The Women's Decade in the Philippine
Analysis of Significant Changes
in Women's Role and Status
The Women's Decade in the Philippines
Analysis of Significant Changes in Women's Role and Status
N1
30543
M713W
1985
Contents

Executive Summary.

Part One: GENERAL INTRODUCTION ........................................... 1

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ................................................. 1

II. INITIAL EFFORTS FOR THE UNIVERSAL RECOGNITION OF
    WOMEN'S RIGHTS TO EQUALITY OF TREATMENT ..................... 2

III. PHILIPPINE RESPONSE TO THE WOMEN'S DECADE ............... 3

IV. PARTICIPATION IN WORLD CONFERENCES FOR THE
    UN DECADE OF WOMEN .................................................. 4
    A. The International Women's Year Conference in 1975 .......... 4
    B. The Mid-Decade World Conference on Women in 1980 ......... 5
    C. The World Conference to Review and Appraise the
       Achievements of the UN Decade for Women: Equality,

Part Two: SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN WOMEN'S ROLE AND STATUS
IN EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT, HEALTH AND PUBLIC
AFFAIRS ............................................................................ 9

Theoretical Framework

I. GENERAL DEVELOPMENT ................................................... 11

    A. National Development Plans and Policies ..................... 11
       1. The Philippine Development Plan, 1974-1977 ............. 11
       3. The Updated Philippine Development Plan,
          1984-1987 ................................................................ 12

    B. Government Agencies for the Advancement of Women ....... 12
       1. The Bureau of Women and Minors, Ministry of
          Labor and Employment ............................................. 12
       2. The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women .. 13
       3. The Home Economics Programs Division of the
          Bureau of Agriculture Extension, Ministry of Agriculture .. 13
## Contents

### Executive Summary.

**Part One: GENERAL INTRODUCTION** ............................................. 1  

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ..................................................... 1  

II. INITIAL EFFORTS FOR THE UNIVERSAL RECOGNITION OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS TO EQUALITY OF TREATMENT .................................................. 2  

III. PHILIPPINE RESPONSE TO THE WOMEN'S DECADE ..................... 3  

IV. PARTICIPATION IN WORLD CONFERENCES FOR THE UN DECADE OF WOMEN ........................................... 4  

A. The International Women’s Year Conference in 1975 .................... 4  

B. The Mid-Decade World Conference on Women in 1980 .................... 5  


**Part Two: SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN WOMEN’S ROLE AND STATUS IN EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT, HEALTH AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS** ........................................... 9  

### Theoretical Framework

I. GENERAL DEVELOPMENT ..................................................... 11  

A. National Development Plans and Policies ................................. 11  

1. The Philippine Development Plan, 1974-1977 ......................... 11  


3. The Updated Philippine Development Plan, 1984-1987 ................. 12  

B. Government Agencies for the Advancement of Women ................. 12  

1. The Bureau of Women and Minors, Ministry of Labor and Employment .................................................. 12  

2. The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women .......... 13  

3. The Home Economics Programs Division of the Bureau of Agriculture Extension, Ministry of Agriculture ...... 13
C. Women Non-Governmental Organizations ............................................. 14
   1. Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines ............................... 14
   2. Balikatan Sa Kaunlaran ............................................................... 14
   3. Department of Women of the Trade Union ..................................... 15
      Congress of the Philippines ......................................................... 15
   4. Rural Improvement Clubs of the Philippines ............................... 15
   5. Other Women Non-Governmental Organizations ............................ 16

II. WOMEN’S STATUS BEFORE THE LAW ................................................. 17

A. General Principle ............................................................................... 17
B. Specific Provisions ........................................................................... 17

   1. Citizenship .................................................................................... 17
   2. Legal Capacity .............................................................................. 18
   3. Marriage Rights ............................................................................ 18

C. Measures to Counter Discriminatory Provisions/Acts ....................... 23
   1. Legal Reforms .............................................................................. 23
   2. Legal Education and Legal Aid ..................................................... 23
      a. Legal Literacy Program ............................................................. 23
      b. Legal Aid ................................................................................ 25

III. WOMEN’S STATUS AND ROLES IN EDUCATION ................................ 27

A. Status .................................................................................................. 27
   1. Before the Law ............................................................................... 27
   2. Women as Beneficiaries of Educational Services ......................... 27
      a. School Enrolment Figures ......................................................... 27
      b. Literacy Levels ........................................................................ 31
      c. Vocational/Technical Training ............................................... 31

B. Roles .................................................................................................... 32
   1. As Teachers .................................................................................. 32
   2. As Administrators ......................................................................... 33
   3. Working Conditions ..................................................................... 34
      a. Multiple roles .......................................................................... 34
      b. Wages and benefits ................................................................. 34
      c. Other conditions ..................................................................... 35

C. Significant Changes in Women’s Status and Roles in Education ........ 35
   1. Entry in Nontraditional Areas ....................................................... 35
      a. Vocational/technical training ................................................... 35
      b. Nontraditional professions ....................................................... 36
2. Counteracting Sex Role Stereotypes ........................................ 36
3. Other Development ............................................................ 37
4. Meeting Teachers Problems .................................................. 37
   a. Teacher's Welfare .................................................. 37
   b. Mass Action ...................................................... 37
   c. Subversion ..................................................... 38
5. Government Initiatives to Improve Teachers' Welfare ...... 38

D. Problems Concerning Women in Education ......................... 39
1. Teacher's Prestige .......................................................... 39
2. Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotypes ..................................... 39
3. Women in Media ............................................................ 39
4. Higher Education and Absorption into the Labor Market .... 39
5. Oversupply of College Graduates ...................................... 40

E. Strategies for the Future .................................................... 40

IV. WOMEN AS WORKERS ..................................................... 42
A. Status Before The Law ....................................................... 42
   1. Constitutional Provision ........................................... 42
   2. Specific Policies Concerning Women Workers ................. 42
      a. Promotion of Women's Employment ...................... 42
      b. Protective Policies ...................................... 43
B. Employment Situation As It Concerns Women ....................... 44
   1. Labor Force Participation ......................................... 44
   2. Employment and Unemployment .................................. 45
   3. By Marital Status ................................................ 46
   4. By Class of Workers ............................................ 48
   5. By Major Industry Group ....................................... 49
   6. By Occupation Group ........................................... 50
   7. By Income .......................................................... 50

C. Significant Changes In Women Workers' Status and Roles ...... 51
   1. Adoption of Policies/Legislations Favorable to Women
      Workers .............................................................. 51
   2. Participation in Overseas Employment ......................... 55
   3. Entry in Nontraditional Areas .................................. 56
   4. Expansion of Training and Work Opportunities ............ 57

D. Some Issues Concerning Groups of Women Workers .......... 59
   1. The Question of Protection ...................................... 59
   2. Women in the Export Processing Zone ......................... 60
   3. Women in the Informal Sector .................................. 61
4. Prostitutes and Hospitality Women ........................................ 62
5. Filipino Domestic Helpers .............................................. 63
6. Women in Rural Areas ................................................ 65

E. Obstacles to Women’s Full Participation in Employment .... 67
   1. The Economic Crisis in the Philippines ....................... 67
   2. Traditional Attitudes ............................................. 70
   3. Inadequate Implementation of Existing Policies .......... 71

F. Forward Looking Strategies ........................................... 71

V. WOMEN IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS ....................................... 73

A. Covering Legislation ................................................ 73
B. Participation of Women in Public Affairs ....................... 73
   1. Women in Elections ............................................. 73
      a. As elective officials ....................................... 73
      b. As Voters .................................................. 75
   2. Women in Appointive Positions ............................... 76
      a. Constitutional Commissions ............................. 76
      b. Cabinet ................................................... 77
      c. Career Executive Service ............................... 77
      d. Diplomatic Service ....................................... 78
      e. Judiciary .................................................. 79
   3. Women in Community Service ................................ 80
      a. The Women’s Organizations Affiliated with CAWP .... 80
      b. Balikatan Sa Kaunlaran .................................. 81
      c. Other Types of Women’s Organizations ................. 82
   4. Women in Households ............................................. 82

C. A Second Look at Women’s Participation in Public Affairs 83
   1. Women in Bureaucracy .......................................... 84
   2. A Potent Force in the Community ............................ 85
   3. Decisiveness in Elections ...................................... 85
   4. Women’s Activism .............................................. 86
   5. Interest in the Presidential Issue ............................ 86
   6. Decision Making in the Home ................................ 87
   7. Indirect Influence Over Policies and Decisions .......... 87

D. Forward Looking Strategies ........................................ 87
VI. HEALTH, NUTRITION AND POPULATION PROGRAMS FOR WOMEN ........................................... 88

A. Covering Legislation/Policy ........................................ 88
   1. Constitutional Provision ........................................ 88
   2. National Development Plan .................................... 88

B. The General Health Situation ..................................... 88

C. Women as Beneficiaries and Agents of Health Services .... 90
   1. As Beneficiaries of Health Programs ....................... 90
      a. Maternal and Child Health .............................. 90
      b. Nutrition .................................................. 92
      c. The Philippine Population Program ................. 96

   2. As Agents in the Delivery of Health Service ............ 102
      a. Health Ministry Personnel ............................. 102
      b. Positions Occupied ..................................... 103
      c. Regional Distribution .................................. 103
      d. Hospital Administration ............................... 104
      e. Women NGOs as Deliverers of Health Care Services . 106

D. Changes in the Health Situation as they Relate to Women’s Status and Roles ................. 107
   1. General Improvement in the Health Situation ........... 107
   2. Professionalization of Traditional Midwives ............ 107
   3. Greater Participation of the Community in the Delivery of Health Services ............... 108
   4. New Approaches to Family Planning Motivational Strategies ................................. 109

E. Women and Health — Related Problems and Issues .......... 109
   1. Country’s Poor Economic Situation ....................... 109
   2. Women’s Dual Roles ........................................ 111
   3. Philippines’ Stand on Breastfeeding ..................... 111
   4. The Family Planning Program ............................. 112

F. Forward Looking Strategies .................................... 112
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Precolonial Philippine history recounts the significant position of women in the family and the community. During the Philippine Revolution, women fought alongside the men and even led some of the troops against the enemies. The change in the Filipinas’ legal status as a result of colonial rule did not hamper their participation in the affairs of the country. Thus, the Decade found them involved in almost all aspects of national life despite the existence of some legal and attitudinal barriers towards their complete integration in the mainstream of development.

Filipino women were known to have played important roles in the initial efforts for the universal recognition of women’s rights to equality of treatment. The 19th session (1966) of the UN Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSW) which approved the Draft Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women was chaired by a Filipina — Helena Z. Benitez who also became the first Southeast Asian Chairman. The 25th Session (1974) was chaired by another Filipina — Leticia Ramos Shahani who was subsequently appointed Secretary General of the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women in July 1985. Rosario Gonzales Manalo was in 1984 and 1985 elected Chairman of the UNCSW acting as preparatory body for the World Conference. This body drafted the Conference Agenda which was subsequently endorsed by the UN General Assembly.

Filipino women also took part in the world conferences on women held in Mexico in 1975 and in Copenhagen, Denmark in 1980. In the forthcoming world conference which will mark the end of the Women’s Decade in 1985 in Kenya, the Philippines is again expected to take an active role.

A. Changes in Status and Roles

New policies and expansion of roles are the most significant gains to Filipino women during the decade. The country’s poor economic and political situation reinforced by traditional attitudes, however, either gave rise or defeated efforts to combat some of the most acute problems concerning women such as prostitution, poor working and health conditions, and inadequate representation in decision making responsibilities.

The creation of a national machinery for women in the Philippines is probably one of the Decade’s most significant achievements for it spawned a lot of interest in women’s issues. Related mechanisms for women such as the Bureau of Women and Minors of the MOLE and the Department of Women of the Trade Union Congress of the Philippines (TUCP) and the increased involvement of women NGOs helped in bringing to focus the problems concerning women as workers, as mothers, citizens, recipients of health and educational services and as agents of change.
In the field of legislation, the Philippines ratified the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and by so doing legally bound itself as have other States Parties to take positive measures for eliminating all forms of sex discrimination whether in law or in fact.

Other significant legal measures adopted include:

- Repeal of the Civil Code provision which deprived a widow of her parental authority over children with the deceased husband, if she remarried, unless the latter had by testament any provision allowed her retention of such authority upon marriage.

- Amendment of the law providing for the termination of service of women in the armed forces upon their contracting marriage.

- Integration of maternity leave benefits provisions in the Social Security Act.

- Issuance by the President of Letter of Instructions No. 974 which directed all ministries, bureaus, offices and other agencies of government including government-owned and controlled corporations to implement provisions of the Constitution, legislation, international treaties and conventions giving to women equal rights.

- Statement of the Minister of Labor that the provision for terminating the employment of female flight attendants upon marriage as in the case involving collective bargaining agreements with the Philippine Airlines violates the Constitution and the Labor Code.

- Changes in the Philippine Development Plan which now contains specific provisions for women in employment, health, population and social services.

Recently, a Parliamentary Bill which aims to establish equal status and rights of women was filed at the Batasang Pambansa.

Although it is premature to assess the impact of these new policies, they provide the necessary fallback to women's struggle to advance their status. They also remove some of the barriers to their exploration of new roles.

Services for women also increased during the Decade. These come in the form of training opportunities in work, leadership skills, educational specially nonformal, health and support services particularly for the working women. Health indicators point to improving health status of women. Stereotyping of sex roles was recognized as a barrier to women's full participation and efforts to eradicate this were started during the period.

The decade also witnessed the expansion of women's roles. In addition to their homemaking responsibilities, women have also become economic providers, helping their husbands battle the economic crisis. Increments in
the labor force during the decade were known to have come from the women population, particularly from the married group.

Women workers obtain support from government thru legislation which prohibit discrimination against them, and lately with the increasing popularity of community day care centers which are taking some of the child caring responsibilities of mothers to enable them to engage in paid work. Programs, including training opportunities for women also proliferated during this period.

Although most of these women flock to traditionally-feminine areas of work like the service types, there are encouraging signs that they are also beginning to enter male-dominated vocational and technical courses. This expansion of alternatives for women may also be viewed positively in the light of the vast outmigration of men workers to better-paying countries. Women could take the place of these outgoing workers and therefore could ensure the continuous supply of human resources for domestic operations. The NMYC and other government and private groups continue to promote women’s entry into vocational and technical training of the nontraditional variety.

Services by women NGOs intensified during the Decade as a result of the linkage between the national machinery with the CAWP and its initiation of the Balikatan sa Kaunlaran movement. Women went into all kinds of projects — from leadership training to livestock production involving huge amounts and benefitting millions. Other groups also focused their services to women and their increased access to opportunities for training and economic production.

On the other hand, a new group of Filipino women emerged in the early eighties and who have since then become very much involved in national issues. Several women’s organizations of this category have been organizing marches and protest rallies, conducting fora and seminars and have been enlisting the media in drumming up issues which they vehemently espouse. This political consciousness is very much attuned to the latest developments where at least three women were at the core of the discussions concerning the presidential candidacy in the 1987 elections. Hopefully, this could presage the beginning of a more active women’s participation in the political arena.

The situation of Filipino women in the four areas studied is therefore summarized in the following pages.

1. In Education

   a. Philippine law provides for an educational system that is equally open to both sexes.

   The Constitution of 1973 provides that the “State shall maintain a system of free public elementary education, and in areas where finances permit, establish and maintain a system of free
public education at least up to the secondary level.’’ (Art. 15, S. 8, no. 5). The Constitution also stipulates that the ‘‘State shall provide training to adult citizens and out-of-school youths, and create and maintain scholarships to poor and deserving students.’’ (Art. 15)

The Education Act of 1940 made primary education for children of school age compulsory and provides penal sanctions for non-compliance.

b. That the Philippine educational system is an equal-opportunity social system is borne out by data trends concerning literacy, gross enrolment rates (GER) and participation rates.

From a high 89 percent in SY 1970-71, female GER on the elementary level increased further to 96 percent during SY 1982-83. Participation rates during the period continued to show a very minimal differential based on sex (49.1% female vs. 50.9% male during SY 1970-71 and 48.8% female vs. 51.2% male in SY 1983-84).

This pattern of no discrimination is repeated on the secondary level of schooling with participation rates showing less than one percent (49.96% female vs. 50.04% male) difference between males and females in 1970-71 with an improved picture for the females during SY 1983-84 as they slightly exceeded the 50 percent parity enrolment indicator (50.6%). In terms of GER, secondary level schooling of females also improved from only 43.5 percent in SY 1970-71 to 55.8 percent in 1982-83.

Tertiary and post-college enrolment for SY 1977-78 show the predominance of females in the higher educational levels: 54.23% in all college courses; 63.99% in graduate school; and 64.69% in the post graduate level. Data on professionals for the year 1983 indicate women’s gradual entry into the traditionally-masculine courses.

As of 1980, actual literacy figures are placed at 83.9 percent for males and 82.8 percent for females, relatively high figures compared to those of neighboring countries.

c. Positive trends during the decade include women’s entry in non-traditional fields of study and training programs, increased efforts at countering sex role stereotypes, decentralization of educational resources to benefit rural population, and the proliferation of women’s studies.

Women’s entry in non-traditional areas, although very gradual, is an indication of women’s and government’s efforts to overcome
attitudinal barriers to women’s search for new roles and better opportunities. NMYC’s efforts to attract, train and even place women graduates in nontraditional areas of occupation is indicative of the slowly becoming accepted notion that women can function as well as men in those traditionally male occupations. Women engineers and technicians who have been hired to replace men who leave for better-paying jobs abroad have been reported to do as well as the men, thereby, opening a rich area for women to get trained for.

Women’s entry into nontraditional professions is best illustrated by their increased representation in engineering courses between 1975 and 1983: from eleven to 23 percent in agricultural engineering; six to 16 percent in civil; six to ten percent in electronics and communications and eight to 15 percent in sanitary engineering. While in 1975, there were only 12% and 5% female foresters and geologists, respectively, in 1985, there were already 22% and 21%, respectively.

Curricular innovations to counter stereotyping of sex roles took the form of introducing Practical Arts subjects such as Work Education and Home Economics as common learning areas for boys and girls. A joint NCRFW-MECS study very recently established the possibility of integrating sex-role concepts in the school syllabus thereby encouraging the heads of both the elementary and secondary level bureaus to integrate such concepts into their respective level curriculum.

The massive decentralization program of government known as PRODED or Program for Decentralized Educational Development starts off the process at the elementary level schooling with program areas covering educational resources, teacher development and instructional materials development. Together with the move toward converting exclusively male/female schools into coeducational institutions, both men and women from the rural areas will be afforded better access to educational services.

2. In Employment

a. By law, the Philippines is an equal opportunity employer. De jure equality exists in the area of employment.

The Constitution of 1973 contains provisions to “afford protection to labor, promote full employment and equality in employment, ensure equal work opportunities regardless of sex, race or creed . . . .”
Philippine public policy not only promotes women’s employment but also gives special protection to women workers as befits their unique role as childbearers. Thus, the Updated Philippine Development Plan 1984-1987 stressed the protection of women in the labor market: “Women’s participation in the labor market will be increased through the provision of greater opportunities for employment and the development of concomitant support systems, i.e., day care centers’. This specific provision is a result of continued representation of the NCRFW and is a breakthrough particularly for the rural women for which the Plan expressed a most serious concern.

b. With 8 million Filipina workers, the ratio of female workers to male workers is now 2:3.

The Philippine labor force of over 20 million in 1983 counts two female workers to every three male workers.

As of 1983, 8 million women have joined the country’s labor force, up by 30.0% from the 1978 figure of 6 million. The female rural labor force grew by 36.2% within this five-year period and, at 5.27 million, is double the number of their urban counterparts (2.66 m) which grew by only 20% within the same period.

Fortunately, the countryside was able to absorb its additional labor force, maintaining an employment rate of 96% (total) and 93% (female). The urban employment picture was more bleak, as total unemployment grew from 6% in 1978 to 9.3% in 1983. The proportion of unemployed women rose from 8.7% in 1978 to 10.9% in 1983.

As of 1983, therefore, 360 thousand rural women and 290 thousand urban women were looking for jobs. These 650,000 jobless women include 348 thousand single girls, 15 thousand widows, and 9 thousand separated/divorced women; in addition, 278 thousand married women are looking for work to augment the income of their husbands.

The decade saw an 18% growth in the proportion of married women in the labor force — from 42.7% in 1978 to 50.4% 1983.

c. Most Filipina workers are either unpaid family workers (mostly in agricultural work) or government wage or salary workers; they dominate the wholesale or retail trade, and community, social and personal services. Male workers dominate all other classes of workers, all other occupations, and all other industries.
Among unpaid family workers in 1983, females have a slight “edge” over males (54:46), and among government wage and salary workers, females may soon catch up with males (45:55 in 1983). But in all other classes of workers, the ratio is one female to every two male workers (self-employed, wage and salary workers in private or own family enterprises). The ratio is lowest among employers: for every six employers, only one is a female.

Growth in female employment was experienced in all types of industries either male or female-dominated, notably in electricity (now 14.1% F), finance and related services, and agriculture, or an over-all increase of 8% between 1978 and 1983. Construction, transportation/storage/communication, mining and quarrying have admitted 2.6%, 4.4% and 6.9% females, respectively. Women continue to dominate the wholesale and retail trade (66%) and community, social and personal services (57%). In manufacturing, however, where 47% of workers are women, working conditions are often hazardous to health.

d. Female workers, on the average, earn less than male workers.

Women earned P1741 a quarter in 1993, up by 73% from the 1978 figure of P1006. Significant increases were noted for wage and salary workers, as well as for transport and related business. These increases in monetary income served to narrow the gap between the earnings of men and women but could barely counteract the effects of inflation and high prices.

The income situation in 1983, in terms of real earnings, is worse than in 1978 — the downward trend is true for all classes of workers, both men and women.

Women workers in agricultural establishments continue to be worst hit, with a quarterly income of only P552 in 1983.

e. Positive trends during the decade include adoption of new policies/legislation, entry of women in nontraditional areas as training and work opportunities expand, and participation in overseas employment.

The adoption of new policies/legislation concerning women workers during the decade is a manifestation of continuing efforts to afford women equal opportunities in the world of work. The transfer of the maternity leave benefits for working women from the employer to the Social Security System provides additional security to married women’s health and work tenure. LOI 974 is
particularly directed to women's participation in decision-making positions in both private and government entities. The special emphasis on welfare and participation of women in employment in the Updated Philippine Development Plan is very much indicative of the country's recognition of women's talents and potentials. And the Philippine ratification of the UN CEDAW signifies the government's seriousness in making a national policy an international commitment.

Should the present trend of female participation in the labor force continue, both men and women can share the responsibility as family breadwinners. But the gap between the earnings of men and women can be reduced only if women are able to shift to nontraditional technical jobs which are better-paying, especially in transportation, storage and communication; finance, insurance, real estate and business services; electricity, gas and water; construction; mining and quarrying. Opportunities must be expanded for women to participate in decision-making positions in government and private corporations as employers (1 F : 5 M in 1983) or in administrative, executive and managerial posts (1 F : 3 M in 1983).

Oversea employment, for both men and women, affords them great opportunity to contribute to family income. Female share in the overseas labor market is currently 18.3%, predominantly as service workers (59%) and professional/technical workers (36%). The policy on manpower export, however, needs clarification in light of its impact particularly on Filipino women – as solo parent when a husband works abroad, and the tarnished image of the Filipina as entertainer or domestic worker.

3. In Public Affairs

a. Philippine law guarantees Filipino women equal footing with men as regards political and civic rights.

The Constitution of 1973 grants to men and women the right to vote and to run for and hold public office. Article VI states that "Suffrage shall be exercised by citizens of the Philippines not otherwise disqualified by law, who are eighteen years of age or over, or who shall have resided in the Philippines for at least one-year and in the place wherein they propose to vote for at least six months preceding the election. No literacy, property, or other substantive requirements shall be imposed on the exercise of suffrage."

Article V Sec. 4 of the Constitution further made it the duty of every qualified citizen to register and cast his vote.
b. Generally, the status of women in politics and decision-making positions hardly changed during the decade.

On the national level, no perceptible increase happened in terms of women's representation in the Batasan National Assembly; in fact, the Batasan was one woman representative-less in the 1984 election. Women MPs (Members of Parliament) comprised at most 5.4 percent (10 of 184 seats).

In local elections, minimal increase in the count of women officials in the provincial/municipal and city level was noted, or from 5.5% in 1971 to 7.6% in 1980. Women barangay officials registered a small 11.3% participation rate against an 88.7% for the men between the two barangay elections in 1971 and 1982.

Women’s token representation holds true in appointive ranks.

Among the three Constitutional Commissions (COMELEC, COA and CSC), only CSC has a woman commissioner (1 of 8). In the Cabinet, only two of the 18 ministers are women. The diplomatic service is perhaps one area where women have attained a relatively fair representation. Between 1979 and 1984, an improved picture for female diplomats was observed, or an increase from 24.1% to 27.5%. In the Judiciary, the presence of women jurists has improved slightly from 6.4% in 1981 to 7.5% representation in all judicial positions in 1984. The percentage of women in the third and highest level of positions in the civil service shows a brighter picture — it rose from less than 15% in 1974 to 26% in 1980 and 36% in 1983. But when compared to the number of women in the career service, they constitute only less than one percent. Also, women formed less than one-fifth (16.5%) of the 983 CESOs (those appointed by the President to various ranks in the CES) in 1984.

c. Analysis and observations brought to the surface the other angle of women’s political participation through their role in the bureaucracy, as a potent force in the community, their decisiveness in elections, political awakening and their pivotal role in the households.

The other side of women’s political participation which was proposed in a doctoral dissertation is their role in the bureaucracy. According to the study, the bureaucracy is the center of policy making where public policies are initiated and implemented and therefore performs a political function. “Women stay in the bureaucracy because of their feeling of potency in the decision-making process, but are not aware that the action is political.”
Women are potent force in the community. When it comes to civic work and community services, they are always in the forefront. To wit: majority of barangay health and rural workers are women (80%). In 1980, there were about 200 registered women's organizations and in the late seventies and early eighties, about 120 women's organizations were formed in Metro Manila alone.

There are two types of women's organizations observed: one concerns activities of women's groups directly extending socio-cultural, economic, educational and political services to specific target groups. These are typified by CAWP, the umbrella organization of 74 women affiliates and the BSK, Inc., a governmental-initiated but privately run organization; the other one is focused on the recent wave of militant women's groups which espouse economic and social reforms in addition to extending community outreach services.

In five elections held during the decade, women exhibited a consistently higher voters' turn-out rates (68% to 90%) than the men (66% to 89%). Therefore, when they decide to support a particular candidate, they could be a strong force (49.4% of the voting population). Like for instance in the recently held national election, in areas where women candidates won, they obtained the highest or second highest number of votes.

