

Report No: ACS7985

Republic of the Philippines

Gender and Development Mainstreaming

Country Gender Assessment 2012, Philippines

March 2014

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Country Gender Assessment 2012 Philippines

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The preparation of the Country Gender Assessment (CGA) 2012 was led by World Bank Office in Manila with substantial guidance from the various members of the Overseas Development Assistance Gender and Development Network (ODA-GAD). Mr. Jaime Antonio Jr. (consultant) was the lead writer.

The Philippine Commission on Women, led by Chairperson Remedios Rikken and Executive Director Emmeline Verzosa, provided substantial guidance from the concept stage of the CGA preparation as well as co-organized the multi-stakeholder consultations. The following members of the ODA-GAD Network provided data, reports and other inputs as well as comments to the draft CGA: Asian Development Bank (ADB); Embassy of Spain - Agency for International Cooperation for Development (AECID); Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID); Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA); Delegation of the European Union to the Philippines; Deutsche Gesellschaft fuer Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ); United States Agency for International Development (USAID); International Labour Organization (ILO); Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS); United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA); United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF); United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (UN Women) Philippines Project Office; World Health Organization (WHO); National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA). They also participated assisted in the multi-stakeholder consultations. Special appreciation for Myrna Jarillas (CIDA) as convenor of the ODA-GAD Network. Helena Carlsson Rex (Senior Social Development Specialist and EAP Gender Coordinator of WB) served as peer reviewer and provided invaluable insights and comments to the draft report.

Asian Development Bank supported the conduct of the national multi-stakeholders consultations through the facilitation of Sonomi Tanaka (Lead Social and Development Specialist) and Uzma Hoque (Senior Social Development Specialist). AusAID, through the facilitation and support of Badette Cariaga, conducted a rapid study on the gender dimension of disability. The World Bank also conducted an FGD with representatives of the LGBT to understand emerging gender-base violence.

With deep appreciation, the team acknowledges the more than 100 representatives of national government, non-government organizations, and women's organizations from around the country who shared their views, experiences, and case studies.

Although there were extensive consultations for the CGA preparations, the views expressed in this book are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views and policies of World Bank, its Board of Governors or the governments they represent or the any of the ODA-GAD Network. The term "country" does not imply any judgment by the authors or the organizations.

Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AECID	Embassy of Spain - Agency for International Cooperation for Development
ANC	Antenatal Care
ARMM	Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
BDR	Benefit delivery ratio
BLES	Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics
BSP	Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas (Central Bank of the Philippines)
CALABARZON	Cavite-Laguna-Batangas-Rizal-Quezon Economic Zone
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGA	Country Gender Assessment
CHR	Commission on Human Rights
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
DOH	Department of Health
DOLE	Department of Labor and Employment
EO	Executive Order
EU	Delegation of the European Union to the Philippines
FHS	Family Health Survey
FP	Family Planning
GAD	Gender and Development
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women Empowerment
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft fuer Internationale Zusammenarbeit
HDI	Human Development Index
HRM	Human Resources Management
HUDCC	Housing and Urban Development Coordinating Council
ILO	International Labour Organization / International Labour Office
ISS	Informal Sector Survey
JCGA	Joint Country Gender Assessment
KRA	Key Result Area
LFS	Labor Force Survey
LGBT	Lesbians, gays, bisexuals and transsexuals persons
MCW	Magna Carta of Women (Republic Act 9710)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MMDA	Metro Manila Development Authority
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
NDHS	National Demographic and Health Survey
NEDA	National Economic and Development Authority
NGO	Non Government Organization

NHA	National Housing Authority
NHIP	National Health Insurance Program
NSCB	National Statistical Coordination Board
NSO	National Statistical Office
NUDHF	National Urban Development and Housing Framework
ODA	Overseas Development Assistance
OFW	Overseas Filipino Worker
PCW	Philippine Commission on Women
PESO	Public Employment Service Office
PHIC	Philippine Health Insurance Corporation
PLEP	Philippine Labor and Employment Plan
PLHIV	People living with HIV
PNAC	Philippine National AIDS Council
PNHA	Philippine National Health Accounts
PPGD 1995 - 2025	Philippine Plan for Gender Responsive Development 1995 - 2005
RA	Republic Act
UDHA	Urban Development and Housing Act
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAWC	Violence Against Women and Children
WAGI	Women and Gender Institute
WB	World Bank
WDR	World Development Report
WHO	World Health Organization

Preface

This report examines the state of gender equality in the Philippines, highlighting both recent progress and pending challenges. It clarifies the relationship between gender equality and development and outlines an agenda for public action to further promote gender equality in the Philippines.

This report was in part inspired by and an attempt to localize the *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development*. Its envisioned contribution is distinct in several ways: first, the analysis in the report focuses specifically on those issues and policy challenges that are most pertinent to the Philippines. Second, the report examines the gender implications of several key emerging trends in the country: labour migration, reproductive health, population aging and VAWC. These trends have important gender dimensions that are not commonly recognized by policy makers, but will generate a distinctive set of challenges for promoting opportunities and managing gender-specific risks. Third, by focusing in detail on gender, development, and public policy, this report aims to contribute significantly to the development of basic indicators and analysis on gender, development, and public policy that have not been available previously. The report presents key progress, challenges, conclusions and policy recommendations.

Introduction

Just as development means less poverty or better access to justice, it also means fewer gaps in well-being between males and females. Women's empowerment and gender equality are development objectives in their own right, as embodied in the Millennium Development Goals. It is espoused as well in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), ratified by the Philippines in 1981; the convention established a comprehensive framework for the advancement of women and has been mainstreamed in the Magna Carta of Women, RA 9710.

Gender equality is *smart economics*: it can enhance economic efficiency and improve other development outcomes in three ways: first, removing barriers that prevent women from having the same access as men to education, economic opportunities, and productive inputs can generate broad productivity gains. Second, improving women's absolute and relative status contribute to many other development outcomes, including those for their children. Third, leveling the playing field—where women and men have equal chances to become socially and politically active, make decisions, and shape policies—is likely to lead to more representative, and more inclusive, institutions and policy choices and thus to a better development path.

Women in wage employment was placed at 41.9 percent in 2009 (DOLE, 2011 p.11), 50 percent of workers in agriculture are women (BLES, 2008-2010), and more than half of the country's university students are women¹. All these considered, gender equality can have large impacts on productivity for the Philippines. Worker productivity in the Philippines and the rest of the East Asia and the Pacific region has the potential of expanding by 18 percent if women are given wider space and equal opportunities with men. Presently, Filipino women only get 76 percent of what men earn and women farmers lack security of land tenure, as they do in most parts of rural Philippines, the result of which is lower access to credit as well as to inputs; inefficient land use thus reducing yields. (World Bank 2012).

For the economy to be functioning at its optimum, women's skills and talents should be engaged in activities that make the best use of those abilities. But, as the stories of many women illustrate, this is not always the case. Women in the Philippines are more likely to work in small firms, the informal sector and lower-paid sectors.

In countries and regions with rapidly aging populations, like China and Europe and Central Asia, encouraging women to enter and remain in the labor force can help dampen the adverse impact of shrinking working-age populations. Although in the Philippines, traditional and cultural mindset associated with the aging population will mean expanding the care economy to accommodate the care needs of senior citizens, as oppose to finding innovative means to make them productive and part of the labor force even in their senior years.

