Paradox and Promise in the Philippines

A Joint Country Gender Assessment

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The cover photograph of mothers in Barangay San Antonio, Siquijor, is the work of Karin Schelzig Bloom. Permission has been obtained to use the pictures featured in this publication. In all cases, the copyright remains with the original photographer.

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Acknowledgments

Abbreviations

ADB	—	Asian Development Bank
ARMM	—	Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao
ASEAN	—	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BLES	—	Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics
CEDAW	—	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGA	—	country gender assessment
CIDA	—	Canadian International Development Agency
DBM	—	Department of Budget and Management
DepEd	—	Department of Education
DSWD	—	Department of Social Welfare and Development
EC	—	European Commission
FPW	—	Framework Plan for Women
GAD	—	gender and development
GDP	—	gross domestic product
ICT	—	information and communication technology
ILO	—	International Labour Organization
LGU	—	local government unit
MDG	—	Millennium Development Goal
MILF	—	Moro Islamic Liberation Front
MIMAROPA	—	The region of Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan
MMR	—	maternal mortality rate
MNLF	—	Moro National Liberation Front
MTPDP	—	Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan 2004–2010
NCRFW	—	National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women
NEDA	—	National Economic and Development Authority
NGO	—	nongovernment organization
NPA	—	New People's Army
NSCB	—	National Statistical Coordination Board
ODA	—	official development assistance
ODA GAD Network	—	Official Development Assistance Gender and Development Network
OFW	—	Overseas Filipino Worker
PATAMABA	—	Pambansang Tagapag-ugnay ng mga Manggagawa sa Bahay (National Network of Home-based Workers)
PNAC	—	Philippine National AIDS Council

TESDA	—	Technical Education and Skills Development Authority
UN	—	United Nations
UNESCO	—	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNDP	—	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	—	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	—	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	—	United Nations Fund for Women
WHO	—	World Health Organization

CURRENCY EQUIVALENTS
(as of 11 August 2008)

Currency Unit	—	Philippine Peso
P1.00	=	$0.0225
$1.00	=	P44.34

NOTE
In this report, "$" refers to US dollars.

Preface

Country gender assessments provide analysis of gender and development issues with the aim of helping governments and all stakeholders promote gender equality and women's empowerment. This joint country gender assessment was prepared by the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the European Commission (EC), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), in partnership with the Philippine Government's National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW).

The organizations and agencies involved in this effort were motivated by their commitment to the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, endorsed in March 2005. Of the four principles of the Paris Declaration—ownership, alignment, harmonization, and managing for results—the approach taken for the preparation of this report primarily illustrates alignment and harmonization. The former guided the selection of the themes, the latter guided the methodology.

Alignment: Themes of the Joint Country Gender Assessment

The alignment principle calls for donors to commit their overall support to partner countries' national development strategies, institutions, and procedures. This commitment was a fundamental factor in determining the themes to be covered in this document.

The 2004 ADB gender assessment opted for a comprehensive approach, covering the main human development indicators from a gender perspective.[1] It analyzed functional capabilities in health, education and personal security, and gender differentials in access to resources. It compared women's and men's economic participation and employment, and considered women's representation in decision making.

This time, a more selective approach was taken to allow for more in-depth analysis of specific current topics. The team recognized that selectivity would be difficult in a country as diverse and variable as the Philippines. The geophysical, cultural, social, and, economic diversity of the Philippines is often remarked upon, together with the profound differences between rural and urban areas of the country. Furthermore, it is considered that development endeavors have favored certain regions (such as Luzon) while leaving others behind (primarily Mindanao), and that this has contributed to patterns of social exclusion and disparities in access to services, opportunities, and resources. These factors render it difficult to provide gender-specific analysis that accurately reflects the enormous diversity of situations in the regions, provinces, cities, and rural or coastal areas, and among different ethnic and social groups of the Philippines. In fact, attempting to classify the ethnic and social groups adds

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[1]   Asian Development Bank (ADB). 2004. *Country Gender Assessment: Philippines*. Manila: ADB.

> **Box P.1: The Philippines' International Commitments to Gender Equality**
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> The Philippines is signatory to various international human rights instruments and commitments, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action, the Program of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the more recent Millennium Declaration of 2000. In 2003, the Government of the Philippines also ratified the Optional Protocol of the CEDAW, which allows a woman who has exhausted all avenues of redress from her government (member country) to seek justice by way of filing a complaint directly to the CEDAW committee. Box 8.1 in Chapter 8 summarizes key Philippine legislation in support of gender equality. Further details can be found in Appendix 1.

another level of complexity, since such classifications are based on principles that were adopted during Spanish and American colonial times and have continued since independence.[2]

Adhering to the principle of alignment helped distill an appropriate focus. The main themes are derived from the country's Framework Plan for Women (FPW) 2001–2004. The FPW is the most current snapshot of the long-term Philippine Plan for Gender Responsive Development 1995–2025 which, in turn, influences the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan. These relationships ensure that this report is aligned with the Government's gender priorities, as enshrined in its international commitments (Box P.1).

The FPW emphasizes three themes that are fundamental to empowering women and reducing poverty:

(i)   **women's economic empowerment,**
(ii)   **women's human rights** (especially in access to basic social services), and
(iii) **gender-responsive governance.**

These three themes have become the three core sections of this report, making it consistent with the Government's priorities. Each section contains three chapters considering diverse issues, such as labor migration, gender-based violence, and disaster risk reduction. The nine chapter issues were derived from discussions among the Official Development Assistance Gender and Development Network (ODA GAD Network) members, surveys of recent literature, and regional stakeholder consultations.

In preparing this report, efforts were made to highlight women's own attempts at overcoming, individually and collectively, the obstacles they encounter in meeting their needs and developing their potential. In other words, to highlight the concept of women's agency in resisting and transforming the norms and structures that marginalize them. For example, women in the Philippines have collectively struggled to obtain concessions from city governments to hawk their goods without police harassment, to lobby congress to pass the Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Act of 2004 (RA 9262) and other similar laws, to promote their reproductive health and rights, and to participate in peace processes in Mindanao. These are but a few examples.

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[2]   Dressler, W.H. 2006. Co-opting Conservation: Migrant Resource Control and Access to National Park Management in the Philippines Uplands. *Development and Change* 37 (No. 2): 401–426.

A final important idea unifies and links the chapters and sections of this report. Despite a favorable policy environment—the Philippines is signatory to the main international human rights instruments and has enacted numerous policies and laws for the protection and promotion of women's rights—implementation of policies is patchy and slow. The policies and laws have thus not delivered the intended benefits for women as extensively and effectively as hoped. This is one of the many paradoxes amid promise in the country.

Harmonization: Joint Country Gender Assessment Methodology

The principle of harmonization calls for donors to adopt a harmonized, transparent, and collectively effective approach. This principle guided the methodology adopted for the joint country gender assessment. Initially, the ODA GAD Network created a gender assessment advisory group with ADB as the lead agency. Responsibilities were divided in a way that, again following the spirit of the Paris Declaration, made full use of each partner's respective comparative advantage.

A multidisciplinary approach—borrowing from anthropology, economics, social development, and women's studies—was taken in preparing the report. The analytical framework embraces various levels and types of information; from the aggregate statistics and other quantitative information reflecting national conditions to micro-level qualitative examples and case studies. Most of the information presented in this report relies on recently published and unpublished secondary sources. However, consistent with the report's objective of obtaining feedback and integrating broader perspectives of key stakeholders, a consultative process was developed.

Stakeholder consultations were carried out in Luzon (16 January 2008), Visayas (22 January 2008), and Mindanao (23 January 2008). A final national consultation session was held toward the end of the process (31 March–1 April 2008). The consultations were extremely fruitful, with more than 200 participants (i) validating the appropriateness and relevance of the three key themes, (ii) providing valuable additional information to fill gaps left in analysis or data obtained from the existing literature or other sources, and (iii) providing personal and institutional case studies, stories to enrich the narrative and illustrate positive or negative examples of gender-relevant interventions. (Appendix 2 contains more detail on the consultations.)

Report Structure

The gender assessment begins with a socioeconomic overview of the Philippines (Chapter 1). This is a data-rich gender situation snapshot. The thematic analysis follows in subsequent sections and chapters. Section I, Women's Economic Empowerment, focuses on employment issues in old and new workplaces (Chapter 2), informal work and entrepreneurship (Chapter 3), and labor migration (Chapter 4). Section II, Social Development, covers basic social services (Chapter 5), social protection (Chapter 6), and gender-based violence (Chapter 7). Section III, Gender-Responsive Governance, examines gender budgeting (Chapter 8), conflict and peace building (Chapter 9), and disaster risk reduction (Chapter 10).

Each chapter concludes with concrete recommendations. These recommendations are presented in seven categories: (i) policy development, (ii) policy implementation, (iii) financing, (iv) services, (v) capacity, (vi) advocacy, and (vii) data. This typology was developed to easily direct the different stakeholders—government agencies, development partners, civil society groups, and so on—toward areas for intervention that fall under their particular purview. Chapter 11 concludes the joint country gender assessment by highlighting core themes for development policy makers.

Executive Summary

The Philippines has made significant progress in enhancing the opportunities and welfare of its women and men. The Government's Framework Plan for Women emphasizes women's economic empowerment, women's human rights (particularly access to basic social services), and gender-responsive governance as the keys to gender equality and the empowerment of women. The country scores well on international gender equality measures and indices, but there is much to be done both to sustain and enhance the achievements to date, and to overcome old and new challenges. Despite a favorable policy environment—the Philippines is signatory to the main international human rights instruments and has enacted numerous policies and laws for the protection and promotion of women's rights—the implementation of policies is patchy and slow. The legal and policy framework has thus not delivered the intended benefits for women as extensively and effectively as hoped. This is one of the many paradoxes amid promise in the country.

Socioeconomic Snapshot

Population and poverty. With a population of 88.6 million in the 2007 census, the Philippines is the 12th most populous country in the world. Despite strong economic growth performance in recent years, the official poverty incidence increased from 30% in 2003 to 33% of the population in 2006. The big picture shows a poverty incidence that has fallen over the last 18 years, but population growth means that the poverty magnitude—the number of poor people—has increased. In 1988, there were 25 million poor individuals; in 2006, there were 27.6 million. Per capita gross domestic product (GDP) was $1,345 in 2006, but inequality was high: the income of the richest decile of the population was about 19 times that of the poorest decile. The 2007 *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals* reports a low probability of achieving the targets for universal primary education, improving maternal mortality, and increasing access to reproductive health care by 2015.

Social services. Ensuring access to high-quality basic social services (i.e., education and health) is a major challenge in the Philippines. While there have been some notable accomplishments in the public health system (including the devolution of health services to the local level), major geographic inequities in access to health facilities and services still exist. Users of health services must largely pay expenses out of pocket, a system that particularly burdens the poor. The exodus of nurses and doctors abroad exacerbates problems in the health sector. One of the most pressing concerns for women is access to reproductive health care services. The maternal mortality rate of 162 per 100,000 live births means that an average of eight women die every day of pregnancy- and childbirth-related causes. On the education front, the news is not much better as indicators have been deteriorating in recent years. The elementary cohort survival rate declined from 64.9% in school

year 2004–2005 to 62.6% in school year 2005–2006: of 100 grade 1 pupils, only about 62 pupils reached grade 6. Education is one of the fundamental mechanisms by which people create better economic opportunities for themselves. For women, education leads to increased decision-making power in the household and in the community. Additional years of education are also strongly correlated with decreased fertility rates. For most socioeconomic indicators in the Philippines, national averages mask strong regional disparities.

Employment. The Philippine labor market is unable to absorb all job seekers, and unemployment and underemployment remain high. The female labor force participation rate lags behind the rate for males. The agriculture sector continues to employ large numbers of workers, although it does so at a declining rate. New jobs are instead found in new workplaces, mainly in export-oriented economic zones. The fastest-growing employment sectors are the services industries. The global trend of increased trade in services, especially in business processing outsourcing—sometimes also called the call or contact center industry—has benefited the Philippines. Service firms in information and communication technology have absorbed an increasing number of workers over the past decade. The domestic tourism industry has also experienced a strong expansion.

Migration. A lack of opportunities at home has driven the long tradition in the Philippines of migration from rural to urban areas, especially by women, to find remunerative employment. Women often work as caregivers or domestic helpers. Since the 1970s, the Government has actively promoted the migration of Filipino women and men to work overseas. Men, primarily working as seafarers and in construction, account for a larger proportion of all overseas Filipino workers, but women make up an increasing share of the migration flow. If sea-based migration is excluded, women dominate in the international migration streams. A big proportion of the women who go abroad do so to work as nurses or domestic helpers. About 1 in 10 Filipinos can be found overseas either as a permanent migrant, temporary worker, or irregular worker. As of December 2006, there were about 8.2 million Filipinos abroad. Overseas Filipino workers sent back nearly $14.5 billion in remittances in 2007, about 10% of the country's GDP. Consumption is one of the main drivers of economic growth in the Philippines.

Governance. There have been significant inroads into making governance institutions more accessible to women. The number of elected women, particularly in the House of Representatives, has markedly increased. The number of women mayors has also consistently increased since 1995. However, while on the surface these developments are positive, politics is still a male domain. The presence of women in electoral politics frequently has more to do with political dynasty. In 2004, the Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism found that 70% of the women in the House of Representatives in 2001 were members of political clans. The judiciary is also male dominated, though this dominance is slowly easing. In 1997, 80% of the judges were male. By 2006, 30% of the judges were female. In 2008, 6 of the 15 Supreme Court justices are women. Majority of those in the civil service are women, but they tend to be at the second level, or the rank-and-file positions, while the men occupy the executive or the managerial jobs.

Women's Economic Empowerment

Access to and control over productive resources and benefits from wealth-creating activities are important factors for the independence of both women and men. Access to resources, both in society and in the family, has traditionally been skewed toward men. But women's economic empowerment tends to be associated with a greater range of positive effects, such as improved health and nutritional status of all family members, better educational achievements of children, and less vulnerability to domestic violence. Women's economic empowerment is closely linked to the quality and quantity of available jobs. It is also associated with women's awareness of their economic rights and opportunities, as well as their voice and representation in economic decision-making bodies. Three key issues in the Philippines are employment (in old and new workplaces), the very large informal sector, and labor migration.

Employment in new and old workplaces. Jobs in "modern" workplaces, such as electronics firms, information and communications technology (ICT), and contact or call centers, have the potential to reduce the high unemployment rate particularly among young workers. In 2005, enterprises in the 30 private economic zones, 4 public economic zones (Baguio City, Bataan, Cavite, and Mactan), and the 4 ICT parks and buildings together employed about 1.1 million workers, or 3% of the total number of workers in the Philippines. About 80% of them are young women. Women workers report gender-based discrimination in the form of sexual harassment, difficulty in obtaining maternity leave, and gender bias in promotions. Low wages, excessive salary deductions, lack of production incentives, and absence of job security also characterize this type of employment. Agriculture is the most traditional of all workplaces, but employment in this sector has steadily declined. Between 1987 and 2005, the share of Filipino workers employed in the agriculture sector contracted from about half to just over one third, but the number of landless wage workers in the agriculture sector grew from 2.2 million in 2002 to 2.6 million in 2006. Many agricultural workers lack access to social protection. For small farmers, including agrarian reform beneficiaries, access to funds to finance modernization, productivity improvement, and storage facilities is limited. Women's traditional jobs have been lost to new technologies and production arrangements. As a result, many women migrate to the cities in search of work.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development:* Support alternative social protection mechanisms for agricultural workers, including landless workers and small farm producers. *Policy implementation:* Enforce core labor standards and safe working conditions, including on plantations or commercial farms. *Policy implementation, capacity:* Eliminate gender-based discrimination in recruitment, hiring, work assignments, and promotion. *Financing:* Invest in the improvement of agricultural productivity—including support to agrarian reform beneficiaries—that will enable agricultural producers to improve their income and to pay their workers higher wages. *Capacity, services:* Support the creation of high-value enterprises for rural women.

Informal work and entrepreneurship. Nine out of ten enterprises in the Philippines are micro-enterprises and operate in the informal, unregistered, and unregulated segment of the economy. While most provide service or provisions exclusively to the local population, many have ties with export-oriented small and medium-sized enterprises under subcontracting arrangements.

Subcontracting has prevented many jobs from moving overseas, but it has simultaneously "informal-ized" employment, especially for women. Among microentrepreneurs, women outnumber men two to one in trade and repairs, while men dominate in transport. Incomes in the informal economy vary widely by sector. Food service entrepreneurs in Metro Manila make twice the minimum wage. Informal workers engaged in insurance sales, real estate, or business services—all male-dominated fields—also tend to earn higher salaries. The opposite holds true for workers engaged in subcon-tracted work, such as garment construction (mostly women), tricycle operation (primarily men), and operation of *sari-sari* (variety) stores (mainly women) and repair shops (mainly men). Apart from low earnings, workers in the informal sector face limited access to capital, a lack of social protection.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development:* Extend social protection coverage to hired workers engaged in informal work. This should include mechanisms to facilitate payment of premi-ums and claims, and support to community-based social protection schemes. *Services:* Introduce community- and workplace-based early childhood care and development services. *Services:* Pub-lish and disseminate information about procedures for business registration, bidding for service delivery contracts, licensing, taxation, etc. in simple terms and in the major Philippine languages. *Services:* Introduce women small and medium-sized enterprise owners to new tools of linking with the market, such as e-commerce. *Advocacy:* Involve civil society organizations in educating small and medium-sized enterprise owners, business service organizations, and industry associations about gender issues.

Labor migration. Responding to difficulties in finding employment that pays enough to support a family, many Filipino women and men, and also girls and boys, seek paid work outside of their home communities. Women dominate the domestic labor migration market: most domestic labor migrants work in private households, and about 85% of household workers are women. Local do-mestic workers are the least protected among employees in the Philippines and the nature of their jobs makes them prone to illegal recruitment, trafficking, exploitation, and child and forced labor. Just like domestic migration, international migration is gender specific, depending on the industry. One large group of women migrants consists of professional health workers. Nurses working abroad earn as much as 30 times more than their local counterparts. The average monthly salary of a nurse in the Philippines is $110, compared to $500 in Saudi Arabia and $3,300 in the United States. One perverse consequence is "de-skilling" where doctors train to become nurses to gain easier access to the international labor market.

While international jobs offer opportunity—migrant workers often experience increased economic empowerment and autonomy—absence from social networks and familiar structures increases migrants' vulnerability. Exploitation exists at all stages of the migration process. Huge placement fees, so-called "fly now, pay later" schemes, and the illegal recruitment reportedly ram-pant in rural areas can ensnare women into debt bondage and prevent them from reporting ex-ploitation or returning home. On the social and family front, many migrants pay a high personal price for their improved economic situation with long separation from their spouses and children. Children with absent mothers have been shown to perform worse in school.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development:* Strengthen the legal framework for the protection and improved welfare of domestic helpers, most of whom are young women who mi-grate from the provinces. *Financing, capacity:* Increase the budgetary allocations and undertake

capability-building exercises (gender sensitivity training) for the government agencies that handle migration, such as the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration, the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration, and the Department of Foreign Affairs. *Services:* Include family members and especially children in services from pre-departure to reintegration. *Advocacy:* Harness remittances for productive investment and sustainable livelihood opportunities for women so that migration becomes a choice rather than a necessity.

Social Development

Growth is inclusive when the economic opportunities created by growth are available to all, and particularly to the poor. Sustainable and equitable growth, social inclusion, empowerment, and security are the ultimate outcomes of inclusive growth. Growth cannot be inclusive without social development, gender equity, and the fulfillment of women's human rights, including expanded capabilities through access to quality education and health services. The Framework Plan for Women identifies three strategic areas in social development to protect and fulfill women's rights: improving education and training; taking control of health, nutrition, and population management; and fighting violence against women.

Basic social services. Education and health play an integral role in securing women's economic, social, and cultural rights. Filipino families traditionally place a high value on education as a means to achieving socioeconomic mobility. Formally, primary education is free, as is secondary education at municipalities. In reality, however, education is not free because families must bear costs, such as meals, transport, school uniforms, and supplies, and in some cases tuition fees, even for public schools. These expenses are frequently too high for poor families. School dropouts for economic reasons are increasing, and there are low cohort survival and primary completion rates. The net enrollment rate at elementary, though lower in 2006 than it was in 2002, is slightly higher for girls than boys. The quality of education appears to be deteriorating at all levels, from primary to tertiary. Persistent gender stereotyping in the choice of courses or skill areas occurs at the tertiary level. Professions, such as teaching, social work, and nursing, are seen as "appropriate for girls" as an extension of their nurturing and reproductive roles. The most common fields of tertiary education for men are engineering, business administration, mathematics, and computer science.

Improving women's health is important not only as an end in and of itself but also because a woman's health influences the well-being and development of her children and the rest of her family. Access to quality health services, however, is hampered by high costs, inefficiencies in health care management, and social and cultural barriers. Hospitals are very unevenly distributed and medical professionals (doctors and nurses) are mostly concentrated in urban areas such as Metro Manila. The international migration of medical professionals is taking its toll on health services provided, especially in rural areas. Maternal, infant, and child mortality are grave concerns. Access to sexual and reproductive health services is a fundamental precondition for women's empowerment and access to opportunities, but this access is severely limited in the Philippines. While the prevalence of HIV/AIDS among the adult population remains low at less than 0.1%, the threat of an HIV/AIDS epidemic remains real. The number of Filipinos living with AIDS was just under 7,500 in 2007. More than one third of reported cases are among people in prostitution and returning overseas Filipino workers (OFWs).

Selected recommendations in education. *Financing:* Increase investments to make schools more inclusive and responsive to the needs of marginalized children and children at risk of dropping out. *Services:* Develop culturally relevant learning systems that will enhance access to and quality of education in marginalized and underserved parts of the country, especially in Muslim and indigenous communities. *Advocacy:* Activate local school boards and promote local government unit and private sector participation in education, as has been done in Naga City.

Selected recommendations in health. *Policy development:* Pass the Responsible Parenthood and Population Management Act of 2005 (House Bill No. 3773) and advocate for the passage of reproductive health codes in the local government units. *Financing:* Progressively increase the national health and nutrition budget to achieve the World Health Organization (WHO) recommended level of at least 5% of GDP. *Services:* Provide sexual and reproductive health services through the primary health care system. *Services:* Scale up interventions for HIV and AIDS, such as education, voluntary and confidential counseling and testing, and antiretroviral therapy.

Social protection. People in the Philippines are vulnerable to a range of shocks. Vulnerability to risk varies significantly by gender, and men and women can be affected by the same risk in a different way. The Government recently adopted a new definition of social protection that covers most of the important aspects but it is, for the most part, gender blind. Critical inadequacies in existing social protection schemes are a key constraint to economic development in the Philippines. Targeted programs specifically aim to channel benefits to the poor and vulnerable. These include food and other subsidies (such as rice subsidies); public housing; health subsidies or fee exemptions; school feeding programs; community-based social funds; social insurance programs (pensions and health); and labor market intervention programs, such as skills development and direct employment generation. While the programs address a wide range of risks, major delivery and coverage weaknesses occur, including program overlap resulting from poor coordination among providers and government agencies. Targeting errors result in undercoverage of the poor and leakage of benefits to the non-poor. As a result of undercoverage, informal social protection mechanisms are still common. A new conditional cash transfer program (based on best practices from Latin America) holds promise for the Philippines. Program benefits are tied to families making health and education investments in their children. The program has an added empowerment benefit as payments are made to mothers.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development:* Revise the definition of social protection to explicitly recognize the gender differences in the nature of risk and vulnerability and experience of shocks. *Policy development:* Offer alternative, group-based ways for informal workers to access formal social insurance, particularly health insurance, and financial services. *Policy implementation:* Develop an improved and unified targeting mechanism to maximize coverage and minimize leakages. *Policy implementation:* Build flexibility into social protection programs to allow for rapid response to macro shocks, such as food price increases. *Data*: Recognize that monitoring and evaluation and impact assessments are crucial not only for improving program performance but also for demonstrating successes and garnering political commitment to program sustainability.

Gender-based violence. Gender-based violence is a complex social problem that affects not only the victims of violence and their families, but also society as a whole. The mere threat of violence

instills fear, limits choices for girls and women, and constrains their mobility and access to resources. It also impedes women's economic productivity and their ability to exercise their democratic rights. The prevalence of gender-based violence is very difficult to estimate given patchy data and low levels of reported crimes. In a 2003 survey, 12% of men admitted to having physically harmed women. Women in prostitution and domestic workers, both in the Philippines and overseas, have a particularly high risk of violence. Trafficking is one of the Philippines' most urgent issues, and is the dark side of migration. Women and girls are at greater risk of being trafficked than men and boys. On the positive side, a strong legal framework has been developed through the collective efforts of government agencies, women's nongovernment organizations, women's centers, and institutes all over the country. Violence against women is now recognized as a serious crime requiring a unified, holistic, and integrated approach. Unfortunately, too few filed cases of gender-based violence ever reach the courtroom.

Selected recommendations. *Policy implementation:* Strengthen coordination between different levels of service providers and law enforcement, particularly in the areas of data collection and reporting of gender-based crimes. *Policy implementation:* Investigate reports of corruption in law enforcement agencies, the prosecutorial offices, and the judiciary to ensure that rape and other cases of gender-based violence are not compromised or dismissed. *Services:* Ensure that violence survivors receive appropriate protective and support services and have effective access to justice, including free, competent, and sensitive legal aid where necessary. *Services:* Strengthen and scale up facilities for survivors of gender-based violence, such as crisis centers, shelters, and halfway homes for women and children. *Advocacy:* Strengthen the awareness of gender-based violence among women, men, girls, and boys, including among influential persons such as religious leaders, by conducting public education campaigns.

Gender-Responsive Governance

Good governance is based on citizens' ability to exercise their responsibility and right to participate in public decision making, include their voice in policy making and funds allocation, and access resources. In 2006 and 2007, the World Economic Forum ranked the Philippines as one of the top 10 countries with the smallest gender gap, as measured by the gender gap index. Although the indicators are positive, the Philippines' rankings are driven up by the number of years a female has been its head of state. A female president, however, does not automatically result in gender equality or guarantee that the Government has a stronger focus on gender equality. At the regional country gender assessment stakeholder consultations, a pressing need was identified to strengthen accountable and gender-responsive governance in three key areas: gender budgeting, peace building, and disaster risk reduction.

Investing in gender equality. A gender budget reflects commitment to gender equality and its expenditure can be traced and monitored, which improves transparency and accountability at the national and local levels. The Government of the Philippines introduced gender budgeting in the Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1992. Since 1999, a minimum of 5% of the Government's national and local government unit budget must be allocated to gender plans developed by all national agencies. These gender plans are meant to be based on the Framework Plan for

Women and its three priority areas. Examples of gender and development budget projects include providing health services, advocacy and information dissemination on gender issues, establishing or improving service facilities for women, establishing databases and mechanisms for reporting on gender issues, and revising textbooks to remove social and gender stereotypes. Local government units report mixed experiences in gender and development planning and budgeting. Common complaints are technical difficulties and political issues in trying to allocate funds. But a number of success stories exist.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development:* Enact the Magna Carta of Women, a comprehensive anti-discrimination and gender equality law, and other pending bills as recommended by the committee on Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. *Policy implementation:* Ensure women's groups and other civil society groups participate in the local and national development and budget processes. *Policy implementation, financing:* Conduct participatory gender audits among key branches of the Government and donor community. *Data:* Generate continuously updated sex-disaggregated databases for gender analysis.

Conflict, gender, and peace. The Philippines has had a long history of armed religious and political conflict and strife, with a host of protracted negative effects on women, men, boys, and girls. One major effect of conflict is displacement—this has a major effect on households and livelihoods. The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre estimated that from 2000–2006 almost 2 million people were displaced as a result of ongoing conflicts in the country. In conflict-affected areas, women tend to be responsible for social protection (such as caring for the family and supporting the soldiers), undertaking livelihood projects, resolving family and community conflicts, and promoting peace. Men are expected to assume the role of combatants. Children tend to suffer particularly severe psychosocial effects. In designing a peace process, gender impacts must be considered to create sustainable peace and development, which requires social inclusiveness and accountability. Involving local stakeholders in the peace process is necessary to empower communities and enhance governance mechanisms in the long run. The Mindanao Commission on Women has developed a multistakeholder strategy for peace and development that includes active roles for women in conflict resolution in Mindanao.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development, policy implementation:* Implement and localize UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflicts. *Policy development, services:* Address the special needs of children, women, and vulnerable groups such as indigenous communities in the peace processes (regardless of their faith or political persuasion) and include them in relief and rehabilitation efforts. *Data, advocacy:* Document and disseminate the voices, vulnerabilities, and experiences of women, children, and indigenous peoples in ongoing conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction efforts.

Gender in disaster risk management. The Philippines is one of the world's most natural disaster–prone countries. Located on the Pacific Ring of Fire, it is prone to seismic activity. The islands are also frequently hit by typhoons, which destroy crops and property and result in loss of life. Women and men are differently affected by natural disasters. For example, women are especially vulnerable to poor nutrition, and vitamin and iron deficiency—especially anemia, which can be fatal in

pregnancy. The stress and disruption of natural disasters often lead to increased incidents of sexual violence and domestic abuse. The breakdown of community norms and protection may lead to a rise in sexual exploitation. In times of crisis, the particular strengths and vulnerabilities of women are often overlooked in the rush to provide humanitarian assistance. Most relief efforts respond to the overall population and are based on a patriarchal societal structure. Targeted support to women can be one of the best ways to ensure the health, security, and well-being of families and entire communities. The National Disaster Coordinating Council adopted an innovative "cluster approach" in 2007. It aims to improve coordination between provincial, regional, and national levels in disaster risk management and enhance the quality of humanitarian action. Clusters are essentially sectors and include, for example, health, emergency shelter, nutrition, logistics, and water sanitation and hygiene. Greater efforts are needed to involve women in disaster risk management—their involvement remains the exception rather than the norm.

Selected recommendations. *Policy development:* Grant women control over food aid to ensure efficient distribution and reduce corruption and sexual exploitation. *Services:* Design food programs to provide for the unique needs of women and girls, such as iron supplements and vitamin A. *Capacity:* Strengthen the capacity of local women to contribute to their community's disaster risk reduction efforts. *Data:* Collect data to describe women's vulnerabilities during natural disasters to understand better how to address them. *Data:* Document best practices for women's involvement in disaster risk reduction in the Philippines.

Looking Ahead

The goal of this joint country gender assessment is to spark discussion on selected policy issues that are aligned with the Government's Framework Plan for Women, and to inform development partners' future strategies for promoting gender equality in a harmonized manner. The report covers a lot of territory. There is no doubt that the Philippines compares favorably with other countries in the region in terms of gender equality and women's empowerment. But there are a number of worrying conditions and trends, paradoxes that persist amid promise. As difficult as they are, many issues are at least visible, lending themselves to action where political will and commitment exist. Some of the more persistent problems occur in areas so invisible—appalling conditions for domestic workers, gender-based violence, trafficking in persons—that responding to them is particularly difficult. But responding to them is essential.

Seven key messages are highlighted in conclusion:

(i)   Education indicators are worsening.
(ii)   Reproductive health needs and rights are fundamentally unmet.
(iii)   Potential for new jobs in new industries exists, but old problems persist.
(iv)   Migration comes at a cost.
(v)   Informal work needs adequate support.
(vi)   Effective disaster risk management requires a gendered lens.
(vii)   Gender-responsive governance is essential for a gender-fair society.

Chapter 1

A Socioeconomic Overview of the Philippines

The Philippines has made significant progress in enhancing the opportunities and welfare of its women and men. Still, there is much to be done to sustain those gains and overcome old and new challenges. This chapter reviews trends and developments in the country's quest for gender equality. It begins with some basic socioeconomic data and gives an overview of recent trends in women's economic empowerment, women's human rights, and gender-responsive governance (the three core themes of this country gender assessment). Appendix 3 contains some of the more detailed tables. The sections and chapters that follow provide an in-depth analysis of several key issues that emerge from this gender situation snapshot.

The Philippines

Geography. Located in Southeast Asia, the Philippines is a middle-income country, comprising more than 7,000 islands, in which eight main languages are spoken.[1] Seven major ethnic groups populate its three major islands: Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao. It is predominantly a Roman Catholic country, but Muslims constitute about 5% of the population. The country is administratively divided into 17 regions, 81 provinces, 136 cities (of which 24 are considered highly urbanized), 1,495 municipalities, and 41,995 barangays (the smallest political unit).[2]

Population. The 2007 census measured the population at 88.6 million, making the Philippines one of the world's most populous countries, at number 12. The annual population growth rate was 2.04% for 2000–2007, down from 2.36% for 1995–2000. An annual growth rate of 2.04% means that nearly 5,000 babies are born every day. Rapid population growth translates into a high dependency ratio and places pressure on the Government to deliver basic services, such as education and health.[3] At the household level, supporting large families requires more resources—the larger the family, the smaller each member's piece of the pie. The Government recognizes this in the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan 2004–2010, which targets a population growth rate of 1.9% by 2010. Table 1.1 provides a snapshot of selected socioeconomic indicators.

Politics. The Philippines has a presidential-unitary system of government with some administrative functions devolved to its local government units. The country prides itself on being Asia's first democracy. However, more than a century after it

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[1] The World Bank classifies middle-income countries as those with a per capita income of $1,000 to $10,000.

[2] National Statistical Coordination Board, 2007.

[3] Asian Development Bank (ADB). 2004c. *Country Gender Assessment*, Philippines. Manila: ADB.

Table 1.1: The Philippines at a Glance: Selected Socioeconomic Indicators

Socioeconomic Indicator	Estimates
GDP per capita, 2006—in current prices (US$)[a]	1,345.00
GDP growth rate—in constant prices 2007 (%)[a]	7.30
Share of GDP by sector, 2007 (%)[a]	
a. Agriculture	18.40
b. Industry	32.30
c. Services	49.30
Population, 2000[b]	76,504,077
Population, 2007[b]	88,574,614
Annual population growth rate, 1995–2000 (%)[b]	2.36
Annual population growth rate, 2000–2007 (%)[b]	2.04
Poverty incidence—percentage of population, 2006 (%)[a]	32.9

GDP = gross domestic product.
Note: The 2006 US$ exchange rate average (at P51.31:$1) was used.

Sources:
[a]   National Statistical Coordination Board.
[b]   National Statistics Office, 2000 and 2007 Census of Population.

gained independence, the country faces an uphill climb in consolidating its democratic institutions. The post-Marcos era has seen military adventurism, extra-constitutional leadership change, and allegations of electoral fraud—factors that create an atmosphere of political instability. This instability weakens and interrupts the continuity of programs and policies. Accusations of deep-seated corruption and a patronage-driven political economy discourage investor confidence and erode public trust in the Government.

The Economic and Poverty Picture

The Philippine economy has markedly improved in recent years. GDP grew by 7.3% in 2007. While this represents the highest growth in 31 years, optimism is tempered both by the boom and bust cycles of the past and the fact that the growth appears not to have translated into poverty reduction. The poverty incidence increased over 2003–2006. The growth rate of real GDP per capita is one of the lowest in the region (Table 1.2).

The data in Table 1.3 shows that the poverty incidence steadily declined from 1988 to 2003, but rose again in 2006. This increase in poverty occurred during a period when the economy grew by 5.4%. In 2003, there were 23.5 million poor Filipinos (a 30% poverty incidence) compared to 27.6 million in 2006 (a 33% poverty incidence). This is about 4.7 million poor families. One of the most significant messages conveyed by Table 1.3 is that while the poverty incidence has generally been declining in the last 18 years, the poverty magnitude—that is to say the actual number of poor people—has increased. There were 2.5 million more poor people in 2006 than there were in 2003.

In March 2008, the National Statistical Coordination Board released the 2006 official poverty estimates. Table 1.4 shows poverty thresholds, poverty indicators, and the five poorest provinces. The poverty line is constructed using the price of a food basket (based on a 1 day "typical menu"). The

Table 1.2: Growth Rate of Real Per Capita GDP, 1971–2006 in constant dollars (international prices, base year 1985)

Country	1971–1980	1981–1990	1991–2000	2001–2006
Hong Kong, China	6.8	5.9	19.3	4.0
Indonesia	5.3	4.4	11.6	3.3
Republic of Korea	6.8	6.6	18.9	4.2
Malaysia	5.2	3.0	11.9	2.7
Philippines	3.1	-0.5	4.4	2.7
Singapore	7.4	5.6	19.5	3.2
Thailand	4.6	5.4	15.4	4.0

Source: *World Development Indicators,* World Bank.

Table 1.3: Poverty Trends, 1988–2006

Poverty Indicator	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006
Number of poor people (millions)	25.01	28.12	27.27	23.95	25.42	23.51	27.60
Number of poor families (millions)	4.23	4.78	4.53	3.98	4.14	3.97	4.70
Poverty incidence, population (%)	49.50	45.30	40.60	33.00	33.00	30.40	32.90
Poverty incidence, families (%)	40.20	39.90	35.50	28.10	27.50	24.70	26.90

Note: The National Statistical Coordination Board has revised the official poverty measurement methodology from time to time. Poverty figures are estimated under the most recent methodology from 1997 onward. Pre-1997 figures are technically not comparable.

Source: National Statistical Coordination Board.

cost of the food basket (the food poverty line) is scaled up using a "lower bound" methodology to account for non-food needs.[4] The official poverty line for 2006 was approximately $0.80 per day.[5]

As with most socioeconomic indicators in the Philippines, there are major regional disparities in poverty levels. However, comparing poverty incidence to poverty magnitude paints a very different picture of these disparities. The list of the poorest provinces becomes quite different (Table 1.4). Most of the provinces with the highest poverty incidence over 2000–2006 are in Mindanao, as well as some of provinces in the mountainous Cordillera region of Luzon. There has been a substantial variance in the top 10 poorest provinces over this period, but one common feature is that they are mostly the provinces with relatively small populations.

The top five poorest provinces over 2000–2006 in terms of poverty magnitude are the highly urbanized areas of Luzon and the Visayas, including Metro Manila and Cebu.[6] These five areas account for nearly one fifth of all poor people in the

[4]   This method looks at the actual non-food expenditure of families whose "total household expenditure" is approximately equal to the food poverty line. In contrast, an upper bound method looks at the actual non-food expenditure of families whose "total food expenditure" is approximately equal to the food poverty line. The second group of families will be somewhat better off because they are spending a more realistic amount on non-food items than the first group.

[5]   The average exchange rate for 2006 was $1.00 = P51.31.

[6]   The megacity of Metro Manila is not technically a province, it is a region (the National Capital Region), but is included here for illustrative purposes.

Table 1.4: Poverty lines, Poverty Indicators, and the Five Poorest Provinces, 2000–2006

Item	2000		2003		2006	
Poverty line—per person per year (P)	11,458.00		12,309.00		15,057.00	
Poverty line—per person per day (P)	31.40		33.72		41.25	
US dollar equivalent—using annual average exchange rate ($)	0.71		0.62		0.80	
Poverty incidence—percentage of the population (%)	33.00		30.00		33.00	
Poverty magnitude—millions of people	25.50		23.80		27.60	
Five poorest provinces ranked by incidence—percentage of the population (%)	Masbate	61	Zamboanga N.	65	Tawi-Tawi	79
	Maguindanao	59	Maguindanao	60	Zamboanga N.	63
	Sulu	58	Masbate	56	Maguindanao	62
	Ifugao	56	Surigao N.	55	Apayao	58
	Lanao S.	55	Agusan S.	53	Surigao N.	53
Five poorest provinces ranked by magnitude (millions)	Negros Occ.	1.30	Negros Occ.	1.00	Metro Manila	1.16
	Cebu	0.97	Pangasinan	0.79	Negros Occ.	1.12
	Pangasinan	0.89	Cebu	0.75	Cebu	1.08
	Metro Manila	0.86	Camarines S.	0.75	Pangasinan	0.94
	Camarines S.	0.76	Metro Manila	0.74	Leyte	0.85

Source: National Statistical Coordination Board, 2008.

Philippines. They have remained relatively constant since 2000. One issue for future analysis is how some provinces and regions have managed to register substantial gains in the fight against poverty in the most recent survey period (2003–2006), while others have fallen further behind.

Inequality remains high. The country's income distribution has improved very slightly since 2000 (Appendix 3, Figure 1). In 2006, the 0.45 plus Gini coefficient is still higher than it was over two decades ago and is also the highest in Southeast Asia. In 2006, the total family income of the population's richest 10% was about 19 times that of the poorest 10% (Appendix 3, Table 1).

Spending Patterns. There are numerous differences in Filipino families' spending patterns, depending on their income level (Table 1.5). Food expenditure constitutes nearly two thirds of the total

expenditure of households in the bottom 30% of the income distribution. The poor spend a much larger share of their total expenditure on alcohol and cigarettes, but considerably less on education and medical expenses than do the upper 70%.[7]

Human Development Indicators. From 1995 to 2005, the Philippines human development index ranged from 70 to 100.[8] Generally, this puts the

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[7] The 2006 Family Income and Expenditure Survey was undertaken before the rapid food price increases in 2007 and 2008. Household expenditure on food as a share of total expenditure is likely to be much higher in 2008 than it was in 2006, particularly for the poorer segment of the population.

[8] An internationally recognized indicator of well-being that combines life expectancy, literacy, and standard of living, the human development index provides a comparative measure of how a country is faring.

Table 1.5: Distribution of Family Expenditure by Expenditure Item by Income Group, 2006

Expenditure Item (expressed as a percentage of the household's total expenditure)	2006	
	Bottom 30%	Upper 70%
Food expenditure	59.1	39.3
House rent/rental value	9.0	13.2
Fuel, light, and water	7.3	7.7
Transportation and communication	3.8	8.7
Personal care and effects	3.7	3.7
Other expenditure	3.3	3.0
Clothing, footwear, and other [wearable items]	2.0	2.4
Household operation	1.8	2.4
Tobacco	1.7	0.8
Medical care	1.7	3.0
Special family occasions	1.7	2.9
Education	1.3	4.7
Alcoholic beverages	1.2	0.6
Durable furniture and equipment	0.8	2.9
Gifts and contributions to others	0.7	1.5
House maintenance and minor repairs	0.5	0.6
Recreation	0.2	0.5
Nondurable furnishings	0.2	0.2
Taxes	0.2	1.8

Note: Columns may not add up to 100 as a result of rounding. Other expenditure includes purchase or amortization of real property, payments of cash loan (principal), installments for appliances, installments for personal transport, loans granted to persons outside the household, amounts deposited in banks or investments, among others.

Source: Family Income and Expenditure Survey, 2006.

Philippines in the middle of the list of countries ranked according to the human development index. In the same period, the Philippines has consistently scored higher in the gender empowerment measure[9] than in the gender-related development index (Table 1.6).[10]

The Millennium Development Goals. As a signatory to the Millennium Declaration of 2000, the Philippines is committed to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015. The *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals* was released in 2007. It reported that there was a low probability of the Philippines achieving universal primary education, improving maternal mortality, and increasing access to reproductive health care by 2015 (Table 1.7).

[9] The gender empowerment measure reveals whether women are active in the nation's economic and political life. It uses indicators, such as the proportion of seats in Parliament held by women; female legislators, senior officials, and managers; and female professional and technical workers. It also assesses the gender disparity in income levels, which reflects economic independence.

[10] The gender-related development index was introduced in 1995. It uses the same indicators as the human development index but captures inequalities

between women and men. The greater the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower is a country's gender-related development relative to its human development index. In essence, the gender-related development index presents inequality in opportunities in certain sectors.

**Table 1.6: Human Development Index, Gender-related Development Index,
and Gender Empowerment Measure Ranking of the Philippines**

Year	HDI Rank Philippines	GDI Rank Philippines	GEM Rank Philippines
1995	100	64	28
1997	98	81	35
1999	77	65	45
2001	70	62	46
2003	85	66	35
2005	90	77	45

HDI = human development index; GDI = gender empowerment index; GEM = gender empowerment measure.

Source: *UNDP Human Development Reports, 1995–2007.*

Box 1.1: Measuring Poverty in the Philippines

The Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act (Republic Act 8425) defines the poor as individuals and families whose incomes fall below the official poverty threshold as defined by the government and/or those who cannot afford to provide in a sustained manner for their minimum basic needs for food, health, education, and housing. The Family Income and Expenditure Survey, conducted every 3 years, is the country's official source of income poverty data. The survey is used to set the income poverty threshold and measure the poverty incidence, magnitude, and severity.