Women activist groups who have become more vocal of their plight as well as of the country's welfare is a manifestation of women's political awakening. Also the fact that women's voices are being heard in the decision for the candidates in the 1987 presidential election could presage the beginning of a more assertive women's voice in public affairs.

Women maintain a pivotal role in the family where she is involved in major decision-making in the household while they straddled between their dual roles as homemakers and career women.

d. Lack of significant progress in politics and decision-making is still traceable to traditional attitudes.

Poor representation of women in higher levels in the government still stems from the traditional attitude of men and women that "politics is man's game." while women dutifully cast their votes, they do not necessarily vote for the women candidates and even if they decide to elect women candidates, not enough of them run for public office.

The notion of dual roles and traditional attitude towards women also hinders appointment of women to higher positions.
4. **In Health**

a. The health program of the country under the Philippine law is designed for both men and women but specific concern for the health of children, pregnant and lactating mothers is also stipulated.

The Constitution of 1973 provides that the "State shall establish, maintain and ensure adequate social services in the field of education, health, housing, employment, welfare and social security to guarantee the enjoyment by the people of a decent standard of living." (Art. II Sec. 7)

It also stipulates that "It shall be the responsibility of the State to achieve and maintain population levels most conducive to social welfare." (Art. XV Sec. 10)

Further, the Updated National Development Plan, 1984-1987 in its statement of broad programs and projects stressed that: "The implementation of programs to minimize problems related to pregnant women, lactating mothers, children and other vulnerable groups will be pursued."

b. The health status of all sectors of the population showed a gradual but steady improvement.

From 1972 to 1984 improvements in the conditions of the population can be gleaned in the following health indicators: IMR went down from 82.0 to 48.0 per 1000 live births while MMR decreased from 1.7 to 0.8 per 1000 live births during the period. Most of the maternal deaths occurred among the ages 30-39 with postpartum hemorrhage and toxemias of pregnancy infections as the common causes.

The number of births per 1000 population (crude birth rate) was reduced from 37.4 in 1974 to 31.6 in 1984. Total fertility rate decreased from 5.2 in 1975 to 4.5 in 1980. On the other hand, the number of people dying from all causes for both men and women was smaller in 1984 (7.6/1000 population) than in 1972 (9.8/1000). Also, people expected to live longer in 1984 than in 1972, with the life expectancy increasing from 59.3 to 62.8 years.

c. Filipino women are acknowledged and recognized as primary beneficiaries of some major health programs because of their unique biological functions.

A review of the major health programs implemented by the Ministry of Health and related agencies reveals that women are accorded high priority in the programming of health services. This is
indicated by the attention and support given to three major programs that are directed towards the welfare of women: maternal and child care, family planning and nutrition programs.

1. Maternal and Child Health Care efforts are designed towards giving special care and supervision to pregnant and lactating women and to children to minimize known risks associated with pregnancy and childbirth. To make this possible, five program priority components were implemented such as: maternal care; training of 39,558 initiates; perinatal and 0-6 child Care; expanded program on immunization, and promotion of breastfeeding.

2. The Nutrition Program shows its concern for women as primary beneficiaries thru its major activities:

- Health Protection calls for preventive and curative actions for severely malnourished children and pregnant and nursing women. Some of the facilities and services under this project include: establishment of 160 hospital-based nutrition wards; construction of 177 nutrition hutts to supplement the services of nutritionwards; operationalization of 159 Under Six Clinics which in 1980 attended to some 268,910 preschoolers; distribution of free vitamins and medicines to 376,200 recipients; implementation of school health guardian program which provides immunization, dental and other medical and nursing services; and provision of iron supplements to anemic pregnant women; distribution of iodized salt and administration of iodized oil injections to goiter cases in endemic areas.

- Food Production and Food Assistance seeks to augment family income and increase food availability as well as to improve the nutritional status of malnourished persons, with children, pregnant and nursing mothers as priority beneficiaries.

- Information Education and Communication is pursued to increase the level of nutrition awareness and knowledge and to promote the adoption of proper dietary practices through the incorporation of nutrition education in the activities of implementing agencies. A total of 12,365 nutrition classes in 1980 were conducted with an outreach of 339,157 homemakers (note that the women are the primary targets of IEC campaigns).

3. Family Planning

Concern for women under this program is shown by the program's goal to minimize maternal and child mortality and unwanted pregnancies especially the high-risk ones.
To realize this goal, government efforts were directed towards:

- Opening of new FP Clinics and services outlets. As of 1981 there were a total of 1,843 MOH service facilities.
- Recruitment of acceptors. From 1970 to 1981, a total of 2,651,827 clients were served with use-effectiveness of the method mix reaching a level of 84.4% and births averted estimated at about 2.3 million.
- Training and outreach. Outreach family planning personnel servicing clients' in both urban and rural areas are reported.
- Family planning information and counselling which includes premarital counselling, referral services and organization of acceptors' clubs.

From the private sector, efforts were directed towards finding alternatives to child bearing such as provision of income-generating programs for women and motivational campaigns to encourage more male acceptors.

d. Women as agents in the delivery of health services comprise majority of the total health personnel. However although they are the majority, only few women are involved in top-level decision-making functions especially in the regions.

In the different branches of the Ministry of Health (Central and regional offices and hospitals) women comprise 66.1 percent of the 51,993 personnel, and as volunteer field workers of various health programs, they represent 84.17 percent of the total 288,090.

As to the positions they occupy, data show that in the Central office, 54 percent of high positions are occupied by women. This indicates that the higher level decision-making functions on health matters are more or less equally distributed among men and women officials. However, in the regional and provincial health offices and hospitals, decision-making positions are almost in the hands of men.

B. Problem Areas

These promising trends notwithstanding, it would be incorrect to assume that Filipino women have gone far in the continuum of progress. Much more remains to be done as the decade brought to focus the more serious problems which confront women in the field of education, employment, health, and public affairs.

Filipino women’s employment situation remains poor as they continue to suffer from lower wages, poor working conditions and exploitative practices. Their concentration in low paying jobs is a result of their low level of education which generally makes them poorly informed, less qualified,
less skilled. Women populate the manufacturing (47%), service (52%) and trade sectors (66%) where working conditions are generally hazardous to health. Studies show that women comprise 70 percent of workers in the export processing zones where conditions are reportedly unjust, oppressive and inhuman. Poor health resulting from poor working conditions reduces productivity which in turn becomes a cause for termination of employment.

The plight of women workers is believed to be strongly correlated with the country’s efforts to advance economic growth. For instance, one of the incentives offered to foreign investors is the availability of cheap labor who are mostly women. Prostitution is also known to have flourished with the intensified promotion of tourism by both government and private organizations. The well-known package tours reportedly include women as sex partners for visiting tourists and businessmen.

This situation also brings to focus the incompatibility in national goals; whether to attract more dollars and exhaust the country’s brains and brawns or to restrict their outflow to enable them to assist in the national development efforts. This also raises the issue of the preservation of moral values following the Catholic principles considering that 85 percent of Filipinos profess this faith.

Issues concerning groups of women workers are: a) protectiveness toward women workers which is counterproductive when the provisions serve as negative inducement to prospective employers; b) problems in the export processing zone namely low wages, substandard working conditions, low level of awareness of social security/welfare benefits and weak unionism; c) conditions of women in the informal sector, including vendors, hawkers and domestic outworkers; d) protection of women (and children) against exploitation particularly in the tourism and entertainment industries; e) wages, benefits and other working conditions of domestic helpers, both local and overseas, including the issue of exploitation by middle or upper-class women of their less fortunate sisters; f) low recognition accorded the 3 million female rural workers and their limited participation in agricultural development programs including cooperatives, Samahang Nayon, and production technology training.

There are strong evidences that the rather unhappy situation of women in employment and in other areas for that matter is also brought about by traditional attitudes concerning men and women’s roles. Women continue to flock to low-paying, traditionally female jobs which distort the distribution of wages in favor of male workers who generally occupy the high level, better paying positions. While a few women have proven themselves successful in handling decision-making functions, the typical Filipino woman worker has yet to prove her mettle in this area. Hence, the emerging picture of the Filipino worker in the Philippines is very poor: one who works in an agricultural enterprise, is generally an unpaid family worker who lives in a rural area.
There is much unrest among workers. Strikes are more frequent, and workers are marching on the streets in protest. In all these, women are active participants.

For example in 1981, there were a total of 257 strikes, involving 76,555 workers and three million manhours lost. This was said to be 163.69% of the number of recorded strikes since 1971 (Ibon 83). In 1982, there were reportedly fewer strikes involving less workers but which entailed greater loss of manhours. Reports from MOLE and labor unions show manhours lost in 139 strikes, in 1982 totalled 12.2 million (Ibon 112). Foremost among the 1982 strikes was the June sympathy strike of zone workers at Mariveles, Bataan which involved at least 20 firms, 10,000 workers and 566,192 manhours lost (Ibon 109).

Among the complaints of striking workers are the imposition of heavy workloads by means of unrealistic quotas (the major factor in the June sympathy strike initiated by 200 workers of Inter-Asia Container Industries Inc., (Ibon 109), and violation of laws concerning minimum wages. It was reported that of the 283 business establishments inspected by the labor ministry from January to October 1981, 86 percent violated wage-related regulations (Ibon 83). Other factors include job insecurity, unhealthy working and living conditions and other exploitative practices such as forced overtime and harassment.

Remaining as problematic issue in education is women’s absorption into the labor market.

While no discrimination exists in terms of access to education, some areas of discrimination are noted in their absorption into the world of work. And even when they are already employed, women still find that they are promoted last and fired first.

An alarming situation concerns the participation of college graduates and professionals in such types of work as entertainment and domestic service. Getting into jobs where they are obviously educationally-over-qualified is wastage of education and therefore underutilization of human capabilities. This situation leads to the problem of the inability of the educational system to meet labor demands which in turn leads to an oversupply of college graduates because they can not find jobs which suit their qualifications. It also stands to question the system’s ability to fuel national development efforts through the education and training of its human resources in suitable areas. Recent trends indicate that the importance of education in securing a better status in life is diminished due to the expansion of the overseas market for low-skilled workers.

As educational providers, recent developments particularly affecting the economic and political situation of the country exerted pressures which became too difficult for them to stand. Low salaries and poor working conditions forced some teachers out of the classrooms into the streets to
demand improvements in their status. Such could also be a manifestation of a socio-political awakening of this group of workers who have long suffered an unjust situation despite the magnitude and significance of their responsibility.

Government efforts to meet teachers' demands have not been very successful because the Ministry itself is suffering from budget cutbacks as its allocation drastically dropped from 26% in 1970 to 9.4% in 1975 and then to 10.5% in 1985. Its inability to recover from these financial setbacks has posed other serious problems such as the shortage of teachers due to either the lesser number of entrants or to the departure of practitioners from the profession in favor of better alternatives; and of course, the continuing low pay that it can afford to pay to those who stay.

And while Philippine formal education is largely in the hands of women, decision-making positions in the Ministry still rest with men, a clear manifestation of existing roadblocks (in the form of attitudes and biases) towards the promotion of women to higher level positions.

In the field of health, the country's poor economic situation remains a stumbling block in the country's pursuit of a healthy population. The state of health of the population is directly related to the country's economy particularly the amount that it allocates to its health and welfare programs. Data show that there was a 0.1 percent decrease in the already small budget allotted to the Ministry of Health for the year 1985. From 4.25 percent in 1984, (P2.3B) it went down to 4.16 percent (2.4B).

Such a small budget for such a big program generates other problems and issues which tend to affect negatively the Ministry's performance such as:

- low salaries for medical personnel (especially in the government sector) resulting in more doctors, nurses, dentists, etc. leaving the country in quest of better paying jobs abroad; of only 3 percent of the 15,000 physicians being in public health service to attend to the Filipinos in rural areas;

- a poor quality health care, extent of outreach and health facilities, and;

- poor nutritional condition of the population due to rising cost of food commodities and health services.

Women's dual role, as paid or volunteer workers and at the same time as wives and mothers responsible for the health and welfare of the family affect their own health and welfare. Data reveal the significant roles women play in health welfare and maintenance. They comprise 66 percent of all health
workers in the MOH and occupy 54 percent of the high positions in the central office. In the regional areas, they form the bulk of the field workers both paid and volunteer. At the same time, women are expected to maintain their family’s and their own health. In the process, their health suffers.

C. Forward Looking Strategies

Strategies proposed to overcome obstacles to the improvement of women’s roles and status focus on educational programs and implementation/review of existing legislations. The latter includes the strengthening of national machineries as coordinating mechanisms for government and private efforts. It also calls for an improvement of data gathering and information dissemination to enable law enforcers to avail of reliable and up-to-date information for monitoring purposes.

Educational strategies include the elimination of traditional attitudes through curricular innovations. They also concern the review of the educational system to enable it to meet national demands. From the informal and nonformal education sector, the greater involvement of media both in values building and in the more positive projection of the Filipina’s image is sought. Formal and nonformal education is intended to inform women of their rights and responsibilities as workers and citizens, to encourage them to be more politically conscious, to train them as participants in health care services and to educate them to prevent them from becoming victims of trafficking and exploitation.
Part One: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:

The Philippine version of the creation which relates that the first man and woman emerged simultaneously from one section of the bamboo presaged the early relationship of equality between Filipino women and men.

According to historians, Filipino women in precolonial days held a position equal with the men in the family and community. Daughters could succeed to become chiefs of the barangays (originally composed of the captain of the boat called balangay, members of his family and relatives who settled in the islands now making up the Philippines). Among other things, women engaged in business activities and wielded power as priestesses.

Women played important roles in the Philippine Revolution against Spain. They took arms with the men and fought beside them. In the Katipunan, a revolutionary organization of Filipinos, women served in responsible positions and suffered untold hardships.

Colonial rule changed women’s status. Spanish laws relegated them to a subordinate position. The Americans opened to women equal access to education but also introduced measures which though intended to protect working women resulted in discriminatory practices against them. The change in their legal status has nevertheless proved to be no serious handicap to the Filipino women’s participation in community and national activities nor has it lowered their position in society. They formed organizations and worked for political rights. With the support of all-male legislatures, they secured an amendment to the Paraphernal Law to enable married women to manage and dispose of their own property; they won the right to vote and be voted for, exercising suffrage for the first time in 1937.

In more recent history, women have led movements against foreign imperialism and domestic feudalism in an effort to achieve liberation for self and country. Individually and collectively through volunteer organizations, the women have been on the forefront for reforms and changes. As early as 1975, there were already more than 60 women’s organizations affiliated to the Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP), the national council of women’s organizations. CAWP is a member of the International Council of Women and more than ten of its member organizations have international affiliations.
Before 1975, women participated in activities that influenced their home, community and social life. They took part in making decisions in earning and managing the income of the family. They went to school and learned skills alongside the men and served in private and public capacities to attend to the social and economic needs of the country, even going further afield to contribute their share in the international world.

II. INITIAL EFFORTS FOR THE UNIVERSAL RECOGNITION OF WOMEN’S RIGHTS TO EQUALITY OF TREATMENT

With the proclamation of the year 1975 as International Women’s Year by the UN General Assembly in 1972, worldwide attention has been sharply focused on women — their status, roles and concerns in society. Even before the establishment of the United Nations, however, other international organizations such as the Inter-American Commission of Women of the Organization of American States and the League of Nations had dealt with the question of equal rights for women. As early as the 1950s, the United Nations’ various offices and specialized agencies were in many ways introducing reforms within their respective areas to improve the standing of women in society — through conventions binding on the member states or declarations laying down international standards which would provide national governments with strong moral, if not legal, spurs to action.

The UN Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSW) was established in 1946 as an expert body of the Economic and Social Council, the UN agency responsible for promoting “universal respect for, and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion” (UN Charter, Art. 55). The Commission’s mandate was to prepare recommendations and reports on the promotion of women’s rights in political, economic, social and educational fields.

Initially, the Commission’s major thrust was in the setting of legal standards. To this end, it began work on the adoption of legal instruments such as the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, because it considered that until women shared in decision-making, they would make no progress.

The culmination of its work in this area was the adoption in 1967 of the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women which provided a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations but was not legally binding on Governments. Therefore it began work on a legally binding Convention, which was approved by the General Assembly in 1979 and came into force in 1981.1

---

Filipino women were known to have played important roles in the initial efforts for the universal recognition of women's rights to equality of treatment. The 19th session (1966) of the UN Commission on the Status of Women which approved the Draft Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women unanimously elected as its chairman a Filipina — Helena Z. Benitez who also became the first Southeast Asian Chairman of the UNCSW. The 25th Session of the Commission (1974) was chaired by another Filipina — Leticia Ramos Shahani² who was subsequently appointed Secretary-General of the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women held in July 1985.

This participation has been sustained. Rosario Gonzales Manalo was elected (1984) and reelected (1985) Chairman of the UNCSW acting as Preparatory Body for the 1985 World Conference. This preparatory body drafted the Conference Agenda which was subsequently endorsed by the General Assembly in its resolution no. 35/108.

III. PHILIPPINE RESPONSE TO THE WOMEN’S DECADE

At the outset of the International Women’s Year, the Philippines established a national machinery for women. It is called the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW), a mechanism under the Office of the President. The NCRFW was mandated to “review, evaluate and recommend measures including priorities to ensure full integration of women for economic, social and cultural development at national, regional and international levels, and to ensure further equality between men and women.”

The setting up of a national machinery in the Philippines was also a result of some eight years of agitation by women’s organizations. Beginnings were traced during the UN Commission on the Status of Women Regional Seminar held in Manila in 1966 when Ms. Benitez was the Chairman of the UNCSW, and where the President of the Republic announced the creation of a Commission on the Status of Women in the Philippines. When Shahani chaired the Commission in 1974, this agitation was revived through a resolution of the Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP) in its 29th Annual Assembly on 8 June 1974. CAWP, an umbrella of 74 affiliated national women’s organizations, in its fourth resolution “reiterated its appeal for the creation of the Commission on the Status of Women composed of representatives of government, the private sector, civic and religious organizations so that it can be the highlight of the IWY observance in the Philippines.”³

IV. PARTICIPATION IN WORLD CONFERENCES FOR THE UN DECADE OF WOMEN

A. The International Women’s Year Conference

The first major activity of the NCRFW was its participation in the UN International Women’s Year (IWY) Conference in Mexico from June 19 to July 2, 1975 where the NCRFW Chairman – Mrs. Imelda R. Marcos was one of the speakers at the opening plenary session. The Chairman of the Philippine delegation, Estefania Aldaba-Lim was elected as one of the Vice Presidents of the Conference (who also presided at a plenary session) and as Chairman of the Credentials Committee. Shahani, who was Vice Chairman presided at the preconsultation meeting and later on chaired the drafting group which formulated the draft declaration of Mexico 1975 on the equality of women and their contribution to development and peace.4

Preparatory to the Conference, the delegates lined up a number of amendments for the World Plan of Action and drafted three resolutions dealing with three important issues:

1. Declaration of 1976-1985 as decade for women’s development and with it the setting up of a voluntary fund for women’s development;

2. Women’s participation in the promotion of peace and international understanding; and

3. The use of social and economic indicators to evaluate women’s participation in development.

The first two resolutions were adopted by consensus and the third was merged in a resolution presented by the U.S. delegation and co-sponsored by the Philippines.

All in all, 17 delegates (including the Chairman of the NCRFW) represented the Philippines at the Conference.5

Focal point of the deliberations of the IWY Conference was the Draft Plan of Action prepared in advance by the Consultative Committee and which intended to provide guidelines for national action of governments over a 10-year period from 1975 to 1985. This plan included: international co-operation and peace; political participation; education and training; employment; health and nutrition; the family; population; housing; research; and the mass media.

4NCRFW 1975 Annual Report, report of the delegation by Dr. Estefania Aldaba-Lim.

5Dr. Estefania Aldaba-Lim, Chairman; Ambassadors Leon Ma. Guerrero and Leticia Ramos Shahani as Vice Chairman; Justice Cecilia Muñoz Palma, Minister Rosario G. Manalo and Dr. Leticia Perez de Guzman as alternates; Dean Irene R. Cortes, Dr. Gloria Aragon, Dr. Mona D. Valino, Mrs. Nora Z. Petines, Atty. Florida Romero, Mrs. Bai Matebay Plang, Mrs. Rosario Melchor, and Mrs. Carmen G. Nakpil as Advisers and Miss Nona Zaldívar and Gloria Luna as Secretaries.
The World Conference in 1975 called for the establishment of the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), which will study and examine women's issues worldwide in an integrated manner. INSTRAW was established at Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, in 1983. It is an autonomous body under the auspices of the United Nations, and is completely financed by voluntary contributions. INSTRAW aims at promoting through research and training activities the full participation of women together with men in the economic, social and political advancement of each society. INSTRAW also acts as a clearinghouse for information and research and training efforts to women.\(^6\)

Another outcome of the International Women's Year was the establishment of the Voluntary Fund for the United Nations Decade for Women, which has to date funded over 300 projects totalling almost US$20 million.

The Philippines is a recipient of UNVF assistance. A total of at least US$93,803 was granted by the Fund for the implementation of five (5) projects. The fund supports innovative and experimental development activities that benefit mainly rural women and poor urban women. It plays the role of a catalyst in stimulating major agencies and funds to consider women's needs in their own development assistance programmes.

B. The World Conference for the UN Decade for Women

The World Conference for the UN Decade for Women held in Copenhagen, Denmark from July 14-30, 1980 sought to review and evaluate progress made and obstacles encountered in attaining the objectives of the UN Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, at the national, regional and international levels, from 1975 to 1980, in keeping with the World Plan Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of the International Women's Year. It also formulated the Programme of Action for the second half of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace 1981-1985 designed to implement the World Plan of Action. The subthemes — Employment, Health and Education — were emphasized in the national targets and strategies for women’s integration and participation in economic and social development.

The Philippine Delegation to the World Conference was headed by Mrs. Marcos, Chairman of the NCRFW. She was the first Conference speaker when she delivered the Philippine policy statement. Shahani was Vice Chairman of the delegation and was elected one of the

\(^6\) UN Branch . . . op. cit.
Conference Vice Presidents. Mona D. Valisno, another delegate was requested to participate, representing Asian states, in the writing of the World Program of Action, *National Targets and Strategies for Full Participation of Women in Economic and Social Development* under the First Committee.\(^7\)

The group initiated three resolutions and amendments to the World Program of Action which were officially adopted at the Committee level and by the Conference, namely:

1. Resolution to strengthen the Commission on the Status of Women;
2. Amendment to priority areas for action under *Education* and *Training* within national efforts to increase literacy and education for the whole population in the Programme of Action at the National level;
3. Amendment to priority areas for action under *Education* and *Training* within national efforts to examine curricular and learning materials with a view to promote the development of learning materials to optimize the potential of women in the Programme of Action at the National level.

They also co-sponsored five resolutions and one amendment adopted at the Committee level and at the Plenary, as follows:

1. Resolution on the Role of Women in Preparation of Societies for Life in Peace initiated by Poland;
2. Resolution on Family Planning initiated by Sri Lanka;
3. Resolution on International Drinking Water Supply initiated by Japan and co-sponsored by USA and the Philippines;
4. Resolution on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women;
5. Resolution on the Promotion of Equality in Education and Training initiated by Austria, Argentina and Mexico;
6. Amendment of priority areas requiring special attention under Rural Women within national efforts to improve the living conditions of women in rural areas in the Programme of Action at the National Level initiated by Thailand.

\(^7\)The complete list of members include: Mrs. Imelda R. Marcos, *Chairman*; Ambassador Leticia R. Shahani, *Vice Chairman*; Irene R. Cortes, Dr. Gloria T. Aragon, Dr. Mona D. Valisno, Dr. Leticia P. De Guzman, *Members*; Amb. Consuelo A. Arranz, Ambassador Luis M. Salcedo, Ambassador Jose V. Cruz, Ambassador Jose M. Stiniapholous, Commissioner Carmen G. Nekpil, Senator Maria K. Katigbak, Adviser: Commissioner Nora Z. Petines, Commissioner Santanina T. Rasul, Commissioner Carolina B. Salazar, Commissioner Minerva G. Laudico, Dr. Rosario J. Gutierrez, *Alternate Delegates.*
Prior to the mid-decade conference, the Philippines, through the Vice Chairman of the NCRFW, Irene R. Cortes, participated in the Regional Preparatory Conference of the UN Decade for Women sponsored by the UN ESCAP. This was held in New Delhi, India from November 5-9, 1979. The objectives of said conference centered on the assessment of the implementation of the world and regional plan of action, the establishment of guidelines for the second half of the decade and the identification of critical issues affecting women in the ESCAP region.


The forthcoming world conference is slated to be held in Nairobi, Kenya from July 15-26, 1985. Two of the major items in the Conference Agenda focus on the review and appraisal of the achievements of the decade and the formulation of forward looking strategies of implementation for the advancement of women from 1985 to the year 2000.

The Philippines has taken part in the Conference preparatory activities both at the regional and the international levels.

Through the NCRFW, the Philippines completed a questionnaire which aimed to appraise the situation of women in the ESCAP region in the areas of education, health, employment, political participation including legislations affecting their status. Subsequently, the responses to such questionnaire from the Philippines, together with those of the rest of the region, were compiled and analyzed to form the basis of regional report which later became the working document for the Regional Inter-governmental Preparatory Meeting held in Tokyo, Japan from March 26-30, 1984 and in which the Philippines was also represented through the NCRFW Executive Director, Leticia P. De Guzman. The regional meeting formulated the forward looking strategies for the region for the year 1985-2000.

The Philippines also completed the UN questionnaire prepared by the Branch for the Advancement of Women of the UN Center for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. In addition to the subthemes of education, health and employment which were under the sectoral development areas, the questionnaire looked into general development issues on the international level, including national development plans and policies, national machineries and programs, legislations, political participation, technical and international cooperation and strengthening of international peace. The eleven other sectoral areas focused on communication, demographic factors, refugees and displaced women, rural development, science and technology, service and trade.

The result of this assessment will form part of the major documents to be discussed in the forthcoming world conference.
Part Two: SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN WOMEN'S ROLE AND STATUS IN EDUCATION, HEALTH, PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND EMPLOYMENT

This part contains the substantive aspect of the report. It discusses the trends in the areas of education, health and employment, including the major developments during the decade in terms of policies and legislation which directly affect women. Factors which account for the changes as well as the major obstacles in the attainment of the decade's goals are analyzed as bases for the forward looking strategies for implementation at the national level for the years 1985 to 2000.

The position adopted by this report is that changes during the decade may have taken place not only as result of the UN proclamation but also, and more importantly, because of the prevailing national and international conditions which have affected not only the women but the entire population as well.

The themes of the Decade — Equality, Development and Peace — are interwoven in the discussion of the subthemes. Equality deals with de jure and de facto equality, with emphasis on equal opportunity for men and women as change agents and their equal access as beneficiaries of legislations. Development examines the changes in roles and status of women in a situation of equality or inequality. Peace is discussed as an offshoot of equality or inequality or as an effect of high or low level of development.