The World Development Report (WDR) 2012 notes that greater control over household resources by women leads to more investment in children's human capital, with dynamic positive effects on economic growth and in today's globalized world, countries that reduce gender-based inequalities,

¹ Source: CHED

especially in secondary and tertiary education and in economic participation, will have a clear advantage over those that delay action.

The WDR 2012 also state that women’s lack of agency—as seen in domestic violence—has consequences for their children’s cognitive behaviors and health as adults. Medical research from developed countries has established a link between exposure to domestic violence as a child and health problems as an adult—men and women who experienced violence in the home as children are two to three times more likely to suffer from cancer, a stroke, or cardiovascular problems, and five to ten times more likely to use alcohol or illegal drugs than those who did not (World Bank, 2012). Numerous studies also document how experiencing violence between parents as a child is a risk factor for women experiencing violence from their own partners as adults, and for men perpetrating violence against their partners (World Bank, 2012).

Agency is about one’s ability to make choices— and to transform them into desired actions and outcomes. Across all countries and cultures, there are differences between men’s and women’s ability to make these choices, usually to women’s disadvantage. These gendered differences matter for women’s well-being but also for a whole set of outcomes for their families and for society in general. Women’s agency influences their ability to build their human capital and take up economic opportunities. Women’s agency also matters for the welfare of their children.

Conversely, when women and men do not have equal chances to be socially and politically active and to influence laws, politics, and policy making, institutions and policies are more likely to systematically favor the interests of those with more influence. Institutional constraints and market failures that feed gender inequalities are less likely to be addressed and corrected, leading to their persistence. As highlighted in the WDR 2012, an “inequality trap” may thus emerge, preventing generations of women from getting educated and taking up economic opportunities on a par with men, reducing their ability to make informed choices and to realize their potential as individuals (World Bank, 2012).

Socio Economic Overview of the Philippines

- 1. Geography.** The Philippines is a diverse and culturally rich country of some 7, 100 islands which are clustered into three major islands (i.e., Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao). Located in the Pacific Rim of Southeast Asia, it entered middle-income country in 2010². While it is predominantly a Roman Catholic country, indigenous peoples groups and Moro peoples are spread all over the country, providing a rich diversity of cultural traditions and social practices. The country is administratively divided into 17 regions, 80 provinces, 143 cities, 1,491 municipalities, and 42,027 barangays³.
- 2. Population.** The Philippines is one of the most populous countries in the world, ranked number 12. Based on the 2010 Census on Population and Housing, current household population is at 94 million. The annual population growth rate was 1.9% for 2000–2010, down from 2.04% for 2000-2007. Children, youth and young adult (ages 0 – 29) make up a little more than half of the population. Median age for males is pegged at 22.9 years, while that for females is at 23.9 years. The voting-age population (18 years old and over) is 60.3 percent. Senior citizens (60 years old above) constitute 6.8 percent of the household population, females (55.8 percent) outnumbered the males (44.2 percent) (The Age and Sex Structure of the Philippine Population (Facts from the 2010 Census) 2012).

Age Group	Age	2010			2015		
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total		94,013,200	47,263,600	46,749,600	102,965,300	51,733,400	51,231,900
Children	0-4	10,984,800	5,619,400	5,365,400	11,386,600	5,828,500	5,558,100
	5-9	10,370,300	5,289,200	5,081,100	10,950,900	5,595,100	5,355,800
Adolescent and Youth ⁴	10-14	9,801,500	5,006,300	4,795,200	10,343,600	5,269,700	5,073,900
Core Youth ⁵	15-19	9,603,300	4,900,900	4,702,400	9,757,800	4,978,600	4,779,200
	20-24	8,857,500	4,478,600	4,378,900	9,544,900	4,865,300	4,679,600
	25-29	7,892,000	3,940,800	3,951,200	8,795,500	4,439,500	4,356,000
Adult	30-34	7,001,500	3,474,900	3,526,600	7,842,700	3,910,200	3,932,500
	35-39	6,008,400	3,013,200	2,995,200	6,942,200	3,439,600	3,502,600
	40-44	5,442,300	2,737,600	2,704,700	5,924,800	2,962,400	2,962,400
	45-49	4,702,100	2,376,700	2,325,400	5,330,100	2,669,800	2,660,300
	50-54	3,931,600	1,974,500	1,957,100	4,554,700	2,285,500	2,269,200
	55-59	3,050,800	1,521,500	1,529,300	3,747,900	1,860,500	1,887,400
Senior Citizens	60-64	2,307,800	1,122,800	1,185,000	2,843,700	1,392,700	1,451,000
	65-69	1,559,300	735,700	823,600	2,055,900	973,200	1,082,700
	70-74	1,189,400	533,700	655,700	1,305,700	593,200	712,500
	75-79	700,500	298,500	402,000	904,200	384,000	520,200
	80+	610,100	239,300	370,800	734,100	285,600	448,500

Source: NSCB. 2012. http://www.nscb.gov.ph/secstat/d_popnProj.asp
Age group segregation for CGA 2012

² The World Bank classifies middle income countries as those with per capita income of US\$1,000 to US\$10,000.

³ The Barangay (village) is the smallest political unit in the Philippines.

⁴ Republic Act 8044 definition and based on the classification of NYC as explained in the 2012-2016 Philippine Youth Development Plan. Page 12.

⁵ Ibid.

- 3. Politics.** The Philippines has a presidential-unitary system of government with some administrative functions devolved to its local government units. The country prides itself as being Asia's first democracy. However, more than a century after it gained independence, the country faces an uphill climb in consolidating its democratic institutions. Corruption and patronage-driven political economy discourage investor confidence and erode public trust in the Government⁶. Recent political analysis concludes the return of cronyism⁷. Political dynasties have become more evident. However, reforms are underway; the Platform of Government of President Benigno S. Aquino III is anchored on transformational leadership to effect change. The President's social contract with the Filipino people underscores his mission of being the *nation's first and most determined fighter of corruption*. The social contract also mentions gender equality, specifically *concern for gender disparities and shortfalls and the promotion of equal gender opportunity in all spheres of public policies and programs*⁸.
- 4. Economy.** In 2011, GDP per capita was at US\$ 2,346.00. Poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line (percent of population, 2009) is 26.5 percent. Table 2 provides a snapshot of selected socioeconomic indicators. Latest government data shows the economy at its most vibrant pace in decades. The country's growth, which is measured by the rise in the gross domestic product (GDP), is one of the strongest in the region. The economy is set to expand by 6 percent for 2013⁹. Household consumption which currently amounts to roughly 70 percent of GDP is set to expand to 5.1 percent and is expected to contribute a little under 4 percent to overall economic growth. Analysis shows that household consumption will be underpinned by moderate global growth, through remittances from overseas labour and continued government transfers¹⁰.

Table 2. The Philippines at a Glance - Selected Socioeconomic Indicators			
Indicator	Estimate	Reference year	Source
GDP per capita (US\$, current prices)	2,346	2011	NSCB; BSP
GDP growth rate (%)	3.7	2011	NSCB
Share of GDP, by sector (%)			
Agriculture	12.8	2011	NSCB
Industry	31.5	2011	NSCB
Services	55.7	2011	NSCB
Population (millions)	92.3	2010	NSO, 2010 Census of Population and Housing
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.9	2000-2010	NSO
	2.34	1990-2000	NSO
Poverty Incidence (% of population)	26.5	2009	NSCB
Note: US\$1 = Php average in 2011			
Source: World Development Indicators, World Bank			

⁶ ADB et.al. Paradox and Promises: Joint Country Gender Assessment 2008. Page 1.