Poverty is also recognized to be multi-dimensional. The annual poverty indicators survey, while not actually undertaken annually, assesses various dimensions of poverty, such as health status, access to clean water and sanitation and housing conditions. The minimum basic needs approach is a framework of indicators in three categories: security, empowerment, and survival. If these basic needs are not met, a family is considered to be poor. A self-rated poverty and hunger measure is constructed by an independent polling organization.

Table 1.7: Philippines Millennium Development Goals

Millennium Development Goals and Targets	Baseline (1990 or year closest to 1990)	Current Level (2005/2006 or year closest to 2005/2006)	Target by 2015	Probability of Attaining the Targets
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger				
A. Proportion of families below (%)				
1. Subsistence threshold[a]	20.4	11.0 (2006)	10.20	High
2. Poverty threshold[a]	39.9	26.9 (2006)	19.95	High
B. Proportion of population below (%)				
1. Subsistence threshold[a]	24.3	14.6 (2006)	12.15	High
2. Poverty threshold[a]	45.3	32.9 (2006)	22.65	High
C. Prevalence of malnutrition among 0–5 year old children (percentage of children who are underweight)[b]	34.5	24.6 (2005)	17.25	High

Table 1.7 continued

Millennium Development Goals and Targets	Baseline (1990 or year closest to 1990)	Current Level (2005/2006 or year closest to 2005/2006)	Target by 2015	Probability of Attaining the Targets
Achieve universal primary education				
A. Elementary school participation rate (%)	85.1[c]	84.44[d] (2005–06)	100.00	Low
B. Elementary cohort survival rate (%)	68.65[c]	69.9[d] (2005–06)	84.67[k]	Low
C. Elementary completion rate (%)	66.5[c]	67.9[d] (2005–06)	81.04[k]	Low
Improve maternal health				
A. Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 deliveries)	209[f]	162	52.20	Low
Increase access to reproductive health services				
A. Prevalence of men and women and/or couples practicing responsible parenthood (%)	40[e]	50.6[f] (2006)	80.00	Low
Reduce child mortality				
A. Under-5 mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	80[g]	32.0 (2006)	26.70	High
B. Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	57[g]	24.0[f] (2006)	19.00	High
Combat HIV and AIDS, Malaria, and Other Diseases				
A. HIV prevalence (%)	< 1	< 1 (2005)	< 1.00[l]	High
B. Malaria morbidity rate (per 100,000 population)[h]	123	59.0 (2004)	24.00[l]	High
Ensure environmental sustainability				
A. Proportion of households with access to safe drinking water (%)	73.7[i]	80.2 (2004)[j]	86.80	High
B. Proportion of households with sanitary toilet facility (%)	67.6[i]	86.2 (2004)[j]	83.80	High

a   Technical Committee on Poverty Statistics (former Technical Working Group on Income Statistics, National Statistical Coordination Board).
b   National Nutrition Survey, Food and Nutrition Research Institute.
c   Department of Education Statistical Bulletin SY 1991–1992.
d   Department of Education, Basic Education Information System.
e   1993 National Demographic Survey, National Statistics Office (NSO).
f   2006 Family Planning Survey, NSO.
g   National Demographic and Health Survey, NSO.
h   Field Health Service Information System, Department of Health.
i   1990 Census of Population and Housing, NSO.
j   Annual Poverty Indicators Survey, NSO.
k   Target in the Philippines National Education for All 2015 Plan.
l   Target by 2010 based on the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan 2004–2010.
*   Beginning 2002/2003, participation rate was derived based on the age group consisting of 6–11 years old for elementary and 12–15 years old for secondary, whereas the previous system used 7–12 and 13–16 years old for elementary and secondary, respectively.

Source: *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals,* 2007.

Economy and Employment

Labor and employment. The Philippine labor market suffers chronic job shortage, which translates into a labor surplus. Jobs are not created at the same pace as the growth of the labor force, and the labor market does not absorb all job seekers. From 2005 to 2006, the labor force grew by

314,000 people, while a net of 293,000 new jobs were created.[11] About half of all jobs are those that people have created for themselves.

Figure 1.1 shows that for 1990–2006, job numbers did not grow at the same rate as GDP. For example, when the economy recovered from the Asian financial crisis of 1998–2000, its growth did not dramatically ease unemployment levels (Figure 1.1). This means that even in periods of growth, the economy has not provided enough jobs to absorb new entrants to the labor force. This growth pattern is clearly not pro-poor and the "jobless growth" is a pressing concern.

In the Philippines, the female labor force participation rate has consistently lagged behind the rate for males, despite women having higher education levels compared with their Asian neighbors.[12] Economists cite not only an inconsistent growth pattern but also the lack of a clear government policy to curb the high fertility rate. The gap between male and female participation rates narrowed by about 3% from 1990 to 2006 (Table 1.8).

Employment opportunities differ depending on gender, age, and educational attainment. For the past years, employment rates for men and women have remained more or less the same.

Women aged 35–60+ have higher rates of employment than women aged 15–34, whose employment rates are low because they are in the peak of their reproductive years (Appendix 3, Table 2). To some extent, this lower employment rate reflects the inadequate social services available to working women in this age group (such as day care services, lactation centers, etc.) and the lack of effective application of existing gender-responsive legislation on issues related to maternity leave and/or paternity benefits (introduced in 1996).[13]

The unemployment rate is particularly high among young people (15–24 years old). Young women in rural areas and young men in urban areas seem to be the most affected (footnote 11). The situation for young people in the labor market has, however, improved over the last 4 years (Figure 1.2). For young people, their employability correlates with their educational attainment. Peculiarly, employment rates decrease with educational level, a pattern that is reversed only at the completion of a college degree (and then mainly for women). The explanation for this phenomenon may be found in the types of available jobs. Many jobs (such as in the agriculture and informal sectors) do not require formal education. Meanwhile, as a result of the growing number of college graduates, many business establishments now require a college degree even for factory, sales, or clerical jobs. Yet as a consequence of the widely perceived deterioration in the quality of education in the country, many employers complain about having to train even college graduates. This indicates there is a mismatch between formal training provided and labor market requirements.

The gender gap in employment rate tapers off among those with limited education. The reason for this is that these are usually people who cannot afford to be unemployed and as such are not too selective about jobs. On the whole, however, women dominate in sectors that are an extension of their reproductive roles. In 2005, at least 70%–80% of employed workers in private households and the health and education sectors were women. Men, on the other hand, dominate in construction, fishing, transport, and mining and quarrying fields (Appendix 3, Table 3). The proportion of women

11   Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics (BLES). 2007b. Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment. CD-ROM. Manila: BLES, Department of Labor and Employment.

12   Orbeta, A. 2005. Children and Labor Force Participation and Earnings of Parents in the Philippines. Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS) Discussion Paper Series No. 2005–20. Manila: PIDS.

13   Paternity Leave Act of 1996 (RA 8187) grants paternity leave benefits of 7 days to all married male employees in the private and public sectors for the first four deliveries of their legitimate spouse.

Figure 1.1: Real GDP Growth Rate and Unemployment Rate, 1990–2006
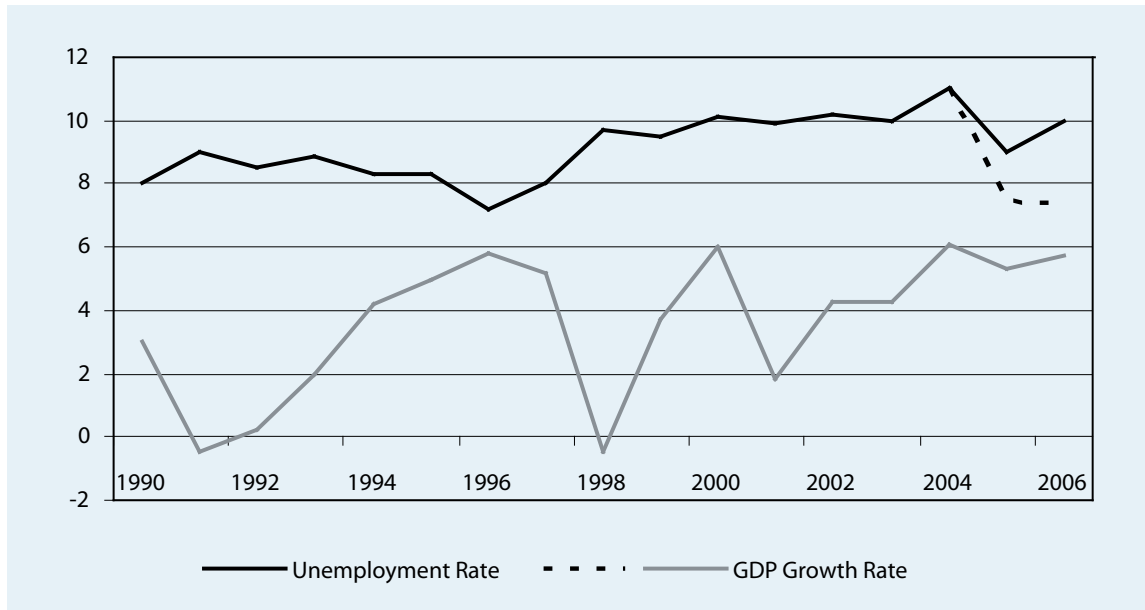
GDP = gross domestic product.

Note: There is seasonality in the labor market figures for the Philippines. During the months of March and April, a large number of new graduates are introduced to the labor market and become part of the country's labor force. Consequently, the labor force and unemployment rates are highest during the April and July rounds of the Labor Force Survey regularly conducted by the National Statistics Office. For this reason, the more stable data from the October rounds of the Labor Force Survey are used in this paper. Starting in April 2005, the unemployment definition was revised. For comparability, the labor force and the unemployment rate here were computed using both the old and new definitions.

Source: Basic data from the National Statistics Office and the National Statistical Coordination Board.

Table 1.8: Labor Force Participation Rate, Employment Rate, and Unemployment Rate, October 1990–2006 (in percent)

Year	Labor Force Participation Rate			Employment Rate			Unemployment Rate		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
1990[a]	64.5	81.8	47.5	91.9	92.9	90.2	8.1	7.1	9.8
1994[a]	64.4	81.6	47.3	91.6	92.1	90.6	8.4	7.9	9.4
1998[a]	65.8	82.8	49.2	90.2	90.3	90.0	9.8	9.7	10.0
2002[a]	66.2	80.8	51.7	89.8	89.9	89.8	10.2	10.1	10.2
2006[b]	65.8	81.3	50.4	90.1	89.9	90.3	9.9	10.1	9.7

Note: Starting in the April 2005 round of the Labor Force Survey, the unemployment definition was revised to include the availability criterion. For comparability, the labor force and unemployed here were computed using the old definition.

Sources:
[a]   2006 Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics.
[b]   2005 Public Use files of the Labor Force Survey October round.

Figure 1.2: Employment Pattern, by Education and Sex of Worker, 2002 and 2006 (in percent)
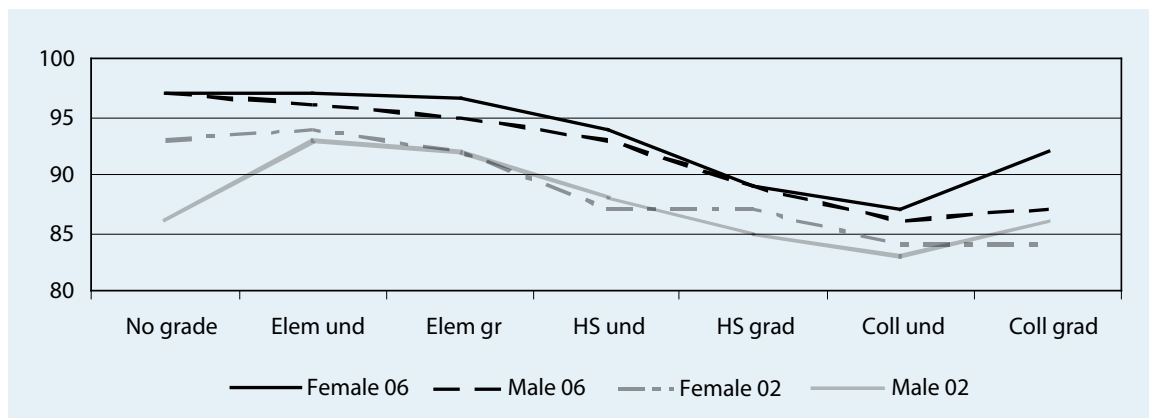
No grade = no grade completed; Elem-und = elementary level incomplete; Elem gr = elementary level graduate; HS und = high school incomplete; HS grad = high school graduate; Coll und = college incomplete; Coll grad = college graduate.

Source: Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2007.

relative to men is highest among domestic workers in private households—housemaids or *kasambahay*. A 2004 International Labour Organization estimate put the number of domestic helpers in the Philippines at 2.5 million.

Figure 1.3 illustrates that in terms of employment by class of worker and sex, men are more likely to be wage-and-salary (63.1%) and own-account workers (66.7%) while Filipino women are likely to be unpaid family workers (55.7%).

Underemployment is a perennial problem. From 1998 to 2005, underemployment numbers were in double figures (Figure 1.4) and in 2006, more than one in five people with a job—more men than women (about 26% and 18%, respectively)—were dissatisfied with their earnings and willing to take on an additional job (footnote 11). Underemployment is most common among farmers, fishers, and forestry workers, where work is often seasonal and paid on a daily basis. The interest to work longer hours is lower among married women who, on average, spend 8 hours per day doing unpaid voluntary care work, such as raising children, housekeeping, and caring for the sick.

The National Statistics Office Survey on Children reports that despite high unemployment and underemployment rates among adults, some 4 million children worked in 2001, an increase of 9% from 1995. About two thirds of all working children are boys, but boys comprise 70% of the 2 million children who work in hazardous conditions. However, there are over 1 million child domestic workers in the Philippines, almost all of whom are girls. The figures may not fully capture the incidence of girls who work from home, helping their mothers with subcontracted manufacturing jobs, or in brothels as prostituted children.[14] It should be noted that regardless of how it occurs, a child who ends up in an exploitative situation is defined as a victim of trafficking (Chapter 7 discusses trafficking in greater detail).

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[14]   Del Rosario, R. 2005. The Girl-Child. In *Beijing +10: Celebrating Gains, Facing New Challenges,* edited by J. Illo and R. Ofreneo. Manila: UNFPA (Report of Philippine NGOs).

Figure 1.3: Employed Persons by Class of Worker and Sex, 2005
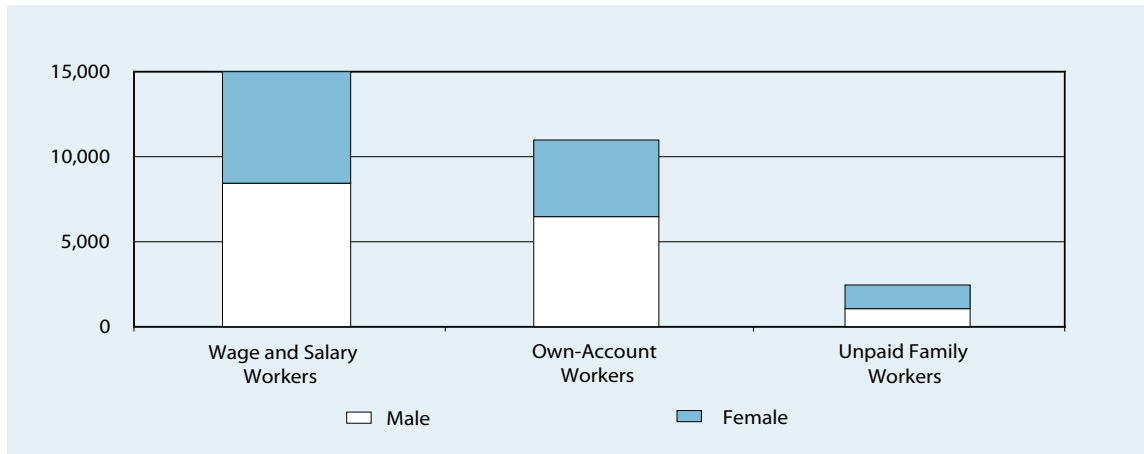
Source: 2006 Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics.

Figure 1.4: Underemployment Rate by Sex, 1998–2005
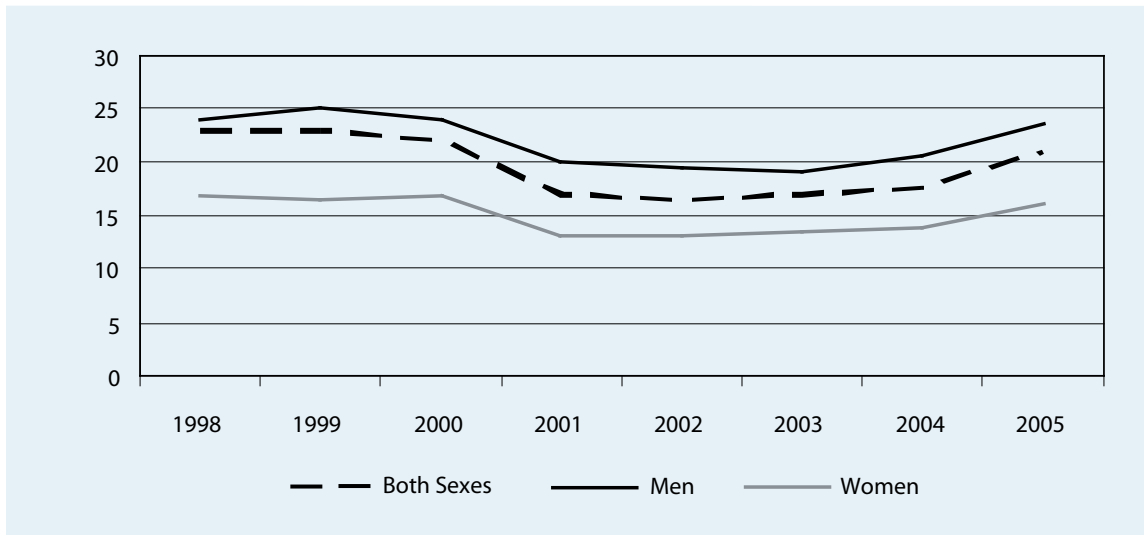
Note: The underemployment rate is the ratio of underemployed persons to total employed persons multiplied by 100. Underemployment refers to those who want additional working hours in their jobs, additional jobs, or a new job with more working hours.

Source of basic data: National Statistical Coordination Board.

Employment opportunities. The agriculture sector, which includes forestry and fishing, continues to employ large numbers of workers in the Philippines, although it does so at a declining rate (Figure 1.5). New jobs are instead found in new workplaces, mainly in export-oriented economic

Figure 1.5: Employment Rates by Sector and Unemployed Persons as a Percentage of the Labor Force
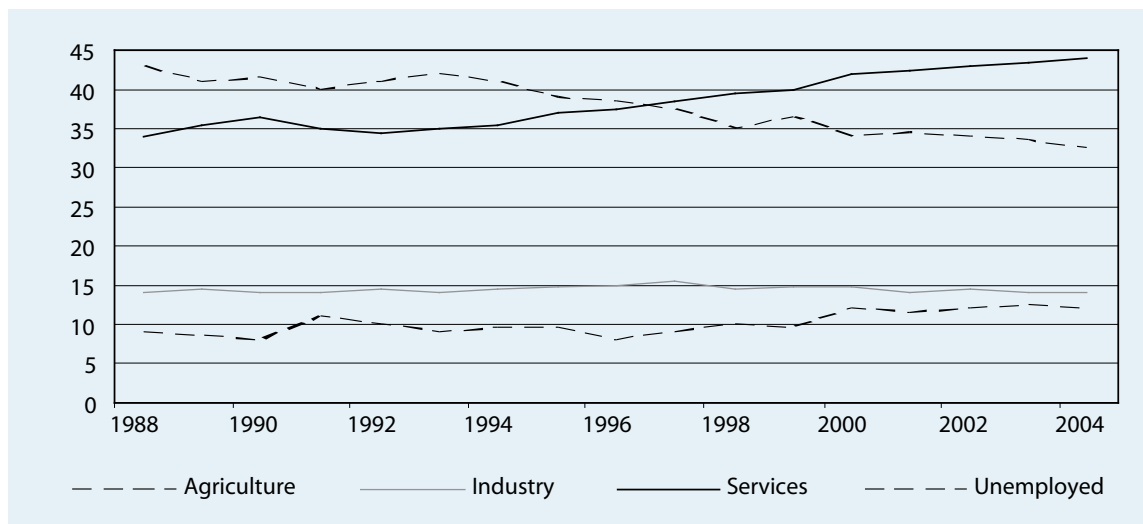
Source: J. Lim. 2005. A review of Philippine monetary policy: Towards an alternative. Presentation at the 2005 Gender and Macro-economics workshop, University of Utah.

zones.[15] The fastest-growing employment sectors are the services industries. The global trend of increased trade in services, especially in business processing outsourcing—sometimes also called the call or contact center industry—has benefited the Philippines. Service firms in information and communication technology have absorbed an increasing number of workers over the past decade. The domestic tourism industry has also experienced a strong expansion.

More men than women work in the agriculture sector, though there is an increase in women's unpaid family work in agriculture (Figure 1.6). However, in many of the new workplaces, more women than men are employed. As a consequence, the gap between male and female unemployment rates has narrowed. There is no indication that this has been followed by a decrease of women's burden of unpaid work, such as reproductive and home-care activities.

Over the period 2001–2005, both men and women experienced an increase in average nominal daily basic pay but the increase for females was lower by 1%. In agriculture and non-agriculture industries, men are paid considerably more on a daily basis than women. Workers in private households (where women constitute the vast majority of workers) have the lowest average daily pay and posted a negative growth rate in wage (Appendix 3, Table 4).

Women in the private sector. The private sector in the Philippines represents 95% of the economy and accounts for 85% of total expenditure from 1991–2002.[16] It employs more than 90% of the country's total workforce. Of the 825,000 registered private companies, 91% are microenterprises and 8.5% are small and medium-sized

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[15] The Philippine Economic Zone Authority supervises three types of economic zones: public, private, and information technology parks and buildings.

[16] ADB. 2004b. *Philippine Private Sector Assessment.* Manila, p. 4.

Figure 1.6: Percentage of Females in the Unpaid Family Workers in Agriculture, 2000–2006
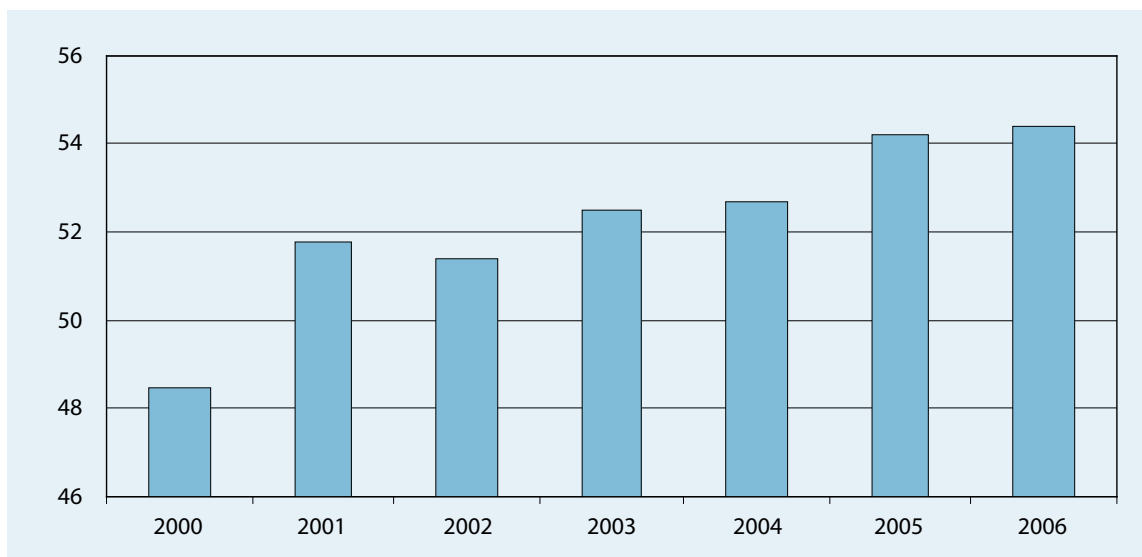
enterprises, while only 0.5% are large enterprises. A study by the Women's Business Council showed that women owners of micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises can be found in manufacturing (41%); jewelry, garments, and furniture (37%); marketing (9%); and real estate (7%).[17] However, a lack of training and access to credit are perennial issues. Women owners are also pressured to balance managing their business and family life.

Access to land and property. Increasing women's access to land and securing their property rights provide improved economic security and welfare.[18] In the Philippines, access to land is still an elusive goal for women because of the cultural preference

for men to be caretakers and inheritors of land. In 2003, a mere quarter of all the emancipation patents distributed went to women.[19] Likewise, certificate of land ownership awards were granted to less than 16,000 women compared to more than 33,000 grants to men (Table 1.9).[20]

The legal framework does not give women full rights to property. Article 96 of the Family Code of the Philippines (EO 209) provides that the administration and enjoyment of the community property shall belong to both spouses jointly. In case of disagreement, the husband's decision shall

[17] National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW). 2004b. *Report on the State of Filipino Women, 2001–2003.* Manila: NCRFW.

[18] Grown, Caren Geeta Rao Gupta, Aslihan Kes. 2005. *Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women.* Earthscan: UK and USA. (p.9).

[19] Under the Government's Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program, an Emancipation Patent is the land title granted to the tenant upon fulfillment of all government requirements.

[20] Also under the same program, a Certificate of Land Ownership Award is a document given to the beneficiary by the Department of Agrarian Reform which contains restrictions and conditions contained in the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program of 1998 (RA 6657) law and other applicable statutes.

Table 1.9: Numbers of Emancipation Patents and Certificates of Land Ownership by Sex, 2003

Type of Agreement	Total	Women	Men
Emancipation Patents	3,077	633	2,444
Certificate of Land Ownership Award	50,327	16,616	33,711

Source: National Statistical Coordination Board.

Table 1.10: Number of Overseas Filipinos as of December 2006

Region/Country	Permanent	Temporary	Irregular	Total
World Total	3,556,035	3,802,345	874,792	8,233,172
Africa	553	71,503	17,742	89,798
Asia, East and South	196,198	789,110	237,600	1,222,908
Asia, West	3,523	1,723,911	112,250	1,839,684
Europe	229,132	534,748	124,380	888,260
North America/Trust Territories	2,887,129	333,763	356,400	3,577,292
Oceania	238,730	74,813	26,420	339,963
Sea-based Workers		274,497		274,497

Permanent = immigrants or legal permanent residents abroad whose stay does not depend on work contracts; Temporary = persons whose stay overseas is employment related, and who are expected to return at the end of their work contracts; Irregular = those not properly documented or without valid residence or work permits, or who are overstaying in a foreign country.

Source: Philippine Overseas Employment Agency website.

prevail, subject to the wife having recourse to the court for proper remedy, but she must bring her action within 5 years from the date of the contract implementing such decision. This provision was actually culled from the Civil Code of 1949, which was drafted by an all-male Civil Code Commission. According to its proceedings, the rationale for privileging the husband is that "tradition and experience show that, in very serious matters concerning family, it is usually the husband who makes the ultimate choices."

Labor migration. There is a long tradition in the Philippines of migration from rural to urban areas, especially by women, to find remunerative employment. Women often work as caregivers or domestic helpers (Chapter 4). Since the 1970s, the Government has actively promoted the migration of Filipino women and men to work overseas. Men, mainly working as seafarers and in construction, account for a larger proportion of all overseas Filipino workers, but women constitute an increasing percentage of the migration flow. If sea-based migration is excluded, women dominate in the international migration streams (Figure 1.6). Large shares of the women who go abroad do so to work as nurses or domestic helpers. About one in 10 Filipinos can be found overseas either as a permanent migrant, temporary worker, or irregular worker (Table 1.10). As of December 2006, there were about 8.2 million Filipinos abroad. Of these, 3.6 million were permanent migrants, 3.8 million were temporary migrants, and about 0.9 million were irregular migrants. More than one fourth (or 2.9 million) of the total stock of Filipinos overseas were permanent migrants to North America and trust territories.

There are many reasons for migration, both push and pull factors. Examples include wage differentials, the personal network facilitating migration, and the aggressive promotion of migration by the state. Demographic changes in wealthy

countries resulting from falling birth rates and aging populations, coupled with the rise in women's labor force participation, has made women from developing countries attractive candidates for employment as domestic and care workers. Recent migration figures attest to this (more details can be found in Chapter 4). In recent years, the proportion of female contract workers in offshore, land-based positions has slightly declined. However, in 2001–2006, women still constituted a large majority of new offshore recruitments (Figure 1.7).

Offshore recruitment of professional workers declined from 2004 to 2006. During the same period, however, recruitment of service workers, of which women constituted about 90%, steadily increased (Appendix 3, Table 5). These types of jobs were usually caregiving or domestic work. Women in these jobs were vulnerable to violence, abuse, and exploitation (Chapter 7).

Migrant workers' remittances are an enormously important part of the Philippine economy. In 2007, total remittances from overseas Fili-

pino workers reached $14.45 billion, representing 10% of the Philippines' GDP. This was almost triple the total remittances in 1997, which were $5.7 billion. Remittances also fuel the country's consumption-driven growth. These issues are further explored in Chapter 4. Women who work overseas send less money than men working overseas, at least through the formal channels. According to the 2004 survey of overseas Filipino workers, the average cash remittance sent by men was P74,267. Women sent half of this amount. The same survey also showed that women sent fewer in-kind remittances as compared to men. The survey did not look at transfers through informal channels.

Social Development

Budgets for basic services. Filipinos' access to basic services is hampered by a large and rapidly growing population, coupled with scarce budgetary resources. While the share of social services to

Figure 1.7: Number of Land-Based Contract Workers by Sex, 2001–2006
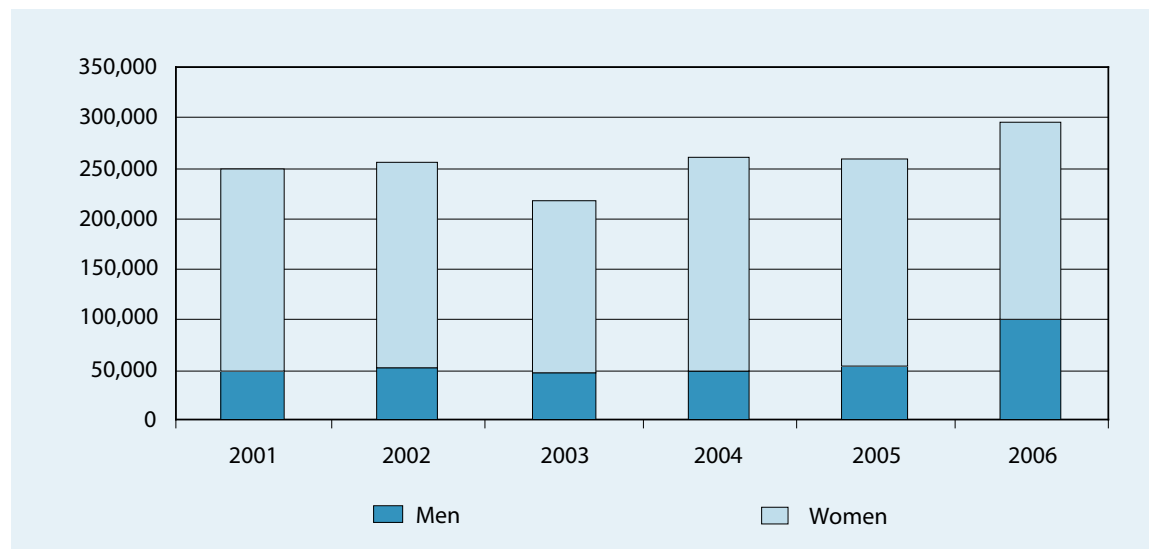
Source: Philippine Overseas Employment Agency.

GDP has slightly increased since 2004, it is still far lower than that in 2000 (Figure 1.8). The budgets for health and education are below international standards. The World Health Organization (WHO) benchmark for health expenditure in developing countries like the Philippines is at least 5% of GDP, while the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) prescribes a standard of 6% of gross national product for investments in education alone. The dramatic decrease in the allocation for social services also negatively affects job creation and generation of livelihood opportunities. Mandated expenditures, such as the wage bill (salaries of government workers), interest payments, and local government unit transfers account for a large part of total expenditure, leaving very little money for discretionary spending.

Education. Education is one of the fundamental mechanisms by which people create better eco-nomic opportunities for themselves. For women, education leads to increased decision-making power in the household and in their communities. Additional years of education also strongly corre-late with decreased fertility rates—the number of children born to each woman. The 1987 Constitu-tion of the Republic of the Philippines (1987 Con-stitution) sets out that the education sector be giv-en the highest budgetary allocation, but the sheer number of school enrollees each year compels the Government to prioritize expenditure on quantity, which leaves little room to improve quality.

Access to education differs between males and females in terms of enrollment, survival and completion rates, literacy, academic level, and choice of discipline. Interestingly, the gender gaps tend to be the reverse of what is found in many other countries. At the elementary level, data from school year 2005–2006 shows no significant dif-ference in the enrollment and participation ratios between boys and girls (Table 1.11). However, girls

**Figure 1.8: Philippines Sectoral Distribution of Public Expenditures
as a Percentage of Gross Domestic Product, 1998–2006**
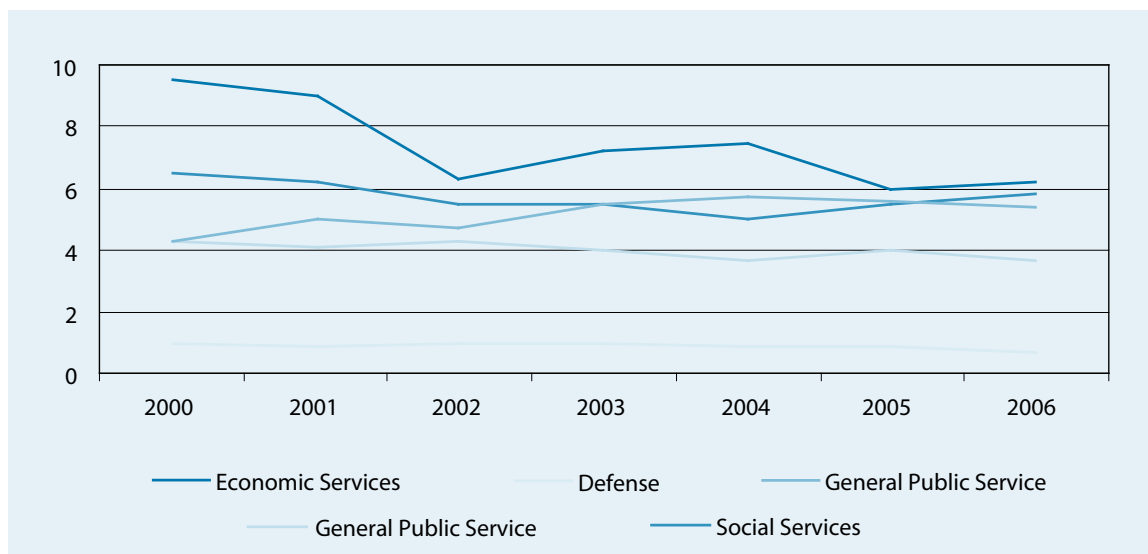
GDP = gross domestic product.

Source: Budget of Expenditure and Sources of Financing (BESF), various years.

Table 1.11: Basic Education Indicators, School Year 2005–2006 (in percent)

Indicator	Elementary			Secondary		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER)[a]	88.9	89.8	87.8	61.7	58.8	64.6
Participation Rate[b]	73.5	72.9	74.2	44.5	40.5	48.6
Cohort Survival Rate	62.6	58.2	67.5	55.0	47.6	62.4
Completion Rate	61.1	56.4	66.4	50.2	42.3	58.4
Average Repetition Rate	3.0	3.9	2.1	3.8	5.8	1.9
Average Dropout Rate[c]	1.4	1.7	1.0	6.7	9.0	4.4

[a] Gross enrollment ratio refers to the total enrollment in a given level of education as a percentage of the population which, according to national regulations, should be enrolled at this level. It is a measure of the "capacity" of a region's elementary and secondary schools.

[b] Participation rate measures the ratio of children enrolled in school in a particular age bracket as against the total population of children within the same age bracket.

[c] Dropout rate is the proportion of pupils or students who leave school during the year, as well as those who complete the grade or year level but fail to enroll in the next level the following school year, to the total number of pupils or students enrolled during the previous school year.

Source: Department of Education, www.deped.gov.ph.

have a higher cohort survival rate[21] and completion rate.[22] In other words, more boys than girls dropout of elementary school. High school enrolment is higher for girls at 64.6% compared to 58.8% for boys. Girls have higher completion and cohort survival rates in high school.

Females are generally ahead of males in simple and functional literacy rates (Appendix 3 Tables 6 and 7). The total functional literacy rate has also markedly increased by almost 11% from 1994–2003. In 2003, females had higher functional literacy rates than males across regions, except in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao. Males and females in Metro Manila have higher functional and simple literacy rates than their regional counterparts.

An alarming trend in the education system is a decrease in the quality of education. According to the National Statistical Coordination Board, in 2005–2006, grade 6 pupils averaged an overall achievement score of less than 55% while fourth year high school students were worse off at about 44%, both decreases from the previous years. Scores in all subject areas have decreased.[23] This will have long-term effects on competitiveness, both at households and the country.

At the tertiary level, a pattern of gender stereotyping in the chosen area of study persists. Women continue to choose fields that perpetuate their socially ascribed roles. They dominate the education, medical, and allied fields, and business administration. On the other hand, very few women take engineering and technology courses (Figure 1.9). In 2003 and 2004, more women than men enrolled and graduated from non-school-based technical vocational programs (Appendix 3, Table 9).

While there is gender stereotyping in course selection, data from 2003 shows that women

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[21] The cohort survival rate is the proportion of grade 1 enrollees who go on to complete grade 6.

[22] The primary completion rate is the number of students successfully completing the last year of (or graduating from) primary school in a given year, divided by the number of children of official graduation age in the population.

[23] Complete details of the National Achievement Test are at www.nscb.gov.ph/factsheet/pdf07/FS-200705-SS2-01.asp.

**Figure 1.9: Enrollment in Tertiary Level of Education by Area of Discipline
and Sex, Academic Year 2004–2005**
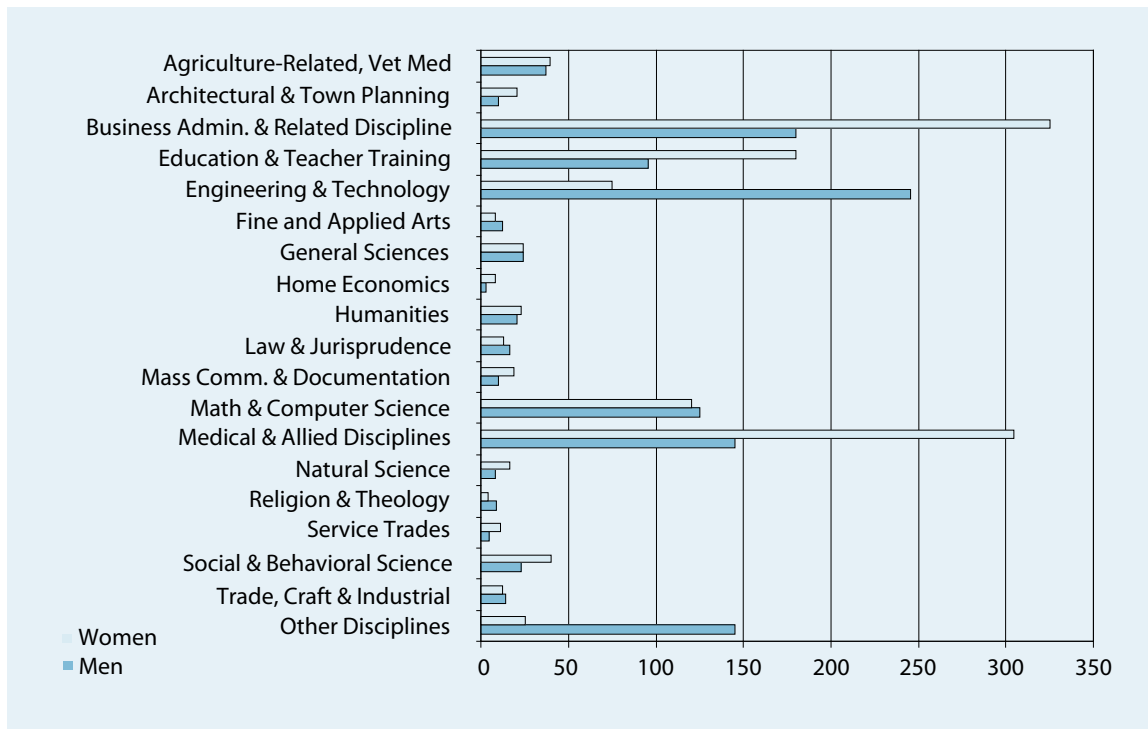
AY = academic year.

Source: Commission on Higher Education.

tend to excel when they choose fields that men traditionally take. A higher percentage of women pass the board examinations in criminology, fisheries technology, forestry, geodetic engineering, geology, mechanical engineering, metallurgical engineering, mining engineering, naval architecture, marine engineering, electrical engineering, and sanitary engineering (Appendix 3, Table 8). This indicates that stereotyping, rather than capacity, is the one thing that hampers women from entering male-dominated fields.

Health. WHO cites notable accomplishments in the Philippine public health system, including the approach to the primary health care system and the devolution of health services to the

local level.[24] Nonetheless, there are major geographic inequities in access to health facilities and services. Local officials who have the autonomy to allocate their Internal Revenue Allotment from the Government usually do not prioritize health. Despite the National Health Insurance Act of 1995 (RA 7875), users of health services must largely pay expenses out of pocket, a system that further burdens the poor. The exodus of nurses and doctors abroad exacerbates problems in the health sector (discussed in Chapter 4). These factors consequently affect access to adequate health

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[24] The Local Government Code of 1991 (RA 7160), among others, devolved the health sector to the local government units.

Table 1.12: Selected Health Indicators

Selected Health Indicators	Figures for the Philippines
Crude birth rate per 1,000 population	25.6 (2003)[a]
Crude death rate per 1,000 population	5.0 (2002)[b]
Maternal mortality rate per 100,000 live births	162.0 (2006)[c]
Total fertility rate	3.2 (2006)[c]
Infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births	30.0 (2003)[a]
Under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births	42.0 (2003)[a]
Percentage of women who give birth in a health facility	30.0 (2003)[a]
Percentage of women who give birth with assistance from a health professional	60.0 (2003)[a]
Contraceptive prevalence rate	49.0 (2003)[a]
Percentage access to safe water supply	80.0[d]
Health worker density per 1,000 people	7.4 (2000–2003)[e]
Hospital bed per 1,000 people	1.0 (2000–2003)[e]

Sources: [a] National Demographic and Health Survey 2003; [b] Department of Health Statistics; [c] 2006 Family Planning Survey; [d] Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan 2004–2010, National Economic and Development Authority; [e] World Development Indicators 2006.

care (Table 1.12). One of the most pressing concerns for women is access to reproductive health care services.

Reproductive health. The 2006 Family Planning Survey shows that since 1993 the maternal mortality rate has decreased from a high of 209 to 162 per 100,000 live births (Figure 1.10). The decline is insufficient for the country to meet the Millennium Development Goals' target of a maternal mortality rate of 53 per 100,000 births by 2015, which is still relatively high compared with those of other Southeast Asian countries. With about 5,000 births per day, an average of eight women die every day. Moreover, while the national average is declining, rural areas need increased attention. In 2000, the majority of maternal deaths were in Southern Tagalog, Bicol, and Central Visayas.[25]

The high maternal mortality rate is attributed to a high fertility rate, low average age at first delivery, too narrow pregnancy spacing, poor nutritional status of mothers, and the poor overall access of women to reproductive and basic health services. The country's total fertility rate has been steadily declining from a high of 6 in 1973 to 3.2 in 2006 (Figure 1.11). This rate is still very high when compared with the fertility rates of Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet Nam, where women have an average total fertility rate of 2.5.[26] The factors affecting fertility rates include educational attainment and social status. The National Capital Region has the lowest fertility rate of 2.8 children per woman while the region of Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan (MIMAROPA) has the highest fertility rate of 5.0 per woman. Empirical evidence clearly demonstrates that wealthier, more educated women tend to have lower fertility rates than poorer, less educated women.

