that promotes women's human rights in various settings / situations</p>	<p>Women's needs and gender-based issues should addressed in disaster situations</p> <p>Chapter IV, Section 10</p> <p>The State shall provide for immediate humanitarian assistance, allocation of resources and early resettlement, if necessary. It shall also address the particular needs of women from a gender perspective to ensure their full protection from sexual exploitation and other forms of sexual and gender-based violence committed against them. Responses to disaster situations shall include the provision of services such as psychological support, livelihood support, education, psychological health and comprehensive health services, including protection during pregnancy.</p>

Law	General Description	Relevance to Gender Mainstreaming in DRRM
<p><i>Republic Act 7192 (Women in Nation-Building Act)</i> <i>The law laid the foundations of the GAD budget</i></p>	<p>The law strengthens the equality between women and men clause in the Philippine Constitution by specifying women's equal right to education, credit and public participation, among others. It also laid down the foundations of the GAD Budget.</p>	<p>The law provided for the equality of women t men with regard right to enter into contracts and access to credit which are sometimes important in post-disaster situations.</p> <p>The law laid the foundations of the GAD budget</p>
<p><i>GAD Budget in the annual General Appropriations Act</i></p>	<p>The law provides for the allocation of 5% for programs, projects and activities aiming to promote gender equality. The allocation (also called the "GAD Budget") is an outcome of the Women in Nation Building Act, and is enacted by Congress every year.</p>	<p>The GAD budget is a mechanism and tool to ensure gender issues are addressed in development planning in all levels of the government, from the LGUs to national agencies. This covers State agencies which are directly involved in DRRM, thus there is an initial resource within these agencies for gender mainstreaming in their operations.</p>
<p>Laws addressing sexual violence and other forms of gender-based violence</p> <p><i>Anti-Rape Law</i></p> <p><i>The Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act</i></p> <p><i>Anti-Sexual Harassment</i></p> <p><i>Anti-Trafficking Law</i></p> <p><i>Anti-Child Abuse Law</i></p> <p><i>Anti-Prostitution Law</i></p> <p><i>Revised Penal Code</i></p>	<p>Sexual violence is a human rights violation in the country. The laws against rape, (sexual) trafficking, and child (sexual) abuse are considered public crimes</p> <p>The Anti-Sexual Harassment Law penalizes a wide range of acts which falls under its definition of "sexual harassment" from non-verbal actions to rape. However, by its definition the crime of sexual harassment can be committed only by persons in authority against a subordinate in the context of a work or educational setting.</p> <p>"Unjust vexation" is often used by victims of sexual harassment but are not covered by the Anti-Sexual Harassment Law</p> <p>Prostitution is a crime in the Philippines, although the law's perspective is biased against the prostituted rather than the clients and pimps</p>	<p>These laws address forms of gender-based violence which may be present in disaster situations, or in general, further increase vulnerability of marginalized groups (women, LGBTs) to disasters.</p>

Law	General Description	Relevance to Gender Mainstreaming in DRRM
<p>Laws addressing family violence</p> <p><i>Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Law</i></p> <p><i>Anti-Child Abuse Law</i></p>	<p>Gender-based violence in the family is penalized by law. This includes physical, sexual and psychological violence.</p> <p>Economic violence was also penalized by the Anti-VAWC law. This covers a range of acts which discriminates against women from taking employment, being kept financially dependent on her intimate partner, and refusal to provide support when this is mandated by law (e.g. between legally married couples)</p> <p>Both the Anti-VAWC law and the Anti-Child Abuse Law provide for the establishment of mechanisms at the local government level</p>	<p>These laws address forms of gender-based discrimination and violence within households which contribute to the vulnerability of marginalized members (women, LGBTs) in times of disasters.</p>
<p>Laws on ownership and administration of property, resources³¹</p> <p><i>Family Code of 1988</i></p> <p><i>Muslim Code of Personal Laws</i></p> <p><i>Indigenous People's Rights Act</i></p> <p><i>Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Law</i></p>	<p>Under the Family Code, the husband's decision will prevail in case of disagreement over the administration of a conjugal property (Article 96)</p> <p>A Muslim woman retains her ownership and administration of properties acquired prior to her marriage, and all profits resulting from it (Article 40-41, Muslim Code of Personal Laws).</p> <p>The IPRA provides for equal rights to indigenous women in relation to use and administration of resources, whether household or community resources (Section 26)</p> <p>Under the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Law, women must be guaranteed and assured of equal rights with men in the ownership of land, share in farm produce and representation in advisory or decision-making bodies (Chapter X, Section 40)</p>	<p>Resource ownership and control is an issue especially in post-disaster situations where these may be critical for the rehabilitation and recovery of households (e.g. rebuilding houses, establishing livelihoods)</p>