⁷ Based on the conversation of Dr. Winnie Mosod and Former President Fidel V. Ramos in GMA 7 Walang Pasaway.

⁸ A Social Contract with the Filipino People: Platform of Government of President Benigno Aquino III

⁹ Economist Intelligence Unit 2012.

¹⁰ Ibid.

5. Poverty incidence. Poverty incidence steadily declined from 1991 to 2003, but rose again from 26.4 percent in 2006 to 26.5 percent in 2009. This increase in poverty occurred during a period when the economy grew by 5.4%. In 2003, there were 19.8 million poor Filipinos (a 24.9% poverty incidence) compared to 23.1 million in 2009 (a 26.5% poverty incidence). The actual number of poor people has increased. There were 3.3 million more poor people in 2009 than there were in 2003. As with most socioeconomic indicators in the Philippines, there are major regional disparities in poverty levels. Comparing poverty incidence to poverty magnitude paints a very different picture of these disparities. The list of the poorest provinces becomes quite different. Most of the provinces with the highest poverty incidence over 2003–2009 are in Mindanao, as well as some of provinces in the Visayas. There has been a substantial variance in the top 10 poorest provinces over this period, but one common feature is that they are mostly the provinces with relatively small populations¹¹. The top five poorest provinces over 2003–2009 in terms of poverty magnitude come from the Luzon and Visayas areas. These five areas account for nearly one fifth or 18 percent (based on 2009 figures) of all poor people in the Philippines.

The poverty incidence of families slightly decreased from 21.1 percent in 2006 to 20.9 percent in 2009, or from 26.4 percent of the population in 2006 to 26.5 percent in 2009. However, this improvement is limited, considering the slow growth of incomes, increase in household formation, natural disasters and inflationary pressures mainly from rising fuel and food prices. In 2009, more than a quarter of the 23.1 million poor Filipinos lived in four regions. While only one-third of poor Filipinos came from Mindanao, more than half of the provinces in the bottom cluster are located in the island group. This situation can be attributed to the armed conflict and unsettled peace and order situation.¹²

Income inequality remains high. The Gini concentration ratios showed only slight and slow improvements, from 0.4605 in 2003 to 0.4580 in 2006 and 0.4484 in 2009. The regions with the most unequally distributed income are Regions 7, 8, 9, 10 and 13 (CARAGA), as these regions have Gini ratios higher than 0.45.¹³

Table 3. Poverty Trends				
Poverty Indicator	1991	2003	2006	2009
Number of poor people (millions)	na	19.8	22.2	23.1
Number of poor families (millions)	na	3.3	3.7	3.9
Poverty incidence, population (%)	33.1	24.9	26.4	26.5
Poverty incidence, families (%)	28.3	20.0	21.1	20.9
Source: NSCB				
na = not available				
Note: In February 2012, the government revised the methodology for estimating poverty in the Philippines. Comparable estimates using this new methodology are currently available only for 1991, 2003, 2006, and 2009.				

¹¹ Note that in the 2008 JCGA, the Provinces of Ifugao and Apayao from the Cordillera region of Luzon belonged to the 5 poorest provinces.

¹² Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016. Chapter 8. Page 233.

¹³ Ibid.

- 6. Simple Literacy Rate (SLR) and Functional Literacy Rate (FLR).** Based on 2008 data, the Simple Literacy Rate for females stand at 96.1 percent and 95.1 percent for males¹⁴. And the Functional Literacy Rate for females stands at 88.7 percent and 84.2 percent for males¹⁵. Women are ahead by 1 percentage point in terms of SLR and significantly, 4.5 percentage points for FLR which assumes a higher level of literacy compared to men. FLR are lifelong literacy skills that can translate to higher survival skills necessary, for instance, in the conduct of women's reproductive roles such as dispensing remedies at home or community leadership and volunteering.

Data compiled by UNICEF show that the literacy rate among children and young people aged 15-24 years old from 2005-2010 is higher for females, at 98 percent, and 97 percent for males (PLAN;WAGI, 2012 p.21).

- 7. The MDG.** According to the Philippine Development Plan (PDP): 2011-2016, the Philippines is on track in pursuing the MDGs on poverty, gender equality, child health, disease control and sanitation¹⁶. However, the Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the MDG would point to "a low probability of achieving the targets for universal primary education, improving maternal mortality, and increasing access to reproductive health care by 2015."¹⁷ This same issues has been pointed out in the 2008 JCGA¹⁸ and based on 2001 data, would show very little progress in relation to the 2015 target. Please Annex 1 for details regarding MDG status.
- 8. Labour and employment.** From 2008 to 2010, employment grew at slow pace on the average at 2.4 percent (1.6 in 2008; 2.9 in 2009; 2.8 in 2010)¹⁹, which was not consistent with the steady growth in GDP. Employment data for 2010 showed that more than half (51.8%) of the employed were in the services sector. The share of agriculture, forestry and fishing sector stood at 33.2 percent while that of industry was 15.0 percent. In the same year, the biggest employment contribution came from agriculture, hunting and forestry (29.1%); whole sale and retail trade (19.5%); manufacturing (8.4%); and transport, storage and communication (7.6%). The smallest shares were attributed to mining and quarrying (0.6%); electricity, gas and water (0.4%); financial intermediation (1.1%); and health and social work (1.2%)²⁰.

Employment has shifted from agriculture to services²¹. Labour force participation has remained stable for the last decade²². Unemployment levels remained unchanged (7.4% in 2010) and

¹⁴ NSCB. 2008

¹⁵ NSCB. 2008

¹⁶ Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016, Chapter 8, page 232.

¹⁷ Ibid, p.26

¹⁸ Paradox and Promise in the Philippines, A Joint Country Gender Assessment (2008) by Asian Development Bank, Canadian International Development Agency, European Commission, National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, United Nations Children's Fund, United Nations Development Fund for Women, United Nations Population Fund

¹⁹ DOLE. 2011. The Philippine Labor and Employment Plan 2011 – 2016.

²⁰ DOLE. 2011. Philippines Labor and Employment Plan 2011-2016. Page 5.

²¹ ILO. 2012. Decent Work Country Profile: Philippines. International Labour Office. Geneva: ILO, 2012.

²² Ibid.

disproportionately affect the youth and the more educated²³. A quarter of young people (25%) remain both out of work and out of training and education²⁴.

According to ILO's Decent Work Country Profile, gains in gender equality have been uneven. Occupational segregation (by sex) is high, as is gender gap in some occupations.²⁵ Growth in wage employment has been minimal and 15 percent of the employed are in precarious work²⁶. The Decent Work Country Profile also states that more than 4 in 10 workers are in vulnerable employment (sum of unpaid family workers and own-account workers as a percentage of total employment)²⁷. They are the least likely to have formal work arrangements, are the least likely to have social protection and safety nets to guard against economic shocks, and often are incapable of generating sufficient savings to offset these shocks.²⁸

Despite Philippines' recent robust economic growth, unemployment rates for men and women remain high with young women experiencing higher unemployment rates than younger men, indicative of "jobless growth". This trend indicates that the recent growth in the Philippines economy was weak on job creation to compensate for the loss of jobs in agriculture and industry, and meet new demands in the labour market. This means that the economy is unable to effectively promote inclusive growth that will benefit women (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012).