The use of contraceptives among married women has tripled over the last 35 years from 15% in 1968 to 50.6% in 2006 (Figure 1.12). In 2006, 36 women out of 100 relied on modern family planning methods, while 15 women out of 100 relied on traditional family planning

[25]   Department of Health, 2000. *Philippine Health Statistics.* Manila: Department of Health.

[26]   National Demographic and Health Survey, 2003.

Figure 1.10: Maternal Mortality Rates, 1993–2006
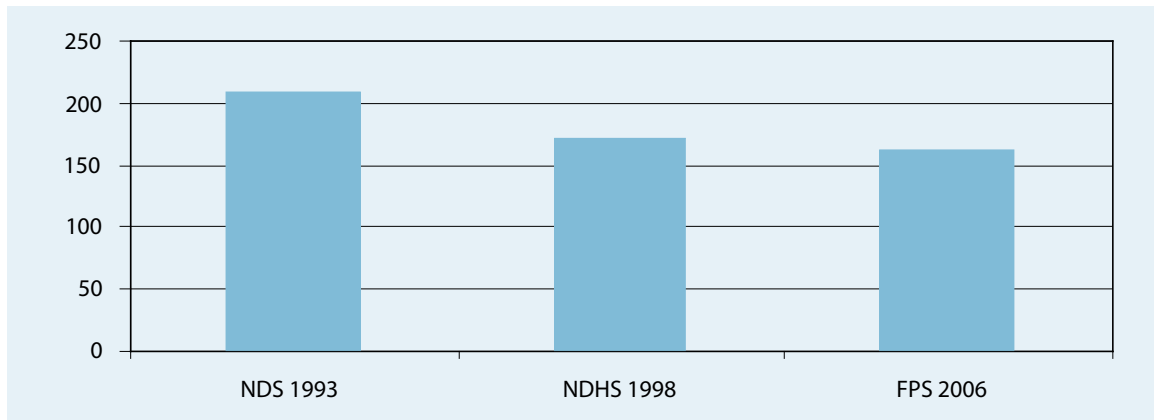
FPS = Family Planning Survey; NDHS = National Demographic and Health Survey; NDS = National Demographic Survey.

Source: National Statistics Office.

Figure 1.11: Total Fertility Rates, 1973–2006 (in percent)
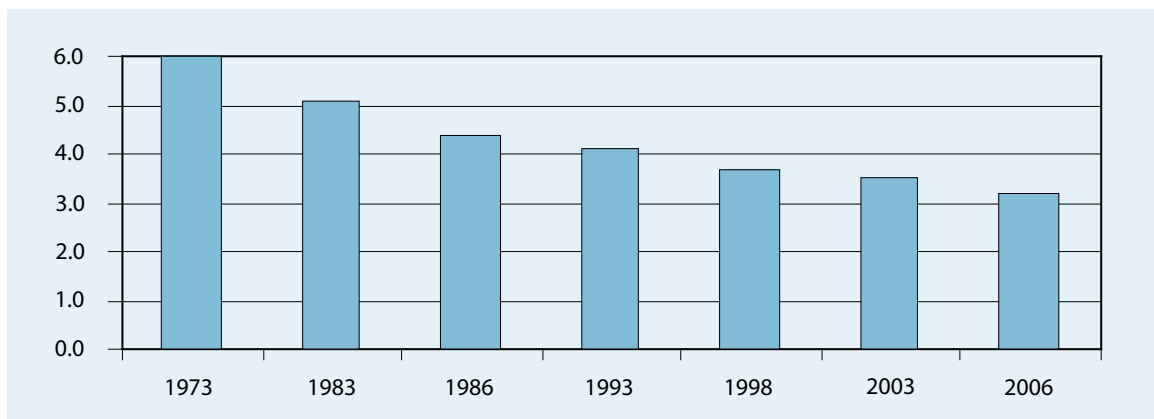
Sources: 1973, 1983, 1993 National Demographic Surveys; 1986 Contraceptive Prevalence Survey; 1998 and 2003 National Demographic and Health Survey; 2006 Family Planning Survey.

methods.[27] There is still a high rate of unwanted and mistimed pregnancies. The 2006 Family Planning Survey also showed that contraceptive use

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[27]   In the Philippines, the terms "artificial" and "natural" are still widely used to describe modern and traditional methods of contraception, implying an automatic value judgment as "artificial" tends to have negative connotations.

was highest among married, older women; those with education; and those belonging to non-poor households.

According to the 2003 National Demographic and Health Survey, women's access to health care has generally improved over the previous years. However, poor and rural women still receive insufficient health care. For instance, 61% of deliveries

Figure 1.12: Contraceptive Prevalence Rate, by Method, 1998–2006
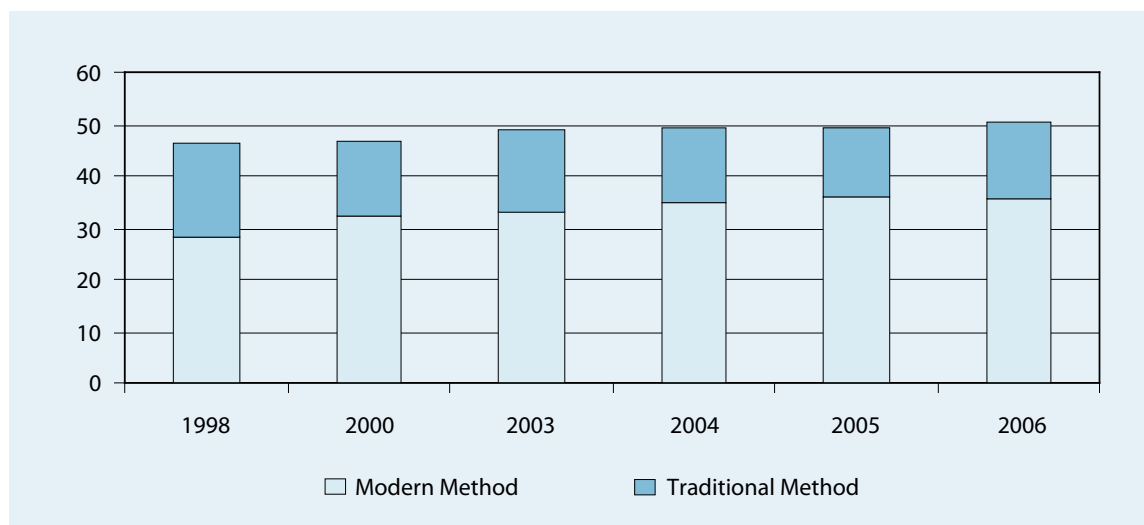
Source: National Statistical Coordination Board website.

still occur at home. In 1998, 66% of births occurred at home and 34% of children were born in health facilities, meaning there has been only a slight increase in health facility births. Likewise, 60% of women now give birth with the assistance of a doctor, nurse, or midwife compared with 56% in 1998. To prevent pregnancy complications, the Philippine Department of Health recommends at least four prenatal care visits for each pregnancy. According to the 2003 National Demographic and Health Survey, only 7% of all expectant mothers had the recommended number of prenatal health checks.

Because there is still relatively low contraceptive use and a high unmet need for contraception, Filipino women are often forced to resort to "induced abortion", which is illegal and dangerous.[28]

It is estimated that nearly half a million women are forced to have an abortion each year.[29] More than 70% of the women who sought out an abortion said that they did not use contraceptives because they feared side effects. The same proportion of women also said they had abortions for economic reasons.

Women's and children's health. Women's and children's health are inextricably linked for biological and social reasons. As mothers and nurturers, women play a large role in children's health. Infant and child health levels strongly correlate with the mother's educational background, wealth status, and place of origin. The infant mortality rate in the Philippines declined from 34 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 29 in 2000 but with the large number of births in the Philippines—about 2 million per year—this still means that on average more than 150 infants die every day. The risk increases

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[28] Induced abortion refers to the deliberate attempt to terminate a pregnancy. It is differentiated from spontaneous abortion or miscarriage, which is attributed to natural causes. The term "abortion" generally refers to both spontaneous or miscarriage and induced abortion. Induced abortion is illegal in the Philippines except in cases where the mother's life is endangered.

[29] Cabigon, Josefina V. 2007. Induced Abortion in the Philippines. Presentation prepared for University of the Philippines Population Institute and the Alan Guttamacher Institute, University of the Philippines, Manila.

substantially when the mother is below the age of 18 or over 35, if the birth interval is shorter than 2 years, or if the mother has had more than three children. Child mortality rates have gone down from 40 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2000 to 33 deaths in 2005. The 2003 National Demographic and Health Survey showed that poor women with less education tended to have more child deaths compared to non-poor and educated women. Far-flung regions have higher infant mortality rates than the national average.[30] Only about one third of women are immunized against neonatal tetanus, a proportion that has stayed relatively consistent.

Malnutrition is a major problem in the Philippines. The 6th National Nutrition Survey showed that the prevalence rate of anemia among pregnant and lactating mothers was 42% in 2003, which is about the same as it was in 1993. Anemia among infants aged between 6 months and 1 year increased at an alarming rate from nearly half in 1993 to two thirds in 2003. The same survey also demonstrated that the prevalence of underweight children has practically remained unchanged from its 1990 level. The Food and Nutrition Research Institute warns that it will take 50 years before the Philippines can eradicate the problem of malnutrition.

School-age boys are prone to different forms of malnutrition compared to girls. The 2001 data indicates that the number of underweight boys is 10% higher than that of girls. There is also evidence of disparities among regions. The Bicol region has the highest underweight prevalence among children aged 0 to 5 years old, followed by Mindanao. The National Capital Region had higher rates than the national average in all of the indicators of malnutrition.

Gender-based violence. Gender-based violence poses physical and mental health risks to women.

The number of reported cases remains dismally low (Figure 1.13) despite the recent passage of the Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Act of 2004 (RA 9262). Rape and beating consistently constitutes the highest number of reported cases, as discussed in Chapter 7. The stigma attached to violence, along with the notion that it is a private issue between couples, has prevented the Government from verifying the real extent and magnitude. The importance of a sustained information campaign involving both men and women cannot be overemphasized.

Governance

Women's political participation. Increasing the role of women in decision making bodies is a measure of a country's commitment to democratic governance. The Philippine Government has made significant efforts in making its governance institutions accessible to women in the post-Marcos era, and the number of elected women, particularly in the House of Representatives (Table 1.13), has markedly increased. The number of women mayors has also consistently increased since 1995. While on the surface these developments are positive, politics is still a male domain. The presence of women in electoral politics frequently has more to do with a political dynasty. A 2004 study by the Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism found that 70% of the women in the House of Representatives in 2001 were members of political clans.[31] This fact suggests that women in politics may be "benchwarmers" (place holders) for relatives awaiting their turn to run for office—for example, if the husband, uncle, or father has reached term limitations.

The judiciary is also male dominated, though this dominance is slowly easing. In 1997, 80% of

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30   Including the region of Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan; Western Visayas; Eastern Visayas; Northern Mindanao; Davao; Caraga, and the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao.

31   Coronel, S., Y. Chua, L. Rimban, and B. Cruz. 2004. *The Rulemakers: How the Wealthy and Well-Born Dominate Congress.* Quezon City: Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism.

judges were male. By 2006, 30% of judges were female. In 2008, six out of 15 (40%) Supreme Court justices are women. In the bureaucracy or the civil service, women make up the majority of employees. However, they tend to be found at the second level, or the rank-and-file positions, while men occupy the executive or the managerial jobs.

Electoral politics is not the only arena where women can make a mark. In the Philippines, women's influence in decision making can be seen in the successful advocacy by women's organizations of gender budget initiatives and landmark laws that seek to protect the rights of women. These are discussed further in Chapter 8.

Figure 1.13: Annual Reported Cases of Violence Against Women, 1999–2007
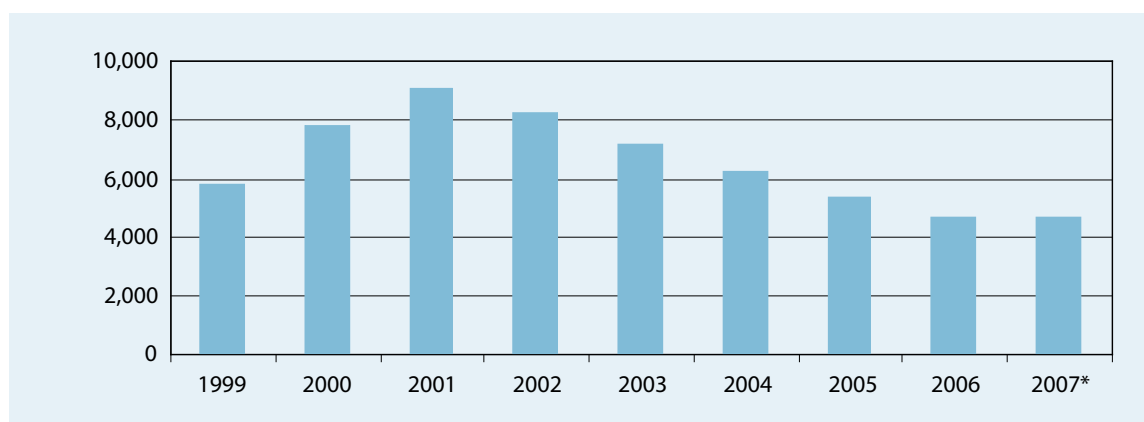
* = Preliminary data 2007.

Source: National Statistical Coordination Board website.

Table 1.13: Number of Elected Women and Men by Position, Year, and Sex

Elective Position	1995		1998		2001		2004		2007*	
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M
President	0	1	0	1	-	-	1	0	-	-
Vice-President	0	1	1	0	-	-	0	1	-	-
Senators	3	9	2	10	1	12	3	9	1	11
Congressmen	21	183	20	188	33	172	32	179	42	167
Governors	9	67	13	65	15	62	15	62	16	57
Vice-Governors	11	65	9	69	10	67	7	71	10	62
Board Members	77	596	93	629	120	607	125	623	111	571
Mayors	136	1,469	233	1,374	241	1,301	244	1,352	262	1,265
Vice-Mayors	135	1,470	174	1,433	192	1,356	222	1,375	219	1,305
Councilors	1,834	11,255	2,139	11,007	2,198	10,467	2,251	10,881	2,220	10,345

M = men; W = women.
*Preliminary Report (as of 2 December 2007).

Source: Commission on Elections.

Section I:

Women's Economic Empowerment

Access to and control over productive resources and benefits from wealth-creating activities are important factors for the independence of both women and men. Access to resources, in society and at the family level, has traditionally been skewed toward men. But women's economic empowerment tends to be associated with a greater range of positive effects, such as improved health and nutritional status of all family members, better educational achievements of children, and less vulnerability to domestic violence. Enhancing women's economic empowerment is, therefore, not only a question of promoting equality, but also of supporting the socioeconomic development of the country. However, there is a long way to go before women's economic empowerment mirrors that of men.

Women's economic empowerment is closely linked to the quality and quantity of available jobs. It is also associated with women's awareness of their economic rights and opportunities, as well as their voice and representation in economic decision-making bodies, as recognized in the Framework Plan for Women. Women's economic empowerment is furthermore influenced by culture, religion-based gender norms, and the economic realities of globalization.

The Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan 2004–2010 emphasizes decent and productive employment. However, this principally pertains to formal work. The joint country gender assessment stakeholder consultations stressed the need for sustainable livelihoods that can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks while not undermining the natural resource base.

As outlined in Chapter 1, efforts to promote economic empowerment in the Philippines are hampered by a domestic labor market that is characterized by chronic job shortages or a labor surplus. Jobs are not created at the same pace as the growth of the labor force, and the labor market does not absorb all women and men who are willing to work. From 2005 to 2006, the labor force grew by 314,000 people, while a net of 293,000 new jobs were created.[1] About half of all jobs are those that people have created for themselves. The unemployment rate is particularly high among young people (15–24 years old). Young women in rural areas and young men in urban areas seem to be the most affected. The situation for young people in the labor market has, however, improved over the last 4 years (Figure 1).

For young people, employability correlates with educational attainment. Peculiarly, the employment rate decreases with educational level, a pattern that is reversed only at the completion of a college degree (and then mainly for women). The explanation to this phenomenon can be sought in the types of available jobs. Many jobs (such as in agriculture and in the informal sector) do not require formal education. Meanwhile, as a result of the growing number of college graduates, many business establishments now require a college degree even for factory, sales, or clerical jobs. Yet, as a consequence of the widely perceived deterioration in the quality of education in the country (Chapter 5), many employers complain about having to train even college graduates. Chapter 2 explores the clear mismatch between formal training provided and the requirements of the available jobs.

This section contains chapters that deal with three core issues in women's economic empowerment: the opportunities and challenges offered by new or emerging industries or sectors on the one hand, and the situation for workers in the more traditional sectors on the other (Chapter 2); the interdependence between the informal and formal sectors, the importance in the Philippines' economy of women's unpaid work, and how all these contribute to the competitiveness of local industries (Chapter 3); and the flows and consequences of labor migration (Chapter 4).

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[1]   Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics (BLES). 2007 Yearbook of Labor Statistics. CD version. Manila: Department of Labor and Employment.

Chapter 2:

Employment in New and Old Workplaces

This chapter analyzes (i) the potential of jobs in "modern" workplaces, particularly in addressing the relatively high unemployment rate among young workers, and (ii) the traditional sectors that continue to employ large numbers of women and men and the issues that face workers in these sectors.

Following an export-oriented industrialization strategy, the Philippines promoted garments exports in the 1970s and electronics exports in the 1990s. Electronics manufacturing is based in export processing zones, where enterprises enjoy preferential taxes, while garment production is increasingly being subcontracted to home-based workers. Economic zones are scattered throughout the Philippines, but the majority are found just south of Metro Manila.

In 2005, enterprises in the four public economic zones (Baguio City, Bataan, Cavite, and Mactan), 30 private economic zones, and 4 information and communication technology parks and buildings together employed about 1.1 million workers, or 3% of the total number of workers in the Philippines. About 80% of the workers are young women. This implies that about 6% of the total female workforce is employed in economic zones.

The heaviest investors in the economic zones are electronic firms. They apparently prefer female workers because of their "appropriate temperament" and innate skills to accomplish meticulous tasks.[2] Employers have exploited Filipino women's patient and docile nature through forced overtime and high production quotas. By taking advantage of young female workers' perceived docility, employers and trade unions have disregarded women's rights to safer and better working conditions. Some women report experiencing gender-based discrimination in the form of sexual harassment, difficulty in obtaining maternity leave, and gender bias in promotions (men are preferred).[3] Low wages, excessive salary deductions, lack of production incentives, and absence of job security also characterize this type of employment.[4]

To protect women's interests in economic zones, government, labor and trade unions, and nongovernment organizations have conducted seminars on economic rights and various laws concerning women workers (such as the anti-sexual harassment law). In support of organized labor, the Philippine Government has conducted

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[2] National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW). 2004b. Report on the State of Filipino Women, 2001–2003. Manila: NCRFW.

[3] NCRFW. 2002. Draft Report on the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. Manila: NCRFW.

[4] Aganon, M., M.S. Ballesteros, R.P. Ofreneo, R.E. Ofreneo, and R.S. del Rosario. 1998. Strategies to Empower Women Workers in the Philippine Economic Zones. *Philippine Journal of Labor and Industrial Relations* XVIII (1 and 2): 106–159.

labor education for unionized and non-unionized establishments, and training and consultations on negotiation and advocacy leadership among women union leaders and workers.[5] Some of these initiatives have resulted in mechanisms and procedures for avoiding sexual harassment, and complaints have been filed. Monitoring, however, has to be sustained.[6]

New Workplaces

As in many of the newer workplaces, information and communication technology (ICT)-based industries show a clear preference for employing women. Yet women still tend to occupy mainly low-paid, lower-tier jobs. They are largely found in electronic assembly lines, answering phone calls or Internet inquiries in call centers, or encoding company data. However, an increasing number of women are breaking into the better-paid jobs in design, content processing, computer sales and servicing, and the like (Box 2.1). This factor, and the commitment of the Government of the Philippines and the private sector to developing the country's ICT sector, including the workforce required for this, bodes well for women who envision a career in ICT-related fields.

There is a strong growth in ICT-related industries. One example is medical transcription enterprises, where the number of firms grew from 30 to 50 between 2004 and 2006 and the number of employees increased at the same pace, from 3,000 to 5,000.[7] Based on surveys of sample en-

terprises,[8] women continue to outnumber men in these enterprises, although at a decreasing rate: from 78% in 2004, to about 65% in 2005 and 2006.[9]

While women have been carving out their spaces in the ICT sector, some industries continue to employ more men than women. For instance, digital animation employs 4,000 animators, who are distributed among 50 small and medium-sized enterprises. Based on a Pearl 2 survey, men account for 90% of the workers directly employed and 71% of subcontractors' employees. Similarly, men outnumber women three to one among professionals and technical workers in mobile wireless application development.

In response to global competition in the services industries and to increase the Philippine's share of the call center market, the Government of the Philippines has recognized that Filipino schools need to enhance their students' English language skills. It also recently increased the funds allocation for government training programs for the business process outsourcing industry.

Gender role stereotyping and gender tracking in education are old but live issues, as is further discussed in Chapter 5. Men still dominate in the engineering, mathematics, and computer sciences fields, making it easier for them to win higher-paid jobs in web design and digital animation (as entrepreneurs and workers); and jobs in smaller, ICT firms as in the case of digital animation and mobile wireless application. In contrast, women are overrepresented in "light" ICT courses that lead to occupations resembling secretarial work. Despite the presence of women in male-dominated courses and higher-echelon ICT jobs, most women remain in lower-paid ICT occupations.

[5]   NCRFW. 2004b. *Report on the State of Filipino Women, 2001–2003.* Manila: NCRFW.

[6]   Illo, J. 2002. Gender Discrimination and Labor Standards: Philippine Country Report. Report submitted to the Asian Development Bank and the International Labour Organization, Manila, June.

[7]   These figures do not take into consideration medical transcriptionists who source their jobs directly from their personal networks of medical doctors abroad, mainly in the United States.

[8]   The surveys were undertaken under the Private Enterprise Accelerated Resource Linkages Project Phase 2 (Pearl 2). Pearl 2 is a private sector development project of the Canadian International Development Agency.

[9]   Pearl 2. 2004. *State of the Sector Report on Selected Philippine ICT Sectors, 2004.* Makati: Pearl 2.

Box 2.1: Gender and "Female Spaces" in Philippine ICT Industry

Employment in the Philippine electronic manufacturing establishments is highly gender preferential. More men are in hardware development and web designing, and more women in software development, content process-ing, and technical support services. However, Filipinas have carved out a place for themselves in previously male-dominated industries; contrast this to women's efforts to create separate spaces along the line of gender segregation. The software development subsector involves about 300 firms or enterprises that employ about 10,000 programmers. About 53% of the workforce is male, but women outnumber men among the quality con-trol staff. Women also account for 37% of the 336 designers engaged by subcontractors (Pearl, 2004).

Sample gender division of labor and female spaces in the Philippine ICT industry		
Dominant gender in the workforce	Activity	'Female spaces'
Female	Assembly line of electronic firms Data encoding Secretarial/word processing	
Male	Hardware production Network engineering	Website designing Website applications
Equally male and female	Software development Content processing Technical support services	

Source: Saloma (2001).

ICT = information and communication technology.

Source: Illo, Jeanne Frances I. Gender discrimination and labor standards: Philippines Country Report. Submitted to the Asian Development Bank and the International Labour Organization, June 2002.

Box 2.2: The Growth of Call Centers

Call centers began operations in the Philippines in the 1990s. In 2000, there were two centers with 2,000 seats. Three years later, there were 52 call centers with 20,000 seats (National Commission on the Role of Fili-pino Women [NCRFW], 2004). Since then, many more centers have opened, not just in Metro Manila but in various parts of the country, with local government units actively competing for contact center investors. In mid-2007, the Contact Center Association of the Philippines estimated that 200,000 contact center professionals were working in different companies (Oliva, 2007). It further estimated that on the basis that 10,000 agents are hired every month, at least 500,000 contact center agents will be needed by 2010. Most workers will be employed in new companies and some will replace people leaving the industry (the

turnover rate is high at 19% per year). According to Contact Center Association of the Philippines, the challenge for the local industry used to be to attract business from other countries. However, the current challenge is to be able to service the requirements of a global industry for offshore contract center contracts and source quality labor (Oliva, 2007). By relaxing the ban against nighttime employment in call centers, the Government has enabled thousands of young women to compete for the new jobs. The evening-to-early-morning shift that cater to daytime calls or inquiries from North America come with occupational health hazards, however, such as sleep deprivation and caffeine dependence (NCRFW, 2004). Night-shift work can also strain relationships within families.

Other gender issues that are present in the new services industries include marginalization of women in decision making, male domination of ownership, male control of assets and properties related to new ICT, and health and safety problems posed by new workplaces. In particular, long working hours in 24/7 call centers generate health issues and familial pressures. Women producing ICT component parts, such as microchips, have experienced persistent reproductive health problems. Specifically, chemicals used in cleaning, stripping, and degreasing operations, such as methyl ethyl ketene, can affect the reproductive organs, menstruation, and pregnancy.[10]

Old Workplaces

The traditional service subsectors, which absorb millions of women workers, are known for low productivity and low wages, bad working conditions, and long working hours. Jobs are traditionally offered by monopoly traders, firms, and subcontractors that control access to markets, credit, technology, job security, and overall working environment. This reduces the workers' control over their working environment and conditions.

Textile and garment industries used to employ large numbers of women. Increased global competition in textiles from low-wage economies has caused the demise of many establishments in these industries. To maintain global competitiveness, many companies focused on cutting costs, including labor subcontracting. In this environment, it has become difficult for employees to exercise labor rights. Some garment manufacturing firms, mainly employing women, are said to routinely violate labor laws by paying wages below the minimum, having

workdays days of more than 10 hours, requiring forced overtime, and not addressing occurrences of sexual harassment. Employers keep workers compliant with threats of shutting down operations and relocating operations overseas.[11]

Outside of Metro Manila and a few other industrial centers, communities in the Philippines tend to be largely dependent on agriculture and a few commercial, manufacturing, and service establishments, which present varying opportunities for women and men. However, women's labor force participation rates are consistently lower than men's, principally because of the gender division of labor that assigns care of the home and the children to women, and because agricultural activities of women are routinely underreported.

Jobs in the agriculture have steadily declined. Between 1987 and 2005, the share of Filipino workers employed in the agriculture sector contracted from 48% to 36%. Women have been hit harder by the lost job opportunities in the sector. Their traditional jobs have been lost because of new technologies and production arrangements. As a result, many women have migrated to the cities in search of work.

In many agricultural communities, drought has wiped out job opportunities, and even landowning households could face food shortage. More enduring changes have also affected access to jobs and livelihood. For example, it has become more common to lease out land to agribusinesses or plantations in Mindanao. Despite assurances during contract negotiations, few lessors have been given regular employment on the plantations. This leaves farming households with just a small plot to till, and the challenge of making ends

[10] Del Prado-Lu, Jinky Leilani. 2005. *Gender, Information Technology, and Health.* Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press.

[11] Pineda, Ofreneo R., J. Bellin, and M. Hega. 2007. Women Garment Workers in Selected Philippine Economic Zones: Towards an Organizing and Advocacy Agenda in the Context of Trade Liberalization. Report submitted to the Committee on Asian Women, Manila.

meet with rental income of P9,000–P15,000 per hectare per year.[12]

The number of landless wage workers in the agriculture sector grew from 2.2 million in 2002 to 2.6 million in 2006. The rate of increase was higher among men than among women.[13] The conversion of (labor-intensive) corn or rice lands into sugarcane, papaya, or pineapple plantations also affects landless women and men who depend primarily on seasonal jobs on local farms. Depending on the labor contracting arrangements, workers can go for months without income. Workers feel forced to sign on with labor contractors for fixed periods at fixed rates of pay and for fixed farming tasks. However, sometimes workers are not paid for several months. Unemployed male farmers frequently undertake small-time farming on borrowed plots of land or apply for any available work. Women often offer their services as domestic servants, laundresses, cooks, or sales assistants in the town center, or in cities, near or far. Children may be pulled out of school to help support their families; girls usually by taking work as domestic helpers, boys by helping out on the farm or in the marketplace, often with physically heavy duties.

In households with small farms, a large majority of the unpaid family workers are women who perform a wide range of farm tasks. The only tasks that appear to be assigned almost exclusively to men are earth breaking and land clearing (plowing and harrowing) for most crops, harvesting of coconut trees and a few other perennials, and transporting the harvest from the field to the

storehouse. In fishing communities and fish farms, women's economic participation is usually limited to processing and selling the catch or harvest.

For small farmers, including agrarian reform beneficiaries, access to funds that could finance modernization, productivity improvement, and storage facilities is limited. There are agricultural programs designed to help farmers cope with these challenges, but they are limited in reach and tend to offer only short-term relief. Furthermore, women's contribution in many agriculture enterprises remains invisible. This has contributed to limiting the technical and financial assistance that Government and development agencies have extended to rural women.

Farmers who belong to operational farmers' groups have better access to information and capital, a large part of which is government financial assistance. Few of the members are women, and completely absent from these organizations are women and men who have no access to land at all, even as tenant.

There are women's associations (Rural Improvement Clubs) organized by local government's agricultural offices and in some communities, women have benefited from enterprise development programs of local and/or national government agencies. Some plantations have successful workers' organizations. However, the majority of landless women and men employed in agriculture do not belong to any organization that could protect their interest or fight for their rights, including demand for safety equipment when working with pesticides and other chemicals.[14]

Landless women and men from small farming households tend to focus on alternative sources of income, such as raising animals, nonfarming enterprises, and trading, as a means of supporting

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[12]   Field notes of Jeanne Frances I. Illo from focus group discussions held in early February 2008 with various groups of small farmers and landless workers in Mindanao as part of an ongoing research project on labor in agriculture and fisheries. See J. F. I. Illo, Labor in Agriculture and Fisheries, a research report submitted to Oxfam Hong Kong, 19 June 2008.

[13]   Illo, J.F.I. 2008. Labor in Agriculture and Fisheries. A research report submitted to Oxfam Hong Kong on 19 June 2008; based on calculations using data reported by the Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics (BLES 2007a).

[14]   Ill effects of exposure to pesticides and other chemicals can cause different forms of cancer, as well as pregnancy-related complications and congenital defects with unborn babies, and lead to increased child and maternal mortality.

Box 2.3: A Community Struggles to Come to Grips with Child Labor

In 2003, two young boys working on a remote mango plantation in Barangay Adalon outside Cebu City were spraying the leaves of a huge mango tree with pesticides when it started to rain hard. Wearing no protective gear and unaware of the danger of unsafe use of pesticides, they took shelter under the same tree, only to get soaked with a mixture of rainwater and chemicals. The two boys subsequently died from the harmful effects of the chemicals. Nevertheless, the practice of child labor in the mango plantations in the community continued.

Things began to change in 2006, when the Share a Child Movement, a child-focused nongovernment organization in Cebu City, launched an awareness-raising project in the community. Together with members from the political unit of the barangay, Share a Child Movement field staff met with several groups of residents to educate them about the risks their children face when they engage in hard work. They were also informed of their children's right to go to school and parents' obligation to protect children from abuse, neglect, and exploitation. Volunteer leaders were trained to locate working children, get them back to school, and to ensure regular attendance.

To date, the community has sent 126 working children back to school. Family watch groups were formed to look after children's education, and promote and enforce work arrangements and just compensation for adult workers so that families are not forced to send their children to work. The school has offered to assign a government-paid teacher to handle alternative learning classes, mainly for child workers and those at risk of working at an early age. The barangay has also included child labor issues in the village development plan.

Source: Share A Child Movement, Philippines, Cebu City, at the CGA consultation held in Cebu City on 22 January 2008.

their families. While capital is often cited as a main issue, limited market and business knowledge also constitute big challenges (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, 2006). Chapter 3 contains a more in-depth discussion of enterprises. Government programs for livelihood and enterprise development seem to be of limited reach, particularly for poorer communities where local government units have very small budgets even for regular extension activities.

To support job creation, the Government of the Philippines has indicated that it will seek to amend the Labor Code of the Philippines (Presidential Decree 442, as amended) to recognize flexible work arrangements—subcontracting, flexi-work, flexi-wage—especially in business process outsourcing and cooperatives. Reconciling this stance with the Government's avowed support for the decent work agenda poses a challenge. Labor unions and work-ers' organizations in the Philippines are skeptical about flexible work arrangements, which they find inconsistent with a decent work agenda.[15]

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[15] Labor unions in the Philippines have been relatively successful using economic-industrial strategies of collective bargaining, as well as political strategies of influencing legislation. Unionized workers enjoy paid leave benefits and generally have their social security premiums and social security schemes provided for by the employer. Over the last 20 years, the number of unions has increased tenfold, to over 17,000—in 2005, they had 1.9 million members. The manufacturing and transportation sectors have the largest number of labor union membership, and men outnumber women (65% against 35% in 2004). Partly, this can be explained by hiring practices in the women-dominated retail industry, where workers are generally hired on a short-term basis preventing them from getting regularized and, therefore, unionized. Women are also underrepresented among union officers (24%) and presidents (15%). Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2007a.

Recommendations

A number of issues need to be addressed by local and national government, civil society organizations, donor agencies, and other development partners to address old and new issues in both emerging and traditional workplaces.

Recommendations to address supply-side constraints:

(i) **Policy development:** Provide institutional and policy support for women's unpaid care work to offer women effective options concerning their participation in livelihood and/or market activities.

(ii) **Financing:** Invest in improved education quality at all levels, making schools more inclusive and responsive to the needs of both students and the labor market.

Related to modern workplaces:

(i) **Policy implementation, capacity:** Eliminate gender-based discrimination in recruitment, hiring, work assignments, and promotion.

Recommendations related to both modern as well as traditional workplaces:

(i) **Policy implementation:** Enforce core labor standards and safe working condi-

tions, including on plantations or commercial farms.

Recommendations in connection with the agriculture sector, the most traditional of all workplaces in the Philippines:

(i) **Policy development:**
  (a) Support alternative social protection mechanisms, and provide social protection for agricultural workers, including landless workers and small farm producers.

  (b) Support women's claims to land under any extension of the agrarian reform program.

(ii) **Policy implementation, advocacy:** Eliminate child labor on farms and plantations.

(iii) **Financing:** Invest in the improvement of agricultural productivity—including support to agrarian reform beneficiaries—that will enable agricultural producers to improve their income and to pay their workers higher wages.

(iv) **Services, capacity:** Support the creation of high-value enterprises for rural women.

(v) **Capacity:** Help organize landless workers to ensure enforceable labor contracts.

Chapter 3:

Informal Work and Entrepreneurship

Nine out of ten enterprises in the Philippines are microenterprises and operate in the informal, unregistered, and unregulated segment of the economy. While most provide service or provisions exclusively to the local population, many have ties with export-oriented small and medium-sized enterprises under subcontracting arrangements. Part of the advantage of microenterprises and, to a certain extent small and medium-sized enterprises, lies in the fact that they generally require low capital investment, are flexible in terms of market and economic adjustments, and play a key role in developing export opportunities. Subcontracting has prevented many jobs from moving overseas, but it has simultaneously "informalized" employment, especially for women. Informalization reduces the workers' access to social protection. In 2006, own account and unpaid family workers accounted for almost half of all employed women and men, which indicates the importance of self-employment as a source of economic support for Filipino households.

Micro- and small enterprises are the machines of job creation in the Philippines. In 2003, the census on business establishments reported that, together with medium-sized enterprises, they accounted for 99.6% of all business establishments in the Philippines (91.8% microenterprises, 7.5% small enterprises, and 0.4% medium-sized enterprises). They absorb two thirds of the employed workforce (38% in microenterprises, 23% in small

enterprises, and 7% in medium-sized enterprises) (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, 2006). The figures tend to be higher outside of the economic and industrial centers.

Informal and unpaid work. The low-income, low-technology informal economy employs a larger number of workers than all modern industries. An estimated 15.5 million people, or 49% of the labor force, work in the informal sector.[1] In 2006, there were about 6.3 million own-account workers and unpaid family members working in manufacturing, trade and repair, and transportation (Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2007). Of these, 84% were entrepreneurs and 16% were unpaid family workers. Among microentrepreneurs, women outnumber men 2 to 1 in trade

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[1]   Department of Labor, 8 May 2008. Available: www.dole.gov.ph/news/details.asp?id=N000000540.

Box 3.2: Expanding an Enterprise in a Traditionally Male-Dominated Field

Rosemarie is a 42-year-old rural entrepreneur, who owns and runs three enterprises: a junkyard for scrap metal, glass bottles, and plastic containers; a vulcanizing shop; and a combined motorcycle spare parts and dry goods store. She employs about 20 persons, mostly cousins and siblings, all of whom she provides with daily lunches (prepared by her husband) and lends money to for emergencies.

Set up a few years ago, Rosemarie's scrap metal business has a working capital of P20,000 a day, a truck for hauling the metals and plastics, a passenger jeep, a multicab, and about seven *trisikads* (three-wheeled pick-up vehicles) that are used to pick up scrap materials that she buys. The junk yard, which used to measure 300 m², has grown to now occupy 1,000 m².

To expand her business, Rosemarie has borrowed money. Her first creditor charged a monthly interest rate of 15%. Now Rosemarie is instead a customer of Pag-Inupdanay (a nongovernment organization with a lending program for poor women in rural areas of Negros Occidental), where the monthly interest is 2.5% and she has borrowed P100,000. The implication is that her business outlook is even brighter.

Source: Case study by Sally Bulatao, contributed by Quidan Kaisahan, Bacolod City, at the country gender assessment consultation in Cebu City.

and repairs, while men dominate in transport (1.10 million men versus 0.03 million women).

Why choose informal? Women tend to be present in enterprises that allow them to keep close to home and/or to do at least part of their household work (such as cooking) while running a business. Small stores are preferred because they produce a constant stream of funds, which smooth out consumption demands. Male entrepreneurs engage in a wider array of enterprises, although most

of them are in trade, operating transport facilities, or offering repair services (Yu, 2002). There are exceptions, as evident in cases from Bacolod (Box 3.2) and Kalibo (Box 3.3).

A government survey of the urban informal economy in 1995 asked why people join the informal economy. Three out of five men responded that they considered these enterprises the most viable economic opportunity. Women, on the other hand, wanted to bring additional income to their household in a way that was easy to combine with other family duties. Only 9% of the interviewed people turned to informal work because they could not find other remunerative employment (Yu, 2002).

According to the same survey, incomes of self-employed and microentrepreneurs in the informal economy vary widely by sector. Food service entrepreneurs in Metro Manila make twice the minimum wage. Informal workers engaged in insurance sales, real estate, or business services—all male-dominated fields—also tend to earn higher salaries. The opposite holds true for workers engaged in subcontracted work, such as garment construction (mostly women), tricycle operation (primarily men), and operation of *sari-sari* stores (mainly women) and repair shops (mainly men) (Yu 2002).

Apart from low earnings (Box 3.4), workers and microentrepreneurs in the informal economy face other challenges. One major concern is social protection (see Chapter 7 for a detailed discussion).[2] There are laws extending membership in the Government's social security system and the health insurance scheme to self-employed microentrepreneurs. However, these laws have yet to be fully implemented and do not cover other workers in the informal sector.

[2] In contrast, workers in the formal economy are covered by a number of protective labor legislation (minimum wage, leave benefits, 13th-month bonus, safety in the workplace, and welfare services) and a law criminalizing sexual harassment in training and workplaces. Compliance has been persistently low.

Box 3.3: Creating a Gender-Fair Small and Medium-sized Enterprise: The Case of La Herminia Weaving, Inc.

The craft of weaving has stereotypically been associated with women. In fact, the cultural association is such that most men would not want to be seen anywhere near a loom. So for La Herminia Weaving of Kalibo, Aklan province, to have men as weavers of its handicrafts is an impressive accomplishment. But what really gives La Herminia a competitive advantage is how it has used this uniqueness as an opportunity to introduce innovations into what has always been a tradition-bound industry.

Traditionally, piña fibers are woven on looms that produce 30-inch-wide cloth. After some brainstorming among the men, however, La Herminia was able to construct a loom that produced 60-inch-wide cloth. In doing so, La Herminia has become the only weaving company in Kalibo to have this capability, which has given it a significant competitive advantage.

La Herminia Weaving was able to capture innovative ideas simply by opening up its workforce to nontraditional workers, thereby giving it access to a new set of perspectives.

Source: Arturo M. Ilano, 2008. *Getting Ahead by Being Gender Fair: Making a Business Case for Gender Equality.* Quezon City: Professional Institute for Management Advancement, Inc.

Box 3.4: Unpaid Work and the Formal Economy

Unpaid, voluntary care work reduces the cost of maintaining the labor force because as the cost of feeding, clothing, and keeping people healthy is kept low. It also extends to work that women and men do in their own farm or business. Like unpaid housework, unremunerated time spent in own enterprise generally keeps the price of goods and services of informal work low. It also makes most microenterprises competitive.

Food service entrepreneurs who run micro-operations provide office, school, store or factory workers—who belong to the formal economy—with lunches and snacks at half or one third of the price of food available from building cafeterias or fast-food chains. The cheap food from "jolli-jeeps" (as they are called in Makati city) can be eaten out of plastic bags while standing in front of the food stand. It is cheap because overhead is kept low, the entrepreneur (usually a woman) does not draw a salary, and the workers (overwhelmingly women) are paid low wages.

To enhance social protection of women and men in the informal sector and to secure long-term sustainability and contribution from the sector to the country's development, the Government is aiming to increasingly integrate the informal economy in the formal economy. For example, there are regulatory policies and ordinances regarding taxation and licensing for microenterprises. In the joint country gender assessment stakeholder consultations, participants pointed out the importance of balancing these policies with incentive policies for microentre-

preneurs. Furthermore, it was emphasized that microenterprises tend to have little or no margins to survive bureaucratic delays. Thus, registration and certification policies, quality controls, etc. must be enforced efficiently and not to undermine the viability of the businesses.

Challenges Facing Owners of Microenterprises and Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises

Access to capital. Limited access to capital constrains the growth potential for many microenterprises and small and medium-sized entrepreneurs. Male entrepreneurs generally obtain better access to credit and lending terms from informal channels and contacts. In contrast, microlending

institutions generally give preference to female entrepreneurs. Yet, the majority of microentrepreneurs are not being reached by government outreach programs and, despite provisions in the law, no special credit programs have been created for women entrepreneurs.[3] Also, the awareness of laws regulating micro- and small enterprises tends to be extremely limited among entrepreneurs and loan-givers, as well as among officials.[4] For women microentrepreneurs, low capitalization of their enterprises sometimes results from their preference for keeping operations small-scale, so as not to interfere with the care of home and family.

Microfinance programs are often divorced from a wider strategy of promoting women's human rights and a broader agenda that covers economic, social, and political empowerment. The narrow focus on credit of some microfinance programs, coupled with low loan levels, poses obstacles to growth for many microenterprises. This contributes to restricting them to low-return and highly labor-intensive economic activities. A lengthy application process for microfinance loans also increases the cost of acquiring this type of financing, resulting in women seeking out more readily accessible informal credit, even if interest rate is higher. Small and medium-sized enterprises usually go through the conventional bank system for their capital needs, where loans are contingent on ownership assets being offered as collateral. As fewer women than men own assets this creates gender differences in lending. Furthermore, financial institutions often require women—even those who have property to offer as collateral—to provide their spouse's signature on loan documents, in effect having their husbands guarantee their loans.

Constraints to growth. Home responsibilities tend to constrain women from participating in trade fairs, organizations, and networks that could open up new business opportunities outside the immediate community. For the same reason, it may also be difficult for microenterprises to handle bulk orders. Women also tend to focus on a very narrow band of activities or enterprises with low barriers to entry, which results in overcrowding of the market segment and lower monthly earnings compared with businesses controlled by men (Illo, 2002). There are also institutional obstacles that decrease the competitiveness and growth of microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises, therefore limiting job creation in this sector. For instance, the business environment is biased against small firms because it is characterized by noncompetitive market practices and expensive, poor quality infrastructure.