Theoretical Framework

The themes of the decade — Equality, Development and Peace — are interrelated.

EQUALITY as it relates to DEVELOPMENT means that men and women have equal opportunity to participate in and benefit from the fruits of development. Filipino women's quest for equality also means that they can seek new roles without being prejudiced, or that in comparison with men, their choice encompasses a wide range of possibilities according to their talents and capabilities rather than being restricted to the few socially-ascribed alternatives traditionally permitted to women.

DEVELOPMENT as it relates to the attainment of PEACE presupposes two conditions — gains in the material welfare of the country and a general improvement in the quality of life of the people including the preservation of desirable moral, cultural and spiritual values.

The Philippines as a developing country recognizes the importance of economic productivity in development. Committed to a national population policy as a predominantly Catholic nation, it seeks improvements in the
levels of living as to include the preservation of desirable values which are threatened by modernization itself. The Philippines recognizes the family as a basic unit of society, respects human life (it is against abortion) and upholds the dignity of the woman and of the child as human persons.

PEACE may be attained presumably as a result of high levels of development, whether material and social (quality of life and desirable values). It may nevertheless prevail in a society where, in spite of low levels of material development and under tolerable levels of underdevelopment and poverty, human rights are inviolable and the dignity of men and women as human beings is upheld.

The themes of EQUALITY, DEVELOPMENT and PEACE may therefore be described as in a kind of commutative relationship where EQUALITY brings about DEVELOPMENT and development leads to PEACE. There are, however, certain conditions where equality may permit the existence of peaceful societies despite certain levels of underdevelopment. On the other hand, there are certain levels of development which may have been achieved because of violation of certain equality rights while at the same time, there are also certain results of development which disturb peace and bring about conflicts.

The conditions prevailing in the Philippines during the Women’s Decade will be described along this framework. The levels of achievement in terms of equality, development and peace will be assessed relative to the efforts made and obstacles encountered in the light of the prevailing national and international economic and social conditions.

Also within this framework, the subthemes of Education, Health and Employment including public affairs, are viewed as strategies as well as areas of concern in the attainment of the goals of Equality, Development and Peace. Whether or not equality underlies the levels of progress achieved in the three areas will be examined. At the same time, their contributions in upholding equality and vice versa, and the concomitant effects on the levels and quality of development (social and material) will also be appraised in relation to the attainment of peace in the Philippines.
I. GENERAL DEVELOPMENT

A. National Development Plans and Policies

1. The Philippine Development Plan, 1974-1977

The Philippine Development Plan for 1974-1977 had been formulated by the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA) prior to the adoption of the UN World Plan of Action in the IYW Conference in Mexico City in July 1975 and its subsequent approval by the General Assembly. Whereas the Philippine Development Plan considered development for the entire population regardless of sex, the World Plan of Action laid emphasis on the cause and greater involvement of women and their fuller integration in national and international development.


In its subsequent formulation of Development Plans, the NEDA included an explicit provision on women particularly under the social welfare policy, although women were classified as among the most disadvantaged groups.

Paragraph 6.6 (Social Welfare Policy) states:

"The State will pursue an integrated social development to promote total human development. Consequently, the national social welfare policy will cover the areas of land reform, health, nutrition, housing, education and culture, manpower development, youth and sports development, children, women and welfare workers, cultural minority, social security and other social concerns."

The Plan likewise recognized the changing role of women in modern society, stating that:

"Whereas previously the traditional role as wife and mother was expected and rewarded, now women are clearly among those pressured to succeed in modern and competitive society. More time is available for the mother to engage in professional activities as the community takes over some of her original functions in the care of children."

The policy framework of the 1978-1982 Philippine Development Plan covered not only economic concerns but also social development which cogently stressed the improvement in the quality of life of the Filipino family.
For the planning period 1983-1987, there was a noticeable shift in the mode of the Plan as it became more indicative in character; details of sectoral programs and projects were relegated to agency plans. The new Director General justified this as “to provide implementing agencies with greater flexibility in adjusting their programs to changing circumstances in order that efficiency may be met and maintained.” The few provisions on women contained in this Plan concerned those belonging to the nutritionally at-risk group: pregnant and lactating mothers. Within this indicative character of the Plan, women were no longer classified with the “most disadvantaged.”

3. The Updated Philippine Development Plan, 1984-1987

The Updated Philippine Development Plan, 1984-1987 (and incidentally again with another change in the NEDA directorship) talks about women in at least three chapters: health and nutrition; education, manpower and labor; and population and social services. The Plan pays particular attention to women in rural areas expressing concern for the advancement of their status (and consequently to promote fertility reduction and outmigration) by way of training in project development, implementation and evaluation to enable them to profitably engage in productive activities. As workers with special needs, the Plan emphatically states that “women’s participation in the labor market will be increased through the provision of greater opportunities for employment and the development of concomittant support systems, i.e., day care centers.”

B. Government Agencies for the Advancement of Women

1. The Bureau of Women and Minors (BWM)

The Bureau of Women and Minors is one evidence of the government’s concern for women even prior to the declaration of the women’s decade. It was created in 1960 with the primary objective of promoting the general welfare of all women and minors in the country. With the upsurge of attention focused on women after 1975, the BWM programs gained impetus.

Advocating “welfare beyond protection” for women workers as well as minors, BWM strongly sponsors the notion that women “should be assisted to cope with their responsibilities at home and at their workplaces and must likewise be encouraged to grow in these responsibilities.”
The Bureau operates under the Ministry of Labor and Employment. By Executive Order No. 797, it was reorganized in 1983 consolidating its initial four divisions into three, namely: Women and Minors Standards Division, Women and Minors Research Division and the Special Projects Division.

2. The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women

The NCRFW, which was created by Presidential Decree 633 on January 6, 1975, serves as the advisory arm of the President in the formulation programs for increasing the contribution of women to national development. In addition, the Commission is tasked to do the following:

- To ensure that the gains which the Filipino women have achieved because of Philippine culture and tradition will be preserved and enhanced in the process of modernization;
- To continuously review and evaluate the extent to which women are integrated in all sectors of economic and social life at all levels on a basis of equality with men; and
- To make recommendations which could guarantee the enjoyment by women and men of full equality before the law in all fields where it does not exist.

The NCRFW is governed by a Board of Commissioners composed of top level officials from various government ministries including one from the private sector. The Board is headed by a Chairman assisted by a Vice-Chairman.

The Commission coordinates with other agencies in carrying out its functions. The multi-sectoral composition of its Board facilitates this linkage. Whenever warranted, it creates inter-agency committees to carry out specific programs and activities wherein representatives of concerned agencies are invited to work with the NCRFW.

Activities of the national machinery are carried out through its two major divisions, programs and research, with an administrative division acting as support group. Day-to-day operations are under the supervision of an Executive Director.

3. The Home Economics Programs Division of the Bureau of Agricultural Extension, Ministry of Agriculture

The Home Economics Programs Division supports agriculture and development by bringing about effective involvement of rural women in the uplift of the family and community. For this
purpose, the Division formulates policies, programs and plans and develops standards, guidelines and innovative approaches relative to foods and nutrition, income generation, food production, family life, early childhood enrichment, malnutrition prevention, home management, population, family planning and cooperatives.

The Division provides staff support and delivers package of services to Home Extension Economists at the field operating levels — 2,400 Home Management Technicians, 86 Senior/City Home Management Technicians, 24 Home Economics Extension Specialists and 300,000 members of the Rural Improvement Clubs in the country.

C. Women Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

1. The Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP)

   The CAWP was formed in 1950 to consolidate and coordinate activities of women’s groups, numbering 74 to date. As shown earlier, CAWP was partly instrumental in the creation of a national machinery in the Philippines. Hence, the NCRFW Board of Commissioners includes the incumbent president of the Civic Assembly; and NCRFW and CAWP continue to work together to promote the interest of women.

2. Balikatan sa Kaunlaran (BSK)

   BSK is a government-initiated but privately-run organization which was launched by the NCRFW on January 3, 1977. It is officially recognized thru Presidential Proclamation 1609 which declared January 6 of every year as “Araw Balikatan” (Balikatan Day).

   Balikatan sa Kaunlaran which literally means “shoulder to shoulder in development.” is composed mostly of women from the rural areas who organize themselves into councils (provincial level), chapters (municipal level) and units (barangay level) for the implementation of various projects directed towards their community's interest and welfare. As of 1984, there were 132 duly organized provincial BSK councils with about three million members.

   In 1982, BSK acquired a legal personality by incorporation and became independent of the NCRFW. As an NGO, it formed a Board of Trustees representing the 13 regions of the country. To maintain the NCRFW and BSK tie-up, the BSK By-Laws specifies that 5 of its 18 trustees are to be filled by NCRFW officials through which means the programs of NCRFW designed for the rural women are assured continuous implementation and support by the BSK members.
3. Department of Women of the Trade Union Congress of the Philippines

This NGO is a more specialized organization in that it is particularly concerned with women workers. It was created after 1975 and expanded its programs for women in 1980 with these objectives:

- to impart the basics of trade unionism
- to promote understanding of issues of interest to women workers
- to stimulate awareness of the problems of working women
- to assist women workers to decide and develop a plan of action
- to develop positive attitudes and values

4. Rural Improvement Clubs of the Philippines

The RIC was started by a woman civic worker, Maria Ylagan Orosa, in the middle 30s by giving lectures and demonstrations in the field of food, nutrition and home economics. By 1941, she was able to organize 537 RICs. As of 1982, members of this organization numbered about 300,000, forming 6,981 clubs and located in all the provinces of the country.

RICs serve as volunteer core groups to harness rural women’s potentials through various development-oriented community projects and barangays. The organization is supported at all levels by the government field workers in home economics of the Ministry of Agriculture.

The RICs have five broad categories of programs:

- Food and Nutrition — undertakes projects to improve knowledge, attitudes and practices in family nutrition with emphasis on the prevention of malnutrition among infants, the utilization of indigenous foods and homeyard food production.
- Income Generation — includes projects that develop micro-business management using available raw materials to augment family income.
- Child Development and Family Life — helps foster sound family relationships and well-being including positive Filipino values.
- Resources Utilization — helps optimize utilization levels of energy, water and material resources.
- Household Economics and Environmental Sanitation — aims to increase awareness for effective income management, improve housekeeping and health and sanitation.

5. Other Women NGOs

Majority of the better known women’s organizations with national and local chapters as well as those with international affiliations are affiliated with the Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines. Outside the CAWP the more popular women’s groups emerged about the 1980s. Such women’s groups as GABRIELA, WOMEN, TW-MAE-W and NOW are composed of groups of women from various sectors — professional, business, rural and urban poor, relatives and sympathizers of political detainees, religious, etc. who are concerned with socio-political issues including the welfare of women. They conduct protest marches, fora and dialogues and disseminate information materials to ventilate issues about which they demand action.
II. WOMEN'S STATUS BEFORE THE LAW

The status of women before the law is one area where pockets of discrimination still remain in the statute books. While systematic projects to expunge discriminatory provisions from the Civil Code and the Penal Code are being undertaken, separate proposals for legislation have been filed with the legislature to repeal or amend discriminatory laws or to introduce measures for the elimination of sex-based discrimination. While some gains have been achieved during the Decade, equality of men and women remains to be achieved, particularly in the area of civil law. Attainment of full equality is also hampered by inadequate implementation of policies as a result of many factors, one of which is the prevailing attitudes towards women and the position that they should occupy in society.

This section presents the status of women before the law, particularly in regard to family and property rights. Specific policies concerning their status in employment, health and education are covered in the sectoral discussions.

A. General Principle

The principles of equality and nondiscrimination are explicitly guaranteed in the Constitution of the Philippines. Article IV, Section 1 states:

"No person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law, nor shall any person be denied the equal protection of the laws"

Such guarantees of due process or equal protection go back to the organic Acts as early as 1901 and were in the 1935 Constitution which was superseded in 1973.

B. Specific Provisions

1. Citizenship

The 1973 Constitution removed the discriminatory treatment of Filipino women married to aliens by providing that a Filipina retains Philippine citizenship unless by act or omission she is deemed to have renounced that citizenship (Art. III Sec. 2).

The following are citizens of the Philippines:

- Those who are citizens of the Philippines at the time of the adoption of this Constitution;

- Those whose fathers or mothers are citizens of the Philippines;
• Those who elect Philippine citizenship pursuant to the provisions of the Constitution of nineteen hundred and thirty five;
• Those who are naturalized in accordance with law.

Further, by virtue of PD 725 and LOI 270 (both issued in 1975), a woman now has the right to repatriate herself and to apply for Philippine citizenship.

2. Legal Capacity

The Civil Code provides that a person, upon the attainment of the age of twenty-one years, is qualified for all aspects of civil life, with certain exceptions established by law in special cases (Art. 402). But aside from insanity, the state of being deaf-mute, prodigality and civil interdiction which limit the capacity of both men and women to act (Art. 139) the law imposes additional restrictions on women: A daughter above 21 but below 23 of age cannot leave the parental home without the consent of the father or mother in whose company she lives, except to become a wife or where she exercises a profession (Art. 403).

3. Marriage Rights

a. Age at Marriage

Philippine law fixes the minimum age for marriage at 16 for males and 14 for females (Art. 54). However, females below 18 and males below 20 must obtain parental consent in order to marry; otherwise, the parents can have the marriage annulled. Females above 18 but below 23 and males above 20 but below 25 must obtain the advice of a parent or guardian before they can be married; otherwise they must publish their marriage application and wait three months before marriage can be performed (Art. 85).

The Civil Code provisions governing mixed marriage between Christian and Muslim or pagan not only favor the Christian party but also make sex a determining factor in the law which will govern the solemnization of the marriage.

In a marriage between a Christian and a male Muslim or pagan female, the general provisions of the Civil Code govern, but when the marriage is between a Muslim or pagan male and a Christian female, special rules permit marriage between Muslims or pagans who live in the non-Christian provinces to be performed in accordance with their customs, rites or practices, if so desired by the contracting parties.
Under the Muslim Code, a man may have four wives, a woman only one husband. (Pres. Decree 1083, 1977; Art. 27)

b. Use of Husband’s Name

The Civil Code indicates the ways in which a married woman may use her husband’s name. As a well-known commentator on this branch of Philippine law points out, the use of the word may in the following provision is to be understood as permissive rather than obligatory:

Art. 370. A married woman may use:

(1) Her maiden first name and surname and add her husband’s surname, or

(2) Her maiden first name and her husband’s surname, or

(3) Her husband’s full name, but prefixing a word indicating that she is his wife, such as “Mrs.”

c. Family Residence

Article 100 of the Civil Code provides that the husband fixes the residence of the family but the court may exempt the wife from living with the husband if he should be abroad unless in the service of the Republic.

Under Article 35 of the Muslim Code of Personal Laws, the husband shall fix the residence of the family. The court may exempt the wife from living with her husband on any of the following grounds:

a) her dower is not satisfied in accordance with the stipulations; and

b) the conjugal dwelling is not in keeping with her social standing or is, for any reason not safe for the members of the family or her property.

d. Property Rights

By law, the husband is the administrator of the conjugal partnership (Art. 165) and of the property pertaining to marriage (Art. 112). He is also the legal administrator of the property of the children under parental care and it is only in his absence that the authority devolves on the mother. (Art. 320)
As administrator of the conjugal property, the husband may not alienate real property of the conjugal partnership without the consent of the wife unless she is legally incapacitated and cannot give that consent. The husband may go to court if she unreasonably refuses to give it to him. (Art. 166)

In cases when the husband abuses his power as administrator, the wife may petition the court for a receivership, a transfer of the administration of the partnership to her or a separation of the conjugal property. (Art. 167)

A married woman retains ownership and administration over her paraphernal property (Art. 136, 137), and may dispose of her property without her husband’s consent. She may sue or be sued alone regarding her property (Art. 140) or she may turn its administration over to her husband if she chooses. (Art. 137 and 141)

As manager of the household, the wife may only bind the conjugal property in the purchase of what is necessary for the support of the family. If the husband does not give sufficient funds, she may borrow money for this purpose. The husband’s approval is, however, necessary in the purchase of jewelry or other valuables; otherwise, the purchase will be voidable unless she utilizes funds from her paraphernal property.

e. Miscellaneous

The husband may accept gifts from anyone but the wife cannot, without her husband’s consent, acquire any property by gratuitous title except from ascendants, descendants, parents-in-law, and collateral relatives within the fourth civil degree. (Art. 114, Muslim Code of Art. 36(a))

The wife may exercise any profession or occupation or engage in business. However, the husband may object, provided:

(1) His income is sufficient for the family, according to its social standing; and

(2) His opposition is founded on serious and valid grounds. (Art. 117)
The same is true under Article 36(b) of the Muslim Code of personal laws.

The rules of court provide that "A married woman may not sue or be sued alone without joining her husband, except in the following instances:

1) When they are judicially separated;
2) If they have in fact been separated for at least one year;
3) When there is a separation of property agreed upon in the marriage settlements;
4) If the administration of all the property in the marriage has been transferred to her, in accordance with articles 196 and 197 of the Civil Code;
5) When the litigation is between husband and the wife;
6) If the suit concerns her paraphernal property;
7) When the action is upon the civil liability arising from a criminal offense;
8) If the litigation is incidental to the profession, occupation or business in which she is engaged;
9) In any civil action referred to in articles 25 to 35 of the Civil Code; and
10) In an action upon a quasi-delict." (Rule 3, Sec. 4)

f. Custody of Children

The 1975 Constitution provides:

"The state shall strengthen the family as a basic social institution. The natural right and duty of parents in the rearing of youth for civic efficiency and development of moral character shall receive the aid and support of the government."

Under the law, parental authority is jointly exercised by husband and wife over their dependent legitimate children, the husband's decisions prevailing in cases of disagreement.

Formerly, the Civil Code provided that a widow who remarried lost parental authority over the children she conceived with the deceased husband but regained her parental authority over them upon the dissolution of her second marriage. (Arts. 328 (1) and 333). However, the Child and Youth Welfare Code amended this law in 1975 and treats surviving spouses in an equal manner. (Art. 17)
g. Legal Separation

The present Civil Code contains provision only for legal separation. Under this provision, the marriage ties remain, but the conjugal partnership is dissolved and the husband and wife live separately.

The causes for legal separation are:

- adultery on the part of the wife or concubinage on the part of the husband, as defined in the Revised Penal Code; or

- an attempt by one spouse against the life of the other

This provision results in the unequal treatment of women in the following fashion: to prove adultery, it is enough to establish that one single act of infidelity, as defined in the law, was committed by the wife; to establish concubinage, however, the wife must prove that her husband keeps a mistress in the conjugal dwelling, or had sexual intercourse with a woman not his wife under scandalous circumstance, or cohabits with his mistress in some other place.

h. Inheritance Right

In the past, apparently, a married woman could not make a will without the consent of her husband and without authority of the court. Currently, however, women have the same rights as men with respect to the transfer or receipt of property by hereditary succession. A person of either sex who is at least eighteen years of age and of sound mind may make a will except when expressly prohibited by law.

The system of legitime* under the law applies to compulsory heirs regardless of sex, their rights and share depending on the proximity of their relationship to the decedent and the number of category of heirs. The surviving spouse, after receiving half of the net conjugal assets, inherits as compulsory heir of the deceased.

---

*Legitime refers to that portion of a parent's estate of which the parent cannot disinherit his children without a legal cause.
C. Measures to Counteract Discriminatory Provisions/Acts

1. Legal Forms

Efforts to institute legal reforms in the country began with a review of existing laws by the UP Law Center and women lawyers groups which initially produced an omnibus proposal incorporating in one draft the changes desired, combining provisions of the Civil Code, the Penal Code, and other laws which needed change. The UP Law Center with the NCRFW, presented this omnibus proposal in fora all over the country.

Considering the number and variety of subjects covered in the omnibus proposal and the constitutional restrictions affecting the title and subject matter of bills that can be enacted into law, it was decided to give priority for reform to the provisions on family law where most restrictions on the rights of women are found.

The University of the Philippines Law Center which has been given the functions of the Code Commission abolished by a government reorganization, has undertaken a systematic and thorough review/revision of the Civil Code and the Penal Code. Its Committee on the Civil Code Revision composed of recognized civilists, both men and women drawn from the bench, the bar and the academe, is about to complete work on the family law project.

In the meantime, in the Batasang Pambansa, many proposals have been introduced on subjects affecting women. There are several proposals on divorce, on prostitution, on equal rights for women, and other subjects affecting them.

2. Legal Education and Legal Aid

Below is a presentation of measures taken to inform women of their rights and obligations as well as legal mechanisms to enable them to benefit from the provisions of the law.

a. Legal Literacy Program

The Popularizing the Law Program began in 1977 as a pilot project of the U.P. Law Center in cooperation with the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women and several "grassroots" organizations particularly the Katipunan ng Bagong Pilipina, Aniban ng mga Manggagawang Agrikultura and SIKAP (a youth organization). For three consecutive years, this seminar-workshop was undertaken. From these beginnings, the U.P. Law
Center built up the Barangay Legal Education Seminar (BLES) project with the support of the Asia Foundation and in cooperation with the Integrated Bar of the Philippines. The general objectives were: (1) to develop awareness of the various human rights guaranteed by Philippine laws and the correlative obligations of citizens; (2) to provide participants with a basic knowledge of the law as an instrument for the enforcement and implementation of human rights: (3) to acquaint them with the fundamental procedures of the judicial and administrative system; and (4) to develop a sense of involvement in the efforts toward community and national development.

Today, the U.P. Law Center has institutionalized a 3-year plan envisioning a comprehensive legal literacy campaign comprising six major components, each part intended to integrate and reinforce the other parts. Aside from the BLES and the Echo Seminars, other components include Practical Law Teaching, Legal Education through the Mass Media, Research on Community Legal Education and Developing Legal Resources for Popularizing the Law. Some of the on-going activities are the preparation of Practical Law Teaching Kits in cooperation with the U.P. Integrated School teachers, primers, a radio program called "Ito Ang Batas" (This is the Law) aired for fifteen minutes every weekday morning focusing on practical legal situations, and television short information plugs of 20 to 30 seconds entitled "Ikaw at Ang Batas" (You and the Law) aired three times daily over Channel 4.

Private Initiatives in Legal Education. In the 1960s the WILOCI conducted one of the first legal literacy programs through a Sunday weekly column, "Legally with the WILOCI" which explained the law in narrative form utilizing actual cases decided by the Supreme Court. Today, its legal literacy program is carried out in comic strip format through Justice Komiks — "Kuwento ng Batas at Katarungan" (loosely translated, Justice Comics — Story of the Law and Justice). This colored comics is the result of cooperative action with outside sources like the Asia Foundation, US Agency for International Development, Integrated Bar of the Philippines and the Law Complex of the University of the Philippines particularly its Academy of Asean Law and Jurisprudence, Legal Resources Center, Law Center and College of Law.

This device carries legal messages in the areas of Family Law, Rights of Workers and Barangay Justice to acquaint grassroots readers with applicable aspects of the law. A supplementary legal literary project is a forthcoming Legal Assistance Directory which will be a useful listing of government agencies and organizations involved in various aspects of legal aid services available to low-income clients.
On the other hand, FIDA provides orientation seminars for the poor so that they may understand their basic rights and obligations, both as members of the family and as citizens.

"Ayon sa Batas" (According to Law), a regular 30-minute radio program sponsored by the FIDA, has been an on-going project for the past several years. It is through this medium that FIDA has most effectively reached out to the great mass of ordinary Filipino citizens by simple, down-to-earth discussions of laws and other legal issues. Actual legal problems are also explained and resolved and listeners enjoy the benefits of counselling.

b. Legal Aid

Legal aid is a mechanism intended for those who cannot afford the services of paid counsel to the end that they may not be deprived of equal protection and due process under the law. In the Philippines, it is considered a public responsibility of the Bar and therefore imbued with the spirit of public service. This assistance is rendered by: a) government agencies; b) the Integrated Bar of the Philippines through its chapters; c) law schools thru their legal clinics, and d) private organizations including three women lawyers' associations.

*Governmental.* Republic Act No. 3844 (as amended by RA 4366 (1965), 4886 (1967), 5984 (1969) and 6389 (1971) created the Bureau of Legal Assistance (BALA) and the Office of Agrarian Counsel, to extend legal aid to farmers, especially agricultural lessees and agricultural owner-cultivators (Sec. 160).

Thru Presidential Decree No. 1366 (1 May 1978) the Free Legal Assistance Office (FLAO) of the Ministry of Labor was created to assist indigent workers and employers defend their rights in pursuance of the policy of effective and speedy labor justice. FLAO officers prepare necessary papers such as petitions, complaints, affidavits and motions and accept referrals from the Office of the President, CLAO, Office of Civil Relations, Social Security System and other government agencies which deal with the public.

Letter of Implementation No. 4 issued on 23 October 1972, abolished the Office of Agrarian Counsel, the functions of which were transferred to the BALA under the Department (now Ministry) of Agrarian Reform and created the CLAO under the Department (now Ministry) of Justice.
The Citizens Legal Assistance Office (CLAO) is the implementor of the legal aid delivery program of the state. It is entrusted with the function of representing free of charge, indigent persons mentioned in Republic Act No. 6035 or the immediate member of their family in all civil, administrative and criminal cases where, after due investigation, the interest of justice will be served thereby, except agrarian reform cases and such cases as handled by the Ministry of Labor.

The Integrated Bar of the Philippines. The Integrated Bar of the Philippines to which all lawyers must belong has a program of legal assistance thru its 77 chapters under the supervision of the National Committee on Legal Aid. A lawyer who extends IBP legal aid is not financially remunerated by the organization and is not allowed to either demand or receive any compensation, gifts or presents for such legal aid service.

Private organizations which offer free legal aid are the Free Legal Assistance Group (FLAG), the Citizens Legal Aid Society of the Philippines (CLASP), U.P. Women Lawyers Circle (WILOCI), Women Lawyers’ Association of the Philippines (WLAP) and Federation Internacional de Abogadas (FIDA) Philippine Chapter. As may be expected, a large bulk of the cases handled by the three women lawyers groups involve family relations.

Legal Aid in Law Schools. Law schools have instituted extension programs by rendering free legal assistance to indigent litigants thru their own legal aid clinics. Some law schools have incorporated a practicum in their curriculum requiring students either to render service in the legal aid clinic or in the CLAO or IBP chapter.
III. WOMEN’S STATUS AND ROLES IN EDUCATION

A. Status

1. Before the Law

The Constitution of 1973 provides that the “State shall establish and maintain a complete adequate and integrated system of education relevant to the goals of national development.” It also provides that the “State shall maintain a system of free public elementary education and, in areas where finances permit, establish and maintain a system of free public education at least up to the secondary level.” (Art. XV, Sec. 8 (1 and 5). The Constitution also stipulates that the “State shall provide training to adult citizens and out-of-school youths, and create and maintain scholarships for poor and deserving students.” (Sec. 8 (6).