9. **Budgets for basic services.** The share of social services to GDP has substantially increased to 6.1 percent in 2012 and at comparable rate with that in 2000. The 2008 Joint Country Gender Assessment (JCGA) observed that the budgets for health and education are below international standards. The WHO benchmark for health expenditure in developing countries like the Philippines should at least be 5 percent of GDP, while UNESCO prescribes a standard of 6 percent of gross national product for investments in education alone. Increase in the allocation for social services will create jobs and generate livelihood opportunities for local women who mostly participate in delivering basic services at the community level and can increase money for discretionary spending, which can come useful during emergency or disaster occurrences. However, increasing allocations for social services can also affect mandated expenditures, such as the wage bill- salaries of government workers where 58.7 percent are women, interest payments for loans on poverty alleviation and social services infrastructures, and local government unit transfers accounts.
10. **GAD Planning and Budgeting.** The Philippine GAD Budget Policy responds to two (2) gender budget categories: (i) ODA-funded programs and projects and; (ii) the domestic budget that intends to finance GAD mainstreaming in Philippine bureaucracy. The policy is expected to influence how the total budget of government agencies is allocated and spent (Jeanne Frances I. Illo 2010).

The Department of Budget and Management (DBM) issued annual budget circulars since 1997 that support implementation of GAD budgets at the local level. The 2012 local budget circular on internal revenue allotment requires agencies to apply a minimum of 5% of the funds for a project to address gender issues. In 2001, the Philippine Commission on Women or PCW (then NCRFW), Department of

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Decent work country profile: Philippines. International Labour Office. Geneva ILO. 2012.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development. 2011. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

the Interior and Local Government (DILG), and DBM Management issued a joint memorandum circular to all local government units (LGUs) containing guidelines for integrating GAD in the local planning and budgeting system. This included detailed instructions on how to formulate a GAD plan and budget and spelled out monitoring and reporting obligations. The local budget memorandum of June 2007 also required LGUs to undertake GAD planning in the normal course developing their programs, activities, and projects for the 2008 financial year. LGUs report having mixed experiences in GAD planning and budgeting. Common complaints are technical difficulties and political issues in trying to allocate funds.

Budget calls continue to provide guidelines for the preparation of the GAD budget and the process seems to be adhered to by a majority of government agencies and offices that submitted their GAD budgets, at least for 2007 and 2008 (68 percent and 65 percent, respectively) (Jeanne Frances I. Illo 2010). This budget call have been reiterated by the PCW through its Memorandum Circular No. 2012-01

11. Policy Environment for Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment. Numerous laws have been institutionalized to remove barriers that impede women and girls access to their rights in terms of productive capital, justice, economic and participation in development. Gender equality and the institutional empowerment of women can be traced backed to 1975 with the establishment of the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW). With the passage of RA 9710 in 2010 (Magna Carta of Women), NCRFW was re-named as the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW).

Earlier progress from previous administrations has been driven by significant policy actions such as the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development (PPGD 1995-2025) formulated under the administration of President Corazon Cojuangco Aquino. The PPGD 1995-2025 is the 30-year plan which carries the long term vision of women’s empowerment and gender equality of the Philippines and mandates the crafting of time-bounded framework plans for women. Sweeping legislative changes took place in the 1980s and 1990s recognizing gender equality across a wide array of domains. The 1987 constitution reinforced earlier constitutions by giving added emphasis to the notion of gender equality. The Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Law of 1988 assured equal rights to ownership of land. And a 1989 act amended the Labor Code to protect women from discrimination in hiring and pay (World Bank, 2012).

In 1996, GAD budget policy was introduced and full representation of women in the NAPC was institutionalized. The first Framework Plan for Women was formulated in 2004. The framework plan was implemented until 2010 and it was in 2009 that the hallmark law for women and gender equality (i.e., Republic Act 9710 or the Magna Carta of Women) was passed including the swift approval of its IRR. The MCW is a comprehensive women’s human rights law that seeks to eliminate discrimination against women by recognizing, protecting, fulfilling and promoting the rights of Filipino women, especially those in the marginalized sectors. The MCW also expanded the role of PCW as oversight for gender equality and designates the Commission on Human Rights as gender *ombud*.

Following the passage of RA 9710 Magna Carta of Women, significant milestone include RA 10151 *An Act Allowing the Employment of Night Workers in 2011*, the passage of RA 10354 *Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act of 2012* and RA 10361 *An Act Instituting Policies for the*

Protection and Welfare of Domestic Workers 2012. Please see Annex 2 for the list of significant laws and policies on gender equality.

The current administration sees gender equality as necessary to attain the goals of transformative leadership and inclusive growth. With the PDP 2011 - 2016, the government is ever more committed to gender equality. Consolidating the gains of previous administrations, recent policy gains are on women's reproductive health through the passage of RA 10354 *Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act of 2012*; and women's economic empowerment through the passage of RA 10151 *An Act Allowing the Employment of Night Workers 2011* and RA 10361 *An Act Instituting Policies for the Protection and Welfare of Domestic Workers 2012*. The present administration also see the formulation and the start of implementation of the *Women's Empowerment, Development and Gender Equality Plan 2013– 2016*, the 2nd Framework Plan for Women, and the second time slice plan of the PPGD 1995-2025.

Despite a robust policy for gender equality, there are still discriminatory provisions in some laws that are in force in relation to RA 9710 (MCW) and the CEDAW which the country ratified in 1981. These conflicting provisions can be found in the Family Code of the Philippines; Revised Penal Code; Rules of Court; Code of Muslim Personal Laws; and in RA 8353 and RA 10158. Advocates believe that there are laws that need to be passed to further gender equality in the country; for instance, versions of the Anti Discrimination and the Divorce Bills remain pending in congress.

CHAPTER 1

Endowments: Gender Equality and Human Development

Endowments is defined here as human capital and other productive assets that will allow women and men, boys and girls to live healthy and productive lives. This chapter focuses on housing and security of tenure, education and health, well-being of children, well-being of senior citizens, social protection, and land as productive asset.

12. Education. Education is one of the fundamental mechanisms by which women and men create better economic opportunities for themselves. For women, education leads to increased decision-making power in the household and in their communities.

The 1987 Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines (1987 Constitution) sets out that the education sector be given the highest budgetary allocation, however, the JCGA in 2008 observed that the sheer number of school enrollees each year compels the Government to prioritize expenditure on quantity, which leaves little room to improve quality. Access to education differs between males and females in terms of enrollment, survival and completion rates, literacy, academic level, and choice of discipline.