Some of the problems are being gradually addressed. For instance, the Department of Labor and Employment has programs that seek to increase labor productivity, and the Department of Trade and Industry has various training and assistance schemes for microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises. One of them makes possible wholesaling of microfinance funds.[5] Other specialized agencies and nongovernment organizations provide different financial and nonfinancial support to microenterprises (NCRFW, 2004).

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[3] The Act Providing Assistance to Women of 1995 (RA 7882) assures that 5% of credit funds of government financial institutions are to be set aside for a special credit window for women, to improve loan availability.

[4] Over the last decade, the Government has passed several laws to stimulate the growth of microenterprises and/or small and medium-sized enterprises. Of these, the most crucial acts that provide for gender and development are Assistance to Women Engaging in Micro and Cottage Business Enterprises and for Other Purposes Act of 1995 (RA 7882); Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act of 1997 (RA 8425); Barangay Micro Business Enterprises Act of 2002 (RA 9178); Magna Carta for Small Enterprises Act of 1991 (RA 6977) amended by (RA 8289) in 1997; Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1992 (RA 7192); General Appropriations Act, passed annually.

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[5] The People's Credit and Finance Corporation is Government owned and mandated to oversee the wholesale distribution of microfinance funds.

Box 3.5: Tapping into Social Capital Networks

It can be challenging for women to establish the necessary contacts to start a business, especially those in the traditionally closed communities of Muslim Mindanao. A key factor to the success of ZSP Enterprises, a pioneering seaweed trading firm in the coastal province of Zamboanga del Sur, has been the founder's successful utilization of her social capital, in terms of friends, family, and other contacts. Zhuvaida Pantaran, a Muslim woman, persuaded her distant relatives in the seaside community of Pagadian City to supply her with seaweed. She also used her strong networking skills to link up with seaweed processing firms in Cebu, thereby completing the value chain for her business and the marketability of her products.

The approach has proved successful. ZSP Enterprises has turned into one of the area's largest seaweed traders and become instrumental in developing the seaweed industry in the province. By now, the company has expanded beyond Zhuvaida's own initial social capital. Zhuvaida's seaweed suppliers come from several communities, making in possible for ZSP Enterprises to meet the growing demand for its product.

Source: Ilano, A.M. 2007. *Getting Ahead by Being Gender Fair: Making the Business Case for Gender Equality. A Case Folio.* Manila: Professional Institute for Management Advancement, Inc. (PIMA) Foundation for the Canadian International Development Agency.

In the Philippines, class may actually be a stronger determinant than gender for many of the issues concerning small and medium-sized enterprises. Women owners and managers from the privileged classes may lack awareness and appreciation of the gender-related challenges that face their less-privileged female employees, such as multiple burdens in the productive and reproductive spheres which lead to absenteeism and lower productivity, sexual harassment, gender stereotyping, and possible inequity in pay scales (Engracia, 2006).

Recommendations

General recommendations to improve the situation for workers in the informal sector include

(i) **Policy development:** Extend social protection coverage to hired workers engaged in informal work. This should include mechanisms to facilitate payment of premiums and claims, and support to community-based social protection schemes.

(ii) **Policy implementation:** Review and streamline the implementation of policies aimed at extending affordable and effective social protection to microentrepreneurs, self-employed workers, and women who provide unremunerated goods and services to their families.

(iii) **Services:** Introduce community- and workplace-based early childhood care and development services.

Recommendations to enhance performance of both microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises:

(i) **Policy development:** Pass the law for strengthened protection for workers in the informal economy that is being discussed in congress, amend the protective and facilitating law for microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises, and ratify ILO Convention No. 177 on restrictions on home work.

(ii) **Services:**
   (a) Publish and disseminate information about procedures for business registration, bidding for service delivery contracts, licensing, taxation, etc. in simple terms and in the major Philippine languages.
   (b) Support the establishment of local one-stop shop fronts that provide entrepreneurs with information about government policies and

procedures, product design ideas, market links, trade-fair information, business service organizations, and environment-friendly and cost-efficient production and packaging technologies.

(c) Facilitate processes under which microentrepreneurs can access bulk buying and low-cost inventories.

Recommendations specifically relating to microentrepreneurs:

(i) **Policy implementation:** Implement pro-microenterprise policies that benefit the poor and protect the workers, and harmonize the various policies on microenterprises.

(ii) **Services:** Upgrade financial and nonfinancial assistance to microentrepreneurs and support microfinance schemes that incorporate credit, as well as address health and other social protection needs of microentrepreneurs.

(iii) **Data:**
(a) Distinguish between poor microentrepreneurs (those with business assets worth less than P150,000) and those classified by the Barangay Micro Business Enterprise Law as "micro" (nonpoor microentrepreneurs with assets in the millions of pesos).
(b) Assess the effect of microfinance programs on women and their economic empowerment.

Recommendations specifically relating to small and medium-sized enterprises:

(i) **Policy development, policy implementation:** Create a gender-sensitive business policy environment through review and revision of sector-specific plans, strategies, and policies.

(ii) **Policy implementation:** Improve workplace conditions by providing protective gear, installing safety measures, and establishing procedures for sexual harassment allegations.

(iii) **Services:** Introduce women small and medium-sized enterprise owners to new tools of linking with the market, such as e-commerce.

(iv) **Capacity:**
(a) Disseminate industry and market information among different stakeholders, to enable them to negotiate better terms for themselves and their workers.
(b) Support women entrepreneurs to venture into businesses and generate better prospects of success by providing them information, skills training, and encouraging them to participate in trade fairs and other marketing-related activities.
(c) Undertake an analysis of the gender-related constraints to competitiveness in the supply chain in order to identify catalysts for enhanced productivity.

(v) **Advocacy:** Involve civil society organizations in educating small and medium-sized enterprise owners, business service organizations, and industry associations about gender issues.

Chapter 4:

Labor Migration

In response to difficulties in finding employment that pays enough to support a family, many Filipino women and men, and also girls and boys, seek paid work outside of their home communities. There are domestic and international labor migration streams. Women and men from poorer regions migrate to larger cities, such as Metro Manila and Cebu City, in search for work. Simultaneously, comparatively high salaries abroad and the Government's active promotion of international labor migration have given rise to one of the most institutionalized labor export programs in the world.[1] As outlined in Chapter 1, there are more than 8 million Filipinos overseas.

Men have been regarded as the traditional breadwinners of Filipino families (Boyd 2003). However, the combination of Filipino women's relative autonomy in household decision making and export-led industrialization has increased social acceptance and encouragement of female migration.[2] Also, many of the paid jobs for overseas migrant workers favor women.

Women dominate the domestic labor migration market. As outlined in Chapter 2, the information and communication technology and call center industries prefer employing women, and domestic household work is almost exclusively the domain of women. While the majority of international labor migrants are still men, working as seafarers or construction workers, the growing overseas' demand for health professionals (notably nurses) and household helpers has led to increased numbers of women labor migrants. Data from the Philippine Overseas Employment Agency shows that from 2004 to 2006, women made up the majority of land-based international labor migrations. Taken together, domestic and international migrant workers constitute the largest proportion of women in the Philippine labor force.

Domestic Migration

According to the Department of Labor and Employment, most domestic labor migrants work in private households, and about 85% of household workers are women. There are an estimated 2.5 million domestic helpers in the Philippines (The Visayan Forum). Domestic helpers in the Philippines usually come from the poorest regions, such as the Visayas and Bicol (Table 4.1). They are most often 15 to 24 years old, with little education and prior work experience. A 2005 International

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[1]   In 2006, the top 10 destinations for new hires and rehires were (i) Saudi Arabia; (ii) United Arab Emirates; (iii) Hong Kong, China; (iv) Kuwait; (v) Qatar; (vi) Taipei,China; (vii) Singapore; (viii) Italy; (ix) United Kingdom; and (x) Republic of Korea (Philippine Overseas Employment Agency, 2006).

[2]   Oishi, Nana. 2002. Gender and Migration: An Integrative Approach. In *Working Paper 49*. San Diego: The Center for Comparative Immigration Studies, University of California.

Table 4.1: Profile of Local and Overseas Filipino Domestic Workers

Item	Local Domestic Workers	Overseas Domestic Workers
Age	15–24	25–34
Education level	Elementary school graduates	High school and college graduates
Work experience	Little prior work experience	Broad range of work experience
Originating region	Visayas, Bicol, Southern Tagalog	National Capital Region, Southern Tagalog, Ilocos, Cagayan Valley, Central Luzon, SOCSARGEN, Western Visayas

NCR = national capital region; SOCSARGEN = South Cotabato–Sarangani–General Santos.

Source: Sayres, Nicole. 2005. *An Analysis of the Situation of Filipino Domestic Workers.* Manila: International Labour Organization.

Labour Organization study on domestic work considers poverty as the number one factor motivating women to take employment in a household. However, there are also pull factors, such as higher remuneration and the lure of overseas migration for urban domestic helpers.

Local domestic workers are the least protected among employees in the Philippines and the nature of their jobs makes them prone to illegal recruitment, trafficking, exploitation, and child and forced labor. In November 2007, the Senate of the Philippines approved a bill aimed at protecting the right of maids to decent working conditions and wages, and also aimed at protecting them from abuse, trafficking, and exploitation. The Visayan Forum, a local nongovernment organization working with victims of domestic and international human trafficking, strongly advocates the imminent passage of this bill by the House of Representatives.[3]

International Migration

The pattern of international labor migration from the Philippines started in the 1970s when the then President Ferdinand Marcos, faced with huge levels of foreign debt and the oil crisis, sent construction workers to the Middle East to curb rising unemployment levels and avoid social unrest that could threaten the administration. The Philippines is now regarded as one of the world's primary labor exporters, an occurrence that spurned an industry of placement and recruitment agencies.

Just like domestic migration, international migration is gender specific depending on the industry. This may partly result from a tendency toward gender bias in occupations in the Philippines and partly from gender-biased demands of foreign employers.[4] Hence, when the demand for construction labor in the Middle East boomed in the 1970s, men dominated the international migration. Filipino seafarers remain in high international demand—in 2006, 97% of all seafarers deployed were men.[5] The domestic work industry employs the biggest number of Filipino women working overseas. This is a change from the 1980s, when Japan's entertainment (sex) industry was the main employer of Filipino

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[3]   Senate Bill No. 1662 was approved by the Senate of the Philippines on 5 November 2007. Among others, the proposed legislation seeks to provide additional benefits and protection to household help, known as *kasambahay* in the vernacular. It is awaiting approval by the House of Representatives.

[4]   Tyner, J.A. 1997. in Carling, Jorgen. 2005. Gender Dimensions of International Migration. Global Migration Perspectives. Global Commission on International Migration. Geneva. p. 1–26. Available: www.gcim.org/mm/File/GMP%20No%2035.pdf. p.9

[5]   Raw data from the website of the Philippine Overseas Employment Agency. www.poea.gov.ph.

women.[6] The Philippine Overseas Employment Agency data indicate that domestic workers are mostly engaged in Middle Eastern countries; Hong Kong, China; and wealthy Southeast Asian nations, such as Singapore and Malaysia. The increased demand for domestic workers is attributable to the oil boom in the Middle East and strong economic growth of newly industrialized countries in Southeast Asia. These factors gave rise to a middle class in these countries with sufficient income to pay for domestic work.

Another large group of women migrants are professional health workers. Changing demographics, increasing demand, and educational deficits in North America, Europe, and the Middle East have created a huge international demand for English-speaking nurses. Data from the Philippine Overseas Employment Agency indicate that from 1992 to 2003, close to 88,000 nurses were employed abroad. In 2001 alone, more than 13,000 nurses left the country (Box 4.1). There is also a growing phenomenon of Filipino women who migrate as brides (Box 4.2).

Migrating Filipinas shift their caregiving responsibilities to other members of their family, particularly the female elderly, their older female children, or a domestic helper who generally comes from a poorer family and a poorer part of

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6   De Dios, Aurora Javate. 2001. Behind Glamour, Glitter and Yen: Dynamics, Processes and Consequences of Filipina Entertainers' Migration to Japan. Dissertation presented to the College of Social Science and Philosophy, University of the Philippines, Manila. Unpublished dissertation.

Box 4.2: From Mail Order to Text Message Brides

Most international marriages are no doubt for love. But in the Philippines (as elsewhere), the phenomenon of "mail order brides" is not uncommon. In the absence of employment prospects and with families to care for, many women view marrying a foreigner as an easy ticket to an overseas life with steady remittances. With the advent of the Internet, chat rooms, and text messaging, the marriage migration numbers are on the rise. In the past 10 years, the number of marriages between Filipino citizens and other nationalities has more than tripled, from 7,819 in 1998 to 24,954 in 2006. It is now estimated that more than 300,000 Filipino citizens (92% of whom are women) are married to foreigners, mainly from the United States, Japan, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Republic of Korea.

Data from The Commission on Filipinos Overseas shows that the women marrying men from East Asian countries tend to be younger and less educated than

their husbands and it is not uncommon for there to be a 40-year or more age difference. Reports indicate that more women apply for "marriage visas" to Japan as a result of Japan reducing its official demand for entertainers.[67]

In Canada, Filipino women's rights advocates are involved in ensuring that Filipino brides are not victims of abuse. As part of its advocacy, the Philippine Women's Center in Vancouver recently screened a movie about mail order brides. The message was that women who marry foreigners that they do not know face enormous risks. Many of the men live in remote areas and are unsuccessful with women from their own culture, who they feel are spoiled and have too many freedoms. Instead, they want women with "traditional" family values who, once in the country, have nowhere to turn and are completely at their mercy.

Source: Filipinas Marry Foreigners to Flee Poverty, in *The Asian Pacific Post,* 17 January 2008.

the country and whose salary is a fraction of what a domestic helper makes overseas.

The Consequences of Migration

Naturally, the extensive domestic and international migration from the Philippines has consequences for the migrants and their families, as well as for the economy at large. There are two interpretations of how migrants are affected. One is that migrants are victims and that Filipinos, especially women, are compelled to leave their homes and take substantial risks to support their families.[8] The other view,

which is not necessarily conflicting, is that economically imposed migration does not exclude the migrant's personal growth.[9] As work abroad tends to be very well remunerated compared to salaries in the Philippines, migrant workers often experience increased economic empowerment and autonomy relative to their home community and family, which may continue when the migrant repatriates to the Philippines. Given the higher number of women migrants, this may have far-reaching implications for the empowerment of women in a community.

Vulnerability. Absence from social networks and familiar structures increases the vulnerability of migrating women and men, and not least

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7   National Country Gender Assessment Stakeholder Consultation held on 1 April 2008 in Tagaytay City.

8   Licuanan, P. in Carling, Jorgen. 2005. Gender Dimensions of International Migration. Global Migration Perspectives. Global Commission on International Migration. Geneva, Switzerland, pp. 1–26. Available: www.gcim.org/mm/File/GMP%20No%2035.pdf

9   Tacoli, Cecilia. 1996. Cited in Aguilar, Filomeno Jr. Beyond Stereotypes: Human Subjectivity in the Structuring of Global Migrations. In *Filipinos in Global Migrations: At Home in The World?* edited by Aguilar, Filomeno Jr. 2002. Manila: Philippine Migration Research Network and Philippine Social Science Council.

girls and boys. Due to patriarchal structures and workplaces that are hidden from public scrutiny, women and girls are more likely than men to be subjected to exploitation, and economical and sexual abuse. (For a further discussion on gender-based violence, see Chapter 7.) The risk is enhanced in countries, such as Saudi Arabia, where governments do not regulate the private sphere in their legal systems (Piper, 2003: 32). Exploitation exists at all of the stages of the migration process. Huge placement fees, the so-called "fly now, pay later" scheme, and illegal recruitment reportedly rampant in the rural areas[10] ensnare women into debt bondage and prevent them from reporting exploitation or going home (Box 4.3). There is also evidence of employers confiscating their employees' passports, thereby limiting their mobility. The risk of human trafficking also increases with migration. In 2003, the United Nations (UN) Global Programme Against Trafficking in Human Beings in the Philippines reported that women were lured into the sex industry through deceptive information about the nature of jobs and the working conditions abroad.[11]

In 1995, the Congress of the Philippines passed a law containing various protective mechanisms for overseas Filipino workers, such as legal assistance and repatriation.[12] The Government also recently introduced a policy preventing local placement agencies from collecting placement fees from their recruited maids. The policy aims to minimize the economic risks to which internationally migrating household workers are exposed. It compels placement agencies in recipient countries to collect placement fees from employers and share this cost with the recruiters in the Philippines. This arrange-

The exorbitant placement fees charged to migrant workers is a perennial problem, forcing them into bondage with their employers as they must repay the amount using several months of their salaries as their collateral. A common fee for placement as a maid in Hong Kong, China is P80,000–P100,000, to be compared with a monthly salary of about P24,000 (much higher than the newly mandated minimum wage that is P325 to P362 per day for the National Capital Region).[68] A maid must work at least 4 months to recover the placement fee. The placement fee is usually split on a 60–40 basis between the local recruiter and a similar agency in the recipient country.[69] These figures are supported by a study by the Scalabrini Migration Center on pre-departure problems of migrant workers. In view of the high cost of placement fees, migrant workers in general are non-poor or at least not the poorest of the poor. They have surplus capital or have access to people who do. Given that the average annual income of families in 2006 was about P14,000, the placement fees are beyond the means of poor families.

ment could lower the risk for bondage, especially of domestic helpers. The impact of the policy, however, remains to be evaluated.

Family and sociocultural issues. Migrants also pay a high personal price for their improved economic situation because they do not get to see their children, spouses, and families. Long periods of absence may spur infidelities and separation[15] and also contribute to the spread of sexually

[10] National Country Gender Assessment Stakeholder Consultation held on 1 April 2008 in Tagaytay City.

[11] Institute for Labor Studies. 2004. *Sex Trafficking of Women: The Response of the Philippine Government.* Manila: Department of Labor and Employment.

[12] The Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995 (RA 8042) was passed after the execution of Flor Contemplacion, a Filipina domestic helper in Singapore. She was convicted of murdering a Filipino nanny and her ward.

[13] In the Philippines, the minimum wage is pegged differently in each of the country's regions depending on the prevailing cost of living in the area.

[14] Rosario, Alfredo. *New Policy on Maids' Overseas Employment.* Manila: The Manila Times, 15 February 2007.

[15] Edillon, Rosemarie. 2007. *The Effects of Parent's Migration on the Rights of Children Left Behind.* Manila: Asia-Pacific Policy Center and UNICEF.

transmitted infections. Children also pay the price. They are deprived of their parents and tend to perform worse at school, particularly in the absence of their mothers.[16] On a positive note, many Ilocano husbands have adapted to the absence of their spouses by becoming primary caregivers.[17]

From a societal perspective, there are positive as well as negative implications of overseas migration. The growth of the Philippine economy can be partly attributed to the transfers from abroad. In 2007 alone, remittances from overseas Filipino workers reached $14.45 billion, representing 10% of the country's gross domestic product.[18] But while the remittances of migrant women and men contribute to the economy and to individual families, there is a risk of brain drain and "care drain". Migration of educated health professionals exacerbates existing problems of the health system in the Philippines, which risks compromising the quality of human capital needed to sustain economic development. And while migrants may afford to keep their children in school longer, their poor academic performance resulting from their parents' absence may also weaken the future human capital of the country.

Some studies stress the multiplier effect, as international remittances increase demand for goods and services,[19] but others find that remittances have little impact on improving poverty levels because they are spent mainly on consumption rather than in income-generating activities.[20] There are also studies that claim that extensive international remittances may present 'moral hazard' to the economy, as the incentive for remittance dependent families to participate in the economy goes down.[21]

Responses to Migration Challenges

To enhance protections for migrant workers, the Congress of the Philippines passed a law in 2006, which gave the Philippine Overseas Employment Agency strengthened regulatory functions.[22] Under its new regulatory powers, the agency encourages migrants to transform their savings into productive economic activities. Together with the private sector, the Government gives awards to migrant workers who have successfully launched entrepreneurial activities. The Department of Labor and Employment has also launched new guidelines on hiring household workers aimed at improving the quality and stock of domestic helpers, while simultaneously enhancing their working conditions and preventing abuse and exploitation. The program includes a certification process with a skills assessment and subsequent training by the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority for those who fail. The objective of the program is to educate women and men for higher-end housekeeping jobs in hotels, restaurants, and other establishments.

[16] Batistella G. and M.C. Conaco. 1996. Impact of Migration on Children Left-Behind. *Publius: Asian Migrant* 9 (3): 86–91.

[17] Pingol, Alicia Tadeo. 2001. *Remaking Masculinities: Identity, Power, and Gender Dynamics in Families with Migrant Wives and Househusbands.* Diliman, Manila: University Center for Women's' Studies, University of the Philippines.

[18] The Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas explains that remittance data is underreported because some migrant workers remit money through non-bank means or personal networks. Transfers made through cell phone money loading are also not captured by this data.

[19] Asian Development Bank (ADB). 2004a. *Enhancing the Efficiency of Overseas Filipinos Workers Remittances.* Manila: ADB.

[20] Kapur, Devesh, 2003, Bagasao, Ildefonso 2003, World Bank, 2003 as cited in Opiniano, A. Jr. 2004. *Our Future Beside the Exodus: Migration and Development Issues in the Philippines.* Manila: Friedrick Ebert Stiftung, p. 30.

[21] Chami, Ralph, Connel Fullenkamp, and Samir Jahjan, Are Immigrant Remittance Flows a Source of Capital for Development? Working Paper WP/03189, International Monetary Fund as cited in Opiniano, A. Jr. 2004. *Our Future Beside the Exodus: Migration and Development Issues in the Philippines.* Manila: Friedrick Ebert Stiftung (p. 29).

[22] The Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995 (RA 8042).

Parents are increasingly selecting for their children educational streams that qualify them for foreign employment. Nursing is becoming a popular second degree among women and men who are not in the healthcare field. The market has kept up with the strong demand for nursing and caregiving education and many schools complement their training with English language courses, or courses in other languages, such as Japanese (a market that Filipino nurses have yet to enter).[23] In response to low passing rates of graduates in the nursing board, the Commission on Higher Education has stopped the establishment of more nursing schools.

Recommendations

It is imperative that the feminization of migration (both domestic and international) be addressed at all levels and by different stakeholders.

(i) **Policy development:** Strengthen the legal framework for the protection and improved welfare of domestic helpers, most of whom are young women who migrate from the provinces.

(ii) **Financing, capacity:** Increase the budgetary allocations and undertake capability building exercises (gender sensitivity training) for the government agencies that handle migration, such as the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration, Philippine Overseas Employment Agency, and the Department of Foreign Affairs.

(iii) **Services:** Include family members and especially children in services from pre-departure to reintegration.

(iv) **Advocacy:**
   (a) Harness remittances for productive investment and sustainable livelihood opportunities for women so that migration becomes a choice rather than a necessity.[24]
   (b) Advocate the passage of international instruments that impact on the welfare of women migrants in labor-receiving countries. These include the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and other relevant conventions of the International Labour Organization.
   (c) Harness the power of local and international nongovernment organizations in advocating for the protection of migrant workers and providing services to them.

(v) **Data:** Investigate the extent of "de-skilling" among international migrants.[25] A reliable database of migrants and their skills mix is needed to verify anecdotal evidence of teachers working as domestic helpers and nurses as caregivers or nursing assistants abroad, for example. This is also important for evaluating the brain drain aspects of international migration, particularly of health professionals.

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[23] In 2008, the Philippine Senate is deliberating the Japan–Philippines Economic Partnership Agreement, which includes a provision on the entry of Filipino nurses to Japan.

[24] Participant recommendation from the National Country Gender Assessment Stakeholder Consultation, held in Tagaytay City on 1 April 2008.

[25] This echoes a recommendation in Encinas-Franco, Jean. 2007. The Gender Dimension of Health Professional Migration from the Philippines. In *Third Report on the Advancement of Women in ASEAN.* Jakarta: ASEAN Secretariat, pp. 73–102.

Section II:

Social Development

Growth is inclusive when the economic opportunities created by growth are available to all, particularly the poor, and that growth helps to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. Sustainable and equitable growth, social inclusion, empowerment, and security are the ultimate outcomes of inclusive growth. Growth cannot be inclusive without social development, gender equity, and the fulfillment of women's human rights, including expanded capabilities through access to quality education and health services. Educated, healthier people are able to contribute to growth and break the cycle of poverty. The Government of the Philippines, the women's movement, and other civil society groups agree on the importance of fulfilling women's human rights as a basis for inclusive growth and achieving the Millennium Development Goals (Box S2.1).

The Framework Plan for Women identifies three strategic areas to protect and fulfill women's rights. These are (i) improving education and training; (ii) taking control of health, nutrition, and population management; and (iii) fighting violence against women. Social development in the Philippines thus requires an improvement in the quality of and accessibility to basic social services. Social protection policies and programs (including social insurance, social assistance, and labor market programs) help families manage risks in the face of shocks, such as death of a breadwinning family member, job loss as a consequence of economic recession, or natural disaster. Gender-based violence constitutes a serious threat to girls and women and remains all too prevalent in the Philippines.

Chapter 5 discusses basic social services, including education and health, with a focus on nutrition, sexual and reproductive health and rights, and HIV/AIDS. Chapter 6 explores the definition of social protection and presents different initiatives that have been introduced to protect women and men in the Philippines. Chapter 7 deals with gender-based violence in the private and public spheres, the increased risks women face as a consequence of migration (when they move away from their social networks), and societal responses to the gender-based violence.

Box S2.1: The Philippines' International Commitments to Human Rights

Social and human development and human rights are inextricably linked. The importance of human rights is reiterated in the Millennium Declaration and the Millennium Development Goals. The year 2008 marks the 60th Anniversary of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which enshrines the fundamental rights and freedoms of all human beings, regardless of gender, race, and religion. The Philippines has ratified the seven UN human rights treaties and consensus documents, such as the International Labour Organization conventions, the Beijing Platform for Action, the Millennium Declaration, and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).

The Philippines submitted its 5th and 6th progress reports to CEDAW in August 2006. The CEDAW Committee's concluding comments emphasized the full and effective implementation of the Convention as indispensable for achieving the Millennium Development Goals in the Philippines. The conclusions request the Philippine Government to (i) prioritize legislative review and change; (ii) strengthen the authority, capacity, and resources of the national machinery for the advancement of women; (iii) address gender stereotyping and violence against women; (iv) reduce women's vulnerability to trafficking and unsafe migration and tackle its root causes; (v) accelerate women's participation in political life and decision making, particularly Muslim and indigenous women; (vi) evaluate the impact of free trade agreements on the socioeconomic conditions of women and address the high unemployment rate of women; (vii) enhance women's access to health care, particularly to sexual and reproductive health services; (viii) introduce legislation permitting divorce; and (ix) pay special attention to providing capabilities, access to resources and opportunities, and security of rural, indigenous, and Muslim women in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao.

Chapter 5:

Basic Social Services

Access to basic social services, such as quality education and health care, is a prerequisite for the fulfillment of basic human needs and rights of women, men, girls, and boys. But despite human rights conventions and agreements on the Government's obligation to implement gender equality programs, women in the Philippines still struggle to claim their rights and entitlements. This is particularly demonstrated by women's continued lack of access to some basic social services, notably maternal health care, and sexual and reproductive health and rights.

Chapter 1 introduced the 2007 *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals*, which acknowledges the shortfall in basic social services delivery. Given the present state of affairs, the report considers that targets for primary education, nutritional intake, maternal mortality, and sexual and reproductive health services will be difficult to achieve by 2015. The spread of HIV/AIDS is also a concern, but a lack of comprehensive and accurate data means that no conclusions are drawn in the midterm progress report.[1]

The Framework Plan for Women (FPW) promotes gender-fair education that integrates gender topics and principles in school curricula and educational materials, improvement of school facilities, and strengthening access of women to informal education. The FPW further calls for health sector reforms, including (i) increasing women's access to basic services, including comprehensive women's health and nutrition services; (ii) upgrading the quality of comprehensive health services for women across their life cycle; (iii) increasing the awareness of health and caring behavior among women and men; and (iv) developing comprehensive information, education, and communication materials on women's health.

Governance for health and education. To address challenges in education and health, the Department of Health has adopted a Health Sector Reform Agenda, while the Department of Education (DepEd) has developed a Basic Education Sector Reform Agenda. Except for education, the delivery of basic social services is devolved to local government units (LGUs). The Local Government Code of 1991 (RA7160) defines the powers, roles, and responsibilities of local officials. The code also provides for the creation of local bodies, such as health and school boards. The Governance of Basic Education Act of 2002 (RA 9155) promotes the decentralization of education management to school divisions and schools, and the sharing of

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[1]   Although the available data suggests that the spread of HIV/AIDS in the Philippines is low and slow, the Philippine National AIDS Council recently characterized the HIV/AIDS situation in the country as "hidden and growing". UNAIDS. 2005. United Nations Implementation Support Plan 2005–2009 for the Philippine Response to HIV/AIDS, unpublished.

responsibilities with LGUs. Even if education is not decentralized, some LGUs, such as the Naga City LGU, have made the local school board a vehicle for improving the public school system by promoting governance reforms at the local level. Naga City's education outcomes have improved.

Education

Filipino families traditionally place a high value on education as a means to achieving socioeconomic mobility. The 1987 Constitution provides that education is a basic right of every Filipino citizen. Formally, primary education is free, as is secondary education at the municipality level. The Government is obliged to ensure that the direct, indirect, and opportunity costs do not preclude access to primary education. This is important to prevent child labor and promote education for all. Thus, the minimum age of employment in the Philippines, which is 15 years, equals the school-leaving age.

In reality, however, education is not free because families must bear costs, such as meals, transport, school uniforms and supplies and, in some cases, tuition fees, even for public schools. These expenses are frequently too high for poor families. Parent–Teacher Community Associations are often mobilized to raise funds for improving school facilities. School dropouts for economic reasons are all too common.

Department of Education (DepEd) policies to reduce gender biases in education. The Philippine Plan for Gender Responsive Development identified gender stereotyping and gender biases in the Philippine education system. In response, the Government ordered the integration of gender issues into the school curriculum to promote gender fairness and sensitivity and to eliminate sexism and gender stereotyping.[2] DepEd has

developed six core messages on gender-fair education that include (i) shared parenting; (ii) shared home management; (iii) shared decision making; (iv) equalized opportunities; (v) equalized representation and enhanced participation of women in public affairs (electoral politics, bureaucracy, nongovernment organizations [NGOs], and business); and (vi) elimination of all forms of violence against women. According to DepEd, these concepts have been used to evaluate educational curricula, textbooks, and other instructional materials since 1995.[3] Also, in collaboration with the Commission on Human Rights, NGOs, and teacher education institutions, DepEd has trained elementary and secondary school teachers from all regions of the country on peace and human rights and how to teach human rights modules. Facilitator manuals have been produced and distributed in selected elementary schools, as well as high schools.[4]

Sexism in the education system. As part of a 10-year review conducted of the Beijing Declaration and Platform For Action in 2005, women's NGOs reflected that the issue in the Philippines is not so much equal access to education by gender but rather the quality of education on offer (especially for girls and boys in rural and remote areas), and sexism in the education system. There are reported cases of teachers sexually harassing students and school supervisors sexually harassing subordinates. There are also informal reports that pregnant girls are forced to leave school regardless of whether they are in their final year of schooling and about to graduate.[5] The women's NGOs

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[2] DepEd. 2000. Memorandum 423, series of 2000.

[3] Comments from DepEd and Cleofe Velasquez-Ocam, GAD focal person, at the National Stakeholder Consultation in Tagaytay City on 1 April 2008.

[4] www.chr.gov.ph/MAIN%20PAGES/services/hr_promo1_ero.htm.

[5] Center for Women's Studies, University of the Philippines. 2007. Progress reports on Enhancing the Capacities of Women NGOs and Networks to Monitor the Implementation of CEDAW to the UNIFEM CEDAW South East Asia Programme. Manila: University of the Philippines.

questioned whether teachers' training initiatives have incorporated core gender messages from DepEd or actively applied the gender-fair curricula and materials generated from initial gender-responsive models. They also reported that some teachers, instructional materials, language used, and class room strategies still manifest gender biases and that efforts to combat sexual harassment and violence against girls are not evident, except in connection with human rights education.[6]

The provision of a healthy, safe, and adequate teaching–learning environment for children has been constrained by public financing limitations. DepEd's share of the national budget has steadily declined over the years, from 16% in 1998 to only 12% in 2007. This is well below the internationally recognized 20% investment benchmark. The real value of per capita spending in basic education has declined from P5,074 in 2000 to P4,402 in 2006. To make matters worse, a substantial part of the education budget is allocated for personnel services, i.e., teacher salaries (85.5% in 2006), leaving less than 15% for development expenditure on items, such as teacher training, and development and dissemination of instructional materials.[7]

Access to schools. DepEd reports that as of school year 2006/2007, 267 barangays did not have elementary schools due to unavailable school sites. There were also four municipalities without a high school.[8] The quality of education can be severely affected when teachers must face up to a day's travel to reach schools in remote villages. This sometimes results in actual class days being

reduced from 5 to 3 days or less per week. In areas prone to conflict, such as the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao, teaching time may be even less frequent due to security risks for teachers. The reduced classroom interaction significantly contributes to lower achievement rates for Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao students than in the rest of the country. There are high rates of dropouts among Muslim girls in secondary education, perhaps the result of the cultural practice of early marriage.[9]

Dropouts are increasing. The number of children who is not in school is increasing, which is an alarming trend. Of the primary school-age population, 16% is not in school. At the high school age, the figure is 42%. This translates to some 6 million children who are out of school. Generally, these children come from poor areas and poor families, or otherwise disadvantaged situations. Children from indigenous communities in remote areas, children with special learning needs, street children, working children, and children in especially difficult circumstances (for example from conflict or emergency areas) are more likely to lack access to education. This means that a significant number of children are excluded from the benefits of education and employment opportunities in the future.

Primary Education

The primary education cycle is 6 years. It is free and compulsory and is accessible at the barangay level (except in the 267 barangays that do not have an elementary school). In 2005–2006, the net enrollment rate in elementary education was 84.4% (85.4% for girls and 83.6% for boys). This represents a decline from the 2002 level of 90.3%

6   Illo, J., and R. Ofreneo, eds. 2005. Beijing +10: Celebrating Gains, *Facing New Challenges.* Report of Philippine NGOs. Manila: United Nations Population Fund.

7   Bangsal, Novel, and Eleanor Mamaril. *2006 Budget Briefer.* Congressional Planning and Budget Department, Philippines. October 2005.

8   DepEd. 2007. Factsheet 2007. Manila: DepEd. Available: www.deped.gov.ph/cpanel/uploads/issuanceImg/factsheet2007(Aug31).pdf.

9   This observation was made by Muslim women's nongovernment organization participants at the National Stakeholder Consultation in Tagaytay City on 1 April 2008.

and sets back the 2015 target of universal access to education and goal of gender in education in the Millennium Development Goals.[10]

Low cohort survival and completion rates. According to DepEd statistics, of all children entering grade 1 in the Philippines, nearly one-third (31%) will leave before finishing grade 6. Most children who dropout of school do so in the first two grades, and the dropout rates are higher for boys than for girls. About 44% of children graduate from primary school within 6 years, while the rest (25%) average 9.6 years to complete primary education due to repetition of grade levels. In school readiness assessments (i.e., to determine whether children are sufficiently prepared for grade 1) boys on average score lower than girls. The higher dropout rate and relatively poor performance of boys can also be attributed to the pressure on boys to contribute to the family by working in farms, factories, markets, piers, or the streets. In conflict areas, boys are also recruited to join the armed movement.

The quality of elementary education is declining. Only six of 1,000 grade 1 entrants will graduate from grade 6 with a satisfactory score (75% or above) in English, mathematics, and science.[11] DepEd reports that achievement rates for sixth graders average about 60%. Across all elementary grade levels, the lowest average scores are for science and mathematics. The national average teacher–student ratio at the elementary level is

one teacher for every 35 elementary students. But the teacher–student ratio is much higher in some parts of Metro Manila and other densely populated urban areas.

The school system tends to be characterized by a rigidity that makes education less inclusive, especially for children at risk of dropping out. In its 2007 Philippine Situation Analysis, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) finds that the teacher-centered and lecture-driven teaching style fails to sustain children's interest, especially boys. While many children cope, some perform below their potential or dropout of school. Further, as girls are usually socialized to be patient and obedient, they are better equipped to survive in rigid, structured classroom settings than boys, in whom intractable behavior is frequently tolerated. The rigid teaching style tends to stifle movement, active interaction, and fast pace—elements that could be more stimulating for both boys and girls (UNICEF Philippine Situation Analysis, 2007).

Secondary Education

Secondary education is a 4-year cycle. It is free but not compulsory. From early 2000 to 2005/2006, the net enrollment rate at the secondary level remained approximately the same, just under 60%. At this level, however, the gender gap is more pronounced (63.5% enrollment for girls compared to 53.7% for boys).[12] At the secondary level, 24.8% of all entrants graduate within the required 4 years. The dropout rate is about 38.9% (again more boys than girls dropout). Students who repeat one or more grades average 6.7 years to obtain their high school diploma.

Secondary schools are usually managed at the municipal level. This greatly reduces access for girls and boys from poor families. On average, there is only one municipal high school for every

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[10] NEDA. 2007a. *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals.* Manila: NEDA, and Basic Education Statistics as of 31 August 2007, www.deped.gov.ph. Note: In the Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals there are inconsistencies on pages 16–17 and 28. Footnote 3 on page 28 of the report explains that the redefinition of elementary age now includes 6–11 year olds effective 2003 (as compared to the 2000 figures that start with 7 year olds).

[11] Republic of the Philippines, National Education for All Committee. 2006. *The Philippine Education for All 2015 Plan.* Manila: National EFA Committee.

[12] National Economic Development Authority (NEDA). 2007a. *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals.* Manila: NEDA.

five barangay elementary schools. As mentioned earlier, four municipalities did not have a high school in 2006/2007. Clearly, there is a limit to absorbing all primary school graduates. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child Committee has expressed concern about the low rate of enrollment in secondary education and the limited access to secondary education, particularly for children living in remote barangays.

The quality of education is also decreasing at the secondary level. DepEd reports that achievement rates of fourth year students in public secondary schools averaged 44.3% in 2005/2006, with the lowest scores in science (38.0%) and Filipino (40.5%). For every teacher there are 40 students, an average that rises in highly urbanized areas.[13]

Tertiary Education

The general poor results in primary and secondary education are mirrored at the tertiary level. In 2004–2006, the passing percentage in professional board examinations, conducted by the Professional Regulation Commission, was 35%. Medical doctors, nutritionists, and dieticians achieved the best results; accountants and auditors achieved the worst results; Elementary and secondary education teaching professionals are also among the worst performers.[14] The general trend of girls outperforming boys is neutralized in tertiary education. In 2000–2003, men performed better in the professional board examinations than women and in 2004–2006, the passing percentage was approximately the same for women and men.[15]

According to the 2007 *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals,* women made up 53.8% of total enrollments in 2004–2005, demonstrating their continued dominance in higher education. Despite the fact that gender-related topics are integrated in basic education modules, there is persistent gender stereotyping in the choice of courses or skill areas. Professions, such as teaching, social work, and nursing, are seen as "appropriate for girls" as an extension of their nurturing and reproductive roles. This may be one of the reasons why women tend to cluster in the fields of education and teacher training, and medical therapy fields (although business administration also absorbs a large number of women in tertiary education). The most common fields of tertiary education for men are engineering, business administration, mathematics, and computer science. Within the same field (such as medical therapies or business administration), women and men tend to specialize in different areas. Women, for instance, take nursing, pharmacy, and midwifery, while men take medicine and physical therapy. As discussed in Chapter 2, the implication is that women tend to train for less well-paid jobs. Few women or men select natural science as their preferred area, which lowers the likelihood of new labor opportunities being created in the sciences field.

As discussed in Chapter 4, higher rates of pay overseas have increased demand for courses that enhance prospects of winning jobs in foreign countries. The number of institutions training nurses has increased dramatically over the past years, as have the tuition fees. However, not all training facilities offer an education that is sufficient for passing the professional board exam. The investment of time and money, therefore, represents not only a possibility but also a big risk (Box 4.2 in Chapter 4).

The Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) manages technical and vocational education and training in the Philippines. TESDA enrolls more than 150,000 students each year. They provide training in traditional

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[13] DepEd. 2007. *Basic Education Factsheet.* Manila: DepEd. Available: www.deped.gov.ph/cpanel/uploads/issuanceImg/factsheet2007(Aug31).pdf.

[14] Virola, Romulo. 2007. *Something you need to know about sex education.* Manila: National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB).

[15] NSCB. 2007. *Gender Statistics.* Manila: NSCB. Available: www.nscb.gov.ph/gender.

trades (such food trades and dressmaking) as well as nontraditional courses, such as welding, general electronics, rural barangay electricity, auto electricity. In 2001, about 40% of the enrollees were women. This improved to an almost equal distribution between women (50.7%) and men (49.3%) in 2004–2005.[16]

While higher than in most countries, these figures disguise at least two gender issues. Women tend to congregate in traditional programs, such as sewing, arts and crafts, and food services, all of which tend to lead to low-paying jobs. A second issue pertains to the failure of women trainees to acquire trade credentials. In 1998, 7,400 women took the national trade tests after completing their studies, as opposed to 26,700 men. Only about 33% of the women passed the trade test, as compared to 39% of the men.[17] Of the 1,500 women graduates of TESDA's Women's Center from 1998–2003, only 13% specialized in a nontraditional field for women (such as welding, electronics and air-conditioning).[18]

Challenges in Education

Basic education, especially primary education, is supposed to be generally accessible in the Philippines. But gender, location, and economic status of the family all determine actual accessibility. There has been a steady and worrying decline in participation and cohort survival rates—key indicators of an education system's effectiveness. Moreover, disparities between gender, geographical areas, and ethnic groups have widened. The decrease in per capita public spending on basic education

in real terms has contributed to the diminished quality of education and has shifted the economic burden to the families. In effect, the budget for basic education is growing too slowly relative to the population growth rate. Furthermore, funds for state institutions of higher education and technical and vocational training have been on a decline. This risks further marginalizing children from already disadvantaged backgrounds.

A strong emphasis on improving girls' education, however justified, has negatively affected boys' access to education—their enrollment rates and achievements are lower than those of girls. The causes of this trend need to be investigated, and mitigating measures designed. Gender-differentiated effects of early childhood socialization, impacts of poverty and of prevalent learning systems are some factors for consideration.

The Filipino education system does not meet the needs of some groups of women and men. For example, educational reforms do not respond to the problem of illiteracy among older women in rural areas. Also, while the Government runs functional education and literacy programs throughout the country, there is little information available on how these programs are conducted; how they affect women and girls, including those from indigenous groups; and what core messages are being conveyed regarding gender relations.

Despite a law on Early Childhood Care and Development[19] and evidence that organized early childhood care and development can improve school readiness and reduce dropouts, children's

16   National Economic Development Authority (NEDA). 2007a. *Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals.* Manila: NEDA.

17   De Dios, Aurora Javate. 2003. *State of Filipino Women Report, 2001–2003.* Manila: University of the Philippines.

18   National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW). 2004. *Report on the State of Filipino Women, 2001–2003.* Manila: NCRFW.

19   ECCD Act of 2000 (RA 8980) defines ECCD (Early Childhood Care and Development) as the "full range of health, nutrition, and early education and social services programs" provided holistically for young children from birth to age 6 to promote their optimum growth and development. It provides for basic public ECCD services such as day care service, home-based programs, parent education, and home visiting programs. Day care centers can also serve as a sanctuary for the abused, neglected, or exploited; care for children of working mothers; and be a referral and support system for pregnant mothers.

general well-being, and women's participation in the workforce, there is still little appreciation for this among parents and local officials. The low access to early childhood care and development can partly explain the high dropout and repetition rates among boys in grade 1. Recommendations to address challenges in education follow at the end of Chapter 5.

Health and Nutrition

Improving women's health is important not only as an end in and of itself but also because a woman's health influences the well-being and development of her children and the rest of her family.