Law	General Description	Relevance to Gender Mainstreaming in DRRM
<p>Act No. 4112 (on women's suffrage)</p> <p>Local Government Code (Book I, Title 2, Chapter 1, Section 14 on women's sectoral representation) (Chapter V, Section 26)</p> <p>Magna Carta of Women (Chapter IV, Section 11)</p>	<p>The Magna Carta of Women provides the following percentage of women representation: a 50% of the number of persons in 3rd level civil service positions; and 40% of member in development planning and program implementation</p> <p>Also from the Magna Carta, women shall be represented in national and international policy and decision-making bodies</p> <p>Indigenous Peoples Rights Act (The law was explicit on indigenous women's inclusion in all matters relating to indigenous people's concerns, whether political (leadership and representation), economic (ownership and use of resources) or socio-cultural (participation in community life).</p>	<p>Apart from the right to vote and to be voted into office, there is also the Local Government Code which emphasizes the importance of multi-sectoral participation in decision-making for local development, particularly that of marginalized sectors. The participation of women as a sectoral group in local governance was specifically identified</p>

³¹ Although not specifically a gender equality law, the Agricultural and Fisheries Modernization Act and the Fisheries Code provided for women's equal participation with men with regard to access to related livelihood

programs, trainings, technologies and services. The former also enjoined institutional stakeholders to integrate gender as a factor in analyzing the social structure of the society, including leadership patterns and distribution of roles in development planning (Section 20)

Annex 3

APEC 14-Point Guideline on Public-Private Partnerships and Disaster Risk Reduction and Management³²

1. A whole society approach is needed to enhance an economy's disaster resilience. This approach should be based on collaborative partnerships across all levels of government, the non-government sector, business including SMEs, civil society organizations and communities. As such, establishment of partnerships should be encouraged with the private sector in all phases of disaster management.
2. Strategic approaches and mechanisms for working with the private sector and setting-up frameworks for public-private partnerships should be developed and strengthened. The private sector should be engaged in collaborative initiatives to build disaster resilience at local and national level. The aim is to enhance both the capability of the public and the private sector to respond to and recover from disasters. Regular information sharing, emergency planning, and practical exercises are crucial in building resilience.
3. Partnerships should be based on shared responsibilities and clearly assigned roles and tasks that engage the private sector not merely as a source of funding but use core competencies and expertise and engage the private sector as partners in long-term efforts to build community resilience.
4. Platforms for regular dialogue and sharing of best practices and lessons learned should be enhanced to further raise awareness of the potential of public-private partnerships and help establish responsible and good practice. Existing programs should be identified, leveraged, and built upon to avoid duplication and ensure cost-effectiveness.
5. Public-private partnerships aiming to build disaster resilience in an economy should be understood as learning journeys where mistakes are allowed to be rectified and learnt from. Public-private partnerships should be open to new and innovative ways of working together and allow for some flexibility to adapt the partnership as it evolves.
6. Economies should maximise the opportunities that arise from partnerships that develop during a disaster and look to build and strengthen longer term collaborative engagement with these partners.
7. Further collaboration should take place, which allows the private sector to better understand and develop capacities in disaster risk reduction. A process for assessing the effectiveness of partnerships should be developed and both parties understand and agree on the mechanisms.
8. The integration of small and medium-sized enterprises and companies, local NGO and local academic groups should be encouraged as they play a key role in building local livelihoods and thus contribute to disaster resilience of local communities. These companies and organisations should be supported in efforts to build disaster resilience.
9. The consideration of the crucial role of women in local communities and the local economy should be encouraged further. Women play a fundamental role in building and maintaining livelihoods and community ability to prepare for, mitigate, respond to and recover from disasters.
10. Building local capacity and community education is a key element in building disaster resilience. Public and private sector stakeholders need to play an active role in such efforts. The role of NGOs and volunteers, and the extent to which business and com-

munity contribute to building resilience and response, needs to be recognised and integrated into PPPs.

11. Partnerships should be fully funded and staffed. Rather than rely on good will or personality-based leadership, long-term success is developed through consistent and adequate funding, dedicated staff and the resources needed to build and grow the partnership.

12. Partnerships may contain similar characteristics, but they should allow for flexibility in

their approach to better incorporate regional opportunities, risks, political situations and other unique features. This tailored approach will enable partnerships to focus resources and funding where it can make the most impact.

13. Governments should explore ways to create incentives to leverage public-private partnerships in disaster resilience with the private sector who are engaged in partnership as part of their Corporate Social Responsibility programmes.

³² Forwarded for adoption during the APEC Workshop on Public – Private Partnerships and DRRM, held in Bangkok, Thailand, 2011