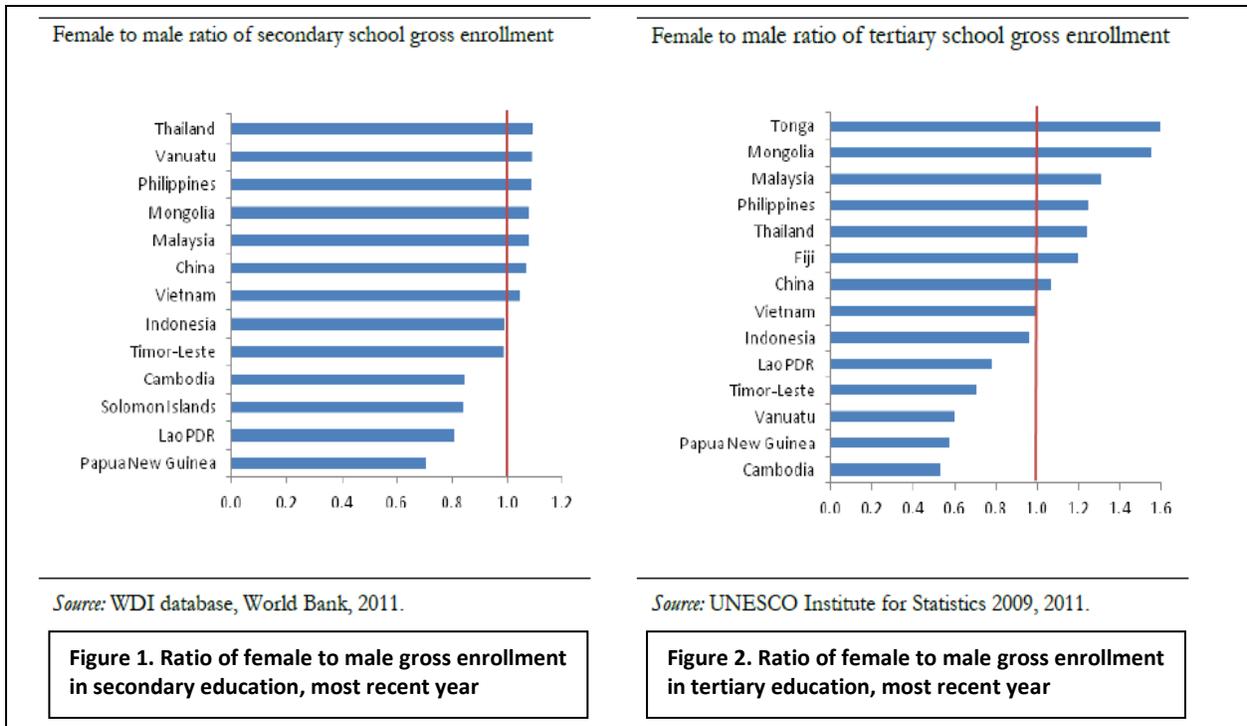
Interestingly, the gender gap in education in the Philippines tends to be the reverse of what is found in many other countries. Enrolment rates for girls and all other education indicators surpass those of boys. In pre-primary education, gross enrolment from 2007-2010 is higher for females, at 49 percent, compared to 48 percent for males. Similarly, enrolment in secondary school is also higher for females, at 66 percent, compared to 55 percent for males for the same period (PLAN;WAGI, 2012).

In 2009, the combined gross enrolment ratio for girls (at 83%) was higher than for boys (at 79%), with the gender parity index for elementary level for both public and private schools at 1.03. The gap was widest in the secondary level, with cohort survival at only 56.73 percent for boys and 67.80 for girls (PLAN;WAGI, 2012).

Net attendance also shows a higher percentage for females, at 70 percent, compared to 55 percent for males. Girls are also consistently performing better than boys in terms of elementary and high school enrolment, attendance, retention, and attainments, and are now beginning to perform better in mathematics and science, which were traditionally considered to be a male domain (PLAN;WAGI, 2012).

This trend may be attributed to how young boys are expected to drop out of school because they need to work in order to supplement the income of their parents or, in many instances, because they become the primary income earners. (PLAN;WAGI, 2012).

Although tuition is free in public schools, resources are still needed to pay for other expenses, such as books, school supplies, uniforms, etc. The lack of such resources in many families results in high drop-out rates in school and is often the cause of low motivation levels in boys (PLAN;WAGI, 2012).



On the other hand, in a study conducted by the Philippine Institute for Development Studies, 26 percent of girls surveyed indicated housekeeping as the reason for dropping out of school (PLAN;WAGI, 2012 p.23).

The NDHS for 2008, correlate education with decreased fertility rates; women who have gone to college have an average of 2.3 children, while women with only elementary education have 4.5 children²⁹ and women with high school and college education are much more likely to delay childbearing than women with only elementary education³⁰

The NDHS 2008 had the following major findings:

- One-third of women age 15–49 have gone to college.
- More than 90% have completed at least elementary school.
- Women living in urban areas, especially those in the National Capital Region, are most likely to have attended college.
- Education among women is increasing over time.
- More than 40% of women age 20–24 have attended college compared to only 32% of women age 45–49.
- Almost all (97%) Filipino women are literate³¹.

Despite the increase in women’s education rates and completion, they continue to participate in the areas that women are traditionally occupied in reflecting continued systemic segregation in education. At the tertiary level, a pattern of gender stereotyping in the chosen area of study persists. Women continue to choose fields that perpetuate their socially ascribed roles. They

²⁹ NDHS, NSO. 2008. Page 3.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ NDHS. 2008. Page 2.

dominate the education, medical, and allied fields, and business administration. On the other hand, very few women take engineering and technology courses (see Table 5).

The JCGA 2008 noted that a higher percentage of women pass the board examinations in criminology, fisheries technology, forestry, geodetic engineering, geology, mechanical engineering, metallurgical engineering, mining engineering, naval architecture, marine engineering, electrical engineering, and sanitary engineering (JCGA 2008). However, the GLMS points that increase in education levels of Philippine women does not necessarily contribute to equal opportunity in the labour market because women remain concentrated in their traditional field of study such as nursing, hotel and catering, and are underrepresented in areas such as law, information technology, engineering, agriculture and architecture. These gender differences in the field of study contribute to the occupational and industrial segregation by sex. This means that unless Philippine women branch out of their traditional education fields, the inefficiencies in the allocation of labour in the economy will remain (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012; ADB GLMS).

Table 5. Higher Education Enrollment and Graduates by Discipline Group and Gender (Public + Private), Academic Year AY 2005/06 - AY 2009/10			
Discipline Group	Male	Female	TOTAL
GENERAL	5,493	8,705	14,198
EDUCATION SCIENCE AND TEACHER TRAINING	91,678	260,368	352,046
FINE AND APPLIED ARTS	8,656	8,026	16,682
HUMANITIES	12,416	15,673	28,089
RELIGION AND THEOLOGY	5,469	1,474	6,943
SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES	26,315	50,231	76,546
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND RELATED	272,509	451,706	724,215
LAW AND JURISPRUDENCE	10,943	9,201	20,144
NATURAL SCIENCE	9,176	14,951	24,127
MATHEMATICS	5,060	7,094	12,154
IT-RELATED	181,218	167,244	348,462
MEDICAL AND ALLIED	134,030	306,305	440,335
TRADE, CRAFT AND INDUSTRIAL	2,192	1,641	3,833
ENGINEERING	256,473	88,189	344,662
ARCHITECTURAL AND TOWN-PLANNING	13,213	7,228	20,441
AGRICULTURAL, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES	31,299	28,393	59,692
HOME ECONOMICS	947	4,202	5,149
SERVICE TRADES	7,714	28,641	36,355
MASS COMMUNICATION AND DOCUMENTATION	8,451	22,543	30,994
OTHER DISCIPLINES	85,111	32,337	117,448
MARITIME	87,476	974	88,450
Total	1,255,839	1,515,126	2,770,965
Source: CHED			

13. Children and child labour. An NSO and ILO 2011 survey reported that there were 5.49 million working children, aged 5-17, in the Philippines. About 58.4 percent, or an estimated 3.21 million of them, were considered as child laborers.³² Of the 3.21 million, 2.99 million are in hazardous labor, while 217,000 are in other forms of child labor. Of the 2.99 million children in hazardous labor, 1.999 million are boys, while 994,000 are girls. Among girls in hazardous labor, 61.8 percent are unpaid workers in household-operated farm/business, while 20 percent are workers in private establishments. While child labor is predominantly a phenomenon of the male child, the latest figures showed the patent sex-segregation of work in the household and communities, which often continues until adulthood. In the agricultural sector, the girl child and other female members in the family usually assume the role of an unpaid worker, since the tasks assigned to them are deemed to be extensions of their roles in the household (PLAN;WAGI, 2012 p.28).