Malnutrition. Widespread malnutrition aggravates the health problems of women, men, girls, and boys in the country.[20] Poverty, poor feeding practices, and declining access to social services contribute to higher rates of child malnutrition—the result is children who are underweight and suffer from protein energy malnutrition. Females tend to receive a smaller share of food than male members of the household. There is a general lack of access to safe drinking water and proper sanitation, and worm infestation is common. These factors affect close to 6 million children below age 6, further exacerbating the problem of poor nutrition.

According to the National Nutrition Survey of 2005, about one quarter of all preschoolers were underweight, though the incidence has been falling.[21] The diet of many pregnant women is grossly inadequate. In 2005, 28% of pregnant women were estimated to be nutritionally at-risk (up slightly from 27% in 2003). In 2006, about 40% of pregnant women were anemic, with levels exceeding 50% in some provinces in Mindanao. Underweight pregnant women are more likely to deliver low birth weight babies who, in turn, become vulnerable to malnutrition, poor health, and delayed psychosocial development. The prevalence of iron deficiency anemia is high among pregnant (51%) and lactating (46%) women.[22]

About 16% of 11–19 year olds are underweight—this factor has hardly changed for more than a decade—and it is higher among boys than girls. Among boys there was a slight decrease from 21.6% in 1993 to 20.5% in 2005 but the incidence of underweight girls increased by 1.6 percentage points from 9.5% in 1993 to 11.1% in 2005.[23]

A seemingly contradictory trend and a manifestation of disparities is emerging in the form of overweight and obese children, adolescents, and lactating women, which again points to poor eating habits. The rise in the prevalence of overweight Filipinos cannot be ignored as it brings with it a heightened risk of cardiovascular diseases and other health problems. It highlights the importance of promoting a nutritious diet, a healthy lifestyle, and the benefits of exercise.

Access to health services. The 1987 Constitution takes a comprehensive approach to the development of health care services, particularly for the more vulnerable groups in society, including women and children. Access to quality health services, however, is hampered by high costs, inefficiencies in health care management, and social and cultural barriers. Hospitals are very unevenly distributed and medical professionals (doctors

[20] The severity of the malnutrition problem is most emphasized in Calabarazon, Bicol region (Region 5), Central Visayas (Region 7), Eastern Visayas (Region 8), Zamboanga Peninsula, Northern Mindanao (Region 10), South Cotabato–Sarangani–General Santos or SOCSARGEN (Region 12), and the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao.

[21] The prevalence has gone down from 30.6% of all preschoolers in 2001 to 24.6% in 2005. Provided that the rate of improvement continues, the Millennium

Development Goal of 17.25% in 2015 is likely to be met.

[22] 2003 Food and Nutrition Research Institute data.

[23] UNICEF. 2007c. *UNICEF Situational Analysis.* Manila: UNICEF, Chapter 2.

and nurses) are mostly concentrated in urban areas, such as Metro Manila. The international migration of medical professionals is taking its toll on health services provided, especially in rural areas (see Chapter 4). The quality of the services in many provincial hospitals has also deteriorated as a consequence of widespread devolution of health services. Access to hospital-based care, which in many places is the only health service available, requires the acquisition of Philippine Health Insurance Corporation (PhilHealth) insurance cards (see Chapter 6 for a discussion on social protection). Health care services are sometimes used as instruments of political patronage, rather than as matters of right.

Maternal and infant and child mortality. Frequent pregnancies and childbirth have a negative impact on women's health. They increase the risk of maternal mortality and low birth weight infants. Many women of reproductive age in the Philippines are considered to be at high risk of unsafe pregnancy as a result of having had four or more pregnancies, closely spaced pregnancies, being ill, or being under the age of 18 or over the age of 35.

The maternal mortality rate (MMR) remains alarmingly high. For every 100,000 live births, 162 women die during pregnancy and childbirth, or shortly after childbirth, according to the 2006 Family Planning Survey. With an average of about 2 million births per year, this means eight women die every day. The MMR has shrunk very slowly (1.4% annually) since 1990, when the Philippines was listed among the 42 countries contributing to 90% of maternal deaths worldwide. To achieve the Millennium Development Goals' target of 52 deaths per 100,000 live births by 2015, the Philippines must reduce its MMR by at least 7.5% annually.

Early childhood deaths are closely linked with maternal health and nutrition, and access and quality of obstetric care and services. The death of mothers seriously jeopardizes the life prospects of surviving young children. The Government of the Philippines expects to achieve the Millennium

Development Goal of reducing the under-5 mortality rate by two thirds between 1990 and 2015. Yet, the number of deaths during the neonatal and postneonatal periods remains high. The decrease in under-5 deaths has decelerated, and there are wide variations across regions and conditions.[24]

Sexual and reproductive health and rights. Access to sexual and reproductive health services is a fundamental precondition for women's empowerment and access to opportunities. Access to family planning allows women to balance the size of their family and timing of pregnancies with their need and desire to earn income. A woman's ability to control her fertility also allows her to seek additional education or training which, in turn, can lead to better job prospects. It also permits her to participate in other desirable activities, such as community affairs. Several of the international conventions and agreements to which the Philippines is a signatory stress that sexual and reproductive health and rights are fundamental to promoting gender equality and development.[25] Yet nearly half of all pregnancies in the Philippines are unintended.[26]

There is no separate national law or policy in the Philippines explicitly addressing sexual and reproductive health and rights. The 1987 Constitution

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[24] The Philippine Midterm Progress Report on the MDGs recommends a progressive approach to the 10 regions with proportion of underweight children exceeding the national average, for example, Ilocos Region, the region of Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan (Region 4-B), Bicol region, Western Visayas (Region 6), Central Visayas, Eastern Visayas, Zamboanga Peninsula, and Northern Mindanao (Region 10).

[25] The Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993), and Millennium Development Goals (2000).

[26] Singh, Susheela, F. Juarez, J. Cabigon, H. Ball, R. Hussain, and J. Nadeau. 2006. *Unintended Pregnancy and Induced Abortion in the Philippines: Causes and Consequences.* New York: Guttmacher Institute.

Table 5.1: Maternal Mortality Rates from 1993 to 2006 and the Millennium Development Goal Target

Indicator (number of cases per 100,000)	NDS 1993	FPS 2006	MDG Target 2015
Maternal Mortality Rate	209	162	53
Percent reduction from 1993		22	75
Infant Mortality Rate	38	24	-
Percent reduction from 1993		*37*	-
Under-5 Mortality Rate	64	32	21
Percent reduction from 1993		50	67

FPS 2006 = Family Planning Survey 2006; MDGs Target = Millennium Development Goals Target; NDS = National Demographic Survey.

Sources: National Statistics Office (NSO) and Macro International, 1993 National Demographic Survey; NSO, 2006 Family Planning Survey (FPS).

provides that the state has the obligation to defend "the right of spouses to found a family in accordance with their religious convictions and the demands of responsible parenthood." In January 1998, the Department of Health issued a policy directive with 10 priority areas of reproductive health: (i) family planning, (ii) maternal and child health and nutrition, (iii) prevention and management of abortion and its complications, (iv) prevention and management of reproductive tract infections and HIV/AIDS, (v) education and counseling on sexuality and sexual health, (vi) breast and reproductive tract cancers and gynecological conditions, (vii) men's reproductive health, (viii) adolescent and youth health, (ix) violence against women and children, and (x) prevention and management of infertility and sexual dysfunction.[27]

The issue is only peripherally addressed in the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP) 2004–2010, which emphasizes maternal health, women's health, nutrition, and "responsible parenthood." By 2010, the MTPDP aims to reduce the annual population growth from 2.36% to 1.9% through responsible parenthood, respect for life, and well-spaced pregnancies (3–5 years). However, there are no national government policies or programs to support these goals. Instead,

the responsibility for the provision of reproductive health services is left to local governments. The MTPDP states the right of couples to choose family planning methods in accordance with their religious beliefs, ethical values, and cultural backgrounds. It clearly emphasizes the Government's opposition to abortion.

Limited availability of contraceptives. The availability of contraceptives in the Philippines is limited. The Government has been largely unable to provide modern contraceptives of reliable quality at prices that low-income women can afford. The National Demographic and Health Survey of 2003 indicated that 17% of married Filipino women of reproductive age had unmet family planning needs and encountered barriers to limiting and spacing their pregnancies. In 2005, the prevalence rate of modern contraceptives was 33% and another 16% used other contraceptive methods. Poor women have a greater need for family planning but are the least able to access reproductive health care services.

As a result of the decentralization of health services, including those of family planning, local government units can basically define their own reproductive health policy, depending on inclination and bias. There is evidence of local officials not only discouraging but outright banning the use of modern methods for family planning, such as

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[27]   DOH. 1998. Administrative Order 1-A. Manila: DOH.

condoms, the contraceptive pill, intra-uterine devices, and surgical sterilization. In some local public health facilities, women have been denied information and services on the full range of contraceptive methods (Box 5.1). The Government's policies of limiting access to modern contraceptive methods have led to increased numbers of unwanted and unplanned births. On average, according to the 2003 National Demographic and Health Survey, Filipino women have 3.5 children. This is one child more than what they say they want. Without access to contraceptives, many women are forced to resort to clandestine abortions to terminate their pregnancies. Some 3.1 million pregnancies occur each year. Of these, 15% result in induced abortions, 31% in unplanned births, 39% in planned births, and 15% in spontaneous abortions (i.e., miscarriage).[28] Unsafe abortion is the fourth leading cause of maternal deaths.

Unintended pregnancies jeopardize a woman's health. Too many children cause economic strain on families which, in turn, can adversely affect the nutritional intake and schooling of the children. It can also strain relationships and increase gender-based violence. Although there has been a slight improvement in access to reproductive health services for married women in the Philippines, from 49% in 2001 to 50.6% in 2006, the Millennium Development Goal target of 80% by 2015 is still very far away.

There are major disparities in access to health care across regions and across classes. Fragmented administration of health care services, the high costs of maintaining public hospitals, and the poor sharing of medical expertise and resources between central and provincial health centers are some of the factors that constrain women's ability to access appropriate health care. With the limitations and withdrawal of funding of reproductive

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28   Singh, Susheela, F. Juarez, J. Cabigon, H. Ball, R. Hussain, and J. Nadeau. 2006. *Unintended Pregnancy and Induced Abortion in the Philippines: Causes and Consequences.* New York: Guttmacher Institute.

Box 5.1: Filipino Women and Men Sue Manila Mayor for Ban on Contraception

In January 2008, 20 Manila women and men filed a case against the mayor of Manila, arguing that the city's 8-year ban on contraception had severely and irreparably damaged their lives and health as well as the majority of women in Manila City.

The plaintiffs claimed that families were driven to extreme poverty due to unintended pregnancies and that women's health was jeopardized. One of the plaintiffs has had six children since the ban made it impossible for her to continue taking birth control pills. Another woman was advised not to have any more children due to a rheumatic heart condition. Nonetheless, she was refused a sterilization procedure. She has since had four more children, endangering her health with each pregnancy and delivery.

The plaintiffs argue that the ban against contraceptives not only violates the 1987 Constitution, but also violates several international treaties that the Philippines has ratified, most significantly the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). CEDAW requires governments to guarantee women the right to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children, and the means to enable them to exercise that right.

Source: Center for Reproductive Rights, 2008. *Filipino Women and Men Sue Manila Mayor For Ban on Contraception*. Available: www.reproductiverights.org/pr_08_0130FilipinoSueManila.html

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health programs, women's sexual and reproductive health and rights have been seriously affected.

Sexual and reproductive health problems are particularly acute for adolescent girls and young unmarried women. They have the highest levels of unmet need for contraception. Lack of open discussion about sex and sexuality in families and communities puts them at high risk of unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections,

including HIV/AIDS. Many people, including health workers, believe that discussion on the use of condoms with young people promotes promiscuity. Young women and men, therefore, must rely largely on getting basic information from peers and the mass media. Of the sexually active adolescents, approximately 70% reported not using any method of protection against pregnancy or sexually transmitted infections.

HIV and AIDS

The prevalence of HIV/AIDS among the adult population (15–49 years old) in the Philippines is still low at less than 0.1%. The total number of reported HIV/AIDS cases from January 1984 to February 2008 is 3,153.[29] In 2005, the World Health Organization and the Department of Health estimated that the number of Filipinos living with HIV/AIDS was close to 12,000. In 2007, the estimate fell to 7,490 owing to a change in methodology.[30] The government's efforts to contain the spread of HIV/AIDS began in the late 1980s (Box 5.2).

Reported cases tend to be concentrated among people in prostitution and returning overseas Filipino workers (OFWs), who account for some 34% of the cases (up from 28% in 2002). OFWs are required to undergo HIV screening for employment purposes, thus the seemingly high number of infected OFWs. The same applies to registered women in prostitution, who routinely undergo check-ups at social hygiene clinics. The general public and other most at-risk populations,

on the other hand, rarely undergo screening owing to a number of factors, including fear and lack of knowledge. Data indicates that young adults, men who have sex with men, people in prostitution and their clients, injecting drug users, OFWs, and the partners of all these groups are particularly vulnerable to HIV infection.

The years 2006–2007 saw a clear trend of men dominating newly reported HIV cases; there were five new cases of men for every woman among non-OFWs in 2007. The highest increase in infections is in the 20–24 year old age group in Metro Manila, particularly among men who have sex with men. A study on HIV vulnerability among out-of-school boys shows that exposure to risks may start at an early age.[31]

The threat of an AIDS epidemic in the Philippines remains real. The ingredients for an epidemic are reported to be widely present in the country. All the known routes of HIV transmission have been recorded. Condom use remains low, even among the most at-risk populations. Under the 2007 Integrated HIV Behavioral and Serologic Surveillance system, only 65% of women and 50% of men in prostitution reported using condoms with their last client. For men who have sex with men, 30% reportedly used condoms with their paid partner, while 50% used condoms with their paying partner.[32] There is a high rate of sexually transmitted infection in both vulnerable groups and the general population, coupled with inadequate access to sexually transmitted infection treatment and poor health-seeking behavior. Based on the 2004 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Survey, there were increased sexual risk behaviors among adolescents aged 15–24 compared with the levels observed in 1994, including earlier sexual

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[29] For these cases, the leading mode of transmission is through sexual intercourse (88%). However, 1.5% of people contracted the infection through perinatal transmissions (mother-to-child). Other modes of transmissions were through blood transfusion, injecting drug needles, and needle pricking.

[30] 2008. PNAC. Follow up to the Declaration of Commitment on HIV and AIDS United Nations General Assembly Special Session: Country Report of the Philippines January 2006 to December 2007, January 2008.

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[31] National Epidemiology Center of the Department of Health (NEC-DOH). 2008. *AIDS Registry Report.* NEC-DOH, Manila.

[32] Department of Health. 2007. *Integrated HIV Behavioral and Serologic Surveillance.* Manila, Department of Health.

Box 5.2: National Responses to HIV/AIDS

The Philippine Government recognized the threat of HIV/AIDS at a relatively early stage and initiated a number of actions to contain its spread:

- Creation of the **National AIDS and STI Prevention and Control Program** within DOH in 1988.
- Issuance of Executive Order No. 39 in 1992 to create the **Philippine National AIDS Council (PNAC)**, a multisectoral body that advises the President Establishment of the **HIV Surveillance System** to keep track of the infection.
- Enactment by Congress of the **Philippine AIDS Prevention and Control Act of 1998 (RA 8504)**. The Law mandates the prevention and control of HIV in the Philippines through a nationwide AIDS information and education program, establishment of a comprehensive AIDS monitoring system, and strengthening of PNAC.
- Development of **AIDS medium-term plans.** The country is now on its fourth plan (2005–2010) with a costed operational plan for 2007–2008.
- Development of **AIDS policies in the workplace** by the Department of Labor and Employment.
- Development of **AIDS modules for school curricula**, including non-formal education.

- Development of **guidelines, standards, and protocols** for HIV case reporting, media reporting, treatment, care and support, including provision of antiretroviral drugs.
- Implementation of **community-based interventions**, ranging from information dissemination to behavior change strategies targeted at vulnerable groups.
- **Capacity building for health care providers** and the creation of the **HIV/AIDS core team** made up of doctors, nurses, medical technicians, social workers, and nongovernment organizations.
- Creation of **local AIDS councils** (in some cities), institutionalizing **local government units and nongovernment organization partnership** at the city level. Enacting **Local AIDS ordinances**, including provisions for **budgetary allocations**.
- Integration of **AIDS and migration in the curriculum** of the Foreign Service Institute of the Department of Foreign Affairs.
- Establishment of a **national monitoring and evaluation system on AIDS** lodged within PNAC.

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initiation, unprotected sex, having multiple sexual partners, and paying for and/or engaging in paid sex. Despite unprecedented shortages, the Government has been reluctant to use national funds for condom supply. This hampers the campaign to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS.[33] There is also limited provision of antiretroviral drugs for prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV.

The level of knowledge about AIDS among the general population is low. According to the National Demographic and Health Survey 2003, awareness levels of HIV and AIDS were high among women and men (96% and 95%, respectively). Yet, only 45% know how to prevent HIV from spreading. Young adults have a higher awareness level of the existence of HIV, at 58%.[34] But 28% believe the infection can be cured and 73% believed themselves to be immune.[35] Studies show that even medical professionals and health workers still have many misconceptions about HIV and AIDS.

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[33]　UNDP: www.youandaids.org. Human Rights Watch. 2004. *Unprotected: Sex, Condoms and the Human Right to Health.* Available: http://hrw.org/reports/2004/philippines0504/2.htm#_Toc70225338.

[34]　Health Action Information Network. 2005. *Attitude, Behavior and Practices on HIV/AIDS Among Filipino Youth and Health Workers.* Manila: HAIN.

[35]　UP Population Institute. 2002. The *2002 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study.* Quezon City: UP.

There is an emerging problem among injecting drug users. The prevalence of Hepatitis C among them in some areas (81%) indicates a high rate of needle sharing. In 2005, two individuals tested positive for HIV, the first to do so since 1996. The Integrated HIV and AIDS Behavioral Surveillance Study 2007 showed very low coverage of education and prevention interventions among at-risk groups. While the national target for educating the population about sexually transmitted infections is 60%, only 19% of homosexual men, 14% of injecting drug users, 14% of women in prostitution, and 6% of prostitutes' customers have been reached by prevention programs.

Information gaps. It is likely that the figures on HIV infection rates are incomplete. AIDS is stigmatized. Because of the shame attached to AIDS, its victims and those groups that are most vulnerable to infection are discriminated against, meaning that individuals are afraid of being tested or admitting they have the virus. A lot of information on the ground may also be undocumented due to a lack of systematic reporting. A national AIDS monitoring and evaluation system has recently been established and its rollout at the local level is still in its early stages of operation.

The Philippine National AIDS Council recently characterized the HIV situation in the country as "hidden and growing". Previously, an average of 20 new cases was reported every month; but in 2007, the average rose to 29. In February 2008, there were 52 new recorded cases, the highest ever in 1 month, and more than double the recorded cases in February 2007 (there were 23). The cumulative average of new cases in the last 5 years (2003–2007) is double the average of registered cases in the 1990s. Fifty-two percent of all HIV infections were registered in the last 7 years (2001–2007), meaning that infection rates are growing rapidly.

Sharp increases in homosexual and bisexual transmission have also been noted. HIV infections in homosexuals and bisexuals (aged mostly 15–24) accounted for 23% of all cases in 2007—infection rates for the same group were below 7% in 2005 and earlier. Starting in 2007, the age group with the most infections was 25–29; it was previously 30–34. The National Voluntary Blood Safety Program of the Department of Health also reported that in 2007, HIV seropositive cases were reported in 10 out of the 12 months of the year.

Local responses have been limited in area coverage and involvement of beneficiaries. Factors, such as voluntary and confidential counseling and testing, are critical for primary prevention, reduction of stigma, and increasing access to care and support services. Voluntary counseling and testing was available at 500 sites in 2003. However, few offer supportive services of high quality and in 2004, only 56 sites in the country offered services for preventing mother-to-child HIV transmission. In Manila, only one hospital carried out confirmatory tests in 2005. This implied a coverage of about 5% of the population of the capital.

Furthermore, despite official commitment to providing respectful and gender-sensitive services, there are reports of discriminatory treatment in hospitals. There is an acute lack of trained staff, especially in temporary health care facilities, who can care for and support people with HIV/AIDS while respecting their privacy. Social hygiene clinics for women in prostitution are available only in some areas and tend to focus on "regulating" the women without ensuring their privacy.

Recommendations

In order for the Philippines to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of women, shortcomings in the delivery of basic social services must be overcome. Recommendations to address gender issues in education include

(i) **Policy development:** Integrate gender sensitivity in the early childhood and basic education curriculum.

(ii) **Policy implementation:** Review and monitor education policies and practices

with a focus on identifying and eliminating gender discrimination.

(iii) **Financing:**

    (a) Increase investments to make schools more inclusive and responsive to the needs of marginalized children and children at risk of dropping out.

    (b) Direct more resources from Government, development partners, and civil society to support and institutionalize gender-responsive reforms in education.

(iv) **Capacity:**

    (a) Ensure that gender perspectives, including gender aspects of teaching and learning, are integrated in educational planning, monitoring, and evaluation by raising awareness and appreciation of the issues among educational planners and administrators.

    (b) Provide gender-responsive teachers' training, including curriculum enhancement, and develop support mechanisms for teachers' effectiveness in providing quality education.

(v) **Services:**

    (a) Develop culturally relevant learning systems that will enhance access to and quality of education in marginalized and underserved parts of the country, especially in Muslim and indigenous communities.

    (b) Develop lifelong learning opportunities, including improved access to continuing education to address illiteracy among older women and enhance livelihood skills and employability.

    (c) Increase the number of community- and workplace-based early childhood care and development services.

(vi) **Advocacy:** Activate local school boards and promote local government unit and private sector participation in education, as has been done in Naga City.

Recommendations to address gender issues in health:

(i) **Policy development:**

    (a) Pass the Responsible Parenthood and Population Management Act of 2005, House Bill No. 3773, and advocate for the passage of reproductive health codes in the local government units.

    (b) Pass the Expanded Breastfeeding Act of 2007, Senate Bill No. 761, which aims to reverse declining breastfeeding rates in the country by requiring lactation stations in public places and in private and government offices for the use of mobile and working nursing mothers.

    (c) Adopt International Labour Organization Convention 183 on maternity protection.

(ii) **Policy implementation:**

    (a) Evaluate the implementation of Barangay Health Workers Benefits and Incentives Act of 1995 (RA 7883) and the Magna Carta of Public Health Workers of 1992 (RA 7305).

    (b) Implement the National Policy and Strategy Framework in Reducing Maternal and Newborn Deaths in the Philippines, which provides for health care from pre-pregnancy to the first 2 years of life through

improvements in services, financing, regulatory, and governance structures.

(c) Implement the International Code on Breast Milk Substitutes and the Revised Implementing Rules and Regulations of the Milk Code as it promotes breastfeeding and maternal and child health and combats malnutrition.

(iii) **Financing:** Progressively increase the national health and nutrition budget to achieve the WHO recommended level of at least 5% of GDP.

(iv) **Capacity:**
   (a) Ensure that every barangay, especially those with poor infrastructure connections, has a trained midwife.
   (b) Address health human resource management issues to avoid the shortage of health professionals in the future.

(v) **Services:**
   (a) Provide sexual and reproductive health services through the primary health care system.
   (b) Expand coverage of supplemental feeding to high-risk pregnant and lactating mothers to combat malnutrition.

(c) Provide universal maternal and child health packages to poor and marginalized women and children.

(d) Scale up interventions for HIV and AIDS, such as education, voluntary and confidential counseling and testing, and antiretroviral therapy. This should be age sensitive and tailored to the risk profile of the subpopulation (1) general population, (2) people vulnerable to HIV, and (3) people most at risk of HIV infection.

(e) Provide antiretroviral drugs for prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV; educate pregnant women about sexually transmitted infections and offer voluntary HIV counseling and testing to women with a specific risk.

(vi) **Data:** Localize and disaggregate "Countdown to 2015" data to the provincial level, to unmask disparities and prioritize support to the most disadvantaged.[36]

(vii) **Advocacy:** Ensure availability of full sexual and reproductive health information to protect adolescents from unwanted/coerced sex; unplanned pregnancy; early childbearing; unsafe abortions; and sexually transmitted infections, including HIV.

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[36] The Countdown to 2015 tracks indicators of progress in the Millennium Development Goals on maternal, newborn, and child survival.

Chapter 6:

Social Protection

Social protection policies and programs help women and men cope with and respond to risk and shocks. Shocks can have many causes, such as natural or environmental disasters, economic crises, social and political upheaval, or health crises. Different types of shocks can affect an entire country, a particular region, a community, or a single household. The Asian financial crisis of 1997/1998 and the 2007/2008 energy and food price increases are examples of external economic shocks. Events, such as floods, droughts, volcanic eruptions, landslides, and disease outbreaks, are examples of

shocks resulting from natural disasters that can affect regions or communities. Examples of household-level shocks are the severe illness of a family member, the death of the main breadwinner, or even the birth of an unplanned child. Shocks, risk, and vulnerability are interrelated (Box 6.1).

Shocks often result in the immediate loss of capital—financial (income), physical (housing or other infrastructure), or natural (land, the surrounding environment). Any of these losses can be overwhelming for a poor family.

Vulnerability varies significantly by gender. Also, although men and women are exposed to different kinds of risks, they can be affected by the same risk in a different way. For this reason, it is useful to treat men and women as different constituents in any risk analysis—the same applies to boys and girls.[1]

Age also affects vulnerability to shock. Female children can be burdened with work or caregiving in the family on top of education. This diminishes their productivity and future employment prospects, making them more vulnerable. Girls and young women are at an increased risk of being trafficked. Reproduction and childbearing also results in an increased risk of health problems, interrupted income, and higher health care expenditure. In the Philippines, life expectancy is increasing, particularly for women who are living

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Box 6.1: What Do We Mean by Risk and Vulnerability?

Risk refers to uncertain events that can damage well-being. The uncertainty can pertain to the timing or magnitude of the event. Risk exposure means the probability that a certain risk will occur. Vulnerability measures resilience against a shock. Vulnerability is primarily a function of a household's asset endowment. Insecurity is exposure to risk, and the resulting possibility of a decline in well-being following exposure to the risk. The event triggering the decline is often referred to as a shock, which can affect an individual, a community, a region, or a nation. Risk, risk exposure, and vulnerability are related but not synonymous.

Source: World Bank. 2000/2001. *World Development Report 2000/2001*.

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1   Luttrell, C., and C. Moser. 2004. Gender and Social Protection. Unpublished draft. London: Overseas Development Institute.

longer. As a consequence of their higher life ex-pectancy, elderly women are more likely to fall into poverty at old age.[2]

The goal of social protection is to protect vul-nerable people—particularly the poor—against economic and social distress as a result of unfore-seen events by developing policies and programs that respond to the risks people face. Social insurance (also known as social security, such as old-age pensions), social assistance (also known as social welfare, to meet minimum needs), and social safety nets (to respond to particular shocks or calamities) all fall under the umbrella of social protection.

A strong social protection system that consid-ers gender differences is particularly important in the Philippines, where risk is common (Box 6.2), the informal employment sector is large, and poverty is widespread (Chapters 1 and 3 review these issues). It is important to remember that

many nonpoor households are vulnerable as well.[3] While the Government has implemented numer-ous social protection programs, improvement is needed. A 2007 Asian Development Bank study on key constraints to economic development in the Philippines identified critical inadequacies in existing social protection schemes.[4] Some prog-ress has been made in recent years and a new program—one of the first with a strong element of women's empowerment—is being pilot tested in 2008. This chapter explores the country's new definition of social protection, looks at existing and planned programs, and examines the exten-sion of social protection to informal workers.[5]

Defining Social Protection in the Philippines

In February 2007, the National Economic De-velopment Agency (NEDA) Social Development Committee adopted a resolution to define social protection and its components.[6] In doing so, the Government acknowledged the need for a com-mon framework for designing and implementing policies and programs aimed at reducing poverty and vulnerability to risks. The resolution clarifies that the goal of social protection policies and pro-grams is to enhance the social status and rights of the poor by promoting and protecting livelihood and employment, protecting against hazards and

2   Luttrell, C., and C. Moser. 2004. Gender and Social Protection. Unpublished draft. London: Overseas De-velopment Institute.

3   Albert, J., L. Elloso, and A. Ramos. 2007. Toward Mea-suring Household Vulnerability to Income Poverty in the Philippines. *Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS) Discussion Paper Series No. 2007–16.* Manila: PIDS.

4   ADB. 2007. *Critical Development Constraints*. Manila: Economics and Research Department, ADB.

5   This chapter is by no means exhaustive, given space limitations. It touches on some of the key issues and discusses some recent developments.

6   National Economic and Development Authority So-cial Development Committee Resolution No. 1, Series of 2007 on Adopting a Philippine Definition of Social Protection. February 2007.

sudden loss of income, and improving people's capacity to manage risks.

The four components of social protection are

(i)   **Labor market programs:** Measures aimed at enhancing employment opportunities and protection and the rights and welfare of workers;

(ii) **Social insurance:** Programs that seek to mitigate income risks by pooling resources and spreading risks across time and across classes;

(iii) **Social welfare:** Preventive and developmental interventions that seek to support the minimum basic requirements of the poor; and

(iv) **Social safety nets:** Stop-gap mechanisms or urgent responses that address effects of economic shocks, disasters, and calamities on specific vulnerable groups.

While the resolution covers most of the important aspects of social protection, it is, for the most part, gender blind. The text often refers to "vulnerable members of society" or "the poor and marginalized" but does not highlight how women and men may experience different vulnerabilities. Maternity is recognized as a specific risk that can lead to unemployment and loss of income in the discussion of social insurance (along with illness, injury, disability, retrenchment, old age, and so on), but the resolution does not take into account any other particular risks women face (Box 6.3).

Formal Social Insurance

Public and private employees are covered by three mandatory public savings funds: (i) the Government Service Insurance Scheme, (ii) the Social Security System (SSS), and (iii) the Employees' Compensation Commission. These funds operate as forced savings mechanisms and provide the following types benefits: retirement, sickness,

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Box 6.3: The Gender Dimension of Risk

The World Development Report 2000/2001 develops a typology of risks and shocks. Risks are classified by the level at which they occur (household/micro, local/meso, and national/macro) and by the nature of the event (natural/environmental, economic, social and political, health, etc.) but do not encompass gender issues. Understanding the level and nature of a shock is important when developing response plans.

Adapting the World Development Report table, to include examples of the constraints faced by women in dealing with risks and shocks at different levels, provides scope for a more detailed analysis. At the micro level, women are biologically more susceptible to some illnesses, and face specific health issues. Women are also more susceptible to domestic violence, and having little or no control over intra-household distribution of resources and power. At the meso level, women may find it difficult to recover from shocks due to social norms (such as limited freedom to divorce or remarry), insecure property rights, or limited job prospects. At the macro level, economic transition can have gender-differentiated impacts, or legislation may discriminate against women or men. The gender dimension of risk can be significant.

Sources: World Bank. 2000/2001. *World Development Report 2000/2001* and Lutrell and Moser, 2004. Gender and Social Protection. Unpublished draft. London: Overseas Development Institute.

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maternity, disability, and death. Mostly, these benefits accrue to nonpoor members (see Ahmed et al, 2004).[7] The Government Service Insurance Scheme and Social Security System provide emergency loans, allowing members to borrow against

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[7]   Akhter, U. Ahmed, Agnes R. Quisumbing, James Villafuerte, and Rena O. dela Cruz-Dona. 2004. *Strengthening Social Protection in The Philippines*. Paper prepared for the World Bank. Manila: World Bank.

their retirement contributions. The Government recently expanded the Social Security System's coverage to the informal sector, with reduced contributions. However, about 2 million landless rural workers are still not covered by any of the social protection schemes. There is also no unemployment insurance in the Philippines.

PhilHealth provides social health insurance under five different programs: (i) individually paying program, (ii) employed sector, (iii) sponsored program, (iv) nonpaying; (v) and overseas workers program. The sponsored program (also known as the indigent program) provides medical insurance to the poorest 25% of households. The sponsored program is implemented in partnership with the local government units (LGUs). Eligible households are identified through a survey conducted by the local Social Welfare Development Offices. LGUs and the Government of the Philippines share the annual premium payment of P1,200 per poor household. Enrollment in the sponsored program as of July 2007 was 3.3 million poor households.[8] However, the official poverty magnitude in 2006 was 4.7 million households, or 27.6 million people, so it is clear that undercoverage is a serious issue.

Performance of Targeted Programs

Targeted programs specifically aim to channel benefits to the poor and vulnerable. These include food and other subsidies (such as the National Food Authority's rice subsidies); public housing; health subsidies or fee exemptions; school feeding programs; community-based social funds; social insurance programs (pensions and health); and labor market intervention programs, such as skills development and direct employment generation. In September 2004, the National Anti-Poverty Commission reviewed the social protection

Box 6.4: Case Study: The Food for School Program

The Food for School program was launched in late 2005 in response to concerns about the prevalence of malnutrition among children from poor households. The program supplies 1 kilogram of rice per day to families who suffer from hunger through their children in day care, preschool, and grade 1. The beneficiaries are all households in selected geographic areas that have children in preschool or grade 1 of public elementary schools, or whose children attend Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD)-accredited day care centers. The geographic areas covered include the 17 cities and municipalities of Metro Manila and 49 (out of 81) provinces that have been identified as vulnerable. For the school year 2006/2007, the program targeted about 1.1 million beneficiaries.

Geographic targeting is administratively simple and inexpensive to implement. However, with universal targeting at the school level, it is unsurprising that a substantial amount of the benefits leak to non-poor beneficiaries.[9] Also, some of the poorest families are missed, as distribution only occurs through DSWD-accredited day care centers, and many of the poorer barangays do not have one. The size of the transfer is also an issue, and it is unclear whether 1 kilogram is enough to improve the pupil's nutrition. However, there is some evidence (from a monitoring survey of 412 homes and 52 schools in 17 provinces) to show that there has been a positive impact on school attendance. The program is thus achieving one part of its goal by keeping children in school in the face of poverty and hunger.

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[8] Data from the PhilHealth Website at www.philhealth.gov.ph.

[9] Torregosa. 2005. Looking into Social Protection Programs in the Philippines: Towards Building and Implementing an Operational Definition and a Convergent Framework. Unpublished paper, National Anti-Poverty Commission, Manila.

programs in the Philippines. The commission recorded 111 different programs implemented by a wide range of agencies. Of the programs, 11 were classified as safety nets, 11 as social insurance, 85 as social welfare and assistance category, and 4 as labor market interventions. While the programs seemed to address a wide range of risks, the Commission concluded there were major delivery and coverage weaknesses, including program overlap resulting from poor coordination among providers and government agencies. The commission also found targeting errors that resulted in undercoverage of the poor and leakage of benefits to the nonpoor.

A similar conclusion is reached in the Social Watch update for 2007, which posits that many of the existing social protection programs have existed for decades, but coverage is incomplete, delivery is diffused, and financing is often uncertain and remains vulnerable to corruption.[10]

A promising new social protection initiative, the *Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (P4)* is being pilot tested in the Philippines in 2008. The program, which makes conditional cash transfers (CCTs), is the first of its kind in the country. Benefit payments are made to the mothers of school-age children conditional upon human capital investments in their children (Box 6.5). The program empowers women to support their families and encourages them to send their children to school and take them for health checks, thus expanding their capabilities and reducing their risk of future poverty. CCT programs have more than a decade of implementation experience and proven results in other parts of the world, particularly in Latin America. The key to the program's success will be to monitor and evaluate its implementation, undertake impact evaluations, and make appropriate adjustments. This is often lacking in many programs, particularly in the Philippines.

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[10] Gonzalez, E. 2007. *Political will is the key to social protection*. Manila: Social Watch.

Box 6.5: The Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program: Making Payments to Mothers

Recognizing the need for innovative approaches to targeted social protection programs in the Philippines, the Department of Social Welfare and Development designed an ambitious new conditional cash transfer program in 2007, the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program, or 4Ps (formerly Ahon Pamilyang Pilipino). The President officially launched the program on 9 January 2008, in Ozamiz City, Misamis Occidental.

The program aims to build the human capital of children aged 0–14 from the poorest families. To achieve this, cash grants are conditional upon five conditions: (i) pregnant women must receive prenatal care beginning in the first trimester of pregnancy, the birth must be attended by a skilled health professional, and they must receive postnatal care; (ii) parents must attend parent effectiveness service classes; (iii) children aged 0–5 must receive regular preventive health checkups and vaccines; (iv) children aged 3–5 must attend day care or preschool programs; and (v) children aged 6–14 must be enrolled in school and demonstrate an attendance rate of at least 85%.

These conditions were selected in order to address the Philippines' persistent human development bottlenecks, including high infant, child, and maternal mortality rates; malnutrition; low completion rates in primary education and low progression to secondary education; and a high prevalence of child labor. Pilot program implementation began in September 2007 in Agusan del Sur, Misamis Occidental, and Pasay and Caloocan cities, covering 6,000 households. In 2008, the program will cover nearly 125,000 households nationwide (with an estimated 360,000 children). It will expand to cover an additional 175,000 households in 2009, for a total of 300,000. The 4Ps is a program to watch, for the benefits to Filipino women, children, and men could be far-reaching.

Social Protection in the Informal Sector

As noted in Chapter 3, the informal sector in the Philippines is very large. Vendors, home-based workers, and self-employed agricultural or other informal sector workers are estimated to constitute about half of the labor force in the Philippines. Female workers in the informal economy are the most invisible.[11] Domestic workers and industrial laborers are among the most poorly paid. Women-run enterprises are rarely counted and assisted, and face specific constraints in growing business and accessing risk management services (credit, adequate training and marketing, membership in cooperatives, etc.). There are also a disproportionate number of women workers in family-based unpaid work. These workers face socioeconomic and physical risk (through low visibility, low wages and/or unpaid work, and occupational health hazards). *Pambansang Tagapag-ugnay ng mga Manggagawa sa Bahay* (PATAMABA) (the National Network of Home-based Workers), estimates that there are between 7 million and 9 million home-based workers in the Philippines, the majority of whom are women.[12]

Given the identified lack of coverage and diffuse delivery of formal social protection, various traditional mechanisms have evolved in low-income communities to provide some form of social security. These are, in many cases, more important than the formal system, particularly for informal sector workers. In times of need, Filipinos tend to look to their extended families and friends for economic and social support. It is common for community members to come together and support a family affected by illness and death, but also at the time of major social events, such as marriages or births, which culturally require expensive celebrations (Box 6.6).

Strategies for social protection in the informal economy include providing access to formal microfinance delivery systems and other financial services (discussed in Chapter 3) (footnote 11). This is especially important for women, who tend to have less access to the collateral needed for regular commercial loans. Another solution is group-based measures that allow for pooled risk management, such as membership in cooperatives, group-based insurance schemes, employment guarantee schemes for workers, interest-free lending within eligible sectors, and welfare funds based on sector. It is also possible to strengthen informal risk management techniques, for example, by enhancing social capital thereby allowing for a healthier risk pooling. Governments and development partners may also offer programs devised specifically to enable women workers to protect and build existing assets, such as skills training, property enhancements, and development of niche markets.

In 2006, there were 2.5 million workers enrolled in PhilHealth's informal sector workers and freelance professionals' scheme. However, in 2005, the Department of Labor and Employment estimated that the informal sector employed more than 15.5 million workers, meaning that less than 20% of informal workers were enrolled in PhilHealth's program for individually paying members, launched in 1999.[13] While a flat rate premium of about $25 per year is generally acceptable, people prefer to pay weekly or monthly given uncertain incomes. This is administratively difficult, if not impossible, for PhilHealth to handle. In practice, only one third of the members in the individually paying program pay regularly. One

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[11] Lund, F. and S. Srinivas. 2000. *Learning from Experience*: *A gendered approach to social protection for women in the informal economy*. International Labour Organization.

[12] PATAMABA was founded in May 1989 with the objective of creating, strengthening, consolidating, and expanding the national network of home-based workers and providing support services for their personal, social, and economic well-being.

[13] Department of Labor and Employment. 2005. *15.5 million informal sector workers need social protection*. Available: www.dole.gov.ph/news/details.asp?id=N000000540.

The *Pambansang Tagapag-ugnay ng mga Mang-gagawa sa Bahay* (PATAMABA) network advocates a number of best practices for the provision of informal social protection schemes in the Philippines. An evaluation drew lessons from six initiatives and summarized the following key lessons learned:

- Build on the strong rural tradition of community-based solidarity;
- Tradition can be both a boon and a burden among indigenous communities;
- The sustainability of contributions is linked to income and employment security;
- Sustained networking and advocacy at both the national and local levels improve long-terms results;
- Asset reform is essential;
- Gender issues need to be addressed (rural women are burdened with physically demanding reproductive work which men, who tend to be more conservative than those in urban areas, do not share);
- Discipline and regularity of collection are important; and
- Social protection is just the start: there is a great need for scaling up to address poverty and ensure sustainability.

Source: PATAMABA, 2007.

suggested way to address these issues lies in a new proposal for informal sector group membership, through cooperative or microfinance organizations. This sort of a partnership might grant the informal economy workers payment flexibility, a lower premium, more benefits, and less hassle. PhilHealth would have increased and sustained coverage, and would be able to improve the financial stability of the program.[14] As a direct result of

advocacy on the part of informal sector workers through such groups as PATAMABA, informal sector workers now have direct representation on the PhilHealth Board (Box 6.6).

LGUs can play a key role in addressing gender disparity because they have primary responsibility for the delivery of social services (Chapter 8). LGUs could support the establishment of community based health microinsurance schemes. They could aim to provide free or subsidized medicine and preventive health programs, including in the area of sexual and reproductive health and rights, by mobilizing barangay health workers. They could also offer emergency loans to those in need, provide facilities for day care for informal workers' children, and generate people's participation in disaster management and community rebuilding, and so on.

Conclusion

In the Philippines, cultural values have traditionally placed the primary responsibility for social protection on family and on community ties, mainly through intra-family and inter-household transfers. But globalization, migration, and changes in family structure may be eroding traditional means of social support. Public policies should complement rather than substitute for informal social protection arrangements.[15]

The main issues with the Philippine social protection system tend to be insufficient coverage, a lack of funding, poor targeting, and duplication of efforts resulting from a lack of coordination between agencies and programs. It also frequently fails to address the different types of risks faced

[14]   Jowett, M. 2006. Group enrolment into SHI in the Philippines: the conceptual framework. Paper

presented at Conference on Extending Social Health Insurance to Informal Economy Workers, Manila, 18–20 October.

[15]   Akhter, Ahmed, Agnes Quisumbing, James Villafuerte, and Rena O. dela Cruz-Dona. 2004. Strengthening Social Protection in the Philippines. Paper prepared for the World Bank. Manila: World Bank.

by women and men and that they experience the same risks differently. Therefore, gender issues need to be addressed explicitly. This is particularly important for informal sector workers, a large segment of the population. The Government and LGUs, in particular, can draw valuable lessons from the informal social protection schemes that flourish around the country.

Recommendations

The key recommendations to highlight from this chapter include

(i) **Policy development:**
   (a) Revise the definition of social protection to explicitly recognize the gender differences in the nature of risk and vulnerability and experience of shocks.
   (b) Develop and offer alternative, group-based ways for informal workers to access formal social insurance, par-
   ticularly health insurance, and financial services (i.e., microfinance). Learn from informal social protection initiatives, and build on local experiences.

(ii) **Policy implementation:**
   (a) Improve coordination of existing social protection programs.
   (b) Develop an improved and unified targeting mechanism to maximize coverage and minimize leakages.
   (c) Build flexibility into social protection programs to allow for rapid response to macro-shocks, such as food price increases.

(iii) **Financing:** Allocate sufficient resources to put in place rigorous monitoring and evaluation systems for all social protection programs.

(iv) **Data:** Recognize that monitoring and evaluation and impact assessments are crucial not only for improving program performance but also for demonstrating successes and garnering political commitment to program sustainability.