2. Women as Beneficiaries of Educational Services

Filipinos place a high value on education. To the less fortunate, the attainment of a college degree is believed to open the door to a range of opportunities to financial and social mobility. As far as they can afford, therefore, parents provide the best they can in the education of their children.

a. School Enrolment Figures

1) Elementary Level

Elementary level schooling in the Philippines covers six school years and six grade levels (except in some private schools with grade seven) with pupils aged 6-12 years. Each barangay\(^8\) with required school age population has at least one public primary or elementary school with one teacher assigned to every 32 pupils in a class. There are in the country 30,531 public and 1,168 private elementary schools with approximately 272,479 teachers attending to some 8,591,267 elementary pupils.

In SY 1970-1971, a total of about 7 million pupils were enrolled in all elementary schools in the country. This was about 89.2% of the total population aged 6-12 years. Female pupils numbered 3.4 million or about half of the total school population, and constituted 89.2% of all females in the 6-12 age group.

In SY 1982-1983, elementary school population was registered at around 8.6 million giving a gross enrolment rate (GER) of 95.8%. The proportion of females was exactly one half with the female GER pegged at 96.0%.

\(^8\)Smallest geo-political unit, of which there are more than 42,000 in the country.
2) Secondary Level

The secondary or high school level covers four years following graduation from the elementary school. Before 1969, secondary schools were, on the average, one to every municipality which met the requirements for the construction of a secondary school. Since 1969, however, the government started providing barangay high schools to priority areas to enable a larger segment of the population to obtain more than the three Rs at reduced cost. In SY 1983-1984, 61% of secondary schools provided free matriculation to high school students.

Approximately 1.6 million students were attending secondary schools in 1970-1971 with females forming half of the enrollees. Gross enrolment ratios for males and females were computed at 45.0% and 43.5%, respectively. These figures are only about a half of the elementary GER, presumably due to higher drop-out rates and the greater expense involved in high school education.

School year 1982-1983 showed a slightly improved picture for the females as they slightly exceeded the 50% parity enrolment indicator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13–16 years old</td>
<td>3,617,355</td>
<td>1,832,059</td>
<td>5,644,577</td>
<td>2,804,065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School population in secondary</td>
<td>1,595,041</td>
<td>796,869</td>
<td>3,074,219</td>
<td>1,563,604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross enrolment rate</td>
<td>44.1%</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3) Tertiary and Post-college Enrolment

Data obtained from the MECS for SY 1977-1978 show the predominance of females in the higher educational levels except in traditionally-male dominated courses such as law and foreign service (9.37%), maritime education (.91%), engineering and technology (14.09%), and music and fine arts (27.51%). Vocational/technical courses taken up by females were mostly along the traditionally feminine types such as dressmaking, embroidery, hair science, stenography, etc.

---

9 Republic Act No. 6054.
FEMALE REPRESENTATION IN TERTIARY ENROLMENT, SCHOOL YEAR 1977 – 1978

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>64.23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School</td>
<td>63.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
<td>64.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical/Vocational</td>
<td>50.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All courses</td>
<td>64.06%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the absence of comparable figures on tertiary enrolment after 1980, figures on professionals or board passers who registered with the Professional Regulations Commission (PRC) for 1975 and 1983 are presented to indicate the changing trends of female participation in the different professions which is very indicative of women’s gradual entry into the traditionally-masculine courses.

FEMALE REPRESENTATION IN MALE DOMINATED PROFESSION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>1975</th>
<th>1983</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engineering:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geodetic</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics and Communications</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physicians</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentists</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinarian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architect</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forester</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawyer(^{10})</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geologist</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{10}\) Data taken from the Supreme Court of the Philippines. Figures reflect only bar passers for the year.
b. Literacy Levels

Philippine definition of a literate person up to 1980 required only the ability to read and write. Using this definition and for planning purposes, the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA) estimated the national average literacy rate at 89.27% in 1975 and projected this at 93% by 1985. Actual literacy figures gathered and computed by the National Census and Statistics Office (NCSO) for 1970 and 1980 are, however, much lower than were projected by NEDA.

Literacy Rate: 1970 and 1980

Recently, the MECS, NCSO and NEDA formed an inter-agency committee to restudy the concept of literacy. This committee formulated a new definition, as follows:

"A Filipino is literate when he or she can demonstrate basic reading, writing and numeracy skills through a standardized assessment instrument. This instrument will determine the threshold below which a person would be considered illiterate and above which he or she will belong to a point in a continuum of literacy."

Using this new definition and considering the probability of reversion to illiteracy,11 Valisno (who chaired the committee) surmises that the literacy estimate for the total population would only be about 80% in 1984.

c. Vocational/Technical Training

Participation of women in vocational/technical training underwent very slight changes during the period. Women’s interests are still largely along the traditionally-female oriented jobs such as garment trade, food processing and secretarial work, while the men cling to the “masculine” types such as automotive mechanics, agricultural production and electrical work.

In 1980, the National Manpower and Youth Council (NMYC) reported the entry of some women into such training courses as welding, electricity, drafting, silk screen printing and the like,

11 A study by the MECS pointed out that if a student drops out at grade 3 or sooner, his/her probability of reversion to illiteracy is higher.
although majority of them still cluster around the service type jobs as can be seen below:

### NMYC Training Outputs by Sex, 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>(00) Trainers</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7,311</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1,920</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational (Male)</td>
<td>1,962</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational (Female)</td>
<td>5,891</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Skills</td>
<td>19,789</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26,104</td>
<td>96.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Male</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Female</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### B. Roles

1. **As Teachers**

The formal education of the Filipinos is largely in the hands of the women. According to the 1983 report on personnel by the CSC,\(^{12}\) women represent 80.4% of all teachers in the second level of the civil service classified as follows:

**Distribution of teachers in the second level of the civil service**

- **83.3%** Elementary
- **69.4%** Secondary
- **53.3%** Tertiary

\(^{12}\)Civil Service Commission
In 1983, 82.9% of the public school system's 300,319 classroom teachers were females. Females also occupied a little over one-half (52.7%) of the total 18,805 administrative positions in the system. The distribution in the two school levels as classroom or administrative personnel is given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Classroom</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>151,737</td>
<td>7,880</td>
<td>1,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>148,582</td>
<td>5,324</td>
<td>1,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>300,319</td>
<td>13,204</td>
<td>3,246</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the outcome of the examinations for teachers, successful female examinees comprised 80% in 1975 and 84% in 1983, an indication of further increasing femalization of the teaching profession.

2. As Administrators

Data on the distribution of decision-making positions in the ministry tend to show that the Philippine educational system is ruled by men but is run by women. Despite the fact that women constitute more than half of the personnel, only 19 of the 45 decision-making positions are occupied by women during the SY 1983-1984. The highest position is one of the five deputy ministers (for non-formal education). The other positions are towards the middle level such as bureau and service division chiefs. Others include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Minister</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aide Minister</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office in-charge</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, data from the Career Executive Service Board indicate that of the 55 incumbent CES officers, only 16 (29%) were women. Eight other positions were vacant as of August 1984.

The scenario at the regional offices appears more favorable to the women educator. However, disparities are similarly evident at the higher levels particularly the positions of the regional and assistant regional directors where only about a quarter of all posts were assigned to female administrators.
The other positions were more equitably distributed except for the elementary education chiefs where females represent about 85%, which also happens to be just about their share of all teaching positions in the public education sector.

State colleges and universities are also under male administrators. Of the 74 school presidents in SY 1983-1984, only seven are women.

3. Working Conditions

The teacher plays a very crucial role in the delivery of educational services since she is the most direct link between the target (students) and the school. The quality of instruction is therefore inevitably related to the teacher’s level of competence and the conditions surrounding her delivery of services such as wages, incentives and other types of support falling within the school management’s area of concern.

Since the educational arena is at the least a woman’s world, the conditions under which teachers work affect mostly women.

a. Multiple roles. In the majority of barangays all over the country, the teacher is the most highly educated member of the community. Quite often, she is the only professional working at the barrio level. It is for this reason that the public elementary school system and the teachers are usually regarded as the most strategic “delivery system” for practically all development programs designed to reach the grassroots level.

b. Wages and benefits. The relative popularity of teacher education among college entrants who did not meet the higher requirements of other courses has led to an oversupply of teachers in the country so that a noted rural sociologist\(^\text{13}\) estimated that there

\(^{13}\) Geia T. Castillo, “Characteristics of the Philippine educational system and the case for nonformal education,” *Southeast Asian Spectrum*, 3(1)
were about 70,000 unemployed teachers in 1967. Such an over-supply has severely affected teacher welfare, particularly her salary. Secondary school teachers earn from P800 to P1,500 a month at present, a meagre sum when pitted against the high cost of basic needs. Such a financial situation may be explained by the Ministry's very low budgetary allocation from government which was only 26% in 1970, 7.7% in 1982 and 10.5% in 1985.

c. Other conditions. The situation of the teacher is aggravated by such other problems as insufficient provision of teaching materials so that teachers are forced to use their own resources to enable them to teach; very little or complete absence of incentives for professional development especially for those in the remotest areas; and generally low teacher morale due to the compounding of the problems affecting their practice.

C. Significant Changes in Women's Status and Roles in Education

1. Entry in Nontraditional Areas

Perhaps one of the more positive signs of development in women's education is their entry into nontraditional areas in both formal and nonformal sectors. Although the progress is gradual, it indicates women's and government's efforts to overcome attitudinal barriers to women's search for new roles and better opportunities.

a. Vocational/Technical Training. Data from the National Manpower and Youth Council (NMYC), one of the lead agencies which encourage the enrolment of women in nontraditional training courses, indicate that in 1981 and 1982, a total of 2,898 women completed training programs in these industry groups:

In 1980, NMYC graduated 21,437 women trainees in cottage industry, agricultural and industrial skills, batarisan (or in-plant training) and development of integrated skills. The
women represented 41% of all trainees for that year. In 1981, women comprised 26.8% of trainees in agricultural, husbandry and related workers and 32.8% of production/transport and related workers.

b. Nontraditional Professions. In the absence of recent data on tertiary enrolment, the number of women who passed the professional board examinations and registered with the PRC is indicative of the extent of femalization of certain traditionally-masculine professions.

As indicated on p. 30, the percentage of women in engineering courses increased between 1975 and 1983. Also experiencing changes were such courses as veterinary medicine, geology and even plumbing. Among the areas which women have yet to venture into are marine and metallurgical engineering, and deck officership.

2. Counteracting Sex Role Stereotypes

To counter stereotyping of sex roles in schools, the ministry undertook curricular innovations in the three levels.

a. Elementary. In the New Elementary School curriculum, work education was introduced in grade 1 as it is a common learning area for boys and girls. Home economics and livelihood education are also common learning areas in grade IV and VI. In civics and culture and even in textbooks, concepts and visuals showing both sexes doing same tasks are introduced.

b. Secondary. Reforms include integrating practical arts subjects in the classes of boys and girls.

c. Tertiary. There have been moves toward converting exclusively male/female schools into coeducational institutions.

Very recently, an interagency project\(^{14}\) was able to establish the possibility of integrating sex role concepts in the school syllabus. Encouraged by the outcome of this experiment especially at the elementary and secondary levels, the heads of the bureaus have agreed to integrate such concepts into the level curriculum.

Another related development is the proliferation of women’s studies which heighten the public’s awareness of women’s issues and concerns.

---

\(^{14}\) Initiated by the NCRFW with the MECS including six public and private schools. The project is “Effects of Integration of Concepts Concerning Roles of Men and Women in the School Curriculum.”
3. Other Developments

a. Decentralization of educational resources. Because of the observed disparities among regions and between urban and rural areas, the MECS embarked on a massive decentralization program (Program for Decentralized Educational Development) which covers all areas of education including resources, teacher development and instructional materials development.

Nonformal education programs particularly on literacy have focused on the women and children in rural areas.

b. Accreditation and equivalency program. First conducted in 1978, this program aims to retrieve school leavers and accredit and validate their work experiences and other informally or nonformally acquired learning through an accreditation and equivalency scheme. Aside from providing for placement at appropriate grade/year level, it also provides for recognition of their general knowledge and skills for job placement or promotion.

4. Meeting Teachers’ Problems

As partners in the delivery of educational services, government (and school) and the teachers have been faced with difficulties which affect quality of instruction. Teachers have learned to openly air their plight and government has been responding as best as it could as problems continue to crop up from many sides.

a. Teachers’ Welfare

Teaching is a most noble profession, many would agree, and teachers continue to play a vital role in the shaping of the future of the country. In the last few years, however, the appeal of the teaching profession has gradually waned because teachers cannot anymore live decently on their wages. Hence, they have taken steps to uplift their status.

b. Mass Action. Perhaps one of the most alarming developments during the decade is the growing teachers’ unrest. This was triggered by widespread dissatisfaction over poor working conditions, particularly salaries and allowances.

Teachers are among the lowest paid of all professionals. The present economic crisis brought about by the devaluation of the peso\(^15\) has caused unprecedented price increases particularly of basic commodities. Teacher salaries did not increase

\(^{15}\) From US$1.00 : P8.00 in 1980 to US$1.00 : P20.00 in 1984.
proportionately and government attempts to give small adjustments did very little to improve their financial situation. Hence, they are clamoring for more.

Teacher mass action began as early as the late 70’s involving mostly government-run elementary and secondary schools. Walk-outs and strikes were mostly financially-related. New organizations of teachers (e.g. Association of Concerned Teachers) headed by a new breed of militant women teachers have been initiating the rallies and demonstrations particularly in Metro Manila.

Negotiations between government and teachers have not been very successful because of lack of funds on the part of the Ministry/schools to meet the demands of the group. Up to the present, sporadic rallies and strikes break out in many areas.

c. Submission. While their colleagues march on the streets, other teachers turn to other means of income generation. While holding on to their job, they work part-time in other schools, engage in small scale business or sell insurance policies. Others leave teaching for better paying jobs in other government or private companies. Many teachers leave the country to work as domestic helpers, hotel service workers, baby sitters and other types of work for which they are clearly overqualified, but which pay much higher than many professional jobs in the Philippines.

5. Government Initiatives to Improve Teachers’ Welfare

Whether by militant or peaceful means, teachers’ attempts to solve their problems inevitably disrupt classes which could ultimately result in low quality of graduates. Aware of this threat (which may in fact already be a reality), government has for its part taken some steps to improve teachers’ working conditions. Recently, MECS presented a plan to give 1,300.00 as basic pay for teachers by 1990. It also issued a memorandum authorizing teachers to “moonlight” for as long as this does not disrupt their work.

However, the Ministry is also beset with a problem of its own. While it is willing to grant teachers’ demands, its limited financial resources does not allow full and immediate salary adjustments. Hence, teachers have so far received only small increments to their take-home pay.

The Ministry has also resorted to indirect means of improving teachers’ welfare and the quality of instruction. A number of innovative programs have been institutionalized, such as:

a. Reducing teacher workload to the basics with reading, writing and arithmetic as major subject areas wherein content areas from health, science and social studies are integrated.
b. Massive training and retraining of teachers.

c. Raising requirement on NCEE\textsuperscript{16} score to at least 55th percentile for candidates for teacher-training courses. (Other academic courses require from 35th to 40th percentile).

D. Problems Concerning Women in Education

Aside from coping with its own financial difficulties, government still has to meet a number of issues which affect the participation of women in education both as agents and as beneficiaries:

1. Teacher's Prestige.

Perhaps the most immediate problem of the Ministry itself is restoring to the teaching profession the prestige that it used to enjoy. Teachers are no longer as exalted in the community as they used to be. They are leaving the schools for better paying jobs which require very little education. Despite efforts to raise its status, teaching is still the last recourse of those who fail to make it to other professions. And until it was discovered, teachers' examinations were rigged with anomalies in some areas in the country.

2. Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotypes.

In vocational/technical courses, very few women trainors are available who can provide the necessary support and encouragement to other women to enlist or persevere in the training. In the curricular innovations, one problem the ministry is trying to contend with is the deep-seated cultural attitudes and values which perpetuate stereotyping. Children may find difficulty trying to reconcile what they learn in school and what they see at home and experience in their environment.

3. Women in Media.

In its effort to improve women's status, the government must contend with media, as well as gain its support. Stereotyping of sex-roles is evident in advertisements, in television and radio programs and even in movies, giving rise to false impressions and low regard for women, reinforcing the serious issue of women being treated as sex objects. How government could convert media into an ally not only in minimizing exploitation of women but also in educating them of their rights and duties deserves serious consideration.


While no discrimination exists in terms of access to education, some areas of discrimination are noted in the absorption of the graduates into the world of work. And even when they are already employed, women still find that they are promoted last and fired first (Cortes, 1982; Fidelino, 1981).

\textsuperscript{16}National College Entrance Examinations.
proportionately and government attempts to give small adjustments did very little to improve their financial situation. Hence, they are clamoring for more.

Teacher mass action began as early as the late 70’s involving mostly government-run elementary and secondary schools. Walk-outs and strikes were mostly financially-related. New organizations of teachers (e.g. Association of Concerned Teachers) headed by a new breed of militant women teachers have been initiating the rallies and demonstrations particularly in Metro Manila.

Negotiations between government and teachers have not been very successful because of lack of funds on the part of the Ministry/schools to meet the demands of the group. Up to the present, sporadic rallies and strikes break out in many areas.

c. Submission. While their colleagues march on the streets, other teachers turn to other means of income generation. While holding on to their job, they work part-time in other schools, engage in small scale business or sell insurance policies. Others leave teaching for better paying jobs in other government or private companies. Many teachers leave the country to work as domestic helpers, hotel service workers, baby sitters and other types of work for which they are clearly overqualified, but which pay much higher than many professional jobs in the Philippines.

5. Government Initiatives to Improve Teachers’ Welfare

Whether by militant or peaceful means, teachers’ attempts to solve their problems inevitably disrupt classes which could ultimately result in low quality of graduates. Aware of this threat (which may in fact already be a reality), government has for its part taken some steps to improve teachers’ working conditions. Recently, MECS presented a plan to give ₱1,300.00 as basic pay for teachers by 1990. It also issued a memorandum authorizing teachers to “moonlight” for as long as this does not disrupt their work.

However, the Ministry is also beset with a problem of its own. While it is willing to grant teachers’ demands, its limited financial resources does not allow full and immediate salary adjustments. Hence, teachers have so far received only small increments to their take-home pay.

The Ministry has also resorted to indirect means of improving teachers’ welfare and the quality of instruction. A number of innovative programs have been institutionalized, such as:

a. Reducing teacher workload to the basics with reading, writing and arithmetic as major subject areas wherein content areas from health, science and social studies are integrated.
b. Massive training and retraining of teachers.

c. Raising requirement on NCEE\textsuperscript{16} score to at least 55th percentile for candidates for teacher-training courses. (Other academic courses require from 35th to 40th percentile).

D. Problems Concerning Women in Education

Aside from coping with its own financial difficulties, government still has to meet a number of issues which affect the participation of women in education both as agents and as beneficiaries:

1. Teacher's Prestige.

Perhaps the most immediate problem of the Ministry itself is restoring to the teaching profession the prestige that it used to enjoy. Teachers are no longer as exalted in the community as they used to be. They are leaving the schools for better paying jobs which require very little education. Despite efforts to raise its status, teaching is still the last recourse of those who fail to make it to other professions. And until it was discovered, teachers' examinations were rigged with anomalies in some areas in the country.

2. Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotypes.

In vocational/technical courses, very few women trainors are available who can provide the necessary support and encouragement to other women to enlist or persevere in the training. In the curricular innovations, one problem the ministry is trying to contend with is the deep-seated cultural attitudes and values which perpetuate stereotyping. Children may find difficulty trying to reconcile what they learn in school and what they see at home and experience in their environment.

3. Women in Media.

In its effort to improve women's status, the government must contend with media, as well as gain its support. Stereotyping of sex-roles is evident in advertisements, in television and radio programs and even in movies, giving rise to false impressions and low regard for women, reinforcing the serious issue of women being treated as sex objects. How government could convert media into an ally not only in minimizing exploitation of women but also in educating them of their rights and duties deserves serious consideration.


While no discrimination exists in terms of access to education, some areas of discrimination are noted in the absorption of the graduates into the world of work. And even when they are already employed, women still find that they are promoted last and fired first (Cortes, 1982; Fidelino, 1981).

\textsuperscript{16}National College Entrance Examinations.
5. Oversupply of College Graduates.

World-wide, the Philippines has the fourth largest proportion of college-educated relative to its population (Philippine Development Plan, 1977). The fast expansion in higher education was a response to deliberate efforts to meet the social demand for education. Manpower demand was only incidental, and it is estimated that 1982 will see a surplus of 83,927 college graduates. Such disparity in the supply of and demand for graduates is felt not only in numerical terms but also in the kind and quality of education demanded by users. The lack of effective career guidance and counselling system in institutions of higher learning has further led to a lopsided distribution of graduates among fields of specialization.

E. Strategies for the Future

The following current and forward looking strategies are proposed to enable women to fully participate in the educational efforts of the country both as agents and beneficiaries of development programs:

1. Because attitudes are not formed overnight, continuous efforts should be taken in promoting equality between the sexes. Although significant strides have been achieved in terms of curricular programs designed to eradicate sex-typing of roles and other cultural biases with respect to men and women, much remains to be seen on their acceptance and outcomes. In this connection, an effective strategy using mass media to inculcate positive sex role concepts among adults should complement the curricular innovations being introduced in the schools. In this way, children will not find difficulty trying to reconcile what they learn in school and what they see at home and experience in their environment.

2. The government should convert media into an ally not only in minimizing exploitation of women but also in educating them of their rights and duties.

3. It is true that there is no discrimination between men and women when it comes to educational training. However, in the competition for employment, women appear to be disadvantaged. In order to offset this, special courses on assertiveness training for women and continuous upgrading of skills are probably necessary.

4. To enable women graduates of non-formal entrepreneurial training programs to start on their own towards real profitable ventures, the government, with the support of other concerned groups should come up with a mechanism of extending to them easy-term credit.
5. A strategy to further attract more women into non-traditional areas of vocational and technical training, where wages are usually higher, is to have more women trainors in those fields. As shown by other programs for women as in technology transfer, the "modelling" strategy is an effective way of attracting women into trying out novel ways and ideas. Related to this is a more expansive training of women in those nontraditional areas which are being vacated by the men in their present exodus to the Middle East in search of the dollar. The job vacancies created definitely offer a rich area where women can come in.

6. The role of teachers in the formation of new value systems promoting equality between the sexes is another fact which cannot be over-emphasized. Hence, a more expansive orientation regarding the status and the role of women should be given to teachers (ultimately to be passed on to their students) starting from the elementary level to the tertiary level of education. Teachers and teachers' organizations should undertake activities that will increase awareness of women's issues.

And because it has long been recognized that low teacher morale resulting from low wages highly affect quality of instruction, and therefore the quality of graduates, legislative action to increase the salaries of teachers should be sought.

7. The deteriorating moral values of young Filipino women, evidenced by newspaper reports; both local and foreign, of the continuously increasing number of young girls turning prostitutes is a big challenge to both government and non-government workers in the field of non-formal education. A redirection of emphasis of the different programs for out-of-school youths should probably focus on the strengthening of the moral fiber of the youth in addition to improving their general awareness so that they do not easily fall victim to unscrupulous individuals.
IV. WOMEN AS WORKERS

A. Status Before the Law

1. Constitutional Provision

Public policy, as enunciated in the Constitution of 1973 provides for equality in employment for men and women. Article II Sec. 9 (Declaration of Principles and State Policies) stipulates:

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

2. Specific Policies Concerning Women Workers

The Constitutional provision on employment is articulated by Presidential Decree No. 442 promulgated in 1974 and otherwise known as the Labor Code of the Philippines. Specific provisions for women who are considered as a special group of workers are classified into two: policies for the promotion of women's employment and policies for the protection of women workers and the improvement of their working conditions.

a. Promotion of Women's Employment

Promotion of women's employment is embodied in Article 12 of the Labor Code (the National Employment Policy) which provides among others the following:

a) To promote and maintain a state of full employment through improved manpower training, allocation and utilization;

b) To protect every citizen desiring to work locally or overseas by securing for him the best possible terms and conditions of employment;

c) To facilitate a free choice of available employment by persons seeking work in conformity with the national interest;

d) To facilitate and regulate movement of workers in conformity with the national interest.
b. Protective Policies

Protective policies for women workers cover hours of work, physical facilities, programs for family planning and prohibitions against discriminatory acts.

_Nightwork Prohibition._ Article 130 of the Code as amended states explicitly that "No woman, regardless of age, shall be employed or permitted or suffered to work with or without compensation:

a) In any industrial undertaking or branch thereof between ten o'clock at night and six o'clock in the morning of the following day, or

b) In any commercial or non-industrial undertaking or branch thereof, other than agricultural, between midnight and six o'clock in the morning of the following day, or

c) In any agricultural undertaking at night time unless she is given a period of rest of not less than nine (9) consecutive hours.

Exceptions to this prohibition are also provided by the Code such as in cases of actual or impending emergencies, urgent work to be performed to avoid loss of perishable goods, where the woman employee holds a responsible position or has been engaged to provide health and welfare service, or where women employees are members of the family operating the establishment.

_Standards and Facilities._ Similarly, a provision (Article 132) of the Code requires the establishment of facilities to ensure the health and safety of women workers. Such facilities include seats, separate toilets and lavatories for men and women, nurseries, including standards for retirement in special occupations such as those of flight attendants.

_Discriminatory Acts._ Articles 135 and 137 of the Code prohibit discrimination against women, outlaw stipulation against marriage and enumerate unlawful acts of employers.

"Article 135. Discrimination prohibited. No employer shall discriminate against any woman with respect to terms and condition of employment on account of her sex. Equal remuneration shall be paid to both men and women for work of equal value".
“Article 136. Stipulation against marriage. It shall be unlawful for an employer to require as a condition of employment or for continuation of employment that a woman employee shall not get married, or stipulate express-ly or tacitly that upon getting married, a woman employee shall be deemed resigned or separated, or to actually dismiss, discharge, discriminate or otherwise prejudice a woman employee merely by reason of her marriage”.

“Article 137. Prohibited Acts. It shall be unlawful for any employer:

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

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

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

Matters concerning the working population in the Philippines fall under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labor and Employment (MOLE). Under the Ministry is a Bureau of Women and Minors (created on 16 November 1960) which acts as a central coordinating body for efforts directed towards the development, employment and protection of working women and minors.