14. Health. The World Health Organization (WHO) cites notable accomplishments in the Philippine public health system, including the approach to the primary health care system and the devolution of health services to the local level. Nonetheless, there are major geographic inequities in access to health facilities and services. Local government budgets do not usually prioritize health. Despite the National Health Insurance Act of 1995 (RA 7875), users of health services still largely pay expenses out of pocket, a system that further burdens the poor.

Table 6. Selected Health Indicators			
		Year	Source/Notes
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 popn)	21.6	2008	NDHS 2008
Crude death rate (per 1,000 popn)	6	2010	WDI as of Nov 2012
Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births)	95-163	2010	NSCB MDG Watch
Total fertility rate (births per woman 15-49 y.o.)	3.3	2008	NDHS 2008
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	31	2008	NDHS 2008. For the 10-year period preceding the survey (approximately calendar years 1999-2008).
U5 mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	41	2008	NDHS 2008. For the 10-year period preceding the survey (approximately calendar years 1999-2008).
Share of women who gave birth in health facility	44	2008	NDHS 2008
Share of women who gave birth with assistance from health professional	62	2008	NDHS 2008
Contraceptive prevalence rate (share of women 15-49 y.o.)	52	2008	NDHS 2008
Share of access to safe water supply	85	2010	NSCB MDG Watch
Hospital bed (per 1,000 people)	0.5	2009	WDI as of Nov 2012
Health worker density (per 1,000 people)		2012	DOH
Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births)	99	2010	WDI as of Nov 2012

³² These figures significantly differ with that in the PDP 2011-2016 which puts the number of “economically active children (aged 5-17) to 2.1 million only and majority of those aged 15-17 are boys (DOLE BLES)

15. Reproductive Health. Fertility has gradually decreased over the past 20 years from 5.1 children per woman in 1983; to 3.5 in 2003; 3.3 in 2008 and 3.1 in 2010 (NSO;ICF Macro, 2009). Women in the Philippines have an average of 3.3 children; 2.8 in urban areas and 3.8 in rural areas (NSO and ICF Macro, 2009).

Fertility varies with mother’s education. Women who have gone to college have an average of 2.3 children, while women with only elementary education have 4.5 children. Similarly, fertility varies with women’s economic status as measured by the wealth index³³. The poorest women have more than twice as many children as women who live in the wealthiest households (5.2 versus 1.9 children per woman)³⁴.

Table 7. Total Fertility Rate							
	1970	1990	1993	1998	2003	2008	2010
Births per woman 15-49 y.o.	6.3	4.3	4.1	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.1

Sources: 1970, 1990, and 2010 from UN Data (data.un.org); 1993, 1998, 2008 and 2003 Philippines NDHS.

Government statistics on female adolescent pregnancies indicated that the total number teenage pregnancies rose 70% from 114,205 in 1999 to 195,662 in 2009³⁵ and is now the highest in the Southeast Asia. Furthermore, data from the Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Survey (YAFSS) for the period 1994-2002 indicated that the overall prevalence of pre-marital sexual activity increased from 18 percent to 23 percent. It is likewise observed that twice as many females than males experienced reproductive health (RH) problems. It is also noted that there was an increase in serious RH problems among females as compared to males due to the increasing proportion of females engaging in sexual risk behaviors and the low level of contraceptive use. The 2006 FPS results also showed that 6.3 percent of women 15-19 years old had begun childbearing and majority of them were poor and from the rural areas. Other studies showed that teenage pregnancies accounted for 17 percent of induced abortion cases.³⁶

In the National Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS), 10% of women age 15–19 are already mothers or are pregnant with their first child³⁷. The 2008 NDHS also showed that the median age at first birth for all women is 25–49 is 23.2 years old³⁸ and women in urban areas have their first birth two years later than women in rural areas (24.2 years versus 22.2 years)³⁹. The NDHS also concludes that women with high school and college education are much more likely to delay childbearing than women with only elementary education⁴⁰.

³³ The NDHS 2008 calculated household wealth through household assets collected from DHS surveys—i.e., type of flooring; source of water; availability of electricity; possession of durable consumer goods. These are combined into a single wealth index. Households are then divided into five groups of equal size, or quintiles, based on each household’s relative standing on the wealth index.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ Philippine News Agency. “Teenage Pregnancies in the Philippines Rise 70-percent over 10 years-UNFPA”. <http://www.interaksyon.com/article/30434/teenage-pregnancies-in-philippines-rise-70-percent-over-10-years--unfpa> Accessed October 3, 2012.

³⁶ Source: http://www.undp.org.ph/?link=goal_5 accessed on November 12, 2012

³⁷ NDHS, NSO. 2008. Page 3.

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

The age at first marriage presented by the 2008 NDHS showed that 16 percent of women in the Philippines are married by age 18⁴¹. The median age at first marriage is 22.2 for women age 25–49⁴². Women in urban areas marry two years later than women in rural areas (23.2 years versus 21.0 years)⁴³. Women with more education marry later than those with less education⁴⁴.

According to the 2008 NDHS, the mean ideal family size (desired family size) for Filipino women is 2.8 children. Ideal family size varies by region, from a low of 2.6 in CALABARZON and the National Capital Region to a high of 5.1 in ARMM⁴⁵. Women with no education want the most children (5.0), while women with high school or college education want the fewest (2.7)⁴⁶.

Citing results of the 2008 NDHS, more than 90 percent of Filipino women receive at least some antenatal care (ANC) from a skilled provider, most commonly from a midwife (51%) or doctor (39%)⁴⁷. More than 85 percent of women received some ANC except in ARMM where only 47 percent of women received ANC⁴⁸. More than three-quarters of women had the recommended four or more ANC visits and 54 percent of women had antenatal care in the first trimester of pregnancy, as recommended. Further, the 2008 NDHS showed that 82 percent of women took iron tablets or syrup during their last pregnancy, and more than two-thirds of women (69%) who received ANC were informed of the signs of pregnancy complications. Three-quarters of Filipino births are protected against neonatal tetanus.

The 2008 NDHS on delivery and postnatal care reveals that less than half of births in the Philippines (44%) occur in health facilities—27 percent in the public sector and 18 percent in private sector facilities. Fifty-six (56%) percent of births occur at home. Home births are much more common in rural areas (70%) than urban areas (40%). Overall, 62 percent of births are delivered by a skilled provider (doctor, nurse, or midwife). Another 36 percent are assisted by a traditional birth attendant or *hilot*. Postnatal care helps prevent complications after childbirth. More than three-quarters of women received a postnatal checkup within two days of delivery. However, 9 percent of women did not receive any postnatal care within 41 days of delivery.

The 2011 FHS⁴⁹ results reveal that unmet need for family planning (FP) among married women in the Philippines remains high at 19.3 %, 10.5 % for birth spacing and 8.8 % for limiting births. In the 2006 Family Planning Survey, unmet need for FP⁵⁰ was 15.7 %, 8.4 % for spacing and 7.3 % for limiting births. Total unmet need for FP is substantially greater among women considered poor (25.8 percent) compared to non-poor women (16.6 %). In particular, 13.1 % of poor women as compared

⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ Ibid.

⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁷ NDHS, NSO. 2008. Page 8

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ The 2011 Family Health Survey is a nationally representative survey of about 53,000 households and 53,000 women of reproductive age (15-49 years old) which aims to collect data on fertility, family planning practice, maternal and child health, and maternal mortality. The 2011 FHS is a stand-alone survey and funded mainly by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

⁵⁰ Unmet need for FP refers to the proportion of currently married women who are not using any method of family planning but do not want any more children or prefer to space births.

to 9.4 % of non-poor women have unmet need for spacing, and 12.6 % of poor women as compared to 7.2 % of non-poor women have unmet need for limiting births.

Currently married women in ARMM have the highest unmet need for family planning (35.8 %), specifically for birth spacing (28.2 %). As expected, unmet need for FP decreases with woman's age, from 37.0 % among women age 15-19 to 7.8 % among women age 45-49. Unmet need for spacing is higher for younger women (under age 35), while unmet need for limiting births is higher for older women (aged 35-49). Unmet need also decreases with increasing education; it is highest for currently married women with no education at all (29.2 %) and lowest for those with college or higher education (17.6 %). Among women who had attained high school or higher level of education, unmet need for spacing births is higher than for limiting births.

Table 8. Contraceptive Prevalence rate (% of women aged 15-49)			
	1998	2003	2008
Modern method	32.8	38.5	41.5
Traditional method	27.2	27.3	31.3
Contraceptive prevalence rate	43.4	47.3	51.6
Sources: 2003, 2008 NDHS			

16. Maternal Mortality (MMR). The Philippines committed to lower the maternal mortality rate to 52 per 100,000 live births by 2015. However, the following MMR decline has slowed down considerably and appears to be the MDG that is the least likely to be achieved for the Philippines.

1993 – 209 deaths⁵¹
 1998 – 172 deaths⁵²
 2006 – 162 deaths⁵³
 2009 – 162 deaths⁵⁴
 2011 – 221 deaths⁵⁵

Out of three (3) million pregnancies that occur every year, half were unplanned and one-third of these end in abortions, according to a 2006 report of the Allan Guttmacher Institute conducted in the Philippines. Induced abortion was the fourth leading cause of maternal deaths. Young women accounted for 17 percent of induced abortions. Over half of births occurred at home and one-third of them were assisted by traditional birth attendants (TBAs). Around 75 percent of the poorest quintile did not have access to skilled birth attendants (SBAs) compared to only 20 percent of the richest quintile.

The increase in MMR may be traced to inadequate access to integrated reproductive health services by women, including poor adolescents and men.

⁵¹ NDHS, NSO and Macro International. 1993.

⁵² NDHS, NSO and Macro International. 1998.

⁵³ Family Planning Survey (FPS). NSO. 2006.

⁵⁴ DOH. 2009.

⁵⁵ DOH. 2011

17. Child Mortality. The country has been improving slightly on child mortality. The country's child mortality rate has declined to 30 per 1,000 live births from 32 in 2009, 31 in 2008.⁵⁶ This moves the Philippines closer to meeting its MDG of 27 deaths per 1,000 live births by 2015. The decrease is attributed to the sustained immunization of babies and school children in the country.

18. Senior citizens and aging population. The elderly population in the Philippines has been steadily increasing in both size and proportion. The 2010 Census enumerated about 6.3 million persons aged 60 years and above. It represents the 6.8 percent of the 92.1 million total household population in 2010.⁵⁷

For the period 2010 to 2020, the life expectancy of a Filipino man is expected to increase by 2.5 years; while the life expectancy of a Filipino woman is expected to increase by 1.9 years. In 2012, the life expectancy of a Filipino man is 67.3 years and the life expectancy of a Filipino woman is 72.9 years. The life expectancy of women will remain relatively higher compared to their male counterparts.⁵⁸

The Philippine Plan of Action for Senior Citizens 2012-2016 forecasted that there will be approximately 19.6 million senior citizens by 2040, out of the projected 141.7 million Filipinos. The projection on the share of senior citizens to total population is increasing over time, from 5.3 percent in 1980 to 6.8 percent in 2010 to 13.8 percent in 2040.⁵⁹

In countries and regions with rapidly aging populations, like China and Europe and Central Asia, encouraging women to enter and remain in the labor force can help dampen the adverse impact of shrinking working-age populations. In the Philippines however, traditional and cultural mindset associated with aging require expanding the care economy to accommodate the care needs of senior citizens, as oppose to finding innovative means to make them productive and part of the labor force even in their senior years.

In their senior years, Filipino women and men live with their immediate families; this situation is borne out of culture and tradition. Elders are held in high esteem by Filipinos and this is usually demonstrated by caring and providing for their needs. However, this cultural practice can be a burden for families who are not prepared to take on the responsibilities of looking after their aging family members and do not have the economic means.

Because of tradition, aging women and men and their families fall into an *obligation and entitlement* trap; where families feel obligated to care for their aging family members (no matter how unprepared they are) and aging men and women expect such entitlements because of their senior status. This trap can breed inequalities in the household and make senior members vulnerable to being treated as helpless, unproductive and a burden.

⁵⁶ World Bank. Selected Health Indicators. Sources: NDHS 2008, NSCB MDG Watch, WB World Development Indicators

⁵⁷ The Philippine Plan of Action for Senior Citizens 2012-2016. Page 5.

⁵⁸ Ibid. Page 8.

⁵⁹ Ibid. Statistics are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revisions, UN Population Division, Census of Population (and Housing) and Census of Population of the National Statistics Office (NSO) and National Statistics Coordination Board (NSCB) – Technical Staff special computations using the Population Projections of NSO

The issue of care work is at the core of discussions pertaining to the aging population. Care of senior citizens is often delegated to women and girls; this impacts on women's labor force participation (care of the elderly family members is full time work and often unpaid work) and on girl's school participation. On the other hand, care work for the elderly also breeds inequalities based on gender, race/ethnicity and sexual orientation. For instance, in the Philippines, the distribution of unpaid care work is often delegated only among women but paid care work can be delegated to men; also, the right to receive care work is often determined on economic status.

In the Philippines, the absence of policies in distributing care work of the elderly is not yet being seriously addressed such as defining the roles of immediate families, barangay health center, and the community and assigning contributions from national agencies. Incentives for workers with family responsibilities such as caring for elderly are not yet standard practice as in other countries (e.g. additional leave from work for doing care work) and social protection for the elderly is at most, wanting.

19. STI, HIV and AIDS. According to DOH, number of HIV cases rose to 79% as of January 2013. The Philippine AIDS Registry of the National Epidemiology Center of DOH reported 6,015 HIV Ab Sero-Positive Cases as of December 2011.