Chapter 7:

Gender-Based Violence

Gender-based violence is a complex social problem that affects not only the victims of violence and their families, but society as a whole. It occurs in domestic settings, as well as in the community. The mere threat of violence instills fear, limits choices for girls and women, and constrains their mobility and access to resources. Moreover, it also impedes women's economic productivity and their ability to exercise their democratic rights. This, in turn, reinforces the view that women and girls are inferior to men and boys (Beijing Platform for Action, 1995).[1]

The United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1993) defines violence against women as "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 private life."[2]

Prevalence

The prevalence of gender-based violence in the Philippines is difficult to estimate. Widespread poverty and high unemployment rates increase the risk of gender-based violence. Economic and social exclusion exacerbate a woman's risk of suffering violence, while simultaneously lowering her ability to escape violent environments, situations, and relationships.

In a 2003 Social Weather Stations survey, 12% of men admitted to having physically harmed women.[3] Official statistics, however, show a very limited number of reported cases per year, compared to the size of the population. This may be explained by women's poor understanding of their rights, and limited access to legal and social services—from the reporting stage to the completion of cases filed in court. Gender-insensitive investigation methods, sensational media accounts, lengthy court proceedings, and the social

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[1] The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 1995 stated, "violence against women is a manifestation of the historically unequal power relations between men and women, which have led to domination over and discrimination against women by men and to the prevention of women's full advancement" and that "it is one of the crucial social mechanisms by which women are forced into a subordinate position compared with men."

[2] Article 2 of the declaration states that violence against women may be categorized as, but is not limited to, the following: (i) physical, sexual, and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape,

female genital mutilation, and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation; (ii) physical, sexual, and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment, and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution; and (iii) physical, sexual, and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs.

[3] United States Department of State. 2007. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices 2006: Philippines*. Washington, DC.

stigma attached to victims of gender-based violence deter victims from reporting crimes.[4]

Victims' access to legal remedies and social and health assistance has improved with the passage of laws on violence against women and children, the establishment of women and children's desks in police stations and barangay offices, and the presence of nongoverment organizations (NGOs) that assist women in crisis. This may lead to more victims stepping forward to claim their right to justice. Since the passage of the Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Act of 2004 (RA 9262),[5] documented complaints of wife or partner battering has risen from 924 in 2005 to 1,695 in 2007.[6] However, a number of obstacles to implementing the laws may have limited their effective operation. For example, the Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act of 1998 (RA 8505) provides that investigating police officers should be the same sex as the victim. Even 10 years after the law's enactment, this is not always the case. Similarly, male officers are frequently assigned to women and children's desks. Given the hidden nature of gender-based crimes, the number of reported cases is likely a result of the effectiveness of infor-

Box 7.1: Harmonized Reporting

In order to harmonize reporting, the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women has initiated a project aimed at making the encounter of victims of gender-based violence equal at different instances and to share information in a way that simultaneously protects the victim's integrity and minimizes the repetitions needed and the risk for double-reporting. The project is currently being tried out in a handful of communities, and conclusions of its successfulness are still premature. However, increased awareness and communication between different local-level service providers is likely to have a positive impact on the willingness of victims to report crimes, and thereby also on the accuracy of the official figures reported.

mation campaigns rather than any changes in incident prevalence.

The estimates are also skewed by uncoordinated recording of reported cases. Most reporting of gender-based violence occurs at the women and children's desks at the barangay level, social welfare offices, hospitals, police precincts, and NGOs that provide services to victims of gender-based crimes. The failure of providers to coordinate services and reporting may result in inaccurate statistics—there is risk that matters will not be reported or will be reported twice. Therefore, variation in the numbers of reported cases may not accurately reflect the true number of occurrences (Box 7.1).

Domestic Violence

While gender-related abuse exists in all socioeconomic settings, poverty and the stress associated with poverty contribute to partner violence, rape, trafficking, and migration-related violence. Within relationships, male control of wealth and decision making, and relationship instability are strongly

Box 7.2: Legal Separation

Divorce is illegal in the Philippines, and legal separation is a long and costly procedure. Annulment of marriage implies public exposure of the private sphere, including public hearings with the children, and minimizes the possibility of a constructive cooperation between the couple following separation. A woman who does not secure a legal separation exposes herself and her family to legal limbo and inadequate economic support.

Source: Austria, Karol. 2007. Presentation at the Summer Institute on Women's Human Rights, Miriam College, Quezon City. May.

associated with abuse.[7] This holds true regardless of socioeconomic group.

Filipinos are predominantly Roman Catholic. The society is family-oriented, and cultural, religious, and social norms dictate that husbands and wives must stay together regardless of infidelity, battering, or other conflict in the family (Box 7.2).[8] There are also regional and cultural differences. Fewer cases of gender-based violence are filed in the Cordillera and the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao. In these and other areas, violence within the family is considered a private matter to be settled between families or clans within the community.

Studies also indicate a high prevalence of violence against children, although reported figures are declining. In 2004, there were 9,197 reported cases of child abuse, while the 2006 figures indicate 7,606 cases. Of the victims, 70% are girls and 40% of the cases involve sexual abuse (rape, incest, or acts of lasciviousness) and sexual exploitation (child prostitution, pedophilia, and pornography). In 2004, the Department of Social Welfare and Development assisted 4,837 children in need of special protection,[9] including victims of sexual abuse and commercial sexual exploitation, abandoned and neglected children or children without primary caregivers, children of indigenous cultural groups, child-victims of disasters, children in situations of armed conflict, street children, and children in conflict with the law.[10] However, available data only reflects reported and validated cases of abuse and is therefore unlikely to mirror the real situation. The number of girls and boys who live on the street has increased to about 1.5 million children. Of those, 90% have experienced abuse at home.[11] Girls and boys who live on the street face great dangers, some of which are gender specific (Box 7.3).

The Sex Trade and Violence

Poverty, previous experience of violence, and lack of viable job opportunities drive many women to sell their bodies in the commercial sex industry. Local prostitution thrives in the big cities, such as Metro Manila, Cebu, Davao, South Cotabato, as well as in many provinces in the Philippines and southern regions, such as Bongao in Sulu.[12] There is little or no protection of women working in the

[7]   PATH Outlook. 2002. Violence Against Women: Effects on Reproductive Health. Volume 20. No. 1. September 2002.

[8]   De Dios, Aurora Javate. 1999. Hidden No More: Violence Against Women in the Philippines. In *Breaking the Silence, Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: Equal Opportunities Commission.

[9]   Council for the Welfare of Children (CWC). 2005. *State of the Filipino Children Report 2005: Emerging Issues and Concerns Confronting the Filipino Adolescents*. Manila: CWC (page 16).

[10]   Terre des Hommes-Germany. 2005. *Violence Against Children: The Philippine Experience*. Manila: Philippine Resource Network for Child Protection in the Philippines. Available: www.childprotection.org.ph/monthlyfeatures/oct2k5b.doc

[11]   Capiloyan, Cleonate. 2006. *Globalization and Violence Against Children in the Philippines*. Manila: Philippine Resource Network for Child Protection in the Philippines. Available: www.childprotection.org.ph/monthlyfeatures/archives/apr2k6b.html

[12]   Enriquez, Jean. 2003. *Trafficking of Women and Children in the Philippines*. Manila: Coalition Against Trafficking of Women.

Box 7.3: Violence Against Girls and Boys: Living on the Streets of Davao City

Girls and boys who live on the street are vulnerable to being sexually abused—girls more so than boys—and becoming addicted to drugs and alcohol. Boys are also at high risk of getting recruited for illegal activities, such as becoming pickpockets, selling drugs, and even committing assault or murder. This exposes them to related dangers of violence. Over the last 10 years, there have been reports of extrajudicial killings of criminal elements by death squads in Davao City. From July 2001 to February 2007, local human rights nongovernment organizations counted 553 victims of summary executions of suspected or convicted criminals, 41 of which were children (40 boys and one girl). These killings have often been attributed to gang wars or personal conflicts. But the release by city Mayor Duterte of an "anti-narcotics list" in 2001 marked a sharp upturn in killings. All-girl street gangs are fairly common in Davao City, whereas all-boy street gangs are less common.

Source: Tambayan Center for Children's Rights Inc. Presented at the National Stakeholder Consultation held in Tagaytay City on 1 April 2008.

sex industry against gender-based violence, such as battering and rape. Prostitution is a punishable crime. A 2002 survey among women in prostitution revealed that they largely viewed violence as part of the sex trade.

The phenomenon of mail-order brides (discussed in Box 4.4 in Chapter 4) is also a function of poverty and lack of choices. In the search for a better life, women may enter into relationships with cyber acquaintances. While there may be many stories of women living happily ever after, the risks are substantial and the men looking for partners in this way are more likely to have skewed attitudes toward women. There is a proliferation of websites, such as Filipinobeauties.com and many others, that openly advertise Filipinas as brides to foreigners for a fee.

Trafficking of Women and Children

Trafficking is one of the Philippines' most urgent issues. As discussed in Chapter 4, tens of thousands of young women each year seek work and the promise of a better life outside of their home community, either domestically or abroad. In the process of migrating, women face the risk of being trafficked for sexual exploitation or for forced labor due to lack of information on the place and nature of work, and inadequate travel and work documents, or both. Aggressive recruiters and trafficking syndicates entice women to migrate by providing deceptive or misleading information that instills victims with a false sense of hope and inflated expectations.

Women and girls are at greater risk of being trafficked than men and boys. In Zamboanga City in Western Mindanao, there are well-structured syndicates for recruitment and transportation of women and children, especially girls, for sexual exploitation and forced labor in Malaysia and elsewhere in the Philippines.[13] An increasing number of underaged Muslim girls are being sent to work in countries in the Middle East. Some recruitment agencies are systematically concealing the real age of young workers by applying for late birth registration. There is also substantial human trafficking from Western Visayas to Manila, Quezon City, and Cebu.

Research by the Visayan Forum indicates thousands of vulnerable children from Visayas and Mindanao are brought to Metro Manila to work in brothels, bars, sweatshops, and private homes. It should be noted that a child who ends up in an exploitative situation, regardless of how this came

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[13] United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). 2007a. *Child Trafficking in the Philippines: A Situational Analysis*. Manila: UNICEF.

about, is defined as a victim of trafficking. Despite various efforts, these children continue to be underreported in national statistics (including the child labor surveys), and their need for protection and services are barely addressed by local and national government policies and programs.

A survey commissioned by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in 2006 found that six out of 10 children arriving at the Port of Manila gave "suspicious" answers as to their destination or purpose of travel.[14] Moreover, 66% of the children did not have a work contract upon arrival, 60% said their fares would be deducted from their salaries, and 19% did not speak or understand Filipino.

Data from the Human Rights Documentation System[15] covering June 2006–May 2007 confirms 287 victims of trafficking and prostitution, of which more than 40% were minors at the time of their victimization. The youngest was a 10-year-old girl.[16] The data also reveals trends regarding women and girls recruited from the rural areas to the cities. Women trafficked to Saudi Arabia; Syria; Taipe,China; and the United Arab Emirates are generally destined for sexual exploitation and slavery-like conditions of domestic work. Women trafficked to Cyprus; Hong Kong, China; Japan; Republic of Korea; Malaysia; and Singapore are generally destined for prostitution—these women are lured by employment or marriage. Clearly, the data only captures a limited portion of actual cases. From 2003 to 2005, the Department of Foreign Affairs reported a total of 315 trafficked

Filipino women recovered and repatriated from 21 countries in Africa, Asia, Australia, the Middle East, and New Zealand.[17]

Responses to Gender-Based Violence

The ability of a society to address the problem of violence against women depends on its general awareness of and attitude toward gender issues. Over the past decades in the Philippines, active women's advocacy groups, together with international commitments made by the Government, have contributed to greatly enhanced legal protection for women. The Philippines is a signatory to several international conventions and agreements that condemn gender-based violence, and the Government has passed several landmark statutes and programs on gender-based violence.[18]

The legal framework. Through the collective efforts of government agencies, women's NGOs, women's centers, and institutes all over the country, violence against women is now recognized as a serious crime requiring a unified, holistic, and integrated approach. There are three elements to this approach: (i) the passage of laws on gender-based violence, notably the Anti-Sexual Harassment Act of 1995 (RA 7877), the Anti-Rape Law of 1997 (RA 8353), the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003 (RA 9208), and the Anti-Violence against Women and Their Children of 2004 (RA 9262) (see detailed description in Appendix 1); (ii) the government implementing mechanisms and programs to

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[14]   Business World. 2001. Combating Child Trafficking. *Business World.* 26–27 October 2001.

[15]   This is a computer-based documentation system developed by the Coalition Against Trafficking in Women-Asia Pacific to document gender-based violence since 1998. The coalition gathers trafficking data from 10 regional and provincial partners all over the country.

[16]   Enriquez, Jean. 2007. Documenting Cases of Violence Against Women, Particularly Trafficking and Prostitution. Paper presented at the 10th National Convention on Statistics, EDSA Shangri-la Hotel, Manila, 1–2 October.

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[17]   Department of Foreign Affairs. 2007. *Report to the Interagency Council Against Trafficking in Women.* Manila: Department of Foreign Affairs.

[18]   Lobbying for the passage of laws takes years in the Philippines. Statutes, such as the Anti Rape Law, Anti-Trafficking Law, and Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Law, took an average of 9 years of active work by women's movements and gender-sensitive legislators before they were passed by the House of Representatives and the Senate.

strengthen compliance with the laws; and (iii) running of parallel programs on gender-based violence by women NGOs nationwide.

Implementing mechanisms. Government agencies at the national and regional levels are mandated to focus on prevention, prosecution, recovery, and rehabilitation. When dealing with victims of violence and trafficking, the police, investigation bodies, and state prosecutors are supposed to apply specific rules and standardized guidelines on gender-sensitive handling of such cases. Each of the 13 participating agencies has a program of action to combat trafficking of women. About 3,000 women and children's desks around the country have been set up to address violence against women cases.

The Supreme Court also issued a "Rule on the Examination of Child Witnesses". It allows for the use of videotaped testimony in trials to lessen the trauma of child victims of sexual abuse. So far, videoconferencing or live-link facilities have been installed in eight family courts, along with 16 gender- and child-sensitive, one-stop shop investigation studios in selected National Bureau of Investigation, Philippine National Police, and Department of Social Welfare and Development offices.

There are also hospital-based programs, such as the child protection unit based in the Philippine General Hospital, pink room or the women and child protection unit at the Vicente Sotto Medical Center in Cebu City, and women's crisis center in the East Avenue Medical Center in Quezon City. Agency-based programs for gender-based violence have also increased since 2003. These include the women in especially difficult circumstances program at the Department of Social Work and Development, anti-trafficking task force in airports initiated by the Bureau of Immigration, and presidential task force on human trafficking.[19] Innovative and community-based programs have been initiated by NGOs in various provinces, such as the *Bantay Banay* program of Lihok Pilipina in Cebu City, Cordillera task force on violence against

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Box 7.4: Violence against Domestic Workers

Domestic workers face a wide range of abuses and exploitation, including physical and sexual abuse, forced confinement, nonpayment of wages, denial of food and health care, and excessive working hours. Eleven out of 26 Filipina domestic workers interviewed in the United Arab Emirates in March 2006 reported being deprived of adequate nutrition by their employers. According to information provided by embassies in Singapore, at least 147 domestic workers have fallen to their deaths from tall buildings since 1998.

Melda, a 33-year-old Filipina working in Saudi Arabia, was raped twice by her male employer, who told her he would kill her if she said anything to his wife. When Melda was able to escape and report the assault to the police, they returned her to the house despite her obvious distress. Shortly after her employer raped her for the second time, he announced that she was going back to the Philippines that very day. She had worked for almost 2 months but all of her salary was deducted by the manpower agency to repay the placement fee.

Abuse can also come from unscrupulous recruiting agencies. "I was locked up inside the agency for 45 days. We were Indonesians and Filipinos, 25 of us. We got food only once a day. We couldn't go out at all. The agency said we owed them 3 months' salary. Five of us ran away; we used a blanket to escape from the second floor. Four of us got injured." (Cristina Suarez, Filipina domestic worker, age 26, Dubai, United Arab Emirates, 27 February 2006)

Source: Human Rights Watch. 2006. *Swept Under the* Rug: Abuses Against Domestic Workers Around the World. New York: Human Rights Watch.

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[19] Guerrero, Sylvia and Luis Pedrosa. 2002. *Handbook for Monitoring Intervention Programs to Stop Gender Violence*. Manila: University of the Philippines Center for Women's Studies and Department of Health, pp. 67–84.

women in Baguio City, and the Bathaluman Crisis Center Foundation in Davao City.

Organizing men against gender-based violence. There have been initiatives on the part of Government, as well as NGOs, to educate men about gender-based violence. The United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), UNICEF, and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have launched a UN joint program in the East Asian region on masculinity and violence against women, which organizes intercountry dialogue between male advocates in every country. At the national level, the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) collaborates with prominent men representatives in the administration to raise awareness on gender-based violence. In 2007, this resulted in the establishment of Men Opposed to Violence Against Women Everywhere (MOVE). At the local level, active groups include

(i)   Men Opposed to Violence Against Women (MOVAW) in Cebu, which was set up in 1997 by Kauswagan;[20]

(ii) Men Responsible for Gender and Development (MR. GAD) in Davao, which provides training for men on issues, such as gender and sex, gender roles, gender stereotyping, signs and causes of violence against women;[21]

(iii) MOVE in Aklan, which was launched on International Women's Day in 2007; and

(iv) the program on Empowerment and Reaffirmation of Paternal Abilities (ERPAT).

Among the Philippines' development partners, the UN has piloted a 3-year joint program on gender-based violence for capacity building, implementation, and monitoring among major government agencies. The program aims to implement the laws against gender-based violence, sexual harassment, rape, and rape victims' assistance, and trafficking.[22] The objective is also to harmonize strategies between donor agencies as well as UN programs.

Challenges in the Implementation of Laws and Policies

Despite progressive legislation and active women's agency, there are cultural factors in the Philippines that may make reporting of gender-based crimes difficult. Stereotypes dictate that women's behavior is chaste, virginal, innocent, and timid. If a woman is liberated, willing, flirtatious, or dresses in a revealing or suggestive manner, there is a view that she invited the sexual assault. These stereotypes are sometimes used in the judiciary system to weigh women's credibility.[23] Women's NGOs in the Philippines have documented a number of recent decisions in the lower courts regarding gender-based violence where stereotypes have persisted and the judicial process has been grossly unjust. The Women's Legal Bureau and other women's NGOs supported the filing of a Communication under the Optional Protocol to Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, a first in the Philippines and Southeast Asian region. The complaint highlighted inadequate reforms in the judiciary; failure to undertake due diligence in investigating, prosecuting, and punishing cases; serious instances of graft and corruption in law enforcement, and prosecutorial and juridical processes; and inadequate funding of support systems for rape victims and their families, including

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[20]   Kauswagan is a community-based health and social center in Cebu taking the lead on gender, sexuality, and reproductive health issues, particularly gender-based violence.

[21]   Philippine Information Agency (PIA). 2004. *PIA Daily News Reader*. Manila: PIA, 23 November 2004.

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[22]   UN Joint Programme on Violence Against Women.

[23]   Guanzon, Rowena, A. Javate de Dios, D. Torres, T. Balayon. 2006. *Engendering the Philippine Judiciary*. Bangkok: United Nations Development Fund for Women.

funding for medical, legal, psychological, and economic support.

A continuing problem in cases of rape, domestic violence, trafficking, and sexual harassment is the time lag between reporting, trial, and actual conviction of perpetrators. Drawn-out processes can cause the victim psychological and economic damage, acting as a disincentive to seeking justice and suggesting that the legal system does not prioritize crimes of violence against women. This may be one of the reasons why few filed cases of gender-based violence actually reach the courtroom—other reasons include informal settlements, threats, and social pressures. Even when cases are tried, judges frequently lack awareness of the power dimensions of violence against women and children and this hampers the prospects of a fair trial.[24]

The nongovernment organization *Sentro ng Alternatibong Lingap Panligal* (SALIGAN)[25] surveyed the success of 78 protection orders it filed on behalf of victims of violence in four family courts in Quezon City and Naga, Bicol, and three regular courts in Libmanan, Camarines Sur. While a significant number of the applicants were granted temporary restraining orders or permanent protection orders, the applicants experienced considerable fear and insecurity because of the delayed response of the court. The shortest recorded period for obtaining a temporary protection order is 1–4 days from when the application is filed. But, the actual issuance of permanent protection order

takes from 6 months to 1 year.[26] In the areas surveyed, applications were often dismissed because the applicant withdrew her application, settled the matter, or failed to appear in court.

Conclusion

A strong legal framework is a good platform for fighting gender-based violence in the Philippines. However, for the laws to be effectively implemented, knowledge about gender-based crimes must be enhanced at all levels of society, including in the judiciary, police, public officials, private sector, and communities in general. Cultural norms, assumptions, and practices need to be questioned by government and civil society, as well as by development partners and media. There is also need to target the roots of gender-based violence by addressing the patriarchal values and attitudes that subordinate women and treat them as commodities.

Recommendations

The following measures are recommended to step up the fight against gender-based violence and strengthen the implementation of laws and policies:

(i) **Policy development:** Enhance the legal framework to facilitate the prosecution of protectors, pimps, and buyers of sexual services to counteract demand. At the same time, protect and facilitate the reintegration of prostituted women, men, girls, and boys in society.

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[24] Guanzon, Rowena, A. Javate de Dios, D. Torres, T. Balayon. 2006. *Engendering the Philippine Judiciary*. Bangkok: United Nations Development Fund for Women.

[25] *Sentro ng Alternatibong Lingap Panligal* is a legal resource nongovernment organization doing developmental legal work with women, workers, farmers and fishers, the urban poor, and local communities.

[26] *Sentro ng Alternatibong Lingap Panligal* (SALIGAN). 2008. Strengthening Responses to Violence Against Women: Overcoming Legal Challenges in the Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Act. Manila: SALIGAN.

(ii) **Policy implementation:**

   (a) Strengthen enforcement of the anti-trafficking law so that traffickers are prosecuted and punished, and victims provided with protection. This also requires strengthened bilateral and regional cooperation with countries of transit and destination.

   (b) Strengthen coordination between different levels of service providers and law enforcement, particularly in the areas of data collection and reporting of gender-based crimes.

   (c) Institutionalize reporting of gender-based crimes and strengthen accuracy of the official statistics.

   (d) Investigate reports of corruption in law enforcement agencies, the prosecutorial offices, and the judiciary to ensure that rape and other cases of gender-based violence are not compromised or dismissed.

(iii) **Services:**

   (a) Ensure that gender-based violence survivors receive appropriate protective and support services and have effective access to justice, including free, competent, and sensitive legal aid where necessary, and just and effective complaints procedures and remedies.

   (b) Strengthen and scale up facilities for victim-survivors of gender-based violence, such the one-stop shop crisis centers, shelters, and half-way homes for women and children.

(iv) **Capacity:**

   (a) Expand and evaluate programs to educate and involve men in general, and young men in particular, on gender-based violence.

   (b) Institutionalize training programs on gender-based and sexual violence for the pillars of justice to enable them to properly appreciate medical and other evidence and adopt an interdisciplinary approach in investigating and deciding cases.

   (c) Make assertiveness training and self-defense part of the physical education curriculum in schools.

(v) **Data:**

   (a) Enhance data collection on various forms of gender-based violence, especially domestic violence; undertake research on prevalence, causes, and consequences of domestic violence; and apply that research in developing interventions.

   (b) Establish a monitoring system for court decisions in cases of gender-based violence, especially sexual violence.

(vi) **Advocacy:**

   (a) Strengthen the awareness of gender-based violence among women, men, girls, and boys, including among influential persons, such as religious leaders, by conducting public education campaigns.

   (b) Maintain awareness-raising campaigns against gender-based violence that promote collaboration between NGOs, government, media, and other private sector groups.

Section III:

Gender-Responsive Governance

Good governance is based on citizens' ability to exercise their responsibility and right to participate in public decision making, include their voice in policy making and funds allocation, and access resources. However, this ability is mediated by gender roles and relations of unequal power. The differential status of women and men is pervasive and entrenched, adversely affecting women's economic and social empowerment. It also sets back the development of society as a whole. Accountable and gender-responsive governance, on the other hand, can contribute to sustained improvements in public sector service delivery and to greater empowerment of both women and men.

The Philippine Framework Plan for Women stresses the importance of good governance to create an enabling environment for development. The interaction between the Government, the private sector, and civil society is fundamental to achieving social and economic development and a situation in which society as a whole is part of the process. Other important factors in good and accountable gender-responsive governance include an absence of corruption and graft (Box S3.1), and care for national resources.

Accountability has two aspects: (i) **engagement**, a reciprocal relationship (not necessarily constant or equal) through which demands for improved service delivery are articulated through formal, accessible, and transparent accountability mechanisms; and (ii) **responsiveness**, the party receiving demands must engage by giving information and making decisions, enforcing decisions, and constantly developing so it responds to norm changes and can effectively answer demands.

The worldwide governance indicators, currently the most advanced and systematic overview of governance, advocate six dimensions of good governance: voice and accountability, political stability, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. In international gender rankings, the Philippines tend to fare relatively well compared with other devel-

oping countries. In the UNDP gender-responsive development index, the Philippines ranked 66 out of 136 countries for which data was available. In the gender empowerment measure, the Philippines ranked 45 out of 75 countries for which gender disaggregated data is available.

In 2006 and 2007, the World Economic Forum ranked the Philippines as one of the top 10 countries (number 6) with the smallest gender gap, as measured by the gender gap index. The Philippines is a top performer for the high ratio of females to males: working as legislators, senior officials, and managers, and working in professional and technical jobs; literacy rates; enrollments in primary, secondary, and tertiary education; and life expectancy.

Although the indicators are generally positive, the Philippines' rankings are driven up by the number of years a female has been its head of state. A female president, however, does not automatically result in gender equality or guarantee that the Government has a stronger focus on gender equality. There are also inaccuracies in the calculation of the gender gap index. For example, polygamy is assumed to be absent in the Philippines, but the Code of Muslim Personal Laws permits polygamy aside from arranged marriages.

The regional country gender assessment stakeholder consultations in January 2008 indicated a continued pressing need to focus on accountable and gender-responsive governance in the Philippines. Three key themes were (i) representation and financing for equality, (ii) peace building, and (iii) disaster risk reduction. This section, therefore, goes beyond rankings to look at issues of power, equality, and "the capability to do and to be" (as coined by Nobel laureate Amartya Sen). Chapter 8, on investing in women's empowerment and gender equality, highlights the progress made by governance bodies in including gender-aware voices. The challenges of gender representation (especially at the local government unit and judiciary levels) and budget policies are also explored. In view of the ongoing armed conflicts in

Box S3.1: The Corruption Paradox

Corruption is an undue tax on poor and vulnerable people. It restricts their access to public services and goods and increases the cost of essential goods. It inflates the costs of development and undermines public trust in institutions. It reduces the willingness of international companies to do business in the Philippines, thus curtailing employment and business opportunities. To prevent and monitor corruption, the Philippines has a mix of constitutional bodies, presidential committees and task forces, legislation, and relatively free media and watch groups. But corruption is still perceived to be worsening. Three key sources of data—Transparency International's 2008 Corruption Perception Index, the Political and Economic Risk Consultancy survey for 2006 and 2007, and the World Bank Institute assessment of "control of corruption"— indicate that corruption is rising and there is a lack of public accountability. The Philippine Development Forum has had anti-corruption work as one of its agenda points since 2006.

Health and education services suffer most in the corruption quagmire. Examples are overpricing of public school books, missing rice, and expired or un-delivered medicines. Few cases of alleged corruption make it to the Ombudsman, and fewer still to court. So far, no high-level officials have been convicted. But the conviction rate of cases brought to the Ombudsman is on the rise, from 19% in 2006 to 56% in 2007. Watch groups, especially at the local level, have made a vital contribution to enhancing public accountability.

Sources: Field notes of Romina Sta. Clara from the country gender assessment stakeholder consultations, 2008 and the Philippines Development Forum 2006–2008, www.pdf.ph.

the Philippines, Chapter 9 highlights how armed conflicts affect women and men, girls and boys differently, and how gender roles are transformed by armed conflicts. Local peace-building efforts in conflict-affected areas are also considered. Chapter 10 focuses on disaster risk management. Typhoons, floods, and landslides vividly illustrate that catastrophes affect the genders differently and that there is a corresponding need for making relief management and disaster risk reduction gender specific. The chapter looks at emerging approaches for mitigating hazards; reducing social vulnerabilities; and rebuilding more sustainable, just, and disaster-resilient communities.

Chapter 8:

Investing in Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

The 1987 Constitution ensures the fundamental equality before the law of women and men.[1] In 2006, the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) committee commended the Philippines for its legislative advances in protecting women's rights (Box 8.1) but expressed concern about the very slow implementation of laws and the lack of tracking progress in national commitment and framework plans. The Philippines ratified the CEDAW in 1981 and much has been said about the greater number of Filipino women voting in elections. But the number of elected women in public posts has not exceeded 20%.

Following the May 2007 elections, 53 of the 239 elected representatives are women. Eight of these are from the party list organizations. Twenty are the wives of the outgoing district representative. Only four of the 24 Senators, 18 of the 81 governors, and 286 of the 1,631 mayors are women.

Gender Budgets

The objective of a gender-responsive budget (or gender and development [GAD] budget) is to make gender equality a goal, as well as an indicator of economic governance. A gender budget reflects commitment to gender equality and its

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[1]   Article II, section 14 provides, "The State recognizes the role of women in nation-building, and shall ensure the fundamental equality before the law of women and men."

Box 8:1. Key Philippine Laws Supporting Gender Equality

- Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1992 (RA 7192)
- Rooming-In and Breastfeeding Act of 1992 (RA 7600)
- Party-List System Act of 1995 (RA 7941)
- Anti-Sexual Harassment Law of 1995 (RA 7877)
- Anti-Rape Law of 1997 (RA 8353)
- Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act of 1998 (RA 8505)
- Anti-Trafficking in persons Act of 2003 (RA 9208)
- Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Act of 2004 (RA 9262)

expenditure can be traced and monitored, which improves transparency and accountability at the national and local levels. Including stakeholders in the budgeting process also assists with keeping the process transparent. A gender budget has the added benefit of making it easier to monitor commitments to CEDAW and the Millennium Development Goals.

The Government of the Philippines introduced a gender budget after years of women's advocacy for legislative and policy reforms regarding gender equality and empowerment. Unfortunately, it has yet to be fully institutionalized—proponents must justify the GAD budget in the House of

Representatives of the Congress of the Philippines every year before it is approved as part of the General Appropriations Act.[2]

The Government first made provision for a gender budget in the Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1992 (RA 7192). That act provides for increased resources for national and local government agencies to support programs and projects for women. The act allocates at least 5% (to be subsequently increased to 10–30%) of official development assistance to programs and projects that mainstream or include gender concerns. From 1999, the General Appropriations Act allocated a minimum of 5% of the Government's budget, both national and local government units, to gender plans developed by all national agencies. These gender plans are meant to be based on the Framework Plan for Women and its three priority areas—the promotion of women's economic empowerment, the protection and fulfillment of women's human rights, and the promotion and strengthening of gender-responsive governance. It was intended that the 5% allocation would influence the remainder of the budget, and thus the national agencies, to become more gender sensitive.

During the budget process, all national agencies and local government units receive a circular explaining the guidelines for preparing a GAD plan.[3] However, after more than 10 years of implementa-

tion and advocacy, national agencies' compliance with the GAD budget policy remains low. The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women data from 2004–2008 shows that, on average, only about 130 of the nearly 400 national agencies that were expected to submit a GAD plan actually did so. The compliance record of key implementing agencies is somewhat more encouraging. In 2004, 61% of the key implementing agencies submitted a GAD plan and reported back, as compared to 37% for non-key agencies.

Programs and projects included in the GAD plans and accomplishment reports must fall under any one or more of the three key Framework Plan for Women themes. Examples of projects under the GAD budget include providing health services, advocating and disseminating information on gender issues, building capacity and providing technical assistance on GAD and other gender issues, establishing or improving service facilities for women, issuing policies on gender, establishing databases and mechanisms for reporting on gender issues, improving awareness of gender issues when undertaking development planning at the national and local levels, and revising textbooks to remove social and gender stereotypes.

Agencies are also required to submit GAD accomplishment reports, demonstrating that they implemented their GAD plans and spent their gender budget accordingly. Not all agencies submit GAD accomplishment reports. The general failure of agencies to plan and budget for GAD and subsequently to submit accomplishment reports could indicate a lack of understanding and appreciation of the added value of gender mainstreaming. This could be due to a lack of viable opportunities for promoting gender-based programs or technical skills to assess areas of need and create appropriate programs.

From 2004 to 2007, the national agencies' GAD budgets decreased by more than 75% from P3.93 billion to P0.95 billion (Figure 8.1). In that period, the national GAD budget made up less than

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[2] The General Appropriations Act is passed annually and provides for the budget of government agencies, local government units, state colleges and universities, and other government instrumentalities in the Philippines. The act does not cover government owned and controlled corporations—they fund their operations from their income and are also required to prepare and submit a GAD plan and budget.

[3] Department of Budget and Management, National Economic Development Authority, National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women. 2004. Guidelines for the Preparation of Annual Gender and Development Plan and Budget Accomplishment Report to Implement Section on Programs/Projects Related to GAD of the General Appropriations Act. Joint Circular 2004–01, Manila, 5 April.

Figure 8:1: Gender and Development Budget Allocations per Year, 2004–2007 (in billion pesos)
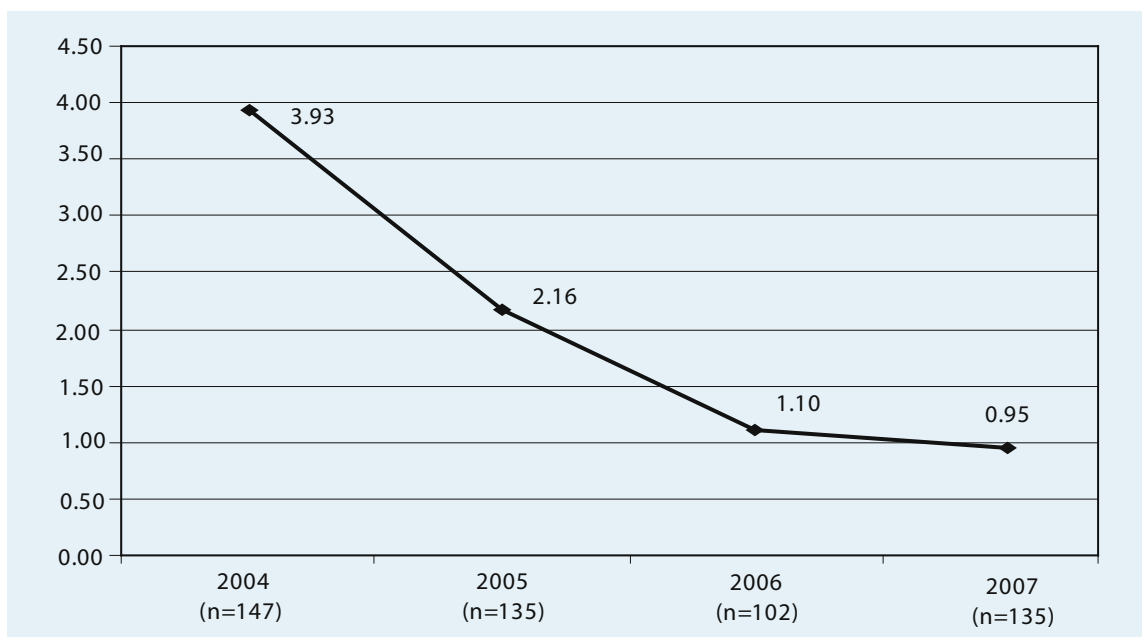
n = number of projects.

Source: National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women.

1% of total appropriations (based on amounts submitted to Department of Budget and Management). This was well short of the minimum 5% allocation. The shrinking GAD budget highlights how women, along with vulnerable and less influential groups, tend to lose in the competition for resources. Matters are made worse by the absence of a penalty for noncompliance and the persistent notion that gender issues are extraneous to issues in the general population.

Agencies' utilization of GAD budgets varies greatly each year, but it consistently remains well below the budgeted amount (Table 8.1). The problem could be confusion about what activities can be charged to the GAD budget. Incorrect attribution can unduly increase expenditure. On the other hand, isolating gender-related costs in a larger program is equally problematic. The solu-

tion is generally to separate and estimate costs of projects that are focused on women, and thus clearly gender-related, as chargeable to the GAD budget.

Depending on their purpose, agencies need to take a different approach to using GAD budgets. Some agencies have programs that, by definition, fulfill GAD criteria. If they are attributed to gender budget allocations, the targeted 5% will easily be reached and exceeded. One example is the Department of Health's maternal health program. However, the 5% target is just the minimum for gender spending. It is important to note that even for programs that are implicitly gender-focused, the service providers and planners must follow the harmonized GAD guidelines—they should use gender analysis and gender disaggregated data from the initial stages on.

Table 8.1: Planned Versus Spent Gender and Development Budgets, 2002–2006

Year	Proposed GAD Budget (in billion pesos)	GAD Expenditures (in billion pesos)	Percentage Utilization
2002	0.84	0.31	37
2003	4.74	0.51	11
2004	3.93	1.70	43
2005	2.16	0.65	30
2006	1.10	0.91	82

GAD = gender and development.

Source: Department of Budget and Management.

Gender and Development Budgeting at the Local Level

The Department of Budget and Management has issued annual budget circulars since 1997 that support implementation of GAD budgets at the local level. The current local budget circular on internal revenue allotment requires agencies to apply a minimum of 5% of the funds for a project to gender issues. In 2001, the NCRFW, Department of Interior and Local Government, and Department of Budget and Management issued a joint memorandum circular to all local government units (LGUs) containing guidelines for integrating GAD in the local planning and budgeting system. This included detailed instructions on how to formulate a GAD plan and budget and spelled out monitoring and reporting obligations. The local budget memorandum of June 2007 also required LGUs to undertake GAD planning in the normal course developing their programs, activities, and projects for the 2008 financial year.

LGUs report having mixed experiences in GAD planning and budgeting. Common complaints are technical difficulties and political issues in trying to allocate funds. But there are also some success stories. For example, the city of Escalante, Negros Occidental, used the community-based monitoring system to generate local gender disaggregated data to identify problems. Data was generated for indicators, such as the proportion of children not attending school, crimes committed, number of migrant workers, poverty-related deaths, seasonality of work, agriculture dependent labor, and number of unskilled laborers. The information was used to create a development agenda for the city that

Box 8.2: The Philippine Port Authority's Halfway Houses

One gender issue addressed by the Philippine Port Authority (PPA) is the vulnerability to trafficking of women and children travelling from their home province to different parts of the country. Using its gender budget, PPA set up halfway houses in its ports in Manila North Harbor, Batangas, Legaspi, and Davao. Called the "Kalakbay (co-traveller) Project," the halfway houses offer temporary shelter to stranded women and children who are vulnerable victims of trafficking. The halfway houses are operated by a nongovernment organization partner, the Visayan Forum, which assists victims of human trafficking. Survivors are provided with counselling, legal assistance and referral services, and repatriated to their hometown as needed. PPA maintains and pays for the building and facilities and institutionalized in its operations and budget.

Source: Philippine Ports Authority. 2005. *Annual Report*. Manila: PPA, p. 26.

**Box 8.3: Development Partners'
GAD Performance**

At the 2006 Philippine Development Forum, the Official Development Assistance Gender and Development Network called for a compliance report on implementation of the gender budgeting requirements under the Women in Development and Nation Building Act (RA 7192) 1992. This is a crucial link to the commitments to the 2005 Paris Agenda on Aid Effectiveness. New and harmonized gender and development (GAD) guidelines for project development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation were developed by the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA) and used to monitor the country's development partners. However, as few donors are familiar with the harmonized GAD guidelines, their assessment levels differ and information that NEDA received was incomplete. Only inputs from six agencies (the Asian Development Bank, Canadian International Development Agency, European Commission, International Labour Organization, United Nations Population Fund, and United Nations Children's Fund) could be used in computing the allocation of official development assistance funded projects for 2005 to 2006. For these, a majority of the projects were **gender responsive** or **gender sensitive** but a considerable proportion, especially among infrastructure and governance projects, were **gender invisible**. Industry and services projects, an area of important concern to poor women and women in microenterprise, also had poor ratings.

Box 8.4: The Case of Naga City

Naga City passed the Women's Development Code of Naga City in 2003, City Ordinance No.2003–045. It resulted from collaboration between the city government, women's nongovernment organizations and peoples' organizations. Two major provisions ensured the sustainability of gender initiatives in the city. One was providing for a gender and development budget equivalent to 10% of the city's annual budget. Secondly, Naga city acknowledged women's right to directly participate in governance and granted membership to the Naga City Council for Women (the body driving recognition of women's issues) on the city government's various committees.

even reduction in the incidence of gender-based violence.[5] Less tangible benefits include increased awareness and advocacy for gender issues and the development of local mechanisms for planning and implementation that increase the involvement of civil society groups in government processes.

Several factors contribute to the relative success of some LGUs in GAD budgeting. Participatory planning processes have provided women's groups and other organizations with scope to influence and support GAD plans and projects. A progressive and gender-responsive leadership is important, as in the case of Naga City (Box 8.4).[6] Technical assistance to enhance capacity for GAD planning and budgeting can be highly useful. Some LGUs were assisted by external donors, whose interventions paved the way for more results-oriented, gender-responsive, and

is better attuned to the needs of the constituent women and men, girls and boys and, thereby also more effective.[4]

Other positive effects of GAD budgets and plans at the local level have been reported, such as improved services for women and men, and

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4   Yap, Melecio, J. 2008. Presentation given at the Fifth CBMS National Conference, Manila, 31 January.

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5   Caloocan, Leyte, and Cebu cities reported a dramatic decrease in the incidence of gender-based violence as a result of sustained advocacy.

6   Jesse Robredo is a multi-awarded Mayor of Naga City. He has been cited for his outstanding good governance practices, including gender-sensitive programs.

Box 8.5: Local-Level Gender Budget Initiatives in the Philippines

This project was undertaken by Women's Action Network for Development (WAND), in partnership with the United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM), and with support from the European Union. The project sites focused on the health sector in Sorsogon City—a local government unit (LGU) with high maternal mortality rates—and the agriculture sector in Hilongos—a rural LGU affected by quarrying activities of agricultural land. The concrete outputs included gender profiles of the health and agriculture sectors in the two sites and sectoral gender and development (GAD) plans for incorporation into the existing multiyear plans of the local governments. In addition, the 2006 budgets of the two LGUs were more gender-responsive and results-based than they had been previously. In Sorsogon City, the health budget increased from P25 million in 2005 to P37 million in 2006. This increase allowed for a much larger allocation of funds to reproductive health, family planning, and prevention and control programs for sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS. Other project results included increased gender awareness and gender-related skills among local actors, and increased commitment by local leaders to GAD and enhancing service delivery. The LGUs' operations became transparent because local people understood more about how government worked and what questions to ask, and the LGUs improved their reporting efforts to their constituents.

Source: Florencia Dorotan, Strengthening results orientation of local gender budgeting (The case of Sorsogon and Hilongos, Leyte 2006). Summary presented at the country gender assessment stakeholder consultation held in Cebu City, 22 January 2008.

sustainable GAD planning and budgeting (Box 8.5).[7] Success also requires ongoing and consistent advocacy by local GAD focal persons and women's groups. LGUs may obtain support in a number of ways: negotiating with local governments, collaborating with other influential advocacy groups, and developing means of disseminating information in print or via radio and television. More examples of best practices at the local level need to be documented in order to assess the dynamic processes that account for successful implementation of the GAD budget policy.

Tracking Progress

The National Economic Development Authority (NEDA) is responsible for monitoring implementation of the gender budget provisions under the Women in Development and Nation Building Act (RA 7192) 1992. NEDA uses the harmonized GAD guidelines as a framework and guide for reviewing project proposals.[8] The parameters and a scoring system in the guidelines determine whether a project is gender-responsive, has promising GAD prospects, or is gender invisible. Answers to a set of questions are assigned a numerical value and then added to arrive at the project rating.[9] The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women is responsible for monitoring implementation of

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[7] Honculada, Jurgette A. 2006. *The Local Level Gender Budget Initiatives in the Philippines: Strengthening the Results Orientation of Local Gender Budgeting in Hilongos, Leyte and Sorsogon City*. Manila: Women's Action Network for Development/United Nations Fund for Women/European Union.