B. The Employment Situation As It Concerns Women

This section examines the changes in women's participation in the labor force during the decade. Due to data limitations, this analysis is confined to third quarter data from the Integrated Survey of Households by the National Census and Statistics Office (NCSO) for the years 1978 and 1983.

1. Labor Force Participation

During the five-year period between 1978 and 1983 the labor force grew by about 3.5 million or about one fifth greater that its volume in 1978. This means that about 700,000 job seekers exerted pressure on the labor market annually up to 1983:
The female labor force grew by as much as 30 percent during the period accounting for over a half (52 percent) of those added to the total labor force. Their share rose from 36 percent to 39 percent between 1978 and 1983.

Rural LF increased twice faster than urban labor force (25 percent vs. 12 percent). As the national picture shows, much of the increase in both urban and rural areas came from the female population. Urban labor force of female grew by as much as 36 percent; the rural labor force by 20 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>1978</th>
<th>1983</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total LF (000)</td>
<td>16,713</td>
<td>20,311</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female share</td>
<td>6,090</td>
<td>7,936</td>
<td>30.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban: Both Sexes</td>
<td>5,403</td>
<td>6,067</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female share</td>
<td>2,221</td>
<td>2,665</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural: Both Sexes</td>
<td>11,390</td>
<td>14,244</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female share</td>
<td>3,871</td>
<td>5,271</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Employment and Unemployment

Of the 21.31 million members of the labor force in 1983, only 19.212 m (94.6 percent) were working, bringing down the employment rate in 1978 by as much as 1.3 percentage points. Female employment suffered the same setback. The ranks of female unemployed rose from 455,000 to 650,000 between 1978 and 1983, raising their unemployment rate from 7.4 percent to 8.2 percent with the greatest number coming from the age group 20-24 years.

Data also show that the urban population took much of the unemployment burden. While the rural sectors’ unemployment rate hardly changed, urban employment declined from 94.0 percent to 90.7 percent in five years. Similarly, while the urban female work force experienced some 2.2 percent decline in employment, the rural female work force was almost unaffected, although some decreases were also noted.
3. By Marital Status

Increases in LFPR of married women were highest during the period. While some groups (widowed/separated) experienced some decreases, the percentage of married women 15 and over who were either working or unemployed but looking for work increased by 18 percent.

Improvement in the employment of this group was, however, negligible, although the other groups suffered more severely in comparison.

*Figures based on previous table
**Those whose status is "unknown" were not included
Economically Active Females By Employment Status and By Age Group: Philippines, 1983

Economically Active Females By Employment Status and By Marital Status; Philippines, 1983
4. By Class of Worker

Females represented 35 percent and 37.9 percent of the total employed in 1978 and 1983, respectively. The self-employed women accounted for about 45 percent of the increments (1.650 m) to the working women population during the period. Hence, their proportion to the total population increased from 26.3 percent in 1978 to 32.4 percent in 1983. The wage and salary workers as well as the unpaid family workers had very small gains in comparison. The women employers increased their share of the total by about 3 percent.

There is a significant decline among workers in own-family enterprises (OFE)\(^{17}\) for women as well as for men. From 137,000 in 1978 the number of workers in OFEs was reduced to 83,000 or a loss of about 40 percent. If this were an effect of the economic crisis, it is possible that these OFEs were shut down or the owners could have reduced their staff to less than five, in which case they ceased being covered by the household surveys. Laid-off personnel could have sought employment either in government or private companies (as both these groups experienced increases) if they did not revert to unpaid family work.

Distribution of the wage and salary workers in the different industry groups indicates that both in 1978 and in 1983, over 50 percent of these women were in the services and about one fourth (19.8 percent to 16 percent) were in the manufacturing sectors.

\(^{17}\)Own family enterprises have 5 or more workers who are mostly relatives of the owner. They are distinguished from private employers thru this kinship relation of employer and employees.
By occupational classification, women were relatively more dispersed both in 1978 and 1983 along four major categories: service workers (25.0 percent to 27.7 percent); professional, technical and related workers (23 percent to 24 percent); clerical (13.2 percent to 14.9 percent) and production and related workers (17.8 percent to 14.1 percent).

5. By Major Industry Group

Employed females numbered 5,637 m in 1978 and 7,285 m in 1983. The trades (66.1 percent) and services (56.6 percent) sectors remained the more female-dominated occupations. Increases in female representation were noted for the finance and related services (33 percent to 39.9 percent), electricity (8 percent to 14.1 percent) and to a small extent, the agricultural sector (25.6 percent to 29.7 percent). Although the manufacturing sector recruited some 144,000 female workers between 1978 and 1983, the overall representation of females in that sector slightly decreased (48.8 percent of 46.8 percent).

Percent Distribution of Employed Women by Major Industry Group:
Philippines, Third Quarter 1983

More than one-third (39 percent) of the workers added to the services sector were government employees. Of the 387,000 women workers hired by this sector, 154,000 were civil servants.)
6. By Occupational Group

By occupational classification and as compared to men, women predominate in sales (64.5 to 66.1 percent), professional, technical and related occupations (56.6 percent to 62.7 percent), services (57.2 percent to 60.6 percent), and in 1983, in clerical types of work (45.9 percent to 50.3 percent). A big jump was noted in their representation in administrative, executive and managerial posts (17.5 percent to 25.0 percent) mainly due to the increases in the number of women waged and salaried workers.

From 38 percent-40 percent of all working women belong to the category of agricultural, animal husbandry and forestry workers. Considering that from 53 percent-54 percent of unpaid family workers are women and by virtue of the fact that 67.4 percent of working women come from the rural areas, it seems that the typical Filipino working woman usually works in a farm, is generally an unpaid family worker and lives in a rural area.

7. By Income

Average quarterly earnings of women wage and salary workers was P1741 in 1983, an increase of 73 percent from their 1978 average of P1006. Highest average incomes went to women in finance and related business in 1978 (P2289) but this was replaced by transport and related business in 1983 (P3207). As in 1978, women workers in agricultural establishments earned the least: P359 and 552 in 1983 per quarter.
In terms of real earnings (1978 = 100), only women employers registered increases between the two periods and only this group earned more than men in the same class of work. In all others, the trend in real incomes was generally downward and the men earned more than the women although the gap appears to have narrowed down on the average from P552. to P245 in a quarter.

C. Significant Changes in Women Workers’ Status and Roles

With the increased participation of women in the labor force, their visibility in almost all industries (and predominance in a number of these) is an accepted fact. Although they still have along way to go before they attain full de facto equality with men, there are many indications that employers, with the full support and encouragement from government, have started looking in the direction of women for their labor supply. The growing demand for Filipino manpower in the international market, women’s taking on non-traditional jobs, and government efforts to widen women’s opportunities through training in income generating programs, may end sooner than expected Filipino women’s quest for total equality in employment.

1. Adoption of Policies/Legislation Favorable to Women Workers

Equality in employment for both men and women was already a matter of public policy even before the onset of the women’s decade. The special provisions of the Labor Code for women workers are an indication of the government’s recogni-
tion of the women's unique biological role of motherhood. In this context, Filipino women enjoy an advantage over their counterparts in other parts of the world for while other women are struggling for equality in employment as a fundamental right, Philippine law already provides protection to women so that in addition to equal opportunity, their childbearing functions do not become a hindrance to their full participation if they opt to take an active part in the labor market.

Integration of Women in National Development or Letter of Instructions No. 974 (issued on 5 January 1980) was addressed to all ministries, offices, agencies instrumentalities, local government and government-owned and controlled corporations to:

- take affirmative steps to implement the constitutional treaty, and statutory mandates for the promotion, regardless of sex, of equality in employment, equal pay for work of equal value;

- afford women opportunity to participate in planning, policy and decision-making;

- eliminate in government or private enterprises subject to the offices’ jurisdiction or with which they deal or transact any business, practices which, contrary to the provision of the Constitution, laws and international Conventions and other agreements entered into by Philippines, discriminate against women where no reasonable bases for classification on the basis of sex exists. The LOI reaches out to the private sector under this item.

a. Working Women’s Day (Proclamation 1984)

Under this Proclamation issued on 27 June 1980, 2 July of every year is “Working Women’s Day” in recognition of the contributions of working women to nation building.

b. Letter of Instructions No. 1066

LOI 1066 (issued September 1980) directed the Ministries of Labor, Education and Health to look into the priority areas as spelled out in the Targets and Strategies for the Full Participation of Women in Socio-Economic Development (1980-1985). Such targets and strategies include, among others, the upgrading of employment opportunities and conditions of women, increases in their participation in policy and decision-making, intensified drive against exploitation of women and repeal of discriminatory provisions of law, etc.
c. **UN Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (UNCEDAW)**

In August, 1981, the Philippines ratified the UN CEDAW. Article II of the Convention urges States Parties to adopt measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment and to ensure the following rights:

- work
- same employment opportunities as men
- free choice of profession and employment, promotion, job security, all benefits and conditions of service, vocational training and retraining.
- equal remuneration, benefits, security of work, health protection and safety in working conditions.

Article II provides that appropriate measures be taken by States Parties to prevent discrimination on the ground of maternity or marriage such as maternity leave with pay, provision of child care facilities and special protection during pregnancy.

**d. Maternity Leave Benefits (PD 1202)**

The Labor Code empowered the Minister of Labor to initiate the integration of maternity leave benefits into the Social Security System, thereby making the maternity leave provisions of the Code universal.

Under Maternity Benefit Scheme of PD 1202, a female member of the Social Security System (SSS) shall be entitled to maternity benefits, if:

- she is employed at the time of delivery, miscarriage or abortion;
- she gives birth or suffers an abortion or miscarriage;
- she has filed the required notification to the SSS through her employer;
- she has paid the required contribution as follows:

"For contingencies occurring during the period 1 January 1978 to 30 June 1978, three (3) monthly Social Security contributions within the 12-month period immediately preceding the semester of contingency."

53
The member shall receive for 45 days a daily maternity benefit equivalent to her average daily salary credit. The employer is required to immediately pay his qualified employee the maternity benefit in full, or in two equal installments, the first installment upon receipt of the leave application and the second, not later than 30 days after payment of first installment.

The SSS shall reimburse the employer one hundred percentum of the amount of maternity benefits advanced to the employee by the employer upon receipt of satisfactory proof of such payment and legality thereof.

e. Changes in the National Development Plans

The Updated Philippine Development Plan, 1984-1987, in its sectoral strategies and policies for labor and employment stressed the protection of women in the labor market. This explicit provision is an improvement over the previous plan (1983-1984) which was more general in its approach to employment policies.

Paragraph c.1.2 (Chapter 10) on Education, Manpower and Labor states:

“Appropriate policies and programs will be adopted to ensure every working man of just, reasonable and humane terms and conditions of work. Specific groups of workers such as women, minors, rural workers and those in the informal sector will continue to be accorded protection in accordance with the provisions of the Labor Code.

Women’s participation in the labor market will be increased through the provision of greater opportunities for employment and the development of concomitant support systems, i.e., daycare centers...”

The adoption of new policies/legislations concerning women workers during the decade is a manifestation of continuing efforts to afford women equal opportunities in the world of work. The transfer of the maternity leave benefits from the employer to the Social Security System provides additional security to married women’s health and work tenure. LOI 974 is particularly directed to women’s participation in decision-making positions in both private and government entities. The special emphasis on welfare and participation of women in employment in the Updated Philippine Development Plans is very much indicative of the country’s recognition of women’s talents and potentials. And the Philippine ratification of the UN CEDAW signifies the government’s seriousness in making a national policy an international commitment.
2. Participation in Overseas Employment

The outflow of Filipinos for overseas work began in the early 1900s when Hawaii experienced a severe shortage in plantation manpower. The Philippines, then an American colony, became the likely source of cheap labor.

After World War I, manpower markets started opening up in Borneo, Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia. Canada also provided an alternative destination for professional, mainly medical personnel who sought permanent migration to the North American continent.

It was in the early 70s that the Middle East phenomenon began. Fueled by the development boom resulting from increased oil prices, oil producing Arab countries started importing skilled manpower from other Asian countries. Thus, from 3,694 workers in 1969, a total of 314,283 Filipinos went to work abroad in 1982, most of them bound for the Middle East.

Data from the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) for January-June 1983 show that of 127,925 processed landbased contract workers, 15.3 percent are women. Of these contract workers, 52.2 percent were bound for other Asian countries and 34.4 percent for the Middle East, for professional, technical and related work (49.9 percent), mostly nurses and entertainers, and service work (45.7 percent).

In less than one year (January-June 1984), the proportion of women among the migrant workers went up from 15.3 percent to 18.3 percent. A great majority (59 percent) of these belong to the service sector, mostly as domestic helpers and chambermaids. (Please see next tables).

Women's participation in overseas work affords them greater opportunity to contribute to family income despite the fact that they are still confined at the lower category of jobs. However, as will be discussed later, greater migration tendencies leads to other problems which negatively affect women's status.
3. Entry in Non-Traditional Areas

The entry of women in non-traditional areas during the period is one of the more promising changes in women's status (see section on education). Data on college enrollment indicate the growing feminization of traditionally-masculine professions such as engineering, veterinary medicine and even law education.

In the vocational and technical courses, the number of women trainees increased. Available data from NMYC indicate that from 1,291 in 1981, women trainees in such courses as welding, silk screen, radio repair and servicing, defense driving rose to 1,595 in 1982.

Such development could perhaps be traced to the efforts of NMYC to encourage women to enter these nontraditional areas beginning 1979. This program is being implemented through the NMYCs Regional Manpower Training Centers.
These very interesting developments in women’s participation promise many things to the beneficiaries of training courses. For one, the range of opportunities in which women can engage in has been expanded. Higher incomes are also foreseen, for these trainings are along self-employable skills which challenge women’s entrepreneurial talents. Many testimonials about successful business ventures point to the woman’s ingenuity and business acumen as responsible for their performance.

Women’s participation in these trades can also counteract traditional attitudes concerning their sex and stereotyping of roles. Far-fetched as it may seem, women’s self-esteem is also likely to be positively affected as they could serve as models to other women who have very limited means of earning money.

For the country, this is one very good response to the problem of high unemployment among women. The dearth of waged and salaried jobs for women could now be partially alleviated.

Women could also come in to replace migrant men workers who have recently staged a mass exodus to better paying nations. For instance, the Philippine Long Distance Telephone Company reportedly hired 30 women engineers and 80 female technicians over a period of ten months. Similarly, Atlantic Gulf and Pacific Co. in northern Philippines absorbed 89 women welders (out of a total of 591 positions) between 1980 and 1982.

4. Expansion of Training and Work Opportunities for Women

There are at least six government agencies which directly or indirectly undertake the training and employment of women:

- Ministry of Labor and Employment particularly through the Bureau of Women and Minors
- Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports through the office of Non-Formal Education (ONFE)
- National Manpower and Youth Council
- Ministry of Social Service and Development
- National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women
- Ministry of Agriculture through the Bureau of Agricultural Extension

Except for the NCRFW which was created only in 1975, all other agencies have been handling training and employment of men and women before the women’s decade. During the recent years, however, they gave more and more emphasis to women as actual or prospective workers.
One example is, as mentioned earlier, the NMYC’s pilot project in 1979 to encourage women trainees to enter nontraditional jobs. Another is ONFE’s Dulong Malabon Project which has been training women in productive skills to augment their families’ income. The MSSD incorporated in its programs a strong component for nonformal training for human capital formation focusing on women resource development and women resource utilization. MSSD’s programs along this line include self-employment assistance and practical skills development. BAEX has an army of home management technicians and rural improvement clubs which train women in the rural areas. BWM on the other hand conducts researches and renders guidance and counseling services regarding women’s employment, their problems as workers as well as training and educational opportunities which they can avail of. It also explores ways and means to help women harmonize their home and work roles.

Though by decree a policy formulating body, the NCRFW has been in many instances working directly and indirectly towards women’s training and employment. Through its program division, it has undertaken several skills training programs and seminar workshops and initiated many pilot livelihood projects.

NCRFW organized women through the Balikatan sa Kaunlaran (a movement which means shoulder-to-shoulder in development). Since 1977, BSK councils have been undertaking innumerable trainings and income generating projects throughout the country. Part of NCRFW’s assistance package to BSK is, in addition to technical assistance, lending seed money to qualified councils for them to start their projects but which they pay back on a staggered basis once their business starts earning. The Commission has also been instrumental in securing financial assistance for viable BSK projects from foreign funding agencies like the UN Voluntary Fund for Women.

From the private sector, two NGOs are known to have been actively espousing women’s increased training and work opportunities. These are the Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP), an umbrella organization of 74 women’s organizations and the Department of Women of the Trade Union Congress of the Philippines (TUCP). Through its affiliates, CAWP has been conducting literacy and skills training for women particularly those from urban slums and depressed barangays. TUCP on the other hand, has been focusing on women worker’s education in labor organization, labor standards, collective bargaining agreements and grievance handling, workers’ rights and problems, etc.

International agencies such as the UN Voluntary Fund for Women, UNICEF, Asia Foundation and Peace Corps have been providing financial and technical assistance to women for income generating activities. For instance, two BSK projects (brickmaking and hog dispersal and fattening) received some $48,960.00 from the UN Voluntary Fund.
Agencies from both government and private sectors have thus been sponsoring livelihood programs to which men and women have equal access. Some of these include the Kilusang Kabuhayan at Kaunlaran or KKK, a national livelihood movement spearheaded by the Ministry of Human Settlements which grants loans as capital for promising business ventures.

In 1982, MHS and NCRFW signed a Memo of Agreement making the latter a lead agency for the 132 BSK councils, thereby facilitating these women's groups access to such loans.

The Self-Employment Assistance Program (SEAP) of the MSSD provides capital assistance to disadvantaged persons to undertake income-producing projects and gain opportunities to develop positive work habits. Similarly, government and private banking systems are establishing several Venture Capital Corporations (VCCs) to provide equity and management capability needed for the growth of small/medium scale industries. To date, 17 VCCs have been organized and are already operational.

D. Some Issues Concerning Groups of Women Workers

1. The Question of Protection

Nightwork prohibition. The Philippines is a signatory to the ILO Convention prohibiting nightwork for women workers. In the light of the actual conditions of work in enterprises where women workers are found, this prohibition needs closer scrutiny. There are at present three schools of thought concerning this: 1) removal of restrictions on employment of women at night to eliminate obstacles in the way of equal employment opportunities; 2) more limited relaxation of existing restrictions and greater flexibility in national laws and practice; 3) general regulation of nightwork for men and women to safeguard the health of all workers and to promote welfare of the family.

The government cannot easily change its policy on nightwork for it ratified the ILO Convention. It did not make use of the opportunity to repudiate the Convention after 20 years and must therefore wait until the ILO places the subject of nightwork in the agenda of a future conference.

Physical facilities. This provision requires seats, lavatories, separate toilets, nurseries for women in enterprises where women are employed to provide them comfort during working hours without affecting their production and efficiency. There are companies where such

---

a requirement is not feasible such as those in the bus and transport business where women bus conductresses are employed. The Ministry of Labor reported an attempt to determine the effect of hiring women as bus conductresses in public transport firms in Manila but which was met by protests from women themselves. They felt that the study might discourage bus firms from hiring women, thus depriving them of their livelihood.

Nurseries. Day care nurseries are patterned after Western practice. Filipinos generally would not entrust their children to people whom they do not know. Extended families and baby sitters attend to the children of working mothers in their homes. Also, considering the difficulty of commuting from house to work, both mother and child may suffer more if they go to the worksite (where the nursery is) together.

Maternity leave benefit. With the amendment of the Social Security Act under P.D. 1202, employers are required to contribute 0.4 percent of the monthly salary credits of male and female employees in order to raise funds. A female worker who does on maternity leave now gets 100 percent of her average daily salary credit for 45 days, provided that the employer had paid for her at least three months' contributions during the twelve month period preceding the actual claim for benefits.

Despite these arrangements, however, the employee still has to consider training and paying for a replacement for the leaver which again is an added burden on the company's reserves. Better arrangements should be considered/explored to avoid this side of the problem.

2. Women in the Export Processing Zone

"Export processing zones are export-oriented industrial parks established by economic planners in host countries to attract foreign and domestic factory investment and to create jobs. The zones are physically fenced off, and industries within are exempt from the usual import and export duties of the host nation. The zones sometimes have particular tax agreements as well as other incentives to attract investors. Raw materials can be imported without tariff, transformed in the zone factories, and exported as manufactured or semi-manufactured goods without duties to markets in more affluent parts of the world. By laws, none of the goods produced in the zones can be sold on the domestic market except under extraordinary circumstances."19

The Bataan Export Processing Zone was created by PD 66 in November 1972. At the end of 1981, there were 56 firms in operation, 49.6 percent of the target of 113. Seventeen (17) of the firms manufactured garments and other wearing apparel; 9, electrical and electronics; 7, plastic and rubber products except footwear; and 5, leather products including footwear. In 1982, 71 percent of the workforce were women.

A study of women workers\(^{20}\) in BEPZ 1975 and 1976 revealed problems facing these workers:

- there was a very high risk of being laid off depending on the world market demand for zone products;
- wages were low and would remain low relative to the cost of living; and
- few new skills were being taught zone workers.

A study on the same area seven to eight years after (1982) indicate the same shades of problems: low wages, substandard working conditions, low level of awareness of social security/welfare benefits and weak unionism.

The situation of the workers in BEPZ deserve the attention of authorities. In its effort to stimulate the growth of the economy, the government may lose sight of the concomitant social costs of industrialization.

3. Women in the Informal Sector

Workers in the informal sector are generally outside the effective reach of the whole range of existing protective labor legislations as well as government programs to improve working conditions and environment. For one thing, many of these workers, such as vendors, hawkers and domestic outworkers, fall outside of employer-employee relationships and are therefore not covered by provisions regarding the minimum wage, hours of work, employees' compensation, leaves, maternity benefits, etc. Secondly, enforcement of protective labor legislations in enterprises with less than 10 workers is very difficult because they are too numerous and because compliance may be very costly. These limitations of existing labor programs are magnified when one considers the increasing popularity of domestic arrangements and the government policy promoting small industries.

Some of the issues worth considering in the search for ways to alleviate conditions in the informal sector are as follows:

1) Higher wages, reduced working hours, implementation of legislated benefits, and improved working environment will certainly be too costly for informal sector enterprises to

\(^{20}\)Snow, ibid.
provide to their workers. Improvements in working conditions will therefore be constrained by the need to protect existing employment and income.

2) Domestic outworkers present a rather different problem altogether. The practice of putting out work to households has definitely provided families a supplementary source of income. However, there is a growing fear that it is being used by companies in the formal sector to evade the relatively higher cost of hiring factory workers. Domestic outwork arrangements removes from the contractor any responsibility for the workers’ welfare and enables him to use the cheap surplus labor in households (mainly female labor).

There is also a fear that the bargaining leverage of factory workers to demand for better working conditions and environment may be reduced as a result of the ease with which factory owners can transfer certain production processes to households.

4. Prostitutes and Hospitality Women

Article 138 of the Labor Code provides:

"Any woman who is permitted or suffered to work, with or without compensation in any night club, cocktail lounge, massage clinic, bar or similar establishment, under the effective control or supervision of the employer for a substantial period of time as determined by the Secretary of Labor, shall be considered as an employee of such establishment for purposes of labor and social legislation."

The problems of women in this sector, however, go beyond mere labor legislations. Women’s protection against exploitation particularly against prostitution is not fully covered by existing legislations. Prostitution is a burgeoning social problem despite government and private initiatives to control it. Studies show that women who engage in this come from depressed areas and low-income families. The main reason for their being in this kind of work is economic, but other psychological and environment factors are recognized as contributory. Generally, however, women choose prostitution for it is one of the few jobs available to them. Prostitutes may be sexually and economically exploited but seldom have legal recourse, for the situation in which they work is itself illegal, and for fear that should they acquire a criminal record, it makes “legitimate” work even harder to find once they leave prostitution.
Prostitution is considered illegal in the Philippines. However, enforcement of regulations remains inadequate and programs to dissuade women from engaging in the trade and rehabilitate those who decide to leave it have not really met great success. Hence, the problem persists.

In the meantime, women continue to flock to this occupation and while many of them get victimized, there is very little that they can do to release themselves from its entrapment.

5. Filipino Domestic Helpers.

Domestic service is probably one of the few jobs available to the less fortunate women. It is also the least paid. The labor Code provision on minimum wage of domestic helpers is P60 for Metro Manila areas, P45 for first class municipalities and other chartered cities, and P30 for other areas. Pending at the Batasang Pambansa is a proposal to amend the Labor Code provision so that domestic helpers' salaries would be raised to P120, P100, or P80, accordingly. However, until the expiration of the BP's six-year term in 1984 this bill remained unenacted.

Aside from low pay, domestic workers are also not entitled to social security, medicare, overtime pay and days off as the Labor Code contains no provisions on these. They also frequently suffer from physical and sexual abuse, insufficient food or delayed meals, and poor working and living conditions.

A study of 79 domestic helpers in middle and upper class families cites that employer-employee relation is such that social distance between them is maintained so that the latter is always conscious of her position. Respondents reported no limit in working hours "for as long as there are chores"; of employers withholding their salaries so they do not run away; and very low pay — P68.60 a month for middle class family maids (P182.70, considering free board and lodging) and P128/mo. for upper class family maids (P248 including room and board) in 1979.

Studies conducted by the MOLE on domestic helpers in other countries (Italy and Hongkong) also disclose many instances of exploitation by employers particularly violations of the terms of their contracts. Contrary to agreement, domestic helpers were being forced to work for longer hours without additional compensation, were serving more household members and more than one household at a

21Visitacion dela Torre, "Help from the 'Agencia' " in Panorama, 31 July 1983.

time for the same contractual pay. For fear of being blacklisted, these workers (of whom 99 percent of the estimated 24,000 in Hongkong in 1984 are women) prefer to suffer in silence. Employers also threaten to refuse them their release letters, report them to authorities for working for the wrong employer, terminate their contract and deport them posthaste should they file complaints with the authorities.

Despite the provision of the Code, domestics continue to be an exploited group. As they virtually do not have contact with the world outside of their employer’s home, it is almost impossible for them to organize themselves to improve their bargaining power. And because of their little education, lack of experience and youth (79 percent in the Ibarra study were 25 or younger), they have very limited chances of improving their lot.

And then again, these legal provisions deserve further examination. For one, the minimum wages set are very unrealistic. Majority of the maids interviewed entered this job to help their families financially. The little amount that they get from it is not even enough to buy them their personal needs. The absence of provisions on days off and overtime pay gives employers much leeway for exploitation. The Labor Code definition of domestic service is itself subject to misinterpretation for it includes “ministering to the personal comfort and convenience of the employer’s household.”

Also of prime consideration is domestic service’s implications on the status and role of women. Domestic helpers free other women particularly middle or upper-class housewives from the drudgery of housework, enabling them to work outside the home or enjoy more leisure activities. One issue therefore is that the employer-employee relations could be a case of women exploiting their less fortunate sisters, that is, some women liberate themselves from housework at the expense of other women.

The other side is the very little monetary value given to housework. Housekeepers enable other members to work outside the home. Housewives are not, however, considered as members of the labor force and therefore their fulltime job – that of being housekeeper – is not considered in the computation of the GNP.

The Ibarra thesis postulates that domestic service may eventually disappear as an occupation because of its low salary, low prestige, transitory nature and non-contractual relationship. It also presupposes that the low status of domestic service may be regarded as temporary because of the transitional nature of Philippine society. With industrialization, “more jobs will be available to women. As domestic helpers become scarce, the demand for them would increase

---

23Weekend, October 7, 1984.
and thus also their pay. In time, maids can even demand their price. At that time, the non-contractual arrangement will go and domestic helpers will truly gain the status of workers."

Similarly, for the fulltime housewife, industrialization would also mean greater use of time-and effort-saving devices which would greatly lessen their workload and thus enable them to work outside or have more time for leisure activities. Toward this end, a more equitable sharing of home responsibilities between the members (e.g., husband and wife) would facilitate adjustment to the impact of industrialization.

6. Women in Rural Areas

The Philippines is basically an agricultural country with approximately 61 percent of the population living in rural communities. As of 1980, half of the rural population are women.

Nearly 70 percent of rural females 15 years and over are categorized as housekeepers. In the labor force approach of the NCSO, housewives have always been classified as "not in the labor force." Their non-market activities carry no price tags and are therefore not counted in the calculation of the Gross National Product (GNP), which makes their contributions to household welfare non-monetized, unrecorded and unrecognized.

While agriculture is male-oriented, it is a major employer of rural women. In 1983, the sector hired the largest number of females (3 million) or 55 percent of all female workers in the rural areas. Of the rural women in the labor force, 77 percent are in rice and corn farming; 8 percent in coconut farming; 7 percent in the farming of other crops and in livestock and poultry production; and 4 percent in sugarcane farming (Castillo, 1980). However, females comprise only 30 percent of all persons employed in agriculture; but 41 percent of all employed females are in agricultural occupations.

Impact of Technology. Adoption of new technology is encouraging a shift in labor participation from that of female unpaid family labor to female hired labor. New technology requires more skillful labor and quicker completion of the farming operation to allow multiple cropping. Thus, family labor has to give way to more skilled and specialized hired labor.

For instance, the short-statured, fertilizer responsive modern varieties (MVs) introduced by IRRI and national research programs have been widely adopted by farmers in irrigated and favorable rainfed environment. The adoption of MVs has been accompanied by increased use of hired labor because they require more weeding (due to increased fertilizer use) and the increased yields require more harvest and post-
harvest labor. Furthermore, increased irrigation and shorter-duration varieties lead to increased cropping intensity and more regular demand for labor throughout the years. As the increase in labor demand is principally for women's tasks, new technology has expanded their employment opportunities.

The proportion of rural household that are landless and dependent on agricultural work is roughly estimated at 12 percent (Unnever and Standford, 1983). For women in these households whose only resource is labor, neutral or labor-using technologies will increase their employment opportunities. On the other hand, wives of farm-operators who have some control over the income from land will benefit from any type of technology in the sense that their attention start to shift to more lucrative marketing or sideline activities and provide supervision rather than labor in farm production.

*Participation in Farmers’ Cooperatives.* The New Cooperative Development Programme established in April 1973 by Presidential Decree No. 175 aims to consolidate the different cooperative laws into one. Its main thrust is on the Samahang Nayon. These are barrio associations formed for the purpose of improving the quality of life in the village and consisting of 25 to 200 families residing and/or farming therein. Although initially launched in direct support of the Agrarian Reform Programme, the Samahang Nayon is being built as the rural foundation of the whole cooperative development programme in the country.

However, like most agricultural programs, the New Cooperatives' Development Programme is geared towards men (Gonzales, 1982). Women have never been a specific target clientele of agricultural development programs, nor of savings and investment programs. Hence, the wives of farmers in the Cooperative Development Programme have minimal participation. They only attend as proxies for their absent husbands.

A study conducted by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics in five selected provinces in 1983 likewise revealed that women are hardly benefitted by the Samahang Nayon. It is the men who are considered the full-time farmers and therefore are given credit for productive purposes, technical agricultural training and assistance in the marketing of their produce.

*Access to Technology Transfer Programs.* In agricultural programs, the agriculturist works with the male farmer while the home management technician works with the wife mainly on domestic type of activities. It is relatively rare for females to be involved in rice and corn production training programs despite the fact that they contribute much of the labor input in production (Aleta, 1977).

---

24Pangasinan, Iloilo, Zamboanga del Norte, Camarines Sur and Nueva Ecija
The following conditions make possible women’s access to credit and production inputs:

a) if the land used as collateral is in the name of the woman;
b) if the woman is the administrator or manager of the farm;
c) if the woman is single or is the head of the family;
d) if the woman is a widow and acts as manager/operator and she herself tills the land.

As secondary workers, women consequently have little access to productivity-increasing opportunities or training in new technologies, promotions and other experiences which may lead to new marketable skills and better employment opportunities.

In 1982, various training programs on Packages of Applied Technology (PAT) were delivered by the Philippine Training Center for Rural Development (PTCRD) in ten regions of the country. Local officials and farm leaders participated in the sessions. Of 6,547 participants, only 10 percent were women.

Female participation was evident in the areas of vegetable and livestock production but was almost nil in programs concerning cash crop production.

E. Obstacles to Women’s Full Participation in Employment

Based on the presentation of the trends in women’s employment during the Decade, it appears that while the law has the full intent of creating an equal opportunity work environment, the real situation is far from ideal. Indeed, the policies have a substantial bearing on the improvements in women’s participation and the women’s decade is not without its contributions, but other socio-economic factors exerted some pressures on the work environment which negatively affected women’s participation.

1. The Economic Crisis in the Philippines

As a developing economy, the Philippines suffered the repercussions of the recession in the developed economies in the mid-seventies and in the early 80s. Reductions in employment and income of these economies caused less demand and lower prices on important Philippine exports such as sugar, coconut and copper concentrates.

Two successive increases in the world price of oil (in 1973 and in 1978) raised the price of oil 16 times over between 1973 and 1982. For the country, this meant an oil import bill from $187 million in

---

25 Interview conducted in Balayan, Batangas and Tayabas, Quezon for the Women in Rice Farming Conference, 26-30 September 1983 at the International Rice Research Institute, Los Banos, Laguna.

26 Data cited here were taken from UP School of Economics workshop report “An Analysis of the Philippine Economic Crisis,” June 1984.
1973, $651 in 1974 and $2,078 in 1982. These increases exerted further pressure on the tight resources of the country so that it resorted to external borrowings at an accelerated scale (25 percent annually from 1970-1981) to finance its current account deficits which, between 1970 and 1982, were estimated to have cumulated to $12,876 million.

Such difficulties triggered many changes in the socio-economic conditions of the country during the same period. The labor supply grew at an unusually rapid pace: 3.8 percent from 1971-1974; 5.6 percent from 1978-1979 and 4 percent from 1978-1983. While employment rates declined from 1978-1982, the number of unemployed rose from .8 million in 1978 to 1.2 million in 1983 (from 5.2 percent to 5.9 percent unemployment rate) while the underemployed (both visible and invisible) increased over three times during the same period from 1.6 million to 5.6 million.

Real incomes similarly declined, particularly for the wage earners and the unskilled workers. Central Bank wage/salary series between 1972-1980 indicated that the index of average monthly nominal earnings (1972=100) was only 155.5 percent for the wage earners as compared to 174.7 percent for the salaried workers. Considering inflation, it was estimated that the real earnings of the salaried (compared to 1972) was only 93.2 percent in 1980 while its value for the wage workers was 86.7 percent. In Metro Manila, this was computed to be 63.7 percent for the skilled and 53.4 percent for the unskilled.

In agriculture, there was a 75 percent increase in the ranks of agricultural wage workers (.8m—1.4m) from 1971-1983. The number of farms increased from 2.4 m in 1971 to 3.4m in 1980 but the average size declined from 3.6 to 2.6 hectares. Small fishermen doubled in number (113.3 percent) and the commercial fishing units likewise (177.7 percent).

Disparities in the income of the rich and the poor widened even more greatly between 1971 and 1979.

The poorest 30 percent of the total households which received only 25 percent of the total income in 1971 suffered a further decline of their share to 22.5 percent in 1979. On the other hand, the richest of the households increased their share from 39.1 percent to 41.7 percent during the same period. Predictably, gaps between incomes earned in the industry on the one hand and in agriculture and services on the other have widened.

Later developments. In October 1983, shortly after the assassination of former Sen. Benigno S. Aquino, Jr., the value of the peso went down from P11 to fluctuations from P14-P22 to one US$ until it was
floated in June 1984 at an average of P18 to US$1. The peso devaluation brought controls to foreign exchange which in turn restricted the flow of imported material inputs to many industries causing numerous firms to cut back on production, lay-off or rotate workers or simply close shop. This also precipitated inflationary expectations which in turn raised prices and encouraged hoarding and speculations.

The May 1984 elections increased government borrowings from the Central Bank, thereby increasing liquidity and causing renewed inflationary pressures. In an effort to increase revenues, government levied various taxes; and when the peso was floated, new taxes were again levied and existing ones were increased. For the Filipinos, this meant further increases in the prices of basic commodities as the tax impositions were passed on to the consumers.

The chain reactions to these crisis conditions was perhaps nowhere more evident than in the banking and finance sectors. After the much publicized bank run of one private bank, other banks became subject to ugly rumors which led to panic withdrawals of depositors and which in turn caused liquidity problems in many banks so that between August 1983 and August 1984 alone, the Monetary Board had to close 18 banks which failed to meet the unexpected downturns.

The tight liquidity in the banking system caused interest rates to shoot up at unaffordable rates. This was believed to be a result of the shifts in deposits from the cash-deficit banks to the larger financial institutions and the depositors' preference for foreign banks. For instance, it was reported that while four foreign banks registered a 78.7 percent increase in deposits, domestic commercial bank deposits increased by only 13.2 percent.

Moreover, the extremely pronounced liquidity preference of the people increased the currency in circulation from 50 percent to 60 percent of the money supply — from P11-P12 billion in one year up to June 1984. Finally, the substantial imbalances in the monetary aggregates partly due to the overstatement of the country's reserves by over $600m put monetary management in dilemma. Liquidity must be fine-tuned to finance transactions and yet must be held in check to minimize leakages into dollar speculations and inflation.

Effects on women's participation. The increments in the labor supply due to the increased number of women, particularly the married women entering the labor market, are closely linked to these developments. The reduction in the value of real earnings of household due to the increases in the prices of basic commodities during the period exerted pressure on the household members, particularly the housewife who

is the family treasurer and budget officer, to raise household income to a level that is sufficient to maintain the family’s living standards. Thus, the proportion of women wage and salary workers in the various occupational groups increased, particularly among the administrative and managerial workers, the professional and technical workers, the clerical, agricultural and service workers. Also worth noting is the continued predominance of females in the wholesale and retail trades which became pronounced during the period (64.3 percent—66.1 percent).

The economic crisis also left its toll on the women workers. Employment rates went down, decreases coming mostly from the urban areas and from the age group 20-24 as the fresh graduates failed to find employment. Women workers especially felt the effects of business retrenchment and shutdowns in the manufacturing sectors as their proportion to the total workforce decreased (48.8 percent—46.8 percent) between 1978 and 1983.

This difficult situation has also led to the greater incidence of migration to urban areas in the Philippines and to other countries. Poverty, lack of education and experience have driven women into jobs which made them victims of exploitation and prostitution.

2. Traditional Attitudes

Socio-cultural biases and rigid attitudes of both men and women continue to limit opportunities for women to occupy higher positions of responsibility. Employers still consider women as secondary income earners. Even when their income is greater, married women consider their husbands as household heads (Cortes, 1982), an indication of the Filipino wives’ willingness to submit to a status lower than that of the husband. Moreover, since women carry a double dose of responsibility at home and at work, their productivity frequently suffers because of absenteeism which inevitably happens as a result of their attempt to harmonize their roles of worker and mother.

Research findings still support the observation that women work mainly because of economic reasons (UPCE-NCRFW, 1983; Cortes, 1982; Castillo, 1976). If given a choice, that is, in a situation where husband can adequately support the family, women would rather stay at home and take care of their families.

The observed increases in the LFPRs of women may, therefore, be only transitory for once the economic conditions are stabilized, married women may revert to their traditional homemaker role and leave the world of work to the men, the single women, widows and divorcees.
Related to this is women's propensity to flock to trainings and employment which are considered traditional. Saturation of these jobs increases competition (especially from the third sex) which diminishes women's income potential.

Another issue is women's limited access to training in agricultural technology and management. Agriculture is a major employer of women but their participation is limited to either the unpaid work or the low-paid low skilled jobs.

3. Inadequate Implementation of Existing Policies

Inadequate implementation of labor policies continues to deter women's full participation. Due to lack of sufficient funds and adequate information on the actual conditions of women workers, enforcing bodies find it difficult to monitor compliance by companies of the legislations designed to protect women workers. Data from official bodies are very inadequate and become outdated before they get to the hands of the implementing authorities. Empirical data from surveys and case studies, while they pinpoint real issues, become subject to professional and political constraints.

The other side of the problem is women's lack of awareness of their rights as workers. Improvement in this area is slow because of women's low participation in labor unions, generally low educational attainment (estimates of average number of school years for women is only 6 years as of 1982), and limited outreach of legal educational programs.

Another consideration is the question of protectiveness (see other section). The Labor Code imposes a number of requirements on the employer who hires female workers. Provision of physical facilities, maternity leaves, nightwork prohibitions and such other regulations take a heavy toll on the employers' resources so much so that consciously or unconsciously, they became partial to men workers. As one study shows (Cortes, 1982) during economic crisis, women are first on the redundancy lists.

F. Forward Looking Strategies

1. Efforts to combat traditional attitudes surrounding the participation of women in employment need to start in education. Of primary importance is the review of the existing educational and manpower development policy to, make it more responsive to manpower demands. This would include reviewing the school curriculum and text books to eliminate sex-role stereotyping, as well as confronting the media's portrayal of the images of women. Educating workers on their rights, about unionism, and making
them conscious of the need to upgrade skills should involve tripartite participation including mass media. Attitudes of protectiveness of legislations concerning women workers should be modified in the process.

2. Giving women the opportunity to take part in agricultural technology and management training could do much towards overcoming traditional barriers thus enabling them to view their participation as equal partners with men and not merely as their auxiliaries in agriculture.

3. Women seem to feel more comfortable with their economic role if they have the opportunity to supervise/attend to their home responsibilities at the same time. This partly explains the survival of subcontracting schemes which, although generally susceptible to exploitative practices, thrive in rural areas because they do not take women away from their homes. Measures needed include a closer monitoring of subcontractors to eliminate oppressive terms of employment, as well as a reexamination of industrial policies toward the establishment/dispersal of industries to rural areas to provide the women alternatives to subcontracting arrangements. Similarly, women's access to effort/time saving technology should be increased to help them in the discharge of their double responsibilities and to afford them time for leisure activities.

4. The recognition of the value of housework remain an issue. The initiatives of the national machinery\(^2\) towards this end need to be pursued and given due support through a stronger interagency collaboration. Along this line, the working conditions of domestic helpers who enable other women to engage in paid work outside their homes should be improved by legislation assigning higher wages, social benefits, tenure and perhaps professionalization.

5. Prostitution is one of the effects of migration of young women from rural to urban areas. It is now recognized and acted upon as a national problem with regional and international implications. The creation of a national program composed of private and government representatives including the religious sector is a laudable approach to the problem. To attain its objectives, this program needs support from all sectors.

6. The national machinery needs to be strengthened as a coordinating mechanism. The proposed omnibus Bill would give it greater powers for more effective monitoring and coordinating roles.
V. WOMEN IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS

A. Covering Legislation

The 1973 Constitution grants to men and women political and civic rights including the right to vote and to run for and hold public office. Art. VI stipulates that:

"Suffrage shall be exercised by citizens of the Philippines not otherwise disqualified by law, who are eighteen years of age or over, and who shall have resided in the Philippines for at least one year and in the place wherein they propose to vote for at least six months preceding the election. No literacy, property, or other substantive requirements shall be imposed on the exercise of suffrage."

The Constitution also mandates every qualified citizen to register and cast his vote (Art. V Sec. 4).

B. Participation of Women in Public Affairs

Participation of women in public affairs in this context refers to activities which directly or indirectly contribute to the attainment of national objectives, either as politicians, voters, workers, homemakers, and citizens. This report focuses on their roles as decision-makers in the home, community and the country.

1. Women in Elections

Women participated in three national and two local elections during the decade. Two of the national elections (1978 and 1984) were for the election of the representatives to the National Assembly. The other one was a presidential election (1981). The two local elections were for governors and mayors (1980) and for barangay officials (1982).

a. As elective officials

Elective offices carry with them a wide area for decision-making responsibilities, particularly in the formulation of legislations for national, local and even international matters.

The participation of women in decision-making positions thru their share of elective offices and their exercise of their voting right during the decade hardly changed.
1) National Assembly

Called the Interim Batasang Pambansa, the National Legislative body was created by the Constitutional amendments ratified in the referendum-plebiscite in 1976, proclaimed in full force that same year through Proclamation No. 1595. In the first Batasan elections in 1978, ten out of the 165 elective seats were won by women, eight as regional and two as sectoral representatives. One woman cabinet member was appointed as legislative member (there were 13 appointees) resulting in a total of eleven women out of a total of 178 Batasang Pambansa members.

In the 1984 regular Batasan elections, the number of seats was increased to 181\(^{29}\) and the appointees were limited to three or a total of 184 seats. Women garnered ten of the elective seats but all of the three appointive slots were given to men.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>1978</th>
<th>1984</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is interesting to note, however, that in the last Batasan election, women winners placed first [e.g., Manila, 6 slots; Pampanga, 4 slots] or second [Quezon City, 4 slots] in their respective constituencies.

2) Local Elections

The local election in 1971 was the last election to be held before Marital law was declared in the country. The elected officers continued in office during the martial law period until another election was held nine years after (1980) for the provincial/city/municipal levels; then followed by the election of barangay officials in 1982.

The number of women provincial officials elected during these periods did not show any marked increase. The

\(^{29}\) Representation was changed from regional to provincial/city basis.
percentage of women governors even went down by some degree. Some increases were however noted at the municipal level, particularly in the mayoral positions.

The number of women elected as barangay captains (there are now over 42,000 barangays in the country) increased by 50% between the two barangay elections of 1971 and 1982. (Unfortunately, no comparable sex-disaggregated data are available for 1971 for the other officials). The representation of women officials follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>1971</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barangay Captains</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barangay Council</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasurer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. As Voters

Perhaps the most useful indicator of the degree of women's participation in elections as voters when compared to men and the total population is the voters' turn-out rate. This is the ratio of actual to the total number of registered voters for a particular group, i.e., male, female, combined male and female.

Suffrage right was granted to women in 1933 but it was first exercised in 1937. During the last five elections, women comprised, on the average, 49.4% of the voting population. Their turn-out rates compared favorably with males, although male and female rates fluctuated considerably during these periods.
In addition to the five elections held during the decade, voters marched to the polls on eight other occasions for referendum/plebiscites (two of them involved only the autonomous government of Regions 9 and 12). No data on turnouts of voters by sex are, however available on these.

There are two sides to women's electoral participation—voting and being voted for. The preceding data show that while women performed commendably as voters, they still shied away from direct participation as political candidates. Perhaps this stems from the popular notion that politics is men's territory where women dare not tread. This is supported in a study conducted by the UP College of Education\(^{30}\) on values of Filipino women and their attitudes towards five institutions: church, government, school, mass media, and family. The study reported that the nature of women's political participation especially in rural areas is mainly exercising their voting right (62.2%) and attending meetings and rallies (32.4%), and not as direct contenders to political positions.

2. Women in Appointive Positions

Next to an elective seat, appointment to top and middle management positions in government affords opportunities for participation in decision-making. The President of the Philippines appoints the heads of the various offices of government.

The following describes the extent to which women are allowed to participate in deciding matters of local, national and international interest.

a. Constitutional Commissions

The three Constitutional commissions include the Commission on Elections (COMELEC), the Commission on Audit (COA) and the Civil Service Commission (CSC), each

\(^{30}\)The project was funded by NCRFW.
headed by a Chairman and two to four Commissioners. All the present heads are men and one among the eight commissioners (from CSC) is a woman. Also among the three, only the CSC was at one time headed by a Chairwoman, but when she died while an incumbent the position was given back to a man.

b. Cabinet

The cabinet consists of the heads of the ministries. Both in 1978 and 1984, only two of the 18 ministers are women—the Minister of Human Settlements and the Minister of Social Services and Development.

c. Career Executive Service

The Career Executive Services (CES) refers to the third and highest level of positions in the Civil Service. These include deputy ministers, assistant secretaries, bureau directors, assistant bureau directors, regional and assistant regional directors and other positions of equivalent rank in the national government identified and classified by the Career Executive Service Board (CESB).

The percentage of women in the third level of the civil service rose from less than 15 percent in 1974 to 26 percent in 1980 and 36 percent in 1983. Compared to the number of women in the career service, this is less than one percent of the total.

Majority of the occupants of the career executive service are appointed by the president to the various ranks in the CES and are also called CESOs (Career Executive Service Officers). Promotion to higher ranks is based on personal qualifications, managerial competence and performance.

Women formed less than one fifth (16.5%) of the 982 CESOs in August 1984. Their distribution in different ministries indicates some tendencies toward stereotyping even in higher levels. Traditionally masculine work is handled by men and traditionally feminine work by women. It appears that proportionate distribution is not the determining factor in allocating decision-making positions as seen in the grouping of some ministries in 1982.
d. Diplomatic Service

The diplomatic service is perhaps one area where women have attained a relatively fair representation. More than a quarter (27.5%) of all foreign service and home employees in 1984 are women. Of the 83 women members, eight have ambassadorial ranks, nine are minister-counselors and the rest are distributed in the different levels of foreign service assigned here and abroad.

Between 1979 and 1984, slight increases were observed in women's share in this area, both in absolute and relative terms as seen below:
e. Judiciary

In the recent reorganization of the different courts in the Philippines, 118 of the 1,573 (7.5%) judicial positions went to the women, their highest representation being in the Metropolitan Trial Courts (19.2%). The highest judicial body, the Supreme Court, has for the second time one woman among its 14 justices.

As of July 1984, the distribution of officials by sex is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Court Type</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regional Trial Courts</td>
<td>1,267</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1,357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan Trial Courts</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Trial/Justice Courts</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ALL COURTS</strong></td>
<td>1,466</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1,584</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before reorganization, women represented a little more than six percent of all the positions, again a small improvement during the two periods — 1981 and 1984. Although there were more judicial branches prior to the reorganization (and perhaps not easily comparable to more recent data), the representation of women in the different courts in 1981 is given below:
e. Judiciary

In the recent reorganization of the different courts in the Philippines, 118 of the 1,573 (7.5%) judicial positions went to the women, their highest representation being in the Metropolitan Trial Courts (19.2%). The highest judicial body, the Supreme Court, has for the second time one woman among its 14 justices.

As of July 1984, the distribution of officials by sex is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Court</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Trial Courts</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan Trial Courts</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Trial/Circuit Courts</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ALL COURTS</strong></td>
<td>1,465</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1,583</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before reorganization, women represented a little more than six percent of all the positions, again a small improvement during the two periods — 1981 and 1984. Although there were more judicial branches prior to the reorganization (and perhaps not easily comparable to more recent data), the representation of women in the different courts in 1981 is given below:
3. Women in Community Service

This section presents women's decision to effect changes in the environment not through policies as public officials normally do but through concerted mass action. With the assumption that all decisions are intended for the good of the majority, women's initiatives in community development could be considered very concrete decisions because they involve outright implementation and their intended effects are immediately visible.

This part is divided into two: one concerns activities of women's groups directly extending socio-cultural, economic, educational and political services to specific target groups, both men and women; the other one is focused on the recent wave of militant women's groups which, in addition to espousing the cause of groups of women, address themselves to current issues using strategies which are "nonconventional", i.e., protest rallies, demonstrations, strikes, etc. In the absence of documentation on activities of unorganized groups, this presentation is limited to the movements of formal organizations which have in time attained public recognition.

a. The Women's Organizations Affiliated with CAWP

The first woman organization in the Philippines called Asosarcion Feminista Filipino was founded in 1905. Several years after, hundreds of women's organizations of all types, from various sectors and concerned with different target groups emerged In 1950, the Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines was formed to "insure the coordination and consolidation of women's efforts for the continuity of their action program."

At present, there are 74 women's organizations affiliated with CAWP. As the umbrella organization, CAWP operates through its six commissions, members of which represent common areas of concern, as for instance, the Commission on Health and Nutrition is composed of Philippine Medical Women's Association, Nutritionists-Dieticians Association of the Philippines, etc.

Areas of Concern

Briefly, the areas of concern of the affiliates may be grouped into five:

a) Education — provision of scholarship, information dissemination, seminars and fora.

b) Health and nutrition — free clinics, information on primary health care, cleanliness campaign.
c) History and culture — compilation of historical materials, legends with emphasis on women’s role; recognition of achievements of women leaders; etc.
d) Moral and spiritual values-campaign against prostitution and pornography.
e) Research — evaluation of CAWP members’ objectives, programmes and strategies.

A special program for women which CAWP initiated in 1983 is the movement against trafficking of Filipino women. In coordination with the military and other government offices, the religious sector, the youth groups and the other women’s organizations, STOP (Stop Trafficking of Pilipinas) counts among its achievements the following:

1) Campaign against the proliferation of pornographic materials including the confiscation and burning of comics and magazines; protesting against a Japanese and a German magazine for indecent portrayal of Filipino women; and taking to court a publisher of pornographic materials.
2) Setting up of rehabilitation homes for women victims (e.g. CARITAS)
3) Stirring awareness of the authorities and the public on the gravity of child prostitution; getting involved in apprehending culprits.
4) Establishing linkage with national and international organizations concerned with the same problems.

b. Balikatan sa Kaunlaran

Balikatan sa Kaunlaran (BSK) is a government-initiated but privately-run organization with 132 provincial and city councils over the country. Its main objective is the fuller integration of women in national development. Areas of concern are also along employment, education, health, and socio-civic work.

Briefly, activities falling under each area include:

a) Employment — food production, cottage industry, training and employment assistance, small business operation.
b) Health — food and nutrition, cleanliness and sanitation, health protection and delivery of health services, health seminars and information dissemination.
c) Education — literacy projects, skills development, scholarships, and dissemination of educational materials.
d) Socio-civic and political — fora and public meetings, campaign against drug addiction and trafficking of women, sports and recreational activities, and cultural program.