[8] The harmonized gender and development guidelines were developed with the support of donor agencies under the Official Development Assistance Gender and Development Network to review and rate a project's gender responsiveness. The use of the Guidelines began when they were issued in 2004. Previously, the National Economic Development Authority classified projects according to whether they were either (i) mainstreamed and/or integrated, (ii) with women's components, or (iii) for women only.

[9] 0–3.9 (gender invisible); 4.0–7.9 (with promising gender prospects); 8.0–14.9 (gender sensitive); and 15.0–20.0 (gender responsive).

Box 8.6: The Davao City Integrated Gender and Development Division

Since the early 1990s, the local government of Davao City has accumulated substantial experience in gender mainstreaming. This was the first city in the Philippines to develop and implement a "Women and Development Code" and to establish a gender and development (GAD) office. On 22 January 2008, the city council passed a resolution approving a policy that requires the annual budgets of all local government departments and/or offices or barangays to have GAD project allocations. If this is not complied with, the budgets will not be approved. To improve its services to survivors of gender-based violence, the city government has created an office under the city mayor's office, staffed with five full-time, city-paid lawyers. Their responsibility is to provide direct intervention, especially free legal assistance, to victims of rape, domestic violence, trafficking, sexual harassment, and other gender-based violence. To minimize the number of victims withdrawing their applications for protection orders under RA 9262, the division forged an agreement with the city prosecution office to refer those victims for counseling before granting the withdrawals.

Source: Lorna Bercilla-Mandin, Integrated Gender and Development Division, comment at the Mindanao country gender assessment stakeholder consultation held in Davao City, January 2008.

Box 8.7: Successes in Cebu City

The vibrant women's groups of Cebu City led by Lihok Pilipina achieved remarkable success in making the Cebu City government commit resources for gender and development (GAD). The groups capitalized on the strength of the *Bantay Banay* community watch program to help victims of gender-based violence. *Bantay Banay* has recruited and trained more than 5,000 volunteers and assisted in more than 13,000 cases. It has been replicated in several municipalities and cities nationwide. Strong ties between nongovernment organizations (NGOs) and the city government led to the creation of the Cebu City Women and Family Affairs Commission in 1997. The GAD Code and other important ordinances encourage GAD resource allocation. In 2004, a P15 million GAD budget was allocated from the annual investment plan. The city government released the funds directly to the NGOs who, in turn, are required to submit a report on their implementation.

Source: National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW). 2005. Gender Responsive Governance at Work: LGU Experiences in Using the GAD Budget. Manila: NCRFW.

the GAD budget policy from the national to local level, in coordination with Department of Budget and Management.

Qualitative documentation of selected best practices and specific case examples at the local level complement the more technical evaluation of the GAD budget. To date, two publications have detailed process and effects of civil society's active engagement in claiming the GAD budget. Documented cases include dissemination of knowledge in budget processes to communities and organizations and enhanced participation in democratic governance. Two success stories come from Davao City (Box 8.6) and Cebu City (Box 8.7).

Results in the implementation of GAD plans and budgets point to the importance of

(i) engaging civil society groups in local government planning and budgeting, where the GAD budget can function as an entry point and tool for negotiation;

(ii) integrating GAD in national and local planning and budgeting guidelines and systems;

(iii) initiating a gender budget audit by the Commission on Audit;

(iv) promoting non-sexist language in government; and

(v) generating sex-disaggregated data for the formulation of gender-responsive policies and programs.

"Engendering" the Judiciary

The responsibility for promoting, protecting, and fulfilling gender equality is not limited to the work of national executive agencies and the legislative body. The judiciary also plays a key role in implementing gender equality. Concluding comments made during the Sixth Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women indicated that access to justice by women and children is a key concern. The Philippine justice system constitutes the judiciary, supported by a network of institutions and other pillars of justice, such as law enforcement, prosecution, corrections, and community.[10] Nearly two thirds of judges and justices are male (Box 8.8).

In 2003, the Committee on Gender Responsiveness in the judiciary was formed to promote gender mainstreaming with an appropriate plan and budget. Some of the gender-responsive rules that have resulted to date include the Rule on Violence Against Women and their Children, the Rule on Administrative Procedure in Sexual Harassment Cases and Guidelines on the Proper Work Decorum in the Judiciary, the New Code of Judicial Conduct for the Philippine Judiciary and the Code of Conduct for Court Personnel, and the Changes in the Salutation in Notices of Resolutions of the Court.

In its 5-year GAD plan for the judiciary, the committee aimed to ensure gender sensitivity (i) by justices, judges, lawyers, court personnel, mediators, and litigants; (ii) in rules, procedures, systems, and facilities; and (iii) in judicial system databases. The committee also sought improved access for women and children to the judicial system and fully operational regular family courts nationwide. Gender biases persist in the legal system, and it is important to take steps toward educating the judiciary.

The accumulated experience of different branches of the Government and LGUs demon-

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[10] Asian Development Bank (ADB). 2007. Draft Summary Report on a Long-Term Strategy for Justice Sector Reform 2008. ADB: Manila.

Box 8.8: Gender and the Philippine Judiciary

While more women are employed in the Philippine judiciary, there are still more male judges and justices (61% in 2006).

- Supreme Court justices: 5 women and 10 men; all division clerks of court and assistant clerks of court are women;
- Appellate Court justices: 22 women and 30 men; and
- Court of Tax Appeals justices: 2 women and 6 men.

Source: www.supremecourt.gov.ph/gender/gds_index.php.

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strate that GAD planning and budgeting may correct existing inequities between women and men. However, unless important issues surrounding its implementation are addressed, the policy will continue to deny women their rightful share of resources.[11] The Philippine experience demonstrates that the presence of women in government (by election or appointment) or the mere setting of gender budget quotas will not automatically erase deep-seated male bias in governance institutions and processes. It also shows that gender-responsive policies, from legislation to budgets, are not self-fulfilling prophesies.

Women themselves have an important role to play in demanding that local government take into account gender and development issues in all of their actions (for example, through community organizing, electorate education, participatory development planning and budgeting, professionalizing career and/or public service posts). Budgeting and representation are profoundly political processes mediated by politicians, technocrats, and various other stakeholders. Direct

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[11] National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women. 2008. Financing Gender and Development. Paper presented at the 52nd Session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, New York, United States, 25 February–7 March.

citizen participation enhances the accountability and transparency of governments.

Recommendations

(i)   **Policy development:**
   (a)   Enact local ordinances, such as GAD codes, reproductive health ordinances, local children's codes, etc., especially when national laws are still lacking or are not being implemented.
   (b)   Enact the Magna Carta of Women, a comprehensive anti-discrimination and gender-equality law, and other pending bills as recommended by the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) committee.

(ii)   **Policy Implementation:**
   (a)   Strengthen gender mainstreaming and application of CEDAW and other international human rights commitments in all branches of government, especially the LGUs and the judiciary.
   (b)   Ensure women's groups and other civil society groups participate in the local and national development and budget processes, from GAD to public expenditure management and other sectoral approaches.
   (c)   Provide incentives for all branches of government (including LGUs and autonomous regional units) to undertake GAD planning and budgeting.
   (d)   Implement and monitor the Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1991 (RA 7192), including using official development assistance for women's empowerment and gender equality.

(e)   Institutionalize the requirement that all national agencies, LGUs, civil societies, and donor communities use the harmonized gender and development guidelines when planning and managing GAD projects.
(f)   Act swiftly on complaints and reports of misuse or non-allocation of GAD and other social development budgets at the LGU and national levels.

(iii)   **Policy implementation, financing:**
   (a)   Allocate sufficient resources for enacted laws and programs promoting women's empowerment and gender equality.
   (b)   Conduct participatory gender audits among key branches of the Government and donor community.

(iv)   **Financing:**
   (a)   Fund national machinery on gender equality to bring together the resources of governance institutions and the social movements toward an inclusive and empowering democracy.
   (b)   Sustain the work of third party groups, such as budget watch groups and legal action groups, in curbing corruption and promoting public accountability.

(v)   **Financing, capacity:** Support the political participation of women and marginalized groups, from voter's education to waging electoral campaigns, from the LGU level to the national level.

(vi)   **Data:**
   (a)   Conduct more effective GAD monitoring and evaluation in all branches of government.
   (b)   Generate continuously updated sex-disaggregated databases for gender analysis.

Chapter 9:

Conflict, Gender, and Peace

The Philippines has had a long history of armed religious and political conflict and strife, with a host of protracted negative effects on women, men, boys, and girls. The Framework Plan for Women identifies the need to enhance women's role in peace-building and conflict resolution as a key strategy in strengthening women's role in gender-responsive governance. The Philippine Plan for Gender and Development has seven "women and peace" goals.

An overview of the conflicts. Two main armed conflicts have persisted since the 1960s: the Bangsamoro struggle for self-determination in Mindanao (Box 9.1); and the communist insurgency (Box 9.2).[1] In 2008, there were four ongoing peace processes. These were between the Government and (i) Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF)—brokered in Malaysia; (ii) Communist Party of the Philippines, New People's Army (NPA) and National Democratic Front—brokered in Norway; (iii) *Rebolusyonaryong Partidong Manggagawa ng Pilipinas/Revolutionary Proletarian Army/Alex Boncayao Brigade* in Panay and Negros Islands; and (iv) *Rebolusyonaryong*

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[1]   In addition, the *Lumads* (indigenous people to Mindanao) suffered problems regarding ancestral domains—displacements, encroachments, militarization, and development aggression among others—which intensified during Martial Law. It worsened in the 21st century, according to IPHR Watch-Kalumaran in a comment at the joint country gender assessment consultation in Davao City, 23 January 2008.

Box 9.1: A Long History of Conflict in Mindanao

The conflict in Mindanao has historical roots dating back to the Spanish conquistadores in the 16th century. More than four decades of the Bangsamoro secessionist struggle in the Philippines is really just a continuation of a 300-year-old resistance against colonization by the Muslim population. It has persisted in the era of globalization and been complicated by the emergence of international terrorist networks and a global war against terror (GZO Peace Institute, 2005).

In 1977, the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) emerged as a dissident group of the Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF) and continued the armed struggle after the MNLF signed a peace agreement with the Government in 1996. Peace talks started in 2001 between MILF and the Government. The process came to a halt in February 2003 when the military launched an assault on MILF-controlled territories in pursuit of "terrorist elements".

In late 2004, an international monitoring team entered Mindanao to support the implementation of a ceasefire agreement. Informal peace talks have been held in Malaysia since 2005, but there is no clear resolution on the question of ancestral domain, Bangsamoro autonomy, and the Government's offer of federalism through a constitutional change process. In 2005, MILF had about 11,000 members plus about 2,000 splinter group forces operating mainly in central Mindanao.

Partidong Manggagawa ng Mindanao in Northern Mindanao.

Injustice, continuing underdevelopment, and poor governance are common roots of the armed conflicts in the country, complicated by international developments, such as the emergence of Muslim extremist networks and the US-led global war on terrorism.[2] Post-martial law administrations have not been consistent in pursuing peace negotiations with a peace-building perspective, but have tended to use strategies of coercion. President Corazon Aquino first introduced peace negotiations as a mode of settling armed conflicts with insurgents and secessionist movements in the Philippines. President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo broadened the Philippine peace process by appointing women to the peace negotiation panels[3] and including a peace plan in the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan and in the Medium-Term Philippine Investment Plan. In May 2008, President Macapagal-Arroyo appointed the former chief of staff of the Armed Forces of the Philippines, General H. Esperon, to the position of Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process.

Gendered Effects of Armed Conflicts

One of the major effects of conflict is displacement—this has a major effect on households and livelihoods. In the absence of systematic national monitoring of displacement and return movements, there is no confirmed figure on the total number of people displaced by ongoing conflicts in the Philippines. The Internal Displacement

Monitoring Centre estimates that from 2000–2006, almost 2 million people were displaced as a result of ongoing conflicts, the large majority in 2000–2003. Estimates are available by location and number of households, but there is no

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Box 9.2: The Communist Struggle

The New People's Army (NPA) is the military wing of the Communist Party of the Philippines (CPP), a Maoist group formed in 1969 with the aim of overthrowing the Government through protracted guerrilla warfare. Estimated at less than 9,000, the NPA's peak strength was about 25,000 in the 1980s. The NPA is concentrated mainly in Southern Tagalog, eastern Visayas, and southeast Mindanao.

In 2005, the Government and the CPP/NPA established a Joint Monitoring Committee and re-affirmed the 1995 Joint Agreement on Safety and Immunity Guarantees (the safe conduct pact). But these steps, taken to reduce tensions, were insufficient. Formal negotiations failed and the peace process faltered. While the separate Government and CPP monitoring committees continued to operate, they did not meet together as the Joint Monitoring Committee, and so were unable to promote an appropriate course of effective remedial action. The impasse deepened over the growing frequency of political killings of leftist activists, allegedly by military gunmen, and periodic killings of civilians reportedly carried out by the NPA. In 2005, citing a loss of confidence in the legitimacy of the Arroyo administration, the CPP announced that it was withdrawing from formal negotiations. In response, the Government stipulated that monitoring the Comprehensive Agreement on Respect for Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law (signed 16 March 1998 in The Hague) would be conditional on peace negotiations. The Government subsequently suspended the safe conduct pact. Recent progress in peace negotiations has been virtually nil.

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[2]   Coronel-Ferrer, Miriam. 2004. The Philippine State and Moro Resistance: Dynamics of a Persistent Conflict. Paper presented at the Southeast Asian Conflict Studies Network Conference 2004 "Issues and Challenges for Peace and Conflict Resolution," Malaysia, 12–15 January 2004.

[3]   In 2005, two of the four existing government negotiating panels were headed by women, and every negotiating panel had at least one woman member.

sex-disaggregated data.[4] Women and men, girls and boys are affected differently by armed conflicts. However, they all are highly vulnerable to being caught in the cross fire due to socially and culturally prescribed roles. Men, especially the young and less educated, are vulnerable to recruitment by armed and criminal elements and they are also often expected to lay down their lives in defending the family and community.

Gender roles are also affected by conflict. In conflict-affected areas, women tend to be responsible for social protection (such as caring for the family and supporting the soldiers), undertaking livelihood projects, resolving conflicts at the family and community levels, and promoting peace. Men are expected to assume the role of combatants. Children tend to suffer severe psychosocial effects (Box 9.3). In 2007, UNICEF commissioned the IBON Foundation to conduct a needs assessment of children and women affected by armed conflict. The report highlighted that there are varying impacts of both short- and long-term displacements. IBON interviewed 430 people, including children, women, local NGOs, officials, and insurgents in Abra, Mindoro, Capiz, Leyte, Surigao del Sur, Compostela Valley, North Cotabato, and Maguindanao. It identified three clusters of needs: (i) poverty and weak governance, (ii) relief and rehabilitation efforts to include psychosocial services, and (iii) the reckless endangerment of children and women civilians during armed actions ("collateral damage").

In designing a peace process, gender impacts must be considered to create sustainable peace and development, which requires social inclusiveness and accountability (JNA 2005). Peace is both a process and an outcome. Conflict does not end with the signing of a peace agreement, but peace could start with it. With a peace and development framework, the process starts with ceasefire, then focuses on the challenge of keeping peace

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[4]   www.internal-displacement.org/idmc/website/countries.nsf/

through confidence-building measures and peace accords, and sustaining peace through post-conflict rehabilitation and reconstruction, and pursuit of socioeconomic reforms. All these steps must be anchored on good governance.

Peace interventions and processes usually have three tracks. The first is about the voices and roles of stakeholders in leadership and decision making in addressing armed conflict. The second is about establishing community-level negotiations; human rights education for the security sector; a citizens' commission that can diffuse tensions between parties on the ground; scholarly conceptual and theoretical frameworks for understanding women and conflict; and participation of women and international feminist networks in the formal peace process. The third track includes providing psychosocial care to persons affected by the civil war, displaced communities, and women victims of violence; human rights documentation; and economic empowerment of women and communities through infrastructure and education.

For example, the assessments for the multi-donor Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF) Peace Agreement and the Joint Needs Assessment for the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) Peace Agreement emphasized the need to have temporary measures specifically for women alongside

Box 9.4: UN Security Council Resolution 1325 of 2000

- Urges member states to ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels in national, regional, and international institutions, and mechanisms for the prevention, management, and resolution of conflict;
- Expresses the need to incorporate a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations and urges the Secretary General to ensure that, where appropriate, field operations include a gender component;
- Calls on all actors, when negotiating and implementing peace agreements, to adopt a gender perspective, including (i) the special needs of women and girls during repatriation and resettlement and for rehabilitation, reintegration, and post-conflict reconstruction; (ii) measures that support local women's peace initiatives and indigenous processes for conflict resolution, and that involve women in all of the implementation mechanisms of the peace agreements; (iii) measures that ensure the protection of and respect for human rights of women and girls, particularly as they relate to the constitution, the electoral system, the police, and the judiciary.

equal access to opportunities for capacity building and benefits of the official development assistance-supported package for Mindanao.[5]

Local Peace Efforts

Involving local stakeholders in the peace process is necessary to empower communities and enhance governance mechanisms in the long run. The Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process and other peace advocates have acknowledged that the voices of indigenous peoples, women, and children caught in the ongoing conflicts are not systematically documented or taken into account by government and media.[6] The displacement and increased vulnerabilities of children and women (as civilians and potential combatants) have tended to be placed on a back-burner. Nonetheless, local women's groups and individual women and men, especially in Mindanao, have actively participated in making peace and in advocating for the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (Box 9.4).[7] The engagement has largely focused on community-level negotiations and other "track two" activities (as described in the three-tracked approach above).

Women's efforts in peace building. The Mindanao Commission on Women has developed a multistakeholder strategy for peace and development that includes active roles for women in conflict resolution in Mindanao. The Mothers for Peace Movement evolved from their efforts to "work for peace in the ways of peace". Together with an informal network of Mindanao women lawyers, the Davao-based Initiatives for International Dialogues trained community women, including the *Lumad*, on strategies that supported the community-based Bantay Ceasefire (ceasefire watch) and applied UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. It was noted that while many indigenous communities had customs and practices that recognized the role of women in conflict resolution (e.g., Matigsalog,

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5   Government of the Philippines, International Funding Agencies and Mindanao Stakeholders. 2005. Joint Needs Assessment for Reconstruction and Development of Conflict-Affected Areas in Mindanao: Integrative Report. Manila: World Bank.

6   Field notes of Romina Sta. Clara from the World Bank/NCRFW Mainstreaming Gender in Peacebuilding workshops in November 2006 (Davao City) and January 2007 (Manila).

7   Beijing Platform for Action +10 Philippine Review 2005. Civil society organizations and women's groups in particular have been at the forefront of UNSR localization.

Maranao), public and formal policies and systems tended to make women's efforts and roles invisible.[8] To address this issue, the World Bank supported a series of multisectoral consultations that led to the Gender and Peace Toolkit with concrete action points (Box 9.5).

Given the rate at which peace processes are failing, it is apparent that peace and security policy should not be left to the military alone—or to male-oriented ways of resolving conflicts. Instead, by taking into account the perspectives of non-combatants, women, and children, peacemakers have much better prospects of ending long-running conflicts and fostering stable peace.

Recommendations

Recommendations for engendering peace that incorporate views from the joint country gender assessment stakeholder consultations include the following:

(i) **Policy development, policy implementation:** Implement and localize UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflicts.

(ii) **Policy development, services:** Address the special needs of children, women, and vulnerable groups, such as indigenous communities, in the peace processes (regardless of their faith and political persuasion) and include them in relief and rehabilitation efforts.

(iii) **Policy implementation:** Monitor and address all violations of international humanitarian laws by all combatants, Government, and nonstate forces alike.

(iv) **Financing:**

(a) Pool resources and create an "Urgent Special Fund" as a temporary measure to support women, children, and indigenous peoples in conflict situations across the country.

(b) Support the devolution of peace-building efforts and collaboration of women's rights movements, peace movements, and Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process.

(v) **Data:** Promote interagency coordination to establish a sex-disaggregated national monitoring system of displacements and return movements.

(vi) **Data, advocacy:** Document and disseminate the voices, vulnerabilities, and experiences of women, children, and indigenous peoples in ongoing conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction efforts.

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[8] Field notes of Romina Sta. Clara from the World Bank/NCRFW Mainstreaming Gender in Peacebuilding workshops in November 2006 (Davao City) and January 2007 (Manila).

Box 9.5: Engendering Peace

In 2006 and 2007, the World Bank, Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process, and the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women undertook a series of multisectoral consultations in conflict-affected areas of Mindanao. The participants developed these key action points for creating gender-accountable peace:

- **E**nsure that a vision of "positive peace" is adopted, which entails not only the resolution of the armed conflict, but also the resolution of structural violence (i.e., social inequity) and social violence, including violence against women and children.
- **N**ote the differing effects of the armed conflict on women and men, and how inequitable gender relations affect the nature of the war, peace-building, and post-conflict reconstruction initiatives.
- **G**uarantee equal opportunities for women and men to participate in the process of conflict prevention and resolution.
- **E**spouse strategies that enable women and men to work side by side toward gender equality. At all times, ensure that the pursuit of gender equality is not perceived as an anti-male advocacy.
- **N**etwork with all peace stakeholders for collaborative efforts and shared responsibilities toward mainstreaming gender in peace-building.

- **D**evelop gender sensitivity and gender responsiveness among all peace stakeholders, including negotiators.
- **E**ducate and involve the public in mainstreaming gender in peace-building.
- **R**ecognize the various roles and the different needs and concerns of women and men in armed conflict and post-conflict situations.
- **P**rovide adequate resources (human, financial, equipment, facilities, etc.) for mainstreaming gender in peace-building.
- **E**nsure the sustainability of efforts to mainstream gender in peace-building.
- **A**ssign a structure—a gender focal point, composed of various women and men stakeholders—to ensure, monitor, and evaluate the mainstreaming of gender in the peace-building process.
- **C**apacitate women and men for multi-track peace-building advocacy.
- **E**nsure the documentation, dissemination, and use of lessons on gender mainstreaming in peace-building.

Source: World Bank. 2007. *Building Partnerships for Gender-responsive Peacebuilding Work*. Manila: World Bank.

Chapter 10:

Gender in Disaster Risk Management

The Philippines is one of the world's most natural disaster-prone countries. Natural disasters have been identified as a key constraint to economic growth in the Philippines.[1] Located on the Pacific Ring of Fire, it is prone to seismic activity. The islands are also frequently hit by typhoons, which destroy crops and property and result in death. An average of 20 typhoons enters Philippine territory every year—eastern Visayas, northern Luzon, and southern Luzon are worst affected. As a consequence of climate change, typhoons are becoming increasingly strong. Table 10.1 shows that typhoons have historically caused by far the greatest number of fatalities and most damage compared with other types of natural disasters.

The figures in Table 10.1 do not capture the heightened, indirect, and social impact that natural disaster has on the poor due to their increased vulnerability. As a result of poverty, increasing population, and lack of land tenure, many people in the Philippines are forced to live and work in high-risk areas. Poor environmental management has worsened the effects of natural disasters in the Philippines. Deforestation has increased the frequency and impact of landslides, which destroy homes, agricultural resources, and lives. Urbanization has led to a higher risk of disaster in poor neighborhoods in urban landscapes. Floods resulting from torrential rains and rising sea levels are aggravated by poor drainage systems and waterways that are clogged with plastic bags and other garbage.

Women and men are differently affected by natural disasters. For example, women are especially vulnerable to poor nutrition and, vitamin and iron deficiency—especially anemia, which can be fatal in pregnancy. In times of disaster, there is an increased risk of unplanned pregnancy, sexually transmitted infections, and unassisted childbirth. The stress and disruption of natural disasters often leads to increased incidents of sexual violence and domestic abuse. The breakdown of community norms and protection may lead to a rise in sexual exploitation. Women's physiology makes them more vulnerable to HIV and other sexually transmitted infections. Rape increases this risk even further because abrasions and torn vaginal tissue increase the possibility of infection. Desperate conditions and the loss of income may also force women and adolescents to exchange sex for food, shelter, protection, or money.

But when emergency strikes, women and men alike are forced to pool resources to ensure the survival of children, older relatives, and the disabled. During armed conflict, men are frequently absent, meaning that women are solely responsible for ensuring the safety of children and the elderly. More than 75% of displaced persons affected by disasters are women and children.[2] In the aftermath of a natural disaster or in refugee settings, basic tasks, such as collecting water, become

1   Asian Development Bank. 2007. Philippine Development Forum, 8–9 March 2007, Cebu City.

2   World Health Organization (WHO). 2006.

Table 10.1: Ranking of Disaster-Related 20th Century Philippine Fatalities

Event	Fatalities	Damage (millions of US dollars)
Typhoon	28,812	5,653
Earthquake	9,572	517
Volcano	6,331	228
Flood	2,545	431

Source: World Bank and National Disaster Coordinating Council of the Philippines. 2003. *Natural Disaster Risk Management in the Philippine: Enhancing Poverty Alleviation Through Disaster Reduction*. World Bank.

challenging. Yet, the responsibility for carrying them out often remains with women, despite their increased vulnerability.

In times of crisis, the particular strengths and vulnerabilities of women are often overlooked in the rush to provide humanitarian assistance. Most relief efforts respond to the overall population and are based on a patriarchal societal structure.[3] Targeted support to women can be one of the best ways to ensure the health, security, and well-being of families and entire communities.

School buildings often serve as evacuation centers during nature disasters. Teaching is disrupted because teachers are preoccupied with other tasks. The majority of school teachers in the Philippines are women and, in times of crisis, they tend to carry the burden of providing safety to their families. This further disrupts children's education. The educational impact of natural disasters is highest on children from poor families because they experience difficulty replacing lost school supplies.

Incorporating Gender Needs in Disaster Risk Management

In disaster relief management, gender inequality in social, economic, and political spheres results in differences between men and women in emergency communication; household decisions about use of relief assets; voluntary relief and recovery work; access to evacuation shelter and relief goods; and employment in disaster planning, relief, and recovery programs (footnote 3). Disasters provide women with new challenges and opportunities to work in traditionally male-dominated roles. Women are often perceived to be more effective than men in mobilizing the community to respond to disasters, an essential quality in disaster preparedness and mitigation.[4] However, to fully understand the needs and vulnerabilities of women, men, girls, and boys and simultaneously make the best possible use of available human resources, decision makers need to systematically consider gender concerns.

WHO's requirements for incorporating gender issues into disaster management include generating sex-disaggregated data, identifying women who are particularly at risk, and engaging women in community-based disaster mitigation and planning (Box 10.1). A number of analytical frameworks also translate policy into practice: (i) People-Oriented Planning in Refugee Situations, which looks at the context of the crisis and refugee profile, the activities of women and men, and their use and control of resources before and after the crisis; (ii) Capacities and Vulnerabilities

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[3] WHO. 2005a. Gender and Natural Disasters. Geneva: WHO.

[4] WHO. Fact Sheet on Gender and Natural Disasters, Pan American Health Organization. Women's Health and Development Program.

Box 10.1: WHO Recommends:

1. Generating sex-disaggregated data for community vulnerability and capacity assessments.
2. Identifying those women who are marginalized and particularly at risk, including economically destitute women, women belonging to racial and ethnic minorities, women with chronic disabilities or health problem, women subject to gender-based violence, and women with insufficient security and privacy in shelters.
3. Engaging women as full and equal partners in community-based disaster mitigation and planning, and integrating women at the highest levels of planning and decision making in camp environments (particularly with respect to the health needs of women, including reproductive health services) and employing women as primary distributors of emergency rations and medical supplies.

Analysis, which is being used in the Philippines and which focuses on program implementation with separate spaces for women and children in evacuation centers, the provision of sanitary menstruation supplies to women, and the timing of activities to fit the routines of both men and women; (iii) social relations analysis, which assesses how the relationships between men and women underpin the coping strategies they adopt in response to specific emergencies.

The vital role of women in disaster reduction (prevention, mitigation, and preparation), response and recovery, and natural resources management has been recognized by the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women. Women's capacity for dealing with disasters lies in supporting their families and communities, and in rebuilding and restoring their communities in ways that mitigate future disasters. Based on this, the Commission recommended that member states adopt gender-sensitive approaches to environmental management; and disaster reduction, response, and recovery, including in disaster-related economic relief.

The Philippine Response to Disaster Risks

In the Philippines, the local and national governments appropriate calamity funds for emergency and rehabilitation activities. The Government has a disaster management program that focuses on disaster preparedness, organization and training, construction of disaster reduction infrastructure (i.e., river dikes and seawalls), public information, and research and development. Specialized skills for search and rescue, evacuation, first-aid, and damage assessment are conducted at the local government level, particularly in barangays. The National Disaster Coordinating Council works to improve emergency management, reduce and manage vulnerability, develop human resources to better deal with disasters, and undertake advocacy for civil protection. The local government units also play a vital role in disaster preparation—the provincial governor and other local officials bear the primary responsibility for preparing their communities for disaster.[5]

Despite a good policy framework, there is neither sufficient preparedness nor enough resources to respond to major disasters. A 2003 World Bank study found that disaster management systems in the Philippines tended to rely on a reactive approach.[6] Humanitarian assistance and support also relies heavily on the international community and some local philanthropists. To improve

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[5] Strengthening the Philippine Disaster Control, Capability and Establishing the National Program on Community Disaster Preparedness (PD 1566), 1978.

[6] World Bank and National Disaster Coordinating Council of the Philippines. 2003. *Natural Disaster Risk Management in the Philippine: Enhancing Poverty Alleviation Through Disaster Reduction*. World Bank.

Table 10.2: Matrix of Women's Role in Disaster Management

Community-level Actions and Strategies	Action Points
Policy making in disaster management	Integrate women into the policy-making process
Development of human resources	Develop training programs to increase women's knowledge
Information management	Involve women in data collection and assessment
Mobilization of women	Organize women's groups to address needs during calamities
Local emergency management committees	Institutionalize women's participation in emergency committees and link them with outside support groups
Representation and/or participation in decision making	Ensure women's participation in decision-making bodies
Priorities for women in the organization of recovery program	Involve women in restoration work, e.g., food production, housing
Warning systems and response mechanisms	Use media to reach and tap women
Women's involvement in response and relief operations	Promote collaboration to ensure that women's needs are addressed and to ensure their participation in the relief and response process

Source: Asian Disaster Preparedness Center, 2004.

disaster management and preparedness in the Philippines, the National Disaster Coordinating Council has a four-point plan of action:

(i)   Upgrade weather forecasting capability.
(ii) Undertake a public information campaign on disaster preparedness.
(iii) Build capacity for local government units in vulnerable areas.
(iv) Facilitate public–private partnerships for relief and rehabilitation.

The National Disaster Coordinating Council adopted an innovative "cluster approach" in 2007. It aimed to improve coordination between provincial, regional, and national levels in disaster risk management and enhance the quality of humanitarian action.[7] Clusters are essentially sectors and include, for example, health, emergency shelter, nutrition, logistics, and water sanitation and hygiene. With the cluster approach, one government agency takes lead responsibility for coordinating aid efforts in one particular cluster (often a sector), working with a counterpart from the Inter-Agency Standing Committee, which involves the key UN and non-UN humanitarian partners. The roles and responsibilities of the cluster leads are defined and the cluster approach identifies deliverables at the regional and provincial levels to speed up the management process. The overarching objective is to avoid ad hoc, unpredictable humanitarian responses.

[7]   National Disaster Coordinating Council. 2007. *Circular No. 05, s-2007*. Manila. National Disaster Coordinating Council. The circular discusses the institutionalization of the Cluster Approach in the Philippine Disaster Management System, the designation of cluster leads and their terms of reference at the national, regional, and provincial levels.

Gender Awareness in Disaster Risk Management

In the immediate aftermath of a disaster, the community does the initial response. Women play an important role because they are generally responsible for providing food, clothing, and shelter. They also tend to make media appearances appealing for aid; assist in the distribution of goods; and care for people who are in shock from the loss of family, friends, neighbors, property, and livelihoods—an important psychosocial contribution.

In the Philippines, women's skills and efforts are being recognized as a considerable social force in mitigating the effects of natural disasters. Women regularly lead efforts toward natural disaster risk reduction, whether governmental or in civil society. The environmental movement and women's agency groups largely cooperate and form a strong force in the environmental movement. They promote sustainable development, support reforestation, lobby for policy reforms to prevent disasters caused by aggressive industries (such as mining and logging), conduct research on climate change, and disseminate information through the media.[8]

The Government has a number of gender-responsive disaster management programs. The Department of Environment and Natural Resources runs an education campaign called Engendering Geohazard Assessment and Mapping. The project provides women and men with access to geohazard susceptibility maps that show the vulnerability of various communities to natural disasters. This helps show them which parts of their community are susceptible to geohazard, giving them the capacity to plan for hazards (or mitigate their effects by avoiding building in unstable areas, for example). Under this initiative, assessments were carried out in Baras; Rizal (northern Philipines); the cities of Legaspi and Naga (Bicol) (southeastern Luzon); Panaon Island in Southern Leyte (south-

ern Philippines); parts of Surigao City; Gingoog in Misamis Oriental; and parts of Davao City (southern Philippines).

The Metro Manila Development Authority has also developed the Metropolitan Manila Disaster Preparedness Plan. The plan maps risk areas and provides for relocation of informal settlers during natural disasters. It aims to minimize the impact of natural disasters on vulnerable women in informal settlements. The REINA Project is a disaster management plan for the municipalities of Real, Infanta, and General Nakar, in Quezon province. The project focuses on disaster relief, multihazard mapping, and community warning systems, and provides training for managing trauma emergencies and initial surgical cases resulting from disasters. It also develops farming systems aimed at providing food following a disaster. This practice is consistent with the *bayanihan* spirit, a community-led and indigenous practice.

Conclusions

Greater efforts are needed to involve women in disaster risk management—their involvement remains the exception rather than the norm. Gender-fair participation in management is insufficient for developing truly gender-responsive risk management strategies. In order to understand the specific needs of each gender in natural disasters, a conscious gender analysis is needed.

Disaster risk reduction efforts are most effective when they involve women and men from the different levels of the disaster-affected communities. This harnesses local knowledge and builds local women's and men's skills in, and knowledge about, addressing the various needs of their family and community. It also builds the community's capacity to plan for and manage future disasters. In particular, community-based disaster risk management programs can include local women and men in planning stages, project implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. Table 10.2

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8   Miriam-PEACE, 2007.

outlines the many roles women can and should play in community-based disaster preparedness, response, and recovery.

Recommendations

The following are general recommendations to understand each gender's needs in disaster risk management and disaster risk reduction in the Philippines:

    (i) **Capacity:** Strengthen the capacity of local women to contribute to the community's natural risk reduction efforts.

    (ii) **Data:**

        (a) Describe women's vulnerabilities during natural disasters to understand better how to address them.

        (b) Document best practices for women's involvement in disaster risk reduction in the Philippines.

The following specific recommendations apply to the cluster approach:

Food and Nutrition

    (i) **Policy development:**

        (a) Grant women control over food aid to ensure efficient distribution and reduce corruption and sexual exploitation.

        (b) Design food programs to provide for the unique needs of women and girls, for example, iron supplements and vitamin A.

Water and Sanitation

    (i) **Services:**

        (a) Bring sources of water as close to people as possible. Women and girls are usually responsible for collecting water, a task that can become time consuming, physically exhausting, and dangerous if the source is far away.

        (b) Provide latrines and washing facilities close to the living area to lower the risk for attack of women and girls.

        (c) Provide women with sanitary menstruation products for their dignity, comfort, and mobility. Without them, women may be inhibited from carrying out daily tasks.

Health

    (i) **Services:**

        (a) Provide urgent, safe motherhood interventions, which can mean the difference between life and death for pregnant women and their newborn babies, as well as for other children and relatives under their care.

        (b) Ensure that women have access to family planning services, maternal health care, and post-partum care during disasters.

Camp Management/Logistics

    (i) **Policy implementation:**

        (a) Assess the needs of women and men with respect to the location of camps and access to sustenance farming land and use of local resources, including local markets, water, and forest products.

        (b) Ensure that all camp management agencies and other sectoral partners adopt equal wages and/or remuneration for equal work undertaken by women and men.

        (c) Ensure that ration card distribution systems are based on discussion with women and men to agree on the best mechanism to ensure that women's rights are protected.

(d) Make certain that all women, girls, boys, and men have the necessary documentation and identity documents before camp closure.

(ii) **Services:** Ensure that communities focus on proper lighting, night patrols, firewood collection escorts, and separate living facilities for unaccompanied women and girls, as this substantially lowers the vulnerability to sexual attack.

(iii) **Advocacy:** Develop clear communication channels to share the camp policy with different stakeholders to advocate on issues faced by displaced women, girls, boys, and men.

(iv) **Capacity:**

(a) Provide support to women and adolescent girls and boys to strengthen their leadership capacities and facilitate their meaningful participation.

(b) Promote the importance of gender balance within the camp management agency and among partners and ensure that women are in-

cluded in all camp management training.

(v) **Data:** Regularly monitor high-risk security areas at different times of the day, such as the route to school for girls, video clubs at night, bars, etc.

Protection

(i) **Services:** Undertake risk mitigation strategies focused on protecting survivors and providing them with medical treatment, including emergency contraception and counseling support.

Education

(i) **Policy implementation:** Hold classes at convenient times for those children involved with household chores and field work.

(ii) **Capacity:** Provide gender-specific extra-curricular activities that promote resilience and healing for girls and boys in emergencies.

(iii) **Data:** Monitor sexual harassment; provide a confidential complaint mechanism and follow-up with clear procedures.

Chapter 11:

Looking Ahead

The goal of this joint country gender assessment is to spark discussion on selected policy issues and to inform development partners' future strategies for promoting gender equality in a harmonized manner. Aligned with the Government's Framework Plan for Women, the report covers a lot of territory. From poverty to gender budgets, from education to entrepreneurship, the themes for in-depth analysis were purposefully selected for their relevance in the Philippines today. The aim of this closing chapter is not to repeat every recommendation for policy development, policy implementation, financing, service delivery, data, capacity or advocacy for gender equality, and women's empowerment. Instead, it highlights some of the key themes that this report's advisory group, members of the Official Development Assistance Gender and Development Network, felt require more focused attention over the coming years.

There is no doubt that the Philippines compares favorably with other countries in the region in terms of gender equality and women's empowerment. But there are a number of worrying conditions and trends, paradoxes that persist amid promise. For example, the Philippines is considered a middle-income country, yet recent years have seen an alarming deterioration in many human development indicators. Despite reasonably strong economic growth, the poverty incidence increased from 30% to 33% of the population for 2003–2006. That means more than 27 million people lived on less than P42 per day (the official poverty line for 2006, worth about US$0.80 at the

time). Another paradox is that—in a country with a traditionally strong education system, and one where education is highly valued—education indicators are deteriorating: fewer children are enrolling and more are dropping out. Maternal mortality remains unacceptably high. In the Philippines, an average of about eight women die every day from pregnancy and childbirth-related causes, and most complications and deaths are due to limited access to reproductive health services.[1]

As difficult as they are, the issues above are at least visible, lending themselves to action where there is political will and commitment. Some of the persistent problems occur in areas so invisible—appalling conditions for domestic workers, gender-based violence, trafficking in persons—that responding to them is particularly difficult. But responding to them is essential. In the 2008 Universal Periodic Review, a new mechanism implemented by the Human Rights Council in Geneva to examine the human rights record of every UN member state, the Philippines was specifically advised to develop gender-responsive judicial and nonjudicial interventions on violence against women, and also to intensify the fight against trafficking.

This country gender assessment has, hopefully, shown that gender issues are everyone's

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[1]   The maternal mortality rate is 162 per 100,000 births. With a population of 88.6 million in 2007 and an average annual growth rate of 2.04%, more than 1.8 million babies are born every year, or nearly 5,000 every day.

issues, and that achieving women's empowerment and gender equity can only strengthen a country's development trajectory. In addition to focusing on gender-based violence, the following seven points should be considered when the Government of the Philippines and its development partners develop, refine, and implement strategies and policies.

(i) **Education indicators are worsening.** The far-reaching effects of deteriorating education indicators cannot be overemphasized. Human capital—to which education is fundamental—is the most important asset in accessing opportunities and fulfilling human potential. While the gender gap in education in the Philippines tends to favor girls, the elementary education participation rate, the cohort survival rate, and the completion rate are all falling. Dropouts are increasing. There are stark regional disparities. Of 100 children who start elementary school in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao, a mere 35 will complete sixth grade. If children do manage to stay in school, the quality of the education they receive through the public system is often poor. Only 6 out of 1,000 grade 1 entrants will graduate from grade 6 with a passing score in English, math, and science. A solid education beyond the basic level is a fundamental requirement for competitiveness, particularly in new industries. At the tertiary level, gender stereotyping in choice of courses persists, with the implication that women train for jobs that are less well paid.

(ii) **Reproductive health needs and rights are fundamentally unmet.** Access to sexual and reproductive health services is essential for women's empowerment and access to opportunities. Being able to make one's own fertility decisions is a cornerstone of gender equity and development. The Philippines is signatory to a number of international agreements that state these facts explicitly. And yet, in the 21st century, nearly half of all pregnancies are unintended. The consequences of the unmet reproductive health needs are a thriving market for illegal and dangerous abortions, high infant and maternal mortality, and lives made unnecessarily more difficult, particularly for poor women.

(iii) **There is potential for new jobs in new industries, but old problems persist.** Many of the newer industries—like business process outsourcing and other information and communications technology-based industries—demonstrate a preference for hiring women, yet women still tend to occupy lower-paid, lower-tier jobs. Technology park employees report gender-based discrimination and sexual harassment. There is a need for strict enforcement of core labor standards and safe working conditions. Women and men alike are finding it more difficult to get new industry jobs in the face of a declining skill base, including poor English proficiency. Investments in improving the quality of all levels of education to enhance language, numerical, and logic skills of women and men are the foundation of competitiveness on the job market.

(iv) **Migration comes at a cost.** Migration can provide great opportunities. Overseas Filipino workers—more and more women among them—are the nation's heroes, sending back ever-increasing remittances so that the economy continues to grow. But these gains need to be weighed against costs. Consumption-driven growth is one result. With its low labor intensity, this kind of growth does not create enough jobs. Remittances

are rarely harnessed for productive investment. Brain drain is another result, particularly in the health professions. At the household level, long separations from spouses, children, and extended families mean that migrants and their families often pay a heavy price. Migrants are vulnerable to exploitation, particularly when grinding poverty is the driving force behind the decision to migrate (which it often is for domestic migration). Ensuring safe migration and combating trafficking is paramount, but creating more and better opportunities at home—and not only in the major urban centers—is also an important part of the migration equation.

(v) **Informal work needs adequate support.** A very large number of Filipinos make a living in the informal sector—more than 15 million by one Department of Labor and Employment estimate. If each one of those informal sector workers had only two dependents, it would mean that 45 million people, more than half of all Filipinos, depend on the informal sector for survival. Nine out of ten enterprises are micro and operate in the informal, unregistered, and unregulated segment of the economy. Women outnumber men 2 to 1 in trade, while men completely dominate in transport. Micro-, small, and medium-sized enterprises face many constraints, among them limited access to formal credit, hazardous workplaces, a lack of access to information, and no social protection. Gender issues are often missing from supply or value chain analyses. An important recognition is that different groups of workers and producers—women and men in micro-, small, and medium-sized enterprises—have different situations and concerns. One size does not fit all.

(vi) **Effective disaster risk management requires a gendered lens.** The Philippines is highly vulnerable to a range of geophysical disasters, with millions of people affected every year. Typhoons, flooding, and landslides are among the more common, causing instant and profound devastation. The specific vulnerabilities and capacities of men and women and the gender dynamics of disaster situations are often not obvious. Disaster risk reduction is, therefore, most effective when it involves the communities—and particularly the women in those communities—that are most vulnerable. Community-based disaster risk reduction can increase women's skills and knowledge of the various needs of their families and society.

(vii) **Gender-responsive governance is essential for a gender-fair society.** Good governance empowers women and encourages gender equality. While the Philippines tops the charts in the female-to-male ratios of legislators, senior officials, and managers, the mere presence of women in elected office or in the judiciary does not automatically erase deep-seated male biases in governance institutions and processes. A significant proportion of women in elected office belong to political dynasties. While gender budgets are required at all levels of government and gender and development planning and budgeting have the potential to correct imbalances, important issues surrounding their implementation require attention. Capacity is one of them. Compliance with the gender budget requirements is generally unsatisfactory.