As of December 1984, BSK was reported to have close to three million members. Reports from 57 councils indicate 3,595,557 beneficiaries of 22 projects. Estimates of equivalent of the members’ services, goods, cash raised, money spent for the different projects amounted to P55,854,956.

C. Other Types of Women’s Organizations

The late seventies and the early eighties witnessed the birth of a new breed of women’s organization demanding “truth, justice and democracy” and espousing the need for a movement that can genuinely work for the interest and needs of women. According to one organization, there are about 120 organizations of this type in 1984 in Metro Manila alone.

Because of the nature of the issues which they put forward, these women’s groups are sometimes associated with the opposition, considered as leftist or fronts of the rebel groups and on some occasions, interest groups concerned with particular issues. Nevertheless, they continue to stage sporadic protest marches, demonstrations, and prayer rallies addressing these major issues:

a) The Aquino assassination, the procedure and the outcome (and implications) of its investigation
b) Suspected frauds in the recent elections for the Batasang Pambansa
c) Violation of human rights, e.g., political detainees especially women and girls; harassment of women writers;
d) Danger of the nuclear plants in Morong, Bataan
e) Political dangers and social effects of the military bases in the Philippines
f) Consumers’ exploitation such as the case against Meralco, the PDA and multi-national companies (e.g., drugs, infant formulas).

4. Women in Households

Several studies on the Filipino family’s authority and decision-making patterns indicate that the housewife plays an important role

31 Center for Women Resources
in the household. One famous Filipino writer\textsuperscript{32} commented that even before and during the colonial period, the Filipino woman upon marriage was treated by the husband as an equal.

"She retained her maiden name, shared his honors and disposed of freely the property she had brought into the marriage. She was consulted by her husband about his affairs and he did not ordinarily enter into contracts or agreements without her knowledge and approval."

A more contemporary view on the Filipino woman's share in decision-making in the family is from Castillo\textsuperscript{33} who says that:

"The decision-making pattern in the Filipino household is more egalitarian and joint-with-husband rather than patriarchal. The wife participates in the management not only of matters concerning household and family but also of farming and livelihood. The wife as a keeper of family finances is a well accepted norm..."

Preferred and actual joint decision-making areas concern childbearing and discipline (Martinez-Esquillo 1976); buying or renting land, borrowing money and deciding what to plant (Guerrero, 1962); family planning, family affairs, family recreation, and children's external participation. The wife, for her part, is acknowledged to be the major decision-maker in matters pertaining to the family budget and her participation (real or possibility) in the labor market (Illo, 1977).

Even with the increased participation of women in the labor market, the housewife maintains her control over family finances, its budgeting and purchase of household items, including furniture and amount of savings (Baltazar, 1971).

C. A Second Look at Women's Participation in Public Affairs

The political and decision making participation of women during the decade did not change significantly. Although there are no legal impediments to the enjoyment of their civic and political rights, they are still far from making their voice as a group of united women felt and duly recognized particularly in appointive and elective positions. Their involvement in community activities particularly in the delivery of social services and in stirring interest to national issues through mass actions, however, intensified.

It is believed that such de facto inequalities stem from traditional attitudes of men and women towards politics. Women who exercise their

\textsuperscript{32}Encarnacion, Alzona, "The Filipino Woman", Manila, 1934.

suffrage right dutifully to not necessarily vote for women candidates. This is perhaps the reason why political parties seldom consider women candidates as potential vote-getters.

Even when women decide to elect their own sex, there are not enough women candidates to rally behind. Those very few who agree to try either come from a family of well-known politicians, are influential and wealthy enough to be sure winners, or have the sympathy of the majority of the voting public. Under any of these circumstances, women candidates are taken in not because men seriously consider the need to represent women's interest but probably to increase their own or their party's chances of winning.

Very poor representation in decision-making positions in government is still traceable to these traditional attitudes. The fact that on most occasions, the appointing authority is a male or a male-dominated top level management which is likely to harbor similar perceptions makes it more difficult for the woman aspirant. With notions of the dual roles of the woman as wife/mother and worker and of her being only a secondary breadwinner, appointing persons do not easily consider women for top positions to minimize role conflicts and to give the better positions to men who are supposed to be the heads of their families.

This climate is not, however, entirely bleak for there are certain conditions which may not project perfect equality but highlight the other side of women's status and role in public affairs.

1. Women in Bureaucracy

An alternative approach to women's direct political participation is her role in the bureaucracy. This is proposed in a recent doctoral dissertation.

The bureaucracy plays an important role in the political process through the initiation and implementation of public policy. Legislative policies are often prepared in draft by the bureaucracy which also provides the initial idea and data inputs. As data show, 36 percent of women in the highest level of the civil service are women. This figure is much higher than that on women's direct involvement in political activities.

The researcher further claimed that the bureaucracy is actually the center of policy making process and is even more political than the other institutions. This is especially true in the Philippines where the President has in recent years relied heavily on the bureaucracy for advice and action.

The study proved that women are attracted to the less obvious political role that the bureaucracy enables them to play. Both men and women in the bureaucracy believe that while women’s roles therein provide them with the opportunity to influence policy, that kind of participation is something they do not consider as belonging to public affairs. She stressed that “women stay in the bureaucracy because of their feeling of potency in the decision-making process, but are not aware that that action is political.”

2. A Potent Force in the Community

When it comes to civic work and community services, women are the most visible rural/urban slum workers. Their commitment and dedication to service continue to affect the lives of people and bring about changes which official policies take long to deliver. Here are some facts:

a. Majority of barangay health and other rural workers are women:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barangay Health Workers</td>
<td>143,147</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botica Sa Barangay Aides</td>
<td>10,387</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bgy. Nutrition Scholars</td>
<td>113,037</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bgy. Service Point Officers</td>
<td>51,169</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. In 1980 about 200 women’s organizations were registered with the Securities and Exchange Commission. Most of these have provincial and municipal chapters.

In Metro Manila alone, about 120 new women’s organizations cropped up during the late seventies and early eighties, all of which espouse social reforms.

c. Teachers, majority of whom are females, are the most visible professionals in the community and are often involved in community activities with or without government intervention.

3. Decisiveness in Elections

As data show, women exhibit higher voters’ turn out rates in elections. When they decide to support a particular candidate, they could be a strong force. This was tested in the past election for the Batasang Pambansa. An independent woman candidate won one of three slots (thereby spoiling a party sweep) because she was strongly supported by the women who kept vigil over the ballot boxes to ward off attempts of fraud and to insure the safety of their votes.
Similarly, in areas where woman ran as candidates and won, they
bested other men candidates in the ranking as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manila</td>
<td>1st of 6 slots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilocos Norte</td>
<td>1st of 2 slots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pampanga</td>
<td>1st of 4 slots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarlac</td>
<td>1st of 2 slots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quezon City</td>
<td>2nd of 4 slots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cavite</td>
<td>2nd of 3 slots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cebu</td>
<td>4th of 8 slots</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Women’s Activism

Women activist groups who come from the middle, upper and
lower classes of society signify a heightened consciousness of women
not only of their plight but also of the country’s welfare. As they have
become more and more vocal, these women’s groups continue to exert
pressure on decision-makers.

5. Interest in the Presidential Issue

Toward the middle of the eighties, the women’s voice is being
heard in the decision for the presidential candidates in the 1987 elec-
tions.

The widow\(^{35}\) of the former senator who was assasinated in 1983,
who has since then joined the ranks of the opposition expressed dis-
interest in running as presidential candidate. However, she was one of
the three members of a Convenor’s Group which drafted a list of
eleven presidential standard bearers, one of them a woman. A wo-
man member of parliament\(^{36}\) chaired a National Unification Com-
mittee which is eyeing the former senator’s wife for presidential can-
didacy. The wife of the President\(^{37}\) on many occasions has been spe-
culated as interested in either the presidential (in the event the
President becomes incapacitated) or vice presidential post (if he runs
for a re-election). The first couple has categorically denied the First
Lady’s interest. However, the opposition and other sectors including
other members of the party in power are still considering the possibility
of her changing her mind and position.

Nevertheless, whether these women run or not or whether any or
no one of them wins, the fact remains that the women are beginning
to be involved in a matter of great national interest. This could also
presage the beginning of a more active and more assertive female voice
in the high levels of decision-making.

\(^{35}\) Mrs. Cory Aquino
\(^{36}\) MP Cecilia M. Palma
\(^{37}\) Mrs. Imelda R. Marcos
6. Decision-Making in the Home

Women maintain a pivotal role in the home. They decide on majority of household activities (Baltazar, 1971), attend to the husband and children, and, during the last several years have also been going out to engage in regular employment. While the men remained pre-occupied solely with their ascribed responsibility as breadwinners, women straddled between their two roles. Taken in a positive light, their exposure to the labor market enhance their decision making function in the home by way of direct transference of skills from work to home and their bolstered self-esteem and better self-confidence because of their ability to contribute to family income.

7. Indirect Influence Over Policies and Decisions

On the other hand, even when women do not openly participate in policy and decision making, they influence policies and decisions through their men — husbands/sons/fathers. This is still in keeping with the egalitarian rather than paternalistic orientation of Filipino families. Matters which do not directly concern home affairs are usually discussed with the household members, so that the possibility of a wife/mother/daughter influencing the thinking of the legislator or policy maker husband/son/father is increased.

D. Forward Looking Strategies

1. Strategies to improve the participation of women in public affairs could begin with developing positive attitudes towards women. Eliminating sex biases may be achieved through formal education and information dissemination with particular emphasis on women’s rights and duties. The cooperation of media through positive projection of women as individuals capable of discharging high level functions is necessary.

2. Women themselves could do much in increasing their participation in political activities. They could form a solid block in presenting qualified women candidates whom they could support in elections; or they could enlist other women voters to vote for men candidates who are sympathetic to women’s concerns. This way, political parties may start to seriously consider them as vote getters who truly represent one half of the electorate.

3. Women NGOs and government agencies concerned with women’s welfare could do their share by highlighting women’s achievements in different fields. The role of women’s organizations in complementing government efforts in the delivery of social services and success stories of women who have reached top level posts are only some of the projects which could go a long way towards influencing decision makers (or men) on what women could do if given the opportunity.
VI. HEALTH, NUTRITION AND POPULATION
PROGRAMS FOR WOMEN

A. Covering Legislation/Policy

1. Constitutional Provision

The Constitution of 1973 in its declaration of principles and state policies provides that the "State shall establish, maintain and ensure adequate social services in the field of education, health, housing, employment, welfare and social security to guarantee the enjoyment by the people of a decent standard of living (Art. 11 Sec. 7). The Constitution also provides that "It shall be the responsibility of the state to achieve and maintain population levels most conducive to national welfare" (Art. XV, Sec. 10).

2. National Development Plan

The Updated Philippine Development Plan, 1984-1987 in its statement of objectives concerning the health of the population provides that health policies and programs are "premised on the ultimate goal of eventually attaining and maintaining for the people (men and women) complete physical, mental and social well-being". To realize this broad goal one intermediate objective pertains to women and other nutritionally at risk groups: "the increase in the levels of food consumption and nutrient intake of pregnant women, lactating mothers, infants, preschoolers, school-children and those who have been affected by the economic difficulties". Similarly, its statement of broad programs and projects stresses that: "The implementation of programs to minimize problems related to pregnant women, lactating mothers, children and other vulnerable groups will be pursued".

The Plan’s section on population and social services echoes these statements: "The improvement of the nutritional status of children and lactating mothers will be a priority concern of day care and supplemental feeding program in the coming years".

B. The General Health Situation

A gradual but steady improvement in the health status of all sectors of the population characterizes the Philippine health situation. The continuous expansion of health and medical services and the greater participation of the community and other agencies in the delivery of health care services has brought about an increase in health coverage so that more and more members of the population benefit from the health programs.
The latest census of population for the Philippines was conducted in 1980. At that time the population count was registered at 48,098,460, 62.7 percent of which were living in the rural areas. From 1975 to 1980, the population was estimated to be growing at an average of 2.71 percent annually.

Improvements in the health condition of the population from 1972 to 1984 were noted, particularly in infant and maternal mortality rates. IMR went down from 82.0 to 58.0 per 1000 live births while MMR decreased from 1.7 to 0.8 per 1000 live births during the period. Most of the maternal deaths occurred among the ages 30-39 with postpartum hemorrhage and toxemias of pregnancy infections as the common causes.

The number of births per 1000 population (crude birth rate) was reduced from 37.4 in 1974 to 31.6 in 1984. Total fertility rate decreased from 5.2 in 1975 to 4.5 in 1980. On the other hand, the number of people dying from all causes for both men and women was smaller in 1984 (7.6/1000 population) than in 1972 (9.8/1000). Also, people expected to live longer in 1984 than in 1972, with the life expectancy increasing from 59.3 to 62.8 years.

Pneumonias remained the leading cause of death in 1975 and up to 1979. There was a noted increase in the number of people dying from heart diseases as this ranked second among the leading causes in 1979, displacing tuberculosis. The ten leading causes of death and their comparative ranks in 1975 and 1979 are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>1975</th>
<th>1979</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pneumonia</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Heart Disease</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Tuberculosis</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Intestinal Infestations</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cancer</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Malaria</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Diabetes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Urogenital Infections</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Other Infestations</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Other Infestations</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meanwhile, the causes of morbidity in both years were almost the same — influenza, tuberculosis (all forms), malaria, and infectious hepatitis.
C. Women as Beneficiaries and Agents of Health Services

1. As Beneficiaries of Health Programs

Women have always been acknowledged and recognized as primary beneficiaries of traditional and modern health care practices because of their unique biological function. In traditional practice, such attention is manifested in the evolution and continued survival of the “hilot” as a traditional health practitioner. In modern public health practice, concern for childbirth is manifested in the central attention given to maternal and child health as a feature of any health program.

A review of the major health programs implemented by the Ministry of Health and related agencies reveals that women are accorded high priority in the programming of health services. This is indicated by the attention and support given to three major programs that are directed towards the welfare of women: maternal and child health, population and nutrition programs.

Each of these programs is discussed in the next section. As far as data permit, changes in women’s health status during the Women’s Decade as a result of these programs are described.

a. Maternal and Child Health

The maternal and child health program of the Ministry of Health was designed to give special care and supervision to pregnant and lactating women and to children to minimize known risks associated with pregnancy and childbirth. This is implemented through the various units, hospitals, rural health units, puericulture centers and barangay health stations of the Ministry in cooperation with private organizations and the communities through the Primary Health Care Approach.

The program has five priority components:

1) Maternal Care; 2) Hilot Training; 3) Perinatal and 0-6 Care; 4) Promotion of Breastfeeding; and 5) Expanded Program on Immunization.

1) Maternal Care

Rural health units on the average reached 90-100% of all expected pregnancies during the past years with two to three prenatal visits for each. In 1983 for instance, of the 1,069,450 pregnancies targetted for prenatal consultations, about 90% were actually serviced. Of the 773,620 expected deliveries for that year, 89.1% were attended by health personnel.
2) Hilot Training

Traditional midwives in the Philippines (hilot) play a significant role in maternal and child health services as they attend to a major proportion of births especially in the rural areas. These hilots attended to an estimated 47 percent of all deliveries in 1972.

While the government continually strives to expand the services of professionals, it recognizes the roles of these traditional midwives. Hence, it ventured to give them suitable training and placed them under the supervision of health personnel to improve their effectiveness.

In 1983, of a total of 39,558 hilots in the country, 22,847 (58%) were known to be trained by and working under the supervision of the Health Ministry. The other 16,700 who were practicing in the remotest areas in the country could not be reached for the survey.

Such training of hilots is believed to be among the factors in the reduction of infant and maternal mortality rates.

In 1975 and 1979, medical attendance at births increased as follows:

3) Perinatal and 0-6 Child Care

Mothers and their children are the targets of this program. Under instructions from medical staff, mothers chart the health and nutritional status of their children, then take them periodically to health centers for medical check-ups and immunization. During this time, mothers are given nutrition, health and family planning counselling including treatment of simple illnesses and referrals for major ailments.

The operationalization of Under Six Clinics in most hospitals and some rural health units in the country has made the provision of care to 0-6 year old children more comprehensive.

In 1983, a total of 5,100,295 children aged 0-6 (out of a target of 6,111,120) and their mothers participated in the Under Six Clinics.
4) Expanded Program on Immunization (EPI)

Under this program, pregnant women, in addition to young children, are given immunization. For instance, in 1983, of the 672,110 pregnant women, 67.4% received the second dose. About 50.2% of all pregnant women were fully immunized.

An evaluation of health care services in 1982 showed that prior to EPI, morbidity and mortality rates from childhood immunizable diseases (diphtheria, pertussis, tetanus, tuberculosis and poliomyelitis) fluctuated at intervals of three to four years. However, since the start of EPI in 1978, these five diseases showed a consistent downward trend up to 1982. Morbidity and mortality from measles remained high as immunization for this started only in 1982 and covered only 35% of the target group at that time.

5) Promotion of Breastfeeding

A study on patterns of infant feeding in rural and urban communities (Bautista, 1978) indicates that the incidence of breastfeeding especially among urban women went down from 43.8% to 30.9% and the length of breastfeeding period shortened from an average of six months to three months in ten years time. This is believed to be due to the higher incidence of mothers working outside their homes with fixed work hours and the maternity leave benefits shortened from 12 weeks to 6 weeks. Furthermore, the strong media campaign by the producers of infant formulas and the cooperation they receive from hospitals and pediatricians have reinforced the use of processed infant milk as a substitute for breastmilk.

Alarmed by this development and its implication on the health of children, a program of advocacy for breastfeeding is being undertaken on a national scale with the support of policy makers, planners, implementors, militant mothers and communities. The Philippines signed the International Code on Marketing of Breastfeeding Substitute and is monitoring its implementation. However, the National Code on the Marketing of Breastmilk Substitutes remains unapproved. This is one of the targets of Breastfeeding Mothers Association of the Philippines, the major proponent of breastfeeding in the country.

b) Nutrition

The Philippine Nutrition Program (PNP) is the sum total of individual and collective efforts planned and organized to reduce the prevalence of malnutrition in the country. It is designed to ensure effec-
tive delivery of nutrition and nutrition-related services down to the barangay and family levels. The government agency responsible for coordinating and monitoring the implementation of the PNP is the National Nutrition Council created by Presidential Decree 491 in 1974.

The PNP addresses itself to the improvement of the nutritional status of the population especially the infants, preschoolers, school children, pregnant women and nursing mothers. To meet this objective, three types of activities are pursued:

1) Health Protection

Health protection may be in the form of curative or medical treatment which is given to severely malnourished children with associated diseases through clinics, rural health units or home care services; and preventive or the institution of appropriate measures to increase resistance to illnesses such as immunization, dietary and medical advice to mothers of malnourished children and to pregnant and nursing women including health, nutrition and child care education.

Some of the facilities and services under this project include:

- Establishment of 160 hospital-based nutriwards. In 1980, it was reported that these wards admitted 2,524 cases, 53% of which were fully rehabilitated.
- Construction of 177 nutrihuts to supplement the services of nutriwards.
- Operationalization of 159 Under Six Clinics which in 1980 attended to some 268,910 preschoolers.
- Distribution of free vitamins and medicines to 376,200 recipients.
- Implementation of school health guardian program which provides immunization, dental and other medical and nursing services.
- Provision of iron supplements to anemic pregnant women and distribution of iodized salt and administration of iodized oil injections to goiter cases in endemic areas. Goiter control reached 33,666 women while anemia surveillance serviced 6,507 pregnant and nursing mothers.

2) Food Production and Food Assistance

Food production is advocated to augment family income and increase food availability. Activities include crop/animal/fish production and dispersal, extension of loans and farm inputs to small
farmers and cultivation of gardens/nurseries and orchards. Masaga-
nana 99, Masaganang Maisan, Gulayan sa Kalusugan and Selective
Food Production in schools are some of the food production drives
launched in this connection.

Food assistance is an emergency measure to improve the nu-
tritional status of malnourished persons. Food commodities used
in this intervention program come from family resources, local
government or foreign agencies.

In 1980, more than 9.6 million individuals (88.2% of a target
of 10.9 million) received food assistance. Of these 32.3% were in-
fants and preschoolers, 55.8% were schoolchildren and 2.5% were
pregnant and nursing women. The rest were children in institu-
tions, disaster victims and workers.

3) Information Education and Communication

The IEC intervention is pursued to increase the level of nutri-
tion awareness and knowledge and to promote the adoption of
proper dietary practices through the incorporation of nutrition
education in the activities of implementing agencies. A total of
12,365 nutrition classes in 1980 were conducted with an outreach
of 339,157 homemakers (note that the women are the primary
targets of IEC campaigns).

Aside from the interpersonal approach, other forms of media
like print, broadcast and audiovisual presentations were used in
disseminating nutrition information. Thus, a total of 534 IEC
materials, 33 radio messages and 19 nutritubes equipped with
videotape recorders fielded in 11 regions have been used to reach
people in the different barangays.

Some health and nutritional data:

Children

A nationwide survey of food consumption of Filipino infants
and toddlers in 1978 by the FNRI revealed the nutritionally-poor
condition of this sector of the population. One day mean intake of
food energy hardly met one-half of the daily recommended allow-
ance. Carbohydrates made up 75 percent of the total calories
while protein intake reached a little more than three fourths of
the requirement.

Only 15 percent of these children had adequacy level of 80
percent and above. Among the other 85 percent, the most poorly
fed were those one year and below and were living in the rural
areas.
A survey of 83,000 preschool children in 1979 showed that 30 percent of these were severely underweight. In a follow-up study in 1980, the proportion went down to 24.4 percent. Similarly, the prevalence of severe and moderate malnutrition was reduced from 26 percent to 20.4 percent.

Reports from the Malnutrition Prevention Project indicate that from 1979 to 1980, 74 percent of children known to be underweight improved their health condition. Likewise, from the maternal and child health program, 58 percent of targeted children improved their nutritional status while 24 percent maintained their nutritional levels.

**Pregnant Women**

Another study conducted by FNRI in 1978 among pregnant women disclosed that 85 percent of these women were suffering from anemia, avitaminosis and other nutritional deficiencies. Follow-up in 1982 showed that the prevalence of anemia was reduced to 48.8 percent and average weight gains during pregnancy of 9 kg. followed closely the recommended weight gain average of 9.11 kg., with urban mothers registering higher gains than rural women.

**Working Women**

Various provisions of the Labor Code are devoted to women workers and the protection of their health while at work. These include nightwork prohibition, maternity benefits, provision of physical facilities and family planning services (please see section on Women as Workers). Despite these protective measures, some studies point to prevalence of hazardous work environments particularly in export processing industries where women predominate (Ibon Facts and Figures). Moreover, these protective provisions have been the subject of debates because of their counterproductive effect on women's employment.

Some studies on nutritional status of women workers indicate that they generally fall short of minimum requirements for certain nutrients like Vitamin A and ascorbic acid (Corpuz, 1979). The same study showed that the mean iron content of the diets of women workers fell short by .30 percent and that of men by 10 percent of the recommended dietary allotment (RDA).

Another study on dietary expenditure, intake and patterns of daily activities among textile mill workers revealed that women
workers were taking in much less energy than what they spend and this becomes more serious when compared to men (FNRI, 1978-1982).

The FNRI study of central textile mill workers in 1980-1983 pointed to adequacy of protein and niacin intake but intake of calories, calcium, vitamin A, thiamine, riboflavin and ascorbic acid were known to be quite below the RDA. Iron was found to be insufficient only among women.

c. The Philippine Population Program

Family planning and other population activities are under the umbrella of a Philippine Population Program with the Population Commission at the core of policy making, planning and funding of population-related activities in coordination with other government and private agencies particularly the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Labor, the Population Center Foundation and Family Planning Organization of the Philippines. From a program that was predominantly contraceptive-oriented, the PPP has shifted from a largely clinic-based, people-centered program.

The ultimate goal of the Program is to achieve national welfare through family welfare which can only be achieved if the population growth level is reconciled with the country’s national development goals.

The Program aims to reduce population growth rate from an estimated 2.4 percent in 1982, 2.0 percent in 1987 and 1.7 percent by 1992. It hopes to achieve replacement fertility or an average of two children per family by the year 2000.

The implementation of the program is guided by five basic policies which serve as guidelines in developing program strategies. These policies include: 1) non-coercion; 2) integration; 3) multi-agency participation; 4) partnership of public and private sectors; and, 5) unacceptability of abortion.
1) Program Activities

*Government Sector*

Population Commission (POPCOM)

1) Production of IEC materials including the holding of the annual National Population Welfare Congress in cooperation with other agencies.

2) Service delivery through the clinic services network and outreach project.

At the close of 1982, POPCOM has coordinated family planning services in 3,522 privately operated and government-owned clinics and hospitals including industrial establishments. It also organized the Full Time Outreach Workers (FTOW, of which there were 3,264 in 1982) and the 52,000 Barangay Service Point Officers (BSPO) to service those beyond the reach of clinics. These outreach workers are supported by 24 itinerant teams with mobile capability equipped with family planning service facilities.

3) Conduct and funding of training programs implemented by other agencies.

4) Conduct and funding of research activities.

*Ministry of Health (MOH)*

In the MOH is a special office, National Family Planning Office for the family planning program of the Ministry. The family planning activities include:

1) Opening of new FP Clinics and service outlets.

As of 1981 there were a total of 1,843 MOH service facilities. Manning their outlets are 1,572 doctors, 1,418 nurses, 3,679 midwives and 493 SARIKAYA workers in 1980.

2) Recruitment of acceptors.

From 1970 to 1981; a total of 2,651,827 clients were served with use-effectiveness of the method mix reaching level of 84.4 percent and births averted estimated at about 2.3 million.
3) Training and outreach.

More than 20,000 FP trainees are now serving clients in both urban and rural areas. A new approach called Sarikaya Project trains workers on the basis of volunteerism and community spirit.

4) Research.

Ministry of Social Services and Development (MSSD)

MSSD's family planning activities are undertaken through the Bureau of Family and Child Welfare (BFCW) and the Bureau of Youth Welfare (BYW).

BFCW teaches the small family size norm and family life through the use of toys, songs, games and other visual aids among the preschoolers in their day care centers all over the country. It also provides family planning motivation, counselling, referral and follow up services for married couples of reproductive age (MCRAs).

BYW trains youth leaders in development communications. It organized the youths into groups known as the Pagasa Youth Movement. The Movement’s meetings are venues for IEC campaigns on such issues as population, health and nutrition.