Two perennial concerns are related to all of the issues above. The first is a frequent lack of

sex-disaggregated data (or a lack of much data at all in the case of the more invisible problems). Without reliable sex-disaggregated data, it is difficult to know how women and men in the Philippines fare in particular situations, say in a natural disaster, or in a particular industry or type of enterprise. This, in turn, makes it difficult to make good policies, to target resources, or to assess the effectiveness of programs or projects.

The second is that while the legal framework around gender issues is relatively strong, implementation and enforcement is a weakness. It is clear that substantial gains have been made in the quest to achieve women's empowerment and gender equality in the Philippines. The challenge now is for all stakeholders to work together to redress the paradoxes that persist amid the promise.

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Appendix 1:

The National Machinery for the Advancement of Women

Gender mainstreaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies, or programs, in all areas and at all levels. It is 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 programs in all political, economic, and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.

The Philippines adopted gender mainstreaming as a strategy for women's empowerment and gender equality during the Aquino administration.[1] Since then, gender mainstreaming has been defined in the Philippines as

(i)   A strategy to integrate women's and men's concerns and experiences in the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies, programs, and projects in all political economic and social agenda.[2]

(ii)   An approach that situates gender equality issues at the center of broad policy decisions, institutional structures, and resource allocations, and includes women's views and priorities in making decisions about development goals and processes.[3]

(iii)   The process of analyzing existing development paradigms, practices, and goals; assessing the implications for women and men of existing and planned actions in legislation, policies, programs, projects, and institutional mechanisms; and transforming existing social and gender relations by consciously integrating gender concerns in development goals, structures, systems, processes, policies, programs, and projects.[4]

The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) was established in 1975 under Presidential Decree No. 633. NCRFW advises the President and the Cabinet on policies and programs for the advancement of women. Its mandate is to review, evaluate, and recommend

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[1]   Prior to this, strategies and activities relating to women mostly entailed community mobilization around livelihood projects and other women in development interventions. The women in development approach sought to integrate women into economic development through projects. But it overlooked the unequal gender relations that weakened the impact and effectiveness of these projects. It did not necessarily address gender disparities and uplift the status of women.

[2]   NCRFW. 2008. Gender 101. Unpublished. Available: www.ncrfw.gov.ph/inside_pages/gender_mainstreaming/gender_101.html

[3]   NCRFW. 2008. Gender 101. Unpublished. Available: www.ncrfw.gov.ph/inside_pages/gender_mainstreaming/gender_101.html

[4]   Department of Budget and Management, National Economic Development Authority, NCRFW. 2004. Guidelines for the Preparation of Annual Gender and Development Plan and Budget Accomplishment Report to Implement Section on Programs/Projects Related to GAD of the General Appropriations Act. Joint Circular 2004–01, Manila, 5 April.

measures, including priorities, to ensure the full integration of women in economic, social, and cultural development at the national, regional, and international levels, and to ensure further equality between women and men.

Like Cooking Rice Cakes

Gender mainstreaming in the Philippines has been likened to cooking rice cakes (*bibingka*). Making bibingka requires even heating from live coals on top and the clay oven underneath. The heat on top represents government and its openness to adapt its policies on women; the fire below represents nongovernment organizations and the women's movement influencing government policies and pressing for positive change in the system.

The work of gender mainstreaming entails influencing and transforming the three branches of government so that they will address and promote women's empowerment, gender equality, and women's rights. The three branches are (i) the executive (the Office of the President, oversight agencies and their regional offices, line agencies and their bureaus, attached agencies and regional offices, and local government units [LGUs]); (ii) the Congress of the Philippines (Senate and House of Representatives); and (iii) the judiciary.

The gender and development (GAD) perspective must be integrated in all stages of the development planning process (planning, programming and budgeting, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation). The four entry points for mainstreaming gender are (i) people; (ii) policy; (iii) enabling mechanisms; and (iv) programs, projects, and activities. Making development planning gender-responsive includes building the gender perspective and skills of development key players; putting in place and operationalizing GAD-related policy imperatives; developing and institutionalizing mechanisms, systems, and processes that ensure and sustain the practice of gender-responsive development planning; and injecting a gender perspective in the design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of programs, projects, and activities.

Macro plans and development interventions are operationalized at the meso level. The second track of gender mainstreaming is integrating the GAD perspective in the culture and fabric of government agencies and organizations. This means enhancing agency-level development planning practices, policies, systems, processes, and structures so that GAD is actually delivered to clients and constituents.

While the initiative for gender mainstreaming rests with the Government, the role of women's nongovernment organizations (NGOs) remains crucial. It will need women organized in communities, across sectors, and along issues to push the agenda on a sustained basis. A vibrant and vital women's movement is a necessary condition for the long-term success and lasting impact of the Government's gender mainstreaming thrust. This is the heat underneath in the rice-cake technology.

The work of gender mainstreaming entails building linkages and partnerships to ensure sustained government efforts to formulate and implement gender-responsive plans, policies, programs, and projects. Gender mainstreaming is both a technical and a political process. The technical process, which is the application of mainstreaming tools, requires partnerships with institutions that support the GAD capability development of agencies and LGUs. On the other hand, ensuring political support and an external demand for gender-responsive and rights-based development necessitates engaging in critical collaborations with groups and institutions doing gender and human rights advocacy.

Tools for Monitoring and Evaluating Gender Responsiveness

Monitoring and evaluation issues in the Philippines include tracking changes and/or improvements in

the lives of Filipino women, whether at the national or at the subnational (regional and local) level. Another is tracking the efforts and progress of the bureaucracy in mainstreaming gender in their work. A third is monitoring whether development resources—official development assistance (ODA) funds and agency and/or local government unit GAD budgets—are actually mobilized for GAD work. A number of tools have evolved to deal with these concerns.

A monitoring and evaluation framework, which includes standards and indicators to measure GAD performance at the input, output, outcome, and impact levels, is being pilot tested in 2008. The system will be used to review and assess country compliance with Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Beijing Platform for Action, the Millennium Development Goals, and other international commitments, as well as national policies, plans, and programs (including the agency GAD plans and budgets).

Self-assessment tools enable agencies and local government units to determine (i) their current capacities to undertake gender mainstreaming, and (ii) the extent of their accomplishments, as well as of future endeavors in relation to mainstreaming gender in their mandates and organizations. The Gender Mainstreaming Evaluation Framework measures capacities and accomplishment through a cross-matrix of the entry points (people, policies, enabling mechanisms, and so on) and the stages (foundation formation, installation of strategic mechanisms, GAD application, and GAD institutionalization) of gender mainstreaming.

The harmonized GAD guidelines for project development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation were developed by the National Economic Development Authority (NEDA), National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, and the Official Development Assistance Gender and Development Network in 2003 and updated in 2008. These guidelines aim to ensure the integration of GAD in the design and implementation of ODA-funded projects and to ensure the mobilization of ODA resources for gender equality and women's empowerment. The Guidelines provide NEDA, ODA donors, Philippine government agencies, and development practitioners with a common set of analytical concepts and tools to integrate gender concerns into development programs and projects. Once applied properly, the guidelines will also yield information on the percentage of ODA funds mobilized for gender interventions.

The Legislative Framework

Several laws address specific gender issues and concerns in the Philippines. The most important ones are summarized in Table A1.1.

Gender Responsiveness in the Judiciary

The Supreme Court recognizes gender responsiveness as a crucial factor in judicial reform. Its committee on gender responsiveness in the judiciary has a 5-year plan that aims to address gender biases in the courts. The plan is based on a gender analysis of the Supreme Court's action program for judicial reform, which is the chief justice's blueprint for transforming the judiciary.

The gender justice awards are a collaborative effort of the University of the Philippines Center for Women's Studies and the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW). The awards aim to (i) help raise the quality of court decisions on cases involving violence against women, (ii) inform judges of State obligations under the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, (iii) encourage trial judges to be gender sensitive when conducting hearings and making decisions on violence against women cases, and (iv) raise the public's expectations of judges. Awards are given to trial judges who have made outstanding decisions in violence against women cases involving rape, incest,

Table A1.1: Philippine Legislation for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

Republic Act	Title	Summary
RA 7877	The Anti-Sexual Harassment Act of 1995	Specifies that a person who has authority, influence, or moral ascendancy over another and who demands, requests, or otherwise requires sexual favors is guilty of committing sexual harassment, whether or not the demand is accepted or not.
RA 8353	The Anti-Rape Law of 1997	Redefines rape as a crime against persons and broadens the meaning of rape to include having "carnal knowledge" of a woman under certain circumstances and/or committing acts of sexual assault, such as inserting objects into the genital or anal orifices.[a] It notes that rape can occur without penile penetration, and it also recognizes marital rape and revokes the earlier notion of sexual obligations in marriage.
RA 8505	The Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act of 1998	States that rape crisis centers are to be established in every province and city of the country and that investigating police officers should be of the same gender as the victim.
RA 9208	The Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003	Considered a landmark law for having a progressive definition of trafficking in persons. Trafficking is defined as "the recruitment, transportation, transfer or harboring, or receipt of a person with or without the victim's consent or knowledge, within or across national borders by means of threat or use of force, or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or position, taking advantage of the vulnerability of the person, or the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation which includes at a minimum, the exploitation or prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery, servitude or the removal or sale of organs". It penalizes the person who buys or engages the services of trafficked persons for prostitution and gives the legal provisions for penalizing anyone who engages in trafficking of persons within or across borders. It states that no one can give their consent to being trafficked for sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery, servitude, or the removal or sale of organs. The law also penalizes that person who buys or engages in the services of trafficked persons for prostitution.
RA 9262	The Violence Against Women and their Children Act of 2004	The only law protecting only women against intimate partner abuse. It accepts the "battered woman syndrome" as a valid defense in court. The law makes it possible to issue temporary or permanent protection orders at the barangay level. It also clearly identifies the duties of barangay officials, law enforcement officers, prosecutors, court personnel, health care providers, and other government agencies and local government units to provide the necessary support services to victims of violence against women and their children.

a   Rape survivors and women's groups vehemently lobbied for this amendment as they believe that inserting objects is equally, if not more, degrading.

nullity of marriage, sexual harassment, trafficking, and other cases involving discrimination against women. The chief justice launched the awards in August 2004. The participation of government and nongovernment organizations, women's rights and children's rights advocates, lawyers' groups, media, business, and the donor community made the awards a success.

Gender Mainstreaming Institutions

The national women's machinery. In 1987, with the adoption of gender mainstreaming as a national strategy and with the gender equality provision enshrined in the 1987 Constitution, the NCRFW reformulated its vision as "Women and men equally contributing and benefiting from development" and its mission as "to make government work for women's empowerment and gender equality."

Since that time, the NCRFW—situated in the executive branch, under the Office of the President and comprised of a board of commissioners[5] and a secretariat[6]—has taken on the role of leading, guiding, and monitoring the process of gender mainstreaming in the country. Its roles and functions include

(i)   advocating for women's human rights and gender-responsive development;

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[5]   The board of commissioners, which is headed by the chairperson (usually coming from the academe with a nongovernment organization [NGO] affiliation or from the private sector), is composed of 10 representatives of government oversight and line agencies and 12 representatives of NGOs representing various sectors. The chair and the NGO commissioners are appointed by the president and serve on a voluntary basis.

[6]   The secretariat is composed of an executive director; two deputy directors; and five functional divisions in charge of policy analysis, program development, monitoring and evaluation, information and resource, and administration and finance. The project management offices of official development assistance-funded projects are also considered to be part of the secretariat.

(ii)   providing technical assistance on gender and development (GAD);

(iii)   monitoring the implementation of State commitments and policies on GAD;

(iv)   being a source of data and information;

(v)   being a knowledge broker and knowledge manager for gender mainstreaming; and

(vi)   coordinating and collaborating in gender mainstreaming work.

The NCRFW aims to overcome constraints in human, financial, technical, and political resources by maximizing opportunities identified through networking and forging critical partnerships.

Oversight agencies. An oversight agency refers to a department or agency at the national or subnational level that oversees the application of policies and guidelines covering the planning, programming, and budgeting system or the implementation of a sectoral program. Oversight agencies in the Philippines are the Department of Budget and Management (DBM), Department of Interior and Local Government (DILG), and the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA). Constitutional bodies, such as Civil Service Commission and the Commission on Audit, also oversee policies related to government human resources and financial auditing.

Engaging oversight agencies in gender mainstreaming is critical, especially where institutionalizing gender-responsive planning, budgeting, and monitoring and evaluation is concerned. DBM, DILG, and NEDA have issued a set of guidelines for use by government agencies in planning and budgeting. DBM's integration of a GAD provision in the national and local budget calls and memoranda significantly contributes to the enforcement of the GAD budget policy; while NEDA's inclusion of GAD in the planning guidelines contributes to gender mainstreaming in the country's national plan.

The methodology for GAD planning and budgeting is co-defined and co-operationalized with

oversight agencies, thus ensuring (i) the consistency of GAD planning and budgeting concepts and procedures with that of the regular planning and budgeting procedure, (ii) the integration of GAD planning and budgeting into government's regular planning and budgeting exercise, and (iii) better levels of compliance with the GAD budget policy by agencies and LGUs. All national government agencies are required to submit a GAD plan and budget to DBM, along with their other plan and budget documents. Some compliance issues are discussed in Chapter 8.

Technical guidance on GAD planning and budgeting is provided to a wider number of agencies and LGUs through the memorandum circulars jointly issued by NCRFW with DBM and NEDA, for national government agencies; and with DBM and DILG, for LGUs.

Because the NCRFW has no regional offices, oversight agencies' regional offices play important roles in monitoring the enforcement of the GAD budget policy in the regions. Some NEDA regional offices have integrated GAD advocacy and technical assistance into their functions as they conduct, for example, GAD plan review sessions during regional budget hearings. Some DBM regional offices, on the other hand, ensure that allocations for GAD are included in the budget proposal of LGUs that fall under their jurisdictions.

GAD focal points. As set out in the Joint Memorandum Circular 2004–01, GAD focal points are groups within an agency responsible for institutionalizing gender mainstreaming and women's empowerment within the agency.[7] The joint memo also provides for the training of

Focal Points on gender sensitivity and gender-responsive planning. The GAD focal point mechanism was established by the Implementing Rules and Regulations of the Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1992 (RA 7192). The regulations specifically provide that the focal point head should be a relatively high-ranking official (not lower than an undersecretary in the case of central offices and not lower than assistant director at the subnational levels). This gives legitimacy to the gender mainstreaming agenda.

GAD focal points have been established in the executive branch and in the judiciary (Committee on Gender Responsiveness in the Judiciary). Initially referred to as Women in Development focal points, GAD focal points are "catalysts for gender responsive planning/programming" within the agency and/or LGU. NCRFW holds GAD (focal point) assemblies to build the capacity of agency GAD focal points on GAD planning and budgeting and to discuss the issues that focal points encounter as they fulfill their tasks in gender mainstreaming.

GAD focal points are also being established at the regional level. Most regional development councils have created and instituted GAD focal points in their structures to ensure that regional development thrusts, programs, and activities are infused with a gender perspective.

A 2003 assessment of the GAD focal point mechanism found that the preferred structure is a broad-based group of LGUs, NGOs, and civil society GAD advocates formally recognized and supported by the LGU and its national government agency partners. Representation from legislators, especially those in charge of the Committee on Women and Family Affairs, is strategic in translating into legislative measures responses to gender issues. The City/Provincial Planning and Development Office is also critical in intra-department coordination and integrating GAD plans into the comprehensive local development plan. The social welfare, health, agriculture, and population offices are important service delivery offices whose frontline work has

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7 Department of Budget and Management, National Economic Development Authority, National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women. 2004. Guidelines for the Preparation of Annual Gender and Development Plan and Budget Accomplishment Report to Implement Section on Programs/Projects Related to GAD of the General Appropriations Act. Joint Circular 2004–01, Manila, 5 April.

to be gender-responsive. The Human Resource Management Officer, the treasurer, budget, and general services also lend important in-house and/or administrative support to a more efficient and gender-responsive LGU bureaucracy that will support the service delivery demands of the organization. Women's NGOs are deemed to be effective partners for collaboration with LGU-GAD focal points due to their expertise and community-level experience in organizing grassroots women.

The success of the GAD focal point depends on sustained top-level support, a core of trained and committed gender advocates within the agency, clear GAD program and budget allocation, effective mainstreaming of gender concerns with the priority areas of the agency, and broad civil society support and partnership.

Agency committees and councils. Interagency committees have been established to address a specific gender mainstreaming need or to facilitate a holistic and integrated implementation of specific gender interventions (Table A1.2).

Challenges in Gender Mainstreaming: The Way Forward

The main challenges for gender mainstreaming are to (i) show concrete and practical results at the outcome and impact levels, (ii) effect its transformative aims (lest it gets reduced to being just another welfare-type strategy), and (iii) sustain its relevance by confronting and addressing a wider range of development issues, emerging ones included, such as economic restructuring, trade liberalization, globalization, information and communication technology, migration, and climate change.

Making the concept of gender mainstreaming better understood and better operationalized is a must, as is strengthening political support for GAD. The task of transforming the entire bureaucracy is daunting. Continuing to build partnerships and institutional mechanisms will be crucial to the task of making government deliver its obligations to empower women, achieve gender equality, and protect women's rights.

With support from international development partners,[8] the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) has developed several GAD tools, implemented pilot projects with sectoral and oversight agencies, developed mechanisms, and conducted massive advocacy to cultivate a more gender-friendly political environment for gender mainstreaming and implementation of policies, such as the GAD budget. NCRFW mediates or directly supports capacity building on gender analysis, advocacy, provision of tools, dialogue with top-level officials, and other measures. While its mandate and resources limit NCRFW's reach to national agencies, it provides technical assistance to help national agencies cascade GAD knowledge and skills to the regional offices which, in turn, are expected to assist the LGUs. Gender mainstreaming tools developed by NCRFW and NEDA are disseminated to LGUs and agencies to supplement the technical assistance.

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[8] Particularly from the Canadian International Development Agency's Institutional Strengthening Project Phase I & II.

Table A1.2: Interagency Committees and Councils

Committee Name	Background	Roles
Interagency Committee on Gender Statistics (IAC-GS)	The IAC-GS was created in 2002 through National Statistical Coordination Board Memorandum Order No. 003.	As the highest policy-making and coordinating body on statistical matters, NSCB is "tasked to create interagency committees to resolve statistical issues and to address emerging concerns to be able to provide relevant, reliable, and timely data for planning and programming purposes". The need to generate gender data that will support gender-responsive planning is the reason for the creation of the IAC-GS. Its functions include formulating measures to improve the system of collection and dissemination of sex-disaggregated data at the national and local levels, identifying policies for the generation of data support on gender issues, and monitoring the overall development of gender statistics in the country.
Interagency Council on Violence Against Women and their Children (IAC-VAWC)	The IAC-VAWC[a] was established under Republic Act 9262	IAC-VAWC aims to (i) ensure the effective implementation of the Anti-Violence Against Women and Children Act of 2004; and (ii) be the lead coordinator and monitoring body on VAWC initiatives. Its functions are to promote the Anti-VAWC Act, build the capabilities of stakeholders, develop comprehensive programs for VAWC victims-survivors, network with other stakeholders, monitor the implementation of the act, conduct research on VAWC, and consolidate and submit to the president an annual report on the implementation of the act.
Violence Against Women Coordinating Committee (VAWCC)	The VAWCC was created in 2002, prior to the enactment of RA 9262	The VAWCC ensures an integrated and systematic approach to addressing cases of violence against women. Created under the initiative of the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW), the VAWCC comprises 15 national agencies in charge of responding to cases of violence against women, including the departments of social welfare, health, justice, police force, investigation, jail and penology and local government, the human rights commission, the civil service commission, the education department, public information, and the statistics board. The VAWCC has drafted a national action plan to end violence against women, has been actively involved in the 16-day campaign to end violence against women, and has lobbied for the passage of the anti-trafficking law and the Violence against Women and Their Children Act. It has crafted core messages on gender-based violence, which are expected to be included in information materials and education and training modules. Finally, the committee is developing a harmonized documentation system for reporting cases of violence, possibly tracking services and outcomes.

Committee Name	Background	Roles
Inter-Agency Committee Against Trafficking (IAC-AT)	The IACAT[b] was established in 2003 under the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003 (RA 9208)	To coordinate, monitor, and oversee implementation of the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003. The IACAT's specific functions are to (i) formulate a comprehensive and integrated program to prevent and suppress the trafficking in persons; (ii) develop the mechanism to ensure the timely, coordinated, and effective response to cases of trafficking in persons; (iii) coordinate massive information dissemination and campaign on the existence of the law and the various issues and problems attendant to trafficking through the local government units, and agencies and nongovernment organizations concerned; (iv) assist in filing of cases against individuals, agencies, institutions, or establishments that violate the provisions of the act; and (v) recommend measures to enhance cooperative efforts and mutual assistance among foreign countries through bilateral and/or multilateral arrangements to prevent and suppress international trafficking in persons.
The GAD Resource Network and GAD Resource Centers	The GAD Resource Network is a loose network of independent, government, and nongovernment experts and practitioners providing technical assistance on GAD and gender mainstreaming at the national and subnational levels.	The GAD Resource Center is envisioned to be a one-stop facility in the region that will provide both technical and material resources to various groups—National Economic Development Authority (NEDA) regional offices, regional line agencies, local government units, academic institutions, people's organizations—to enable them to mainstream GAD in regional and local development planning. The GAD Resource Centers comprise a pool of resource people trained in gender-responsive planning and budgeting, transformative leadership and management, feminist research methodologies, and advocacy. As of 2008, there are nine resource centers in eight regions in the Philippines. The resource centers are part of the GAD Resource Network. The GAD Resource Network and the GAD Resource Centers form a large part of NCRFW's referral system on GAD technical assistance. They also engage in campaigns and serve as information channels at the subnational level.
The Official Development Assistance Gender and Development (ODA GAD) Network	Official Development Assistance funds are a major source of financing for GAD work. The need was recognized to ensure that official development assistance projects are gender-responsive.	The ODA GAD Network comprises the gender focal persons of multilateral agencies, bilateral agencies, and international nongovernment organizations. It includes representatives from NEDA and the NCRFW. One of the network's most significant initiatives is the harmonized GAD guidelines for project development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. The group meets regularly to exchange information on gender programs in order to identify linkages and complementary areas. This joint country gender assessment was prepared under the auspices of the ODA GAD Network.

[a] The IAC-VAWC is constituted by representatives from the Commission on Human Rights of the Philippines, Civil Service Commission, Council for the Welfare of Children, Department of Education, Department of Interior and Local Government, Department of Health, Department of Justice, Department of Labor and Employment, Department of Social Welfare and Development, National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, National Bureau of Investigation, and Philippine National Police.

[b] The IACAT is chaired by the Department of Justice with the Department of Social Welfare and Development as co-chair. Its members include Bureau of Immigration; Department of Foreign Affairs; Department of Labor and Employment; National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women; Philippine Overseas Employment Administration; Philippine National Police; and three nongovernment organizations, each representing the sectors of children, women, and overseas Filipino workers.

Summary of the Joint Country Gender Assessment Stakeholder Consultations

Stakeholder consultations were built into the joint country gender assessment (CGA) process from the very beginning, in the hope that a collaborative process would contribute to greater national ownership and accountability.

Invitations were issued by the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW), in partnership with the National Economic Development Authority and the Official Development Assistance–Gender and Development Network, and with the support of the European Commission delegation to the Philippines.[1] The aim of the consultations was to document the diversity of perspectives and obtain feedback and broader perspectives on the three CGA themes of women's economic empowerment, social development, and good governance.

Three regional consultations were held in January 2008—Luzon on 16 January, the Visayas on 22 January, and Mindanao on 23 January— with a total of 126 participants from government and civil society. The overwhelming majority of participants were women, with only seven men. Each consultation had two parts: (i) presentations and discussion on the CGA process and themes; and (ii) three simultaneous breakout session workshops dedicated to the three themes. The groups then reconvened in a plenary session to share results. Three consultation reports were prepared and disseminated.

In April 2008, a national validation workshop was held in Tagaytay City with 78 participants—48 from Luzon, 13 from the Visayas, and 16 from Mindanao. A local journalist prepared a feature-length article highlighting the diversity of the participants and the main issues raised (Box A2.1).

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[1] The European Commission covered all consultation costs, including venues, meals, travel, and overnight accommodation, for the participants and the gender assessment partners.

Box A2.1 The National Stakeholder Consultation in Tagaytay City

WOMEN AND MEN BAND FOR AID
By Samira Gutoc

TAGAYTAY CITY, April 1 2008. A community worker for the Cordilleras. A Muslim reproductive health advocate from Tawi-Tawi. A nun who works in defense of prostituted women in the Third World.

Erlinda, Fatima, and Sister Soledad, despite differences in religion and background, share one common passion—a dedication to promoting gender equality.

Add two popular singers (Joey Ayala and Cynthia Alexander), international development partners, and a Muslim emcee and you get attention in promoting the cause of development for all.

Coming together in Tagaytay City for a National Stakeholder Conference for a Joint Country Gender Assessment (CGA), they joined some 70 civil society leaders, government representatives and development consultants in a collaborative effort to discuss and commenting on an important document that could improve the quality of lives of women in one of the fastest growing countries of Asia—the Philippines.

Representatives from the Department of Justice (DOJ), National Anti-Poverty Commission (NAPC), Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA), National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA), Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), and other government line agencies were in attendance as well.

With funding provided by the European Commission (EC), the consultation was the culminating event after three regional consultations that started in January. The regional consultations specifically sought to involve civil society in validating the CGA themes.

This collaborative process will ideally promote greater national ownership of the CGA by providing venue for feedback and broader perspectives on the three themes: women's economic empowerment, social development, and gender-responsive governance. The CGA is linked to the country's Framework Plan for Women, the UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, and the Millennium Development Goals.

While the draft CGA was generally seen to be rich in data and analysis, participants noted a need to include more on the situation faced by women in the informal economy, migrant women, issues in adolescent reproductive health, the impact of globalization on women, and the mismatch between education and employment opportunities, among other things. Participants also highlighted policy implementation and governance issues.

"Despite our legislation on women, the implementation of laws has not yet fully relieved women [of the burdens they face]" noted Dr. Emerlinda Fernandez of the Western Mindanao State University during the plenary presentations.

"We are not just looking at higher levels of women's participation. We are looking at women in decision-making positions (private sector, government) and the kind of influence they have," said Councilor Celia Flor, Executive Director of Development Alternatives of Women's Network (DAWN), an NGO in Bacolod City.

"There needs to be a harmonization of gender development efforts from the international community down to the local beneficiaries to make the programs responsive," said Cleofe Ocampo of the Department of Education.

Led by the Asian Development Bank (ADB), a pool of recognized experts from the women's movement and gender and development studies were assembled to prepare and finalize the 100+ page CGA report that will even include sections on gender and disaster risk reduction and gender and peace building, two issues that are particularly relevant in the Philippines in the 21st century. Persistent issues in access to social services, such as health and education, are also covered.

"A lot remains to be done to improve maternal health—including access to family planning informa-

tion and services; to provide access to justice for poor women and children; and especially in the implementation of laws in trafficking and gender-based violence and overall good governance. These issues have been raised at the Philippine Development Forum," said Roger de Backer of the European Commission during the program.

The CGA also provides a wealth of background information, data, and analysis on gender and development issues and thus will prove a useful reference for many different stakeholders in their efforts to promote gender equality and women's empowerment.

"Pursuant to the Paris Declaration for Promoting Aid Effectiveness, the CGA will be used to guide prioritization of donor programs of official develop-ment assistance that are geared toward achieving the MDGs, especially those that address gender inequality and women's empowerment," noted the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women's Executive Director Emmeline Versoza.

The CGA was prepared under the auspices of a group of institutions that belong to the Official Development Assistance Gender and Development or ODA–GAD Network. Section coordinators and chapter authors came from ADB, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the European Commission, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), and the NCRFW.

Appendix 3:

Data Tables

Figure 1: Gini Concentration Ratios, 1985–2006
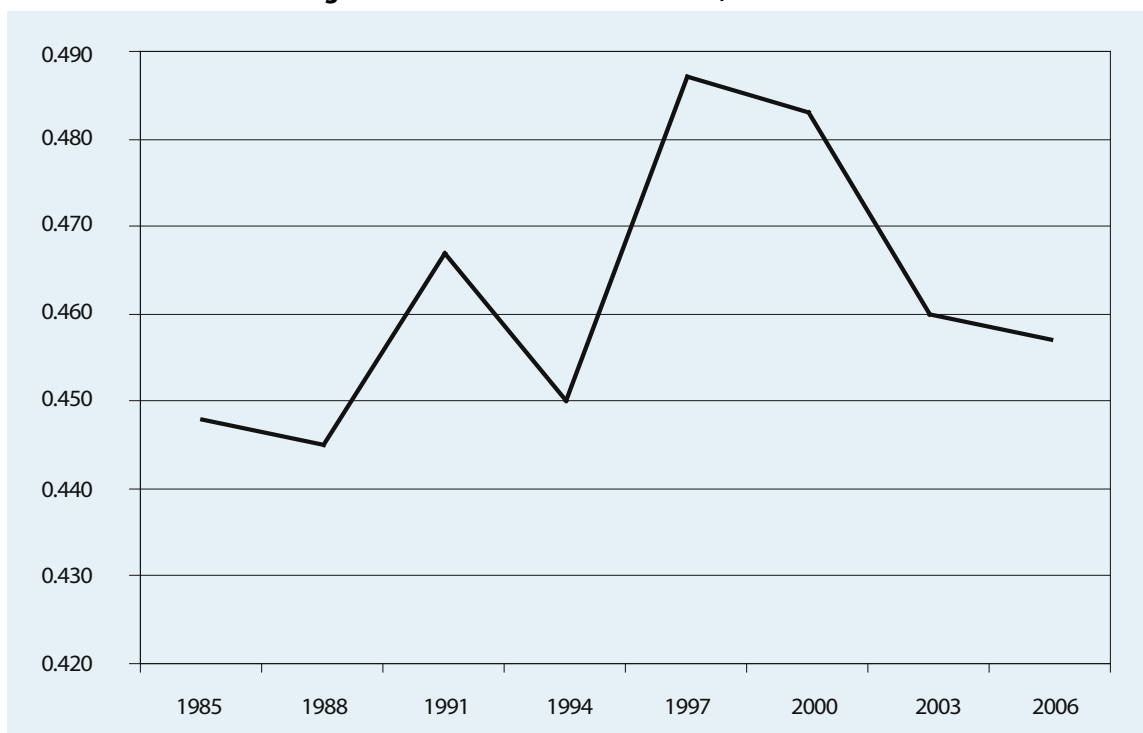
Source: Philippine Statistical Yearbook, 2006.

Table 1: Selected Inequality Indicators, 2003 and 2006

Selected Inequality Indicators	2003	2006
Average family income (in pesos, in current prices)	148,000	172,000
Bottom 10%	27,000	32,000
Upper 10%	537,000	617,000
Gini Coefficient	0.4605	0.4564

Source: National Statistics Office (preliminary results of the 2006 Family Income and Expenditure Survey).

Table 2: Employment Rate by Age Group, Educational Attainment, and Sex, 2005 (in percent)

Sex/Educational Attainment	Total	Male	Female
By Age	91.3	91.4	91.3
15–19 Years	83.2	84.6	80.7
20–24 Years	80.4	81.9	78.0
25–34 Years	91.1	91.3	90.7
35–44 Years	95.6	95.2	96.2
45–54 Years	95.7	94.8	97.0
55–64 Years	95.8	94.8	97.3
65 Years and Over	97.3	97.2	97.6
By Educational Attainment			
No Grade Completed	94.9	95.8	93.2
Elementary	95.5	95.3	95.7
Undergraduate	95.8	95.7	96.0
Graduate	95.1	94.9	95.4
Highschool	90.0	90.1	89.8
Undergraduate	91.5	91.2	92.2
Graduate	89.1	89.5	88.5
College	88.1	87.1	89.1
Undergraduate	87.4	87.3	87.6
Graduate and Higher	88.7	87.0	90.1

Source: 2006 Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Bureau of Labor and Employment.

Table 3: Employed Persons by Industry and By Sex, 2005

By Major Industry	Level ('000)			Distribution (in %)	
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female
All Industries	**32,313**	**19,910**	**12,403**	**61.6**	**38.4**
Agriculture, Hunting, and Forestry	10,234	7,393	2,842	72.2	27.8
Fishing	1,394	1,294	100	92.8	7.2
Mining and Quarrying	123	109	14	88.6	11.4
Manufacturing	3,077	1,660	1,417	53.9	46.1
Electricity, Gas, and Water Supply	117	98	19	83.8	16.2
Construction	1,708	1,672	36	97.9	2.1
Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles, and Personal and Household Goods	6,147	2,452	3,695	39.9	60.1
Hotels and Restaurant	861	395	466	45.9	54.1
Transport, Storage, and Communications	2,451	2,318	132	94.6	5.4
Financial Intermediation	341	143	198	41.9	58.1
Real Estate, Renting, and Business Activities	734	501	234	68.3	31.9

Table 3 continued

By Major Industry	Level ('000)			Distribution (in %)	
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female
Public Administration and Defense	1,481	934	548	63.1	37.0
Education	978	236	742	24.1	75.9
Health and Social Work and Other Community and Social and Personal	375	97	279	25.9	74.4
Service Activities	775	381	394	49.2	50.8
Private Households with Employed Persons	1,517	228	1,289	15.0	85.0
Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies	1	1	1	100.0	100.0

Source: Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2006.

Table 4: Average Daily Basic Pay by Major Industry Group and Sex, and Level of Growth Rate, 2001–2005

Major Industry Group and Sex	Average		Level of Growth Rate	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
All Industries	**245.82**	**244.71**	**2.9**	**1.84**
Agricultural	**126.41**	**106.82**	**2.5**	**2.72**
Agriculture, Hunting, and Forestry	124.79	106.05	2.5	2.66
Fishing	142.38	159.40	3.2	18.03
Non-Agricultural	**275.77**	**257.39**	**2.8**	**1.55**
Mining and Quarrying	207.27	223.85	-1.4	3.97
Manufacturing	254.04	236.45	1.7	2.94
Electricity, Gas, and Water Supply	418.72	436.86	6.5	4.50
Construction	234.30	317.77	3.0	2.61
Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles, and Personal and Household Goods	227.51	204.25	2.3	2.18
Hotels and Restaurants	241.30	200.97	2.5	1.96
Transport, Storage, and Communications	263.38	430.74	4.4	7.12
Financial Intermediation	447.50	445.10	4.8	2.60
Real Estate, Renting, and Business Activities	305.51	354.96	1.0	1.69
Public Administration and Defense Compulsory Social Security	400.19	388.49	4.5	4.01
Education	419.14	448.01	2.1	0.64
Health and Social Work	385.80	368.52	0.6	2.28
Other Community, Social, and Personal Activities	277.72	224.31	3.5	7.42
Private Households with Employed Persons	170.18	97.77	2.4	-0.46
Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies	592.53	467.57	12.1	-8.16

Source: Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2006.

Table 5: OFW Deployment Per Skill and Sex, 2004–2006

Skills Category and Sex	2004			2005			2006		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Both Sexes	**281,813**	**72,355**	**209,372**	**280,661**	**79,079**	**201,538**	**308, 085**	**123.668**	**184,416**
Professional, Technical and Related Workers	94,147	13,677	80,450	60,317	11,953	48,356	41,254	17,212	24,042
Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers									
Workers	565	398	167	490	381	109	817	528	289
Clerical and Related Workers	5,324	2,230	3,093	5,538	1,985	3,553	7,912	3,271	4,640
Sales Workers	3,950	1,189	2,758	4,261	1,288	2,972	5,516	2,405	3,111
Service Workers	113,423	11,343	102,035	133,907	10,666	123,219	144,295	16,135	128,160
Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Forestry Workers, Fishermen and Hunters	682	661	21	350	311	39	807	716	91
Production and Related Workers, Transport Equipment Operators and Laborers	63,719	42,855	20,847	74,802	51,694	23,096	103,578	80,240	23,338
Not elsewhere classified/ Not Stated	3	2	1	996	801	194	3,906	3,161	745

Source: Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2006.

Table 6: Simple Literacy Rate of the Population 10 Years Old And Over By Region
1994, 2000, and 2003 (in percent)

Region	1994			2000			2003		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Philippines	**93.9**	**93.7**	**94.0**	**92.3**	**92.1**	**92.5**	**93.4**	**92.6**	**94.3**
National Capital Region (NCR)	98.8	98.9	98.8	98.1	98.2	98.1	99.0	98.9	99.1
Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)	88.8	89.9	87.5	90.5	90.9	90.1	91.6	92.0	91.1
1. Ilocos Region	95.5	96.1	94.8	95.2	95.4	95.0	97.4	97.6	97.3
2. Cagayan Valley	93.3	93.7	92.8	91.8	91.4	92.1	92.7	92.1	93.5
3. Central Luzon	96.3	96.5	96.1	94.8	94.8	94.8	96.9	96.8	96.9
4a. CALABARZON	96.4	96.8	96.0	94.0	94.0	94.1	97.2	96.8	97.5
4b. MIMAROPA	-	-	-	-	-	-	91.2	91.4	91.0
5. Bicol Region	96.9	94.8	95.0	92.7	92.4	93.0	95.0	93.8	96.3
6. Western Visayas	91.9	90.8	93.0	93.0	92.5	93.6	92.8	91.6	94.0
7. Central Visayas	93.1	93.4	92.8	91.7	91.5	91.8	92.4	91.5	93.2
8. Eastern Visayas	90.9	89.2	92.7	89.9	88.8	91.1	90.1	87.0	93.3
9. Western Mindanao	89.7	89.1	90.1	85.3	85.3	85.2	88.9	86.8	90.9
10. Northern Mindanao	94.6	93.8	95.5	91.4	90.7	92.1	91.8	90.1	93.5
11. Southern Mindanao	92.0	91.6	92.4	90.2	89.8	90.5	90.3	88.0	92.7
12. Central Mindanao	90.8	90.3	91.4	87.0	87.1	87.0	87.3	85.9	88.8
13. Caraga	…	…		92.0	91.4	92.6	92.1	89.5	94.6
ARMM Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao	73.5	75.6	71.4	68.7	69.8	67.7	70.2	71.0	69.4

CALABARZON = Cavite, Laguna, Batangas, Rizal, Quezon; MIMAROPA = Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan.

Source: National Statistical Coordination Board.

Table 7: Functional Literacy Rate of the Population 10 Years Old and Over by Region 1994, 2000, and 2003 (in percent)

Region	1994			2000			2003		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Philippines	**75.4**	**74.5**	**76.2**	**83.8**	**81.7**	**85.9**	**84.1**	**81.9**	**86.3**
National Capital Region (NCR)	90.6	91.5	89.9	92.4	91.8	93.0	94.6	94.0	95.2
Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)	73.7	73.0	74.3	78.6	76.8	80.5	85.4	83.9	87.0
1. Ilocos Region	75.1	74.8	75.3	86.4	85.6	87.3	88.6	88.1	89.2
2. Cagayan Valley	72.0	70.9	73.2	86.6	85.6	86.6	84.4	82.9	86.1
3. Central Luzon	84.1	84.4	83.8	87.3	86.1	88.5	86.9	86.5	87.4
4a. CALABARZON	79.8	79.3	80.4	88.0	86.3	89.8	90.4	88.8	92.0
4b. MIMAROPA							82.3	80.2	84.4
5. Bicol Region	68.8	66.2	71.3	82.6	81.3	84.5	80.1	76.6	83.8
6. Western Visayas	71.3	68.7	73.8	80.9	77.3	84.8	81.5	77.7	85.2
7. Central Visayas	70.6	69.4	71.9	80.9	78.5	83.2	81.7	79.8	83.6
8. Eastern Visayas	65.5	63.4	67.8	78.7	75.7	84.2	76.7	71.7	82.1
9. Western Mindanao	57.7	57.3	58.1	75.4	72.6	78.1	74.8	69.8	79.8
10. Northern Mindanao	76.5	74.1	78.8	83.4	79.5	87.4	83.7	80.5	86.9
11. Southern Mindanao	74.1	73.0	75.2	79.4	75.6	83.2	77.8	73.7	82.2
12. Central Mindanao	63.1	65.1	61.1	77.4	74.2	80.7	77.1	74.5	79.7
13. Caraga							81.0	77.3	84.6
ARMM Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao				61.2	63.2	59.1	62.9	63.6	62.1

CALABARZON = Cavite, Laguna, Batangas, Rizal, Quezon; MIMAROPA = Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan.

Source: National Statiscal Coordination Board.

Table 8: Board Examination Statistics by Profession, Sex, and Passing Rate, CY 2003

Area of Study	Male			Female		
Total	examinees	pass	%	examinees	pass	%
Aeronautical Engineering	201	52	25.9	14	2	14.3
Accountancy	3,543	832	23.5	9,432	1,697	18
Agricultural Engineering	243	105	43.2	175	54	30.9
Agriculture	1,644	374	22.7	1,823	395	21.7
Architecture	1,525	606	39.7	620	193	31.1
Chemical Engineering	401	190	47.4	645	225	34.9
Chemistry	186	94	50.5	420	164	39.0
Civil Engineering	6,334	2,382	37.6	2,264	770	34.0
Criminology	9,197	3,488	37.9	1,512	613	40.5
Customs Broker	723	76	10.5	532	63	11.8
Dentistry	585	190	32.5	2,285	830	36.3
Electronics & Communications Engineering	5,565	2,304	41.4	1,757	703	40.0
Environmental Planning	21	10	47.6	13	6	46.2
Fisheries Technology	97	34	35.1	117	52	44.4
Forestry	392	121	30.9	293	110	37.5
Geodetic Engineering	453	169	37.3	144	57	39.6
Geology	14	12	85.7	15	13	86.7
Interior Design	33	10	30.3	166	74	44.6
Landscape Architecture	13	7	53.8	5	1	20.0
Library Science	75	52	69.3	649	318	49.0
Marine Deck-OIC Navigational Watch	818	494	60.4	6	3	50.0
Marine Deck-OIC Watch Engineering	850	550	64.7			
Mechanical Engineering	3,596	1,450	40.3	127	55	43.3
Medical Technology	847	435	51.4	2,592	1,206	46.5
Medicine	1,411	825	58.5	2,423	1,332	55.0
Metallurgical Engineering	27	19	70.4	15	11	73.3
Midwifery	109	65	59.6	2,412	1,177	48.8
Mining Engineering	18	10	55.6	3	2	66.7
Naval Architect and Marine Engineering	36	14	38.9	4	2	50.0
Nursing	3,589	1,736	48.4	12,022	5,792	48.2
Nutrition-Dietetics	45	28	62.2	515	252	48.9
Occupational Therapy	180	52	28.9	465	148	31.8
Optometry	56	10	17.9	233	43	18.5
Pharmacy	294	183	62.2	2,320	1,380	59.5

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Table 8 continued

Area of Study	Male			Female		
Physical Therapy	1,683	471	28.0	3,825	975	25.5
Radiologic Technology	401	147	36.7	388	154	39.7
Registered Electrical Engineering	3,473	1,408	40.5	320	149	46.6
Sanitary Engineering	93	44	47.3	32	11	34.4
Social Work	77	46	59.7	823	386	46.9
Teachers-Elementary	10,448	2,712	26.0	64,852	17,053	26.3
Teachers-Secondary	17,181	4,749	27.6	51,729	13,366	25.8
Veterinary Medicine	257	97	37.7	268	99	36.9
X-ray Technology	106	30	28.3	119	26	21.8

Source: National Statistical Board.

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Country gender assessments analyze gender and development issues to help governments and stakeholders promote gender equality and empower women. The report was prepared by a team from the Asian Development Bank, Canadian International Development Agency, European Commission, United Nations Children's Fund, United Nations Development Fund for Women, and United Nations Population Fund, in partnership with the Philippine Government's National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women.

Through a series of regional consultations and a final consultation, more than 200 representatives of government, nongovernment organizations, and civil society helped select chapter themes and fill gaps in the analysis, and shared personal and institutional case studies to enrich the narrative.