In addition, MSSD through its other offices undertook two projects namely:

a. Population Awareness and Sex Education
   PASE was integrated into the human resource development program which recruited and trained a total of 497 youths as development workers.

b. Family Planning Information and Counselling Services.
   Integrated in the social services programs of the Ministry, FPICS was responsible for the following:
   - premarital counselling of 2,167 couples
   - referral of some 61,671 for family planning services
   - organization of 20 male acceptors' clubs and 13 satisfied acceptors' clubs.
   - recruitment and training of 190 volunteer informants for family planning.
Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (MECS)

Through the Population Education Program, MECS developed curriculum materials, trained teachers (mostly women) on population education and conducted research projects. The Ministry made official the integration of population education in the school curriculum.

National Media Production Center (NMPC)

NMPC continuously promotes family planning through standard media materials distributed nationwide. Such themes as responsible parenthood, delayed marriage and community self-reliance are underscored in these media materials.

Private Sector

Population Center Foundation (PCF)

Some of the major activities of the PCF are as follows:

1. Womanpower Development and Utilization.

   Four groups of rural women entrepreneurs were provided income-earning opportunities to raise their income. By providing them with alternatives to childbearing it was hoped that they will be motivated to limit their children.

2. Filipino Women in Family Planning.

   Twenty existing community-based women's organizations were mobilized; their leaders were trained in project development and the group received seed funding and technical assistance for viable proposals.

3. Multicenter Program for Total Maternity Care.

   PCF assisted hospitals in establishing Total Maternity Care Centers in their communities. These centers offered sterilization services especially to high risk pregnancy cases.


   Thirty-seconder ads were used on T.V., radio and in movie houses in one pilot area (Cebu). A 30-minute
drama was also aired for 24 weeks in 1982. A follow-through of the study in the same area was a campaign which aimed to effect behavioral changes among husbands from being merely supportive of their wife’s family planning practice to actually using male-specific methods.

Family Planning Organization of the Philippines (FPOP)

The FPOP has a nationwide network of volunteer organized units or chapters and has been a member of the International Planned Parenthood Federation since 1969. It undertakes an education program among Filipinos on the need for and benefits derived from family planning; conducts training programs; helps provide clinical facilities for family planning services; conducts activities to study, evaluate and help direct the program of the organization; seeks financial assistance and coordinates with national and international organizations and individuals that promote family planning and demographic studies.

Institute of Maternal and Child Health (IMCH)

The IMCH has family planning as one of its service units. Its two main areas of operation are training and family planning clinic services. Some of its accomplishments include:

1. Production of IEC materials.

2. Operation of 265 comprehensive clinics with 265 doctors, 120 nurses, 410 midwives and about 60 trained satisfied acceptors who help in information dissemination and motivation activities.

3. Training and counselling program professionals and para-professionals; trainers’ training and instructions on use of rhythm for field workers.

As of 1984, projects undertaken by the Institute include the establishment of barangay health and family planning newsstand; engagement in family planning-related income generating projects; mobilization of more volunteer workers; close supervision of acceptors and gathering of data of births from local registration office.
2) Policies Concerning Family Planning

The government adopted a number of policies to strengthen the family planning program in the country. These include:

1) limiting the availment of maternity leave benefits to four children.

2) limiting tax exemption for dependent children to four (PD No. 69).

3) requiring establishments with more than 300 employees to provide family planning services (PD No. 48) and to provide bonuses and awards to new and continuing acceptors (DOL Order No. 7).

4) integrating population education into the curricula of all schools of medicine, nursing, midwifery, allied medical professions and social work (LOI No. 47).

3) Acceptors of Family Planning Method

From 1977 up to 1982, family planning acceptors cumulated to 2,497,431 with the pill as the most popular method used: Women account for 94% of sterilization cases. Users are distributed by method as follows:

Family Planning Acceptors by Method Used
(1977-1982)
2. As Agents in the Delivery of Health Services

Through the years, women have been playing key roles in health care at both the household and community levels. Mothers, particularly, have always assumed the tasks of health guardians and nursing attendants for the family.

From the point of view of national health efforts, the health care process involves tasks related to policy formulation, program planning, projects development, service delivery and patient care at household and institution levels. The nature of women’s participation in these processes may be related to decision-making in all aspects of health care either as one imbued with direct decision-making responsibility or authority or as one who provides the technical support leading to the decisions made.

Women’s role in the different levels of health care delivery is examined below. Data under consideration were obtained from the Ministry of Health. In the absence of comparable data during the earlier part of the decade and unless otherwise stated, this analysis is limited to health personnel statistics as of October 1984.

a. Health Ministry Personnel

Nearly half (44%) of the estimated 3,730 personnel in the Ministry of Health are women; 38 percent of which belong to the nutrition service, food and drug administration and in research and laboratories. Women also constitute the majority in the following offices: planning services, 88.5 percent; health education and manpower development service, 87.5 percent; disease intelligence center, 75.0 percent; dermatology research and training project, 73.5 percent; fiscal management, 62.5 percent and family planning office, 66.0 percent.

In the different branches of the Ministry, women comprise almost two-thirds of the total staff in hospitals, in the regional health offices and in the hospitals in the regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ministry branches</th>
<th>No. of Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medical Office</td>
<td>1,639</td>
<td>3,730</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Hospitals</td>
<td>4,297</td>
<td>6,796</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Health Office</td>
<td>13,544</td>
<td>17,799</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Hospitals</td>
<td>14,903</td>
<td>23,688</td>
<td>63.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>34,383</td>
<td>51,993</td>
<td>66.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b. Positions Occupied

The highest post occupied by a woman in the Ministry is that of assistant secretary (one of three in the Ministry). The other high positions which women occupy include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>No. of Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Secretary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adviser to the Minister</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director, Central Office</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ass. Director, Central Office</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH Chamber</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the whole, women’s share of these positions in the Central Office is almost 54 percent, which indicates that the higher level decision-making functions on health matters are more or less equally distributed among men and women officials in the central office.

c. Regional Distribution

The situation in the provincial and other outlying areas shows a very different configuration. While the heads of regional and provincial health offices are almost all men (86%), those workers assigned/or volunteer to work in the barangays are almost all women (84%). The following two tables show this:
d. Hospital Administration

The administration of government-owned hospitals is also basically in the hands of men. Data from 1981-1982 show that women administrators in all types of hospitals in all regions comprised at most 16 percent. Also, the higher the hospital category, the smaller the probability of its being run by a woman administrator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Type</th>
<th>No. of Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALL TYPES</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the foregoing discussions, it appears that the nature of women’s participation in health care tends to be concentrated in the work force and in the rural areas rather than in the decision-making areas. While the higher positions in the central office are more equitably distributed between men and women, the regional positions are still largely handled by men.

The intentional or unintentional assignment of the higher paying jobs to the men also brings to focus the working conditions in which women find themselves. While the men frequently stay in their offices, women get exposed to all kinds of difficulties and dangers in the rural areas and urban slums (transportation, peace and order, poverty, etc.) while discharging their duties as barangay health workers, nutrition scholars or botica sa barangay aides.

It seems difficult to explain the lopsided distribution by sex of health personnel especially when one considers the fact that in terms of preparation there is no observed male-preponderance in
the different medical and allied medical courses. For instance, data from the Professional Regulations Commission (PRC) on cumulative number of successful medical board examinees indicate that the proportion of women increased from 48.4 percent (1975-1979) to about 50 percent (1980-1983). As of 1983, the percentage of women in the various medical and allied medical professions as registered with the PRC (cumulated since 1975) is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>Number (in thousands)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Professions</td>
<td>103,059</td>
<td>87.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered Nurse</td>
<td>85,115</td>
<td>69.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>10,315</td>
<td>98.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwife</td>
<td>10,122</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Technologist</td>
<td>7,379</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutritionist-Dietitian</td>
<td>3,261</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentist</td>
<td>2,912</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
<td>1,873</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optometrist</td>
<td>1,349</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Therapist</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>69.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitary Engineer</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Therapist</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>88.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Percentage of Women in Medical and Allied Professions**

An interesting point along this line is the policy of the State University (UP-PGH Medical Center) in the admission of medical students where quota is split half and half so that no more female students than males were admitted. A former hospital director observed that if this quota system were not followed and grade became the criterion, the males would be severely outnumbered, as females usually had higher grades in the entrance examination. The present practice is therefore already an improvement over a previous policy when only 25 percent of the quota was given to females.

With this “restricted” opportunity to participate in higher levels of decision-making and consequently a more rewarding profession, those women who feel that they deserve better may tend
to shy away from participating in the government’s effort to deliver health care to the public. Although data are not sufficient, it appears that women medical practitioners fare better in private practice. One indication is that among the privately-owned hospitals in the country from 1981-1982, about 24.4 percent were in the of hospitals where women administrators represent about 27.0 percent of the total.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Type</th>
<th>Total no. of Hospitals</th>
<th>Women as % of Hospital Administrators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td>1,046</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e. Women NGOs as Deliverers of Health Care Services

Women NGOs have always been in the forefront of volunteer service. They are in social welfare, education, sanitation, livelihood and health delivery complementing government’s social development efforts.

The Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP) is one such NGO which has been reaching out to the community through its affiliates. Through its Commission on Health and Nutrition, CAWP promotes the active involvement of women in health and nutrition and improves the capabilities of women to contribute more effectively to health development through Primary Health Care (PHC).

The activities of the Commission include among others the conduct of health and nutrition seminars and workshops in depressed barangays, with emphasis on PHC, free dental, medical and related services for instance through the Philippine Medical Women’s Association, Women Dentist Association of the Philippines and the other Commission members. Services of these NGOs are not strictly for women for they include men and children as well, although there are programs which are specifically for mothers such as maternity and family planning clinics, day care centers, and breastfeeding campaigns and seminars. Due to lack of data however, it is not possible to provide exact figures of women
to shy away from participating in the government’s effort to deliver health care to the public. Although data are not sufficient, it appears that women medical practitioners fare better in private practice. One indication is that among the privately-owned hospitals in the country from 1981-1982, about 24.4 percent were in the of hospitals where women administrators represent about 27.0 percent of the total.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Type</th>
<th>Total no. of Hospitals</th>
<th>Women as % of Hospital Administrators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Types</td>
<td>1,046</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e. Women NGOs as Deliverers of Health Care Services

Women NGOs have always been in the forefront of volunteer service. They are in social welfare, education, sanitation, livelihood and health delivery complementing government’s social development efforts.

The Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP) is one such NGO which has been reaching out to the community through its affiliates. Through its Commission on Health and Nutrition, CAWP promotes the active involvement of women in health and nutrition and improves the capabilities of women to contribute more effectively to health development through Primary Health Care (PHC).

The activities of the Commission include among others the conduct of health and nutrition seminars and workshops in depressed barangays, with emphasis on PHC, free dental, medical and related services for instance through the Philippine Medical Women’s Association, Women Dentist Association of the Philippines and the other Commission members. Services of these NGOs are not strictly for women for they include men and children as well, although there are programs which are specifically for mothers such as maternity and family planning clinics, day care centers, and breastfeeding campaigns and seminars. Due to lack of data however, it is not possible to provide exact figures of women
### Field Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field Workers</th>
<th>No. of Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barangay Health Workers</td>
<td>171,756</td>
<td>214,696</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botica sa Barangay Aides</td>
<td>8,725</td>
<td>10,387</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barangay Nutrition Scholars</td>
<td>10,654</td>
<td>11,638</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barangay Service Point Officers</td>
<td>48,610</td>
<td>51,169</td>
<td>95.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>178,766</strong></td>
<td><strong>286,090</strong></td>
<td><strong>84.17</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d. Hospital Administration

The administration of government-owned hospitals is also basically in the hands of men. Data from 1981-1982 show that women administrators in all types of hospitals in all regions comprised at most 16 percent. Also, the higher the hospital category, the smaller the probability of its being run by a woman administrator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Type</th>
<th>No. of Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ALL TYPES</strong></td>
<td><strong>78</strong></td>
<td><strong>481</strong></td>
<td><strong>16.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the foregoing discussions, it appears that the nature of women’s participation in health care tends to be concentrated in the work force and in the rural areas rather than in the decision-making areas. While the higher positions in the central office are more equitably distributed between men and women, the regional positions are still largely handled by men.

The intentional or unintentional assignment of the higher paying jobs to the men also brings to focus the working conditions in which women find themselves. While the men frequently stay in their offices, women get exposed to all kinds of difficulties and dangers in the rural areas and urban slums (transportation, peace and order, poverty, etc.) while discharging their duties as barangay health workers, nutrition scholars or botica sa barangay aides.

It seems difficult to explain the lopsided distribution by sex of health personnel especially when one considers the fact that in terms of preparation there is no observed male-preponderance in
the different medical and allied medical courses. For instance, data from the Professional Regulations Commission (PRC) on cumulative number of successful medical board examinees indicate that the proportion of women increased from 48.4 percent (1975-1979) to about 50 percent (1980-1983). As of 1983, the percentage of women in the various medical and allied medical professions as registered with the PRC (cumulated since 1975) is as follows:

![Percentage of Women in Medical and Allied Professions](image)

An interesting point along this line is the policy of the State University (UP-PGH Medical Center) in the admission of medical students where quota is split half and half so that no more female students than males were admitted. A former hospital director observed that if this quota system were not followed and grade became the criterion, the males would be severely outnumbered, as females usually had higher grades in the entrance examination. The present practice is therefore already an improvement over a previous policy when only 25 percent of the quota was given to females.

With this "restricted" opportunity to participate in higher levels of decision-making and consequently a more rewarding profession, those women who feel that they deserve better may tend
to shy away from participating in the government's effort to deliver health care to the public. Although data are not sufficient, it appears that women medical practitioners fare better in private practice. One indication is that among the privately-owned hospitals in the country from 1981-1982, about 24.4 percent were in the of hospitals where women administrators represent about 27.0 percent of the total.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Type</th>
<th>Total no. of Hospitals</th>
<th>Women as % of Hospital Administrators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,046</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e. Women NGOs as Deliverers of Health Care Services

Women NGOs have always been in the forefront of volunteer service. They are in social welfare, education, sanitation, livelihood and health delivery complementing government's social development efforts.

The Civic Assembly of Women of the Philippines (CAWP) is one such NGO which has been reaching out to the community through its affiliates. Through its Commission on Health and Nutrition, CAWP promotes the active involvement of women in health and nutrition and improves the capabilities of women to contribute more effectively to health development through Primary Health Care (PHC).

The activities of the Commission include among others the conduct of health and nutrition seminars and workshops in depressed barangays, with emphasis on PHC, free dental, medical and related services for instance through the Philippine Medical Women's Association, Women Dentist Association of the Philippines and the other Commission members. Services of these NGOs are not strictly for women for they include men and children as well, although there are programs which are specifically for mothers such as maternity and family planning clinics, day care centers, and breastfeeding campaigns and seminars. Due to lack of data however, it is not possible to provide exact figures of women
NGOs' services in terms of beneficiaries, equivalent cost of medicines and services given and such other variables required for an objective assessment of their contribution to the health and related services sector.

D. Changes in the Health Situation as They Relate to Women's Status and Roles

As the participation of women in public affairs, women's situation in health did not change significantly during the Decade. The developments in the health situation — that of women included — reflect the trends that the Philippines and other developing countries follow: gradual but steady improvement due to expansion in health services and increasing participation of the community and other agencies in the delivery of health services. How much is directly attributable to the Decade is not known. Suffice it to say that where the health of the general population improved, women's health is likely to move in the same direction. Thus, some of the changes in the health situation during the Decade are as follows:

1. General Improvement in the Health Situation

   During the past years, some progress was achieved in the health situation as for instance:

   a. Infant mortality rate went down from 82 to 58 per thousand population;

   b. The number of maternal deaths per 1000 live births decreased from 1.7 to 0.8;

   c. Life expectancy increased by 3.5 years and as in the past, women expect to outlive the men by some three years;

   d. Tuberculosis as a communicable disease and avitaminosis and other nutritional deficiency diseases are gradually being controlled although they still figure among the ten leading causes of mortality.

2. Professionalization of Traditional Midwives

   The Philippines is still predominantly rural and the traditional midwives (hilots) have always been a popular choice among the rural women basically because of the relatively cheaper fee that they collect for each childbirth. In 1979, about 44 percent of all births were attended by these traditional midwives. Cognizant of the fact that more than half of these (58% in 1983) have undergone training and more and more are expected to be reached,
these workers can continue to work with the other health professionals in the rural areas to reinforce government’s effort to control infant and maternal deaths.

3. Greater Participation of the Community in the Delivery of Health Services

Government efforts to involve the community in meeting health needs is manifested in its launching of the Primary Health Care Program on 6 September 1981. PHC is integrated into all health programs of the country primarily to mobilize communities to make them participate effectively in identifying and providing for their health needs through self-reliance and self-determination.

Of the 38,015 barangays targetted for initiation to PHC, 96 percent (36,371) were reached. A total of 214,696 Barangay Health Workers were trained and fielded to assist the 6,671,924 households in PHC, a ratio of about 31 households per BHW or roughly 6 BHWs per barangay considering that about 200 households comprise one barangay. It is worthwhile to note that about 80-85 percent of these BHWs are women.

Another indicator of the greater participation of the community in health programs is the increasing number of volunteer health personnel, government-or NGO-trained and fielded. For instance, in addition to the BHWs, there are thousands of Botica sa Barangay aides, Barangay Service Point Offices and Barangay Nutrition Scholars who assist the people in their health, nutrition and family planning needs. Women and other NGOs have also been giving free medical, dental and nutritional services to supplement government health programs.

Community based health programs (CBHPs) were initiated in the midseventies by medical and nursing students, medical professionals and Catholic nuns who formed mobile health team to train community health workers using an integrated approach consisting of preventive, promotive, curative and rehabilitative services.

CBHP combines traditional medicine with Western medicine and medicinal plants, therapeutic massage, acupressure and acupuncture are used side by side with anti TB drugs. Hilots and herbolarios (herbal doctors) are also enjoined in health training seminars.

Needless to say, greater involvement of more people could lead to improvements in the health of the population — men and women alike.
4. New Approaches to Family Planning Motivational Strategies

Government approach to family planning in the past concentrated on the methods of regulating the number of children with clinic-based dissemination of family planning instructions. In the recent years, this shifted to a community based-approach with greater participation from the people, with due respect for their religious beliefs and more emphasis on family welfare particularly that of the mother and the child’s. And whereas in the past, the women were the focus of family planning campaigns, men have started to be included in the targets, and information about male-specific methods together with the other female-specific methods is disseminated. Data from POPCOM indicate that condom, a male-specific method comprised 32 percent on the average of all methods used except sterilization from 1977 to 1982. Family planning workers, however, have to exert greater efforts to motivate men towards the sterilization method as it is known to be less costly and less risky for them than for women. During the same period, only about five percent of those who underwent sterilization were men.

Innovations have also been introduced by way of providing women alternatives to childbearing. Through this approach, family planning is integrated into other training areas, — economic, social, leadership. Thus, women acquire skills of production, become managers of small business and imbibe organizational skills. It is believed that by alerting the women of what they could do, they will remain absorbed in these activities, so that they themselves would eventually start to consider limiting their number of children.

E. Women and Health-Related Problems and Issues

Although some improvements in the health situation of the country have been noted, Filipinos generally are in poor health. A WHO report indicates that the Philippines in 1980 had the highest incidence of tuberculosis, schistosomiasis and polio; it was the highest in the world for whooping cough, diphtheria and rabies; and was one of the highest for leprosy. Pneumonias and other preventable diseases continue to take the most number of lives and nutritional deficiency diseases remain among the ten leading causes of death.

1. Country’s Poor Economic Situation

A population’s state of health is directly related to the country’s economy particularly the amount that it allocates to health welfare.

---

36 Ibon facts and figures, 15 December 1980.
The total budget alloted to health in 1985 is a very small ₱2.4 billion, or about 4.16 percent of the total appropriation, which is down by about 0.1 percent from its share of 4.25 percent (2.3b) in 1984.

Concomitant to such a small budget is a string of other problems affecting the ministry which tend to negatively affect its performance.

Salaries of government professionals like doctors, dentists and nurses continue to be far below what their counterparts in private practice earn. Because of the high investments in medical training, professionals in this field either go abroad or concentrate in private practice.

Thus, one report\(^\text{39}\) stated that 68 percent of the country’s total number of doctors work abroad, making the Philippines the second leading exporter of doctors. The same source also mentioned that only 10 percent of the Filipinos in rural areas (about 63 percent of total population) benefit from the services of medical doctors because only 3 percent of the 15,000 physicians are in public health.

Small budgetary outlay and large costs of health maintenance severely affect the quality of health care, the extent of outreach and the adequacy of health facilities. NEDA\(^\text{40}\) in 1980 reported that 7 out of 10 emergency hospitals, 30 percent of the 327 licensed general hospitals and 80 percent of all medical centers were substandard. During the same year, 881 towns or more than 50 percent of all towns in the country did not have health centers.

Hospital beds for every 10,000 population hardly improved between 1972 and 1982 (11.5 to 13.9), despite the fact that the total number of hospital beds in government hospitals increased by as much as 42 percent or from 22,325 in 1972 to 38,573 in 1982. Additional 106 hospitals were established during the same period. An aggravating situation is that majority of these hospitals are concentrated in the urban centers.

The implications of such a poor state of affairs in public health resources and facilities to the population in general and the women in particular are therefore far-reaching. Poor health affects economic productivity, threatens children’s normal mental development and among the pregnant and lactating mothers, increases the risks to physical and mental retardation in infants, and weakens the mother’s general body resistance which could even endanger her life.

Poverty also depresses health and nutritional status of the population due to inadequate nutrition for each family member and people’s inability to avail of medicines and medical services particularly from

---


\(^{40}\) Ibon, op. cit.
private hospitals and practitioners. For the Philippines, this is evident in the prevalence of deaths due to avitaminosis and other nutritional deficiency-related diseases and those diseases which are preventable like TB and pneumonia. Some observations point to the fact that the mother's health suffers more seriously in cases of food shortage because she normally gets only the left-overs of the children and any meagre food intake is still shared with her baby if she is pregnant or lactating.

2. Women's Dual Roles

Data reveal the significant roles women play in health welfare and maintenance. They comprise 66 percent of all health workers and occupy 54 percent of the high positions in the central office. In the regional areas, they form the bulk of the field workers both paid and volunteer. At the same time, women are expected to maintain their family’s and their own health.

Women continue to play their roles as wives and mothers. Despite their being involved in paid or volunteer work they still supervise or handle household chores. In the process, their health as family members suffers. Women are still the anchor of Filipino homes and threats to their health and life endanger the general welfare of families.

3. Philippines' Stand on Breastfeeding

Nature endowed mothers with the capacity to bear and nourish their babies. Breastmilk is universally accepted as the best infant food and breastfed infants are known to be less prone to allergies, infections and diseases. Breastfeeding also enhances the bond that ties mother and child in affection and feelings of security.

The Philippines is a signatory to the International Code of Marketing of Breastmilk Substitutes but it has yet to approve its National Code. Such a delay strengthens the position in the country's economy of those companies which manufacture infant food and milk. The result is stronger preference by mothers (estimated to be 30% in 1978) of commercial brands or shortened breastfeeding period (about 3 months). The disadvantage of this practice lies not so much in the greater expense at less benefit to health but in the danger posed by some unscrupulous milk producers who use substandard raw materials in their production to magnify their profits. Poor families who can afford only the cheaper brands (and again which constitute the majority) are more prone to these dangers.

This also brings to attention the legislation concerning maternity leave benefits. Whereas before mothers could go on maternity leave for
12 weeks with 60 percent of their salaries paid to them, the present legislation authorizes only 6 weeks leave at 100 percent pay. The monetary advantage is provided at the cost of lesser possibilities or shortened period of breastfeeding for working mothers. It also shortened the period of mother and child union which is very critical in the early stages of infancy. Also, maternity leave maybe availed of only up to the fourth delivery.

Another related issue is the fact that the Medicare program is not applicable to normal deliveries but only those who underwent caesarian operation, in which case, the amount granted is very small.

Inability to avail of this assistance program or the meagerness of the amount extended puts further strain on the families' resources. Under this circumstances, it is the mother and children who are likely to be affected.

4. The Family Planning Program

Between 1975 and 1980, the Philippine population grew at an average rate of 2.71 per year. This means that more than six million people were added to the population in five years. Rapid population growth takes a heavy toll on the country's resources because of the need to feed, house, nurse, educate, etc. the increments to the population.

The role of family planning in fertility reduction is very critical. Hence, the Philippine population program has introduced many innovations in its approach to population control like providing alternatives to child-bearing, training of more field workers, over-the-counter, dispensing of some methods and massive information—education campaigns.

On the other hand, parents adhere to certain values and beliefs e.g., value of children, Catholic devotion, which run counter to what the government is espousing. Similarly, conditions in the rural areas such as poverty and illiteracy make it doubly difficult for family planning workers to create an impact on the people despite the variety in their approaches.

F. Forward Looking Strategies

To answer the aforecited problems and issues in the health sector, the following current and forward-looking strategies are proposed:

1. The present economic crisis is expected to be felt for quite some time. It is essential that programs along research and development of indigenous and cheaper substitutes for medicines, food products and technology should be given due
support and encouragement. Generation of adequate health information for policy and public awareness should be made available regularly. A health information network would be very valuable for this purpose.

2. Training and mobilizing volunteer workers as in the case of Barangay Health Workers, Barangay Nutrition Scholars and women NGOs and other groups could help beat the rising cost of medical services as well as enhance community awareness on health and nutritional practices. Through the PHC, the government can intensify its training of other paraprofessionals.

3. Government, with the assistance of the private sector should continually adopt new strategies for motivating families to avail of family planning methods. As the usual procedures involve mostly women motivating other women, men motivating other men should be explored to intensify use of male-specific methods.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Baltazar, A.C. "Some practical indicators and their use for nutritional assessment Phase I — Weight changes among lactating mothers." Food and Nutrition Research Institute, 1979.


Castillo, G.T. "Characteristics of the Philippine educational system and the case for nonformal education." Southeast Asian Spectrum. 3(1).


. 29th Anniversary Souvenir Program, 1975.


De la Torre, V. "Help from the 'agencia'." Panorama, Vol. 12 (31), July 31, 1983.


Ignacio, S.E. "Factors related to mother's choice of infant feeding method." Abstract of research studies compiled and entitled "Inventory of Completed Health Researches 1980-1984" by Philippine Council for Health Research and Development. NSTA.

Illo, J.F.I. "Involvement by choice. The Role of Women in development." Final report submitted to USAID (Manila) by the Social Survey Research Unit (Naga City), Institute of Philippine Culture, 1977.


Martinez-Esquillo, N. "Conjugal interaction and fertility behavior among the Filipino urban working class." Quezon City: Institute of Philippine Culture, Ateneo de Manila University, (Mimeographed) 1976.


- (compiler and editor) Philippine Reply to the UN Questionnaire to Governments. (World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, 1976-1985).

The Role of Women in the Philippines, n.d.


UN International Women's Year Bulletin. 1974 (October).