The 2008 NDHS revealed the following major findings:

- almost all women (94%) have heard of AIDS. However, knowledge of HIV prevention methods is lower. Only 53% of women age 15–49 know that HIV can be prevented by using condoms and by limiting sex to one faithful partner. Only 22% of women have comprehensive knowledge of HIV⁶⁰.
- Most Filipino women have only one sexual partner during their lifetime. Only 11% of these women reported using a condom with that partner.⁶¹
- About half of women know where to get an HIV test, but only 2% have ever been tested and received the results.⁶² Women with higher levels of education are most likely to have ever been tested.⁶³
- Young people are not very knowledgeable about HIV/ AIDS. Only 21% of young women age 15–24 have comprehensive knowledge of HIV. Almost two-thirds of young women know a condom source.⁶⁴
- Seventeen percent of young women (age 18–24) had sexual intercourse by age 18. Among young women who have had sex, only 4% used a condom at first sex. The large majority (94%) of never-married Filipino young women have never had sex. Among those who have had sex in the past year, 14% report using a condom at last sex.⁶⁵

⁶⁰ According to the criteria set by the NDHS 2008, an individual with comprehensive knowledge knows that consistently using condoms during sexual intercourse and having just one uninfected partner reduces the risk of getting HIV, knows that a healthy-looking person can have HIV, and knows that people cannot become infected through mosquito bites or by sharing food with an HIV-infected person.

⁶¹ Ibid.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Ibid.

20. Food Security. The Philippines Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) Version 2.0 concluded that the Mindanao Island is experiencing acute food security situation. The analysis covers 25 provinces of the Mindanao Island Group of the Philippines. The areas depicting high levels of acute food insecurity problems are mainly located in Region IX (Zamboanga Peninsula), in ARMM (Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao), as well as in the highly natural disaster prone belt along the east coast of Mindanao and in Lanao del Norte (IPC 2012). Standard gender analysis would show that women and children are disproportionately affected by food insecurity especially when the factors, as the 2012 IPC analysis shows, point to high incidence of poverty, underemployment, increased food prices, displacements due to typhoons, flooding, landslides, and drought, and in some areas prolonged armed conflict. Over and above experiencing hunger, women and children are also overburdened when physical access to markets and food is an additional issue in geographically isolated areas such as the island provinces or the mountainous interior of provinces where there are poor or no roads at all. Poor food utilization plays an important role for populations that have very limited access to improved water sources and sanitary toilets.

21. Housing and security of tenure. According to the PDP 2011-2016, total housing need, which includes housing backlog and housing for new households, is estimated to reach about 5.8 million units by 2016. The NUDHF 2009-2016 indicate that Regions 3, 4B and NCR account for about half of the total housing need.⁶⁶

Already, urban population is at 66.4 percent of total population as of 2010, or 6 of every 10 Filipinos now live in urban areas and half on these are females. The phenomenon of urban slums and informal settlements have been characterized by unsanitary conditions, congestion and limited access to basic urban services, like health centers, schools, waste disposal and safe water supply.⁶⁷ All these affect the reproductive roles of women and girls as well as their general health conditions, especially reproductive health.

Globally, gender inequalities are prevalent in housing and security of tenure. For example, women as a group are widely marginalized by administrative institutions in respect of land, property and inheritance. Women are systematically excluded from decision-making and control over household resources. This has a historical dimension where access to land and property predominantly has been a male domain. As a result women have been denied access, ownership and right to property and inheritance. Several factors have contributed to this - discriminatory policies and laws which include traditional/customary laws and practices; limited implementation of laws and policies; land registration of land laws in favour of the man; lack of representation on decision-making bodies; and lack of awareness.⁶⁸

The gender dimensions of housing and security of tenure have not been deeply recognized by housing and shelter agencies in the Philippines. A rigorous gender analysis needs to be done by shelter agencies for them to know the extent of women exclusion and/or involvement in terms of decision making, influence, and benefits of housing and secure tenure programmes.

⁶⁶ Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016. Page 244.

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ UN HABITAT. Gender Equality Dimensions of Housing and Secure Tenure. Gender Mainstreaming in Local Authorities: Best Practices. 2008

22. Social protection. The 2007 PNHA revealed that 54 percent of the total health expenditure comprised out-of-pocket expenses, and only 9 percent from social health insurance. Total health expenditure was only PhP234.3 billion, or 3.2 percent of the GDP, which is below WHO benchmark of 5 percent of GDP for developing countries.⁶⁹ High out-of-pocket expenses and low prepayment schemes reflect unevenness, if not an inequity, in health care financing. The results of the BDR by the DOH and PHIC highlighted the need for PHIC to increase its enrolment coverage, improve the availment of its benefits and increase the support value for its claims, for the NHIP to provide Filipinos with financial risk protection.⁷⁰ Moreover, benefit delivery for the sponsored program is lowest among member groups. As of 2011, the BDR is only 8 percent (see Annex 8.6 of PDP 2011-2016). BDR refers to the cumulative likelihood that any Filipino is (a) eligible to claim; (b) aware of entitlements and is able to access and avail of health services from accredited providers; and (c) is fully reimbursed by PHIC as far as total health care expenditures are concerned.

The PDP 2011-2016 states that the current social protection system is characterized by a series of fragmented and uncoordinated programs and observes that multiplicity of programs and involvement of many government agencies often result in poor coordination, redundancy in providing services and overlapping of program beneficiaries.⁷¹ The PDP 2011-2016 cites as an example, that there are 21 agencies involved in the implementation of 65 social protection programs and projects.⁷² Social protection programs were found to be inadequately funded, and most are short-lived.⁷³ The country's national government spending on social protection was much lower (0.8% of GDP in 2007) than the mean spending of 87 developing and transition countries on safety nets (1.9% of their GDP from 1996-2006).⁷⁴

⁶⁹ Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016. Page 245.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² Development Academy of the Philippines 2009. Cited in the Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016. Page 245.

⁷³ Manasan, 2009. Cited in the Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016. Page 245.

⁷⁴ Weigand & Grosh Survey, 2008. Cited in the Philippine Development Plan 2011-2016. Page 245.

CHAPTER 2

Economic Empowerment: Promoting Equal Opportunities

The discussion on *economic opportunity* will focus on the ability of women to fully and freely participate in and receive returns from their work in the economy. This chapter will highlight a range of economic indicators, including labor force participation, earnings, and employment segmentation, whether in the labor market or in own-run enterprises.

23. Labor force participation rate (LFPR) of women and men. Based on the new data series, the LFPR has shown little change between 2005 (64.7%) and 2010 (64.1%) (Table 42-A). The LFPR of men also marginally dipped during this time, from 79.6 percent to 78.5 percent, while that of women fluctuated between 48 and 50 percent. The labour force participation gap during the six-year period remained the same. ILO observes that the downward trend in the LFPR can be attributed largely to the declining trend in participation among the youth (48.0 percent to 45.4 percent). The LFPR of those in the prime age bracket varied within a narrow band of 76.4 to 79.9 percent.

The findings of the ADB assisted Philippines Gender Labour Market Study (GLMS) (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012) conducted in 2012 on the other hand concludes that the source of gender employment across sectors has changed gradually, corresponding with the transformation of the Philippine economy in the last 10 years from an agriculture and industry based one, towards services. Basically fewer women are now employed in the declining manufacturing sector (women's employment fell from 13.3 to 9%) where they enjoyed better employment conditions. The same trend is happening in agriculture which remains a more important source of employment for men (40.5% of employment) than women (21.8%). Nevertheless, more women - mostly tertiary educated young women are getting employed in the growing BPO industry, which requires a different set of skills but has demanding and stressful work conditions such as night shifts that impact negatively on women's health and home and social life.

There is also an interesting trend in LFPR by age with the LFPR being higher in the middle age groups and lower in the younger age groups (15-19 years and 20-24 years). This trend is likely to reflect the increased enrollment of women in education compared to men, and the difficulties young women face raising children and working in the paid labour market. High fertility rates and child care and domestic responsibilities dampen women's participation in the labor force (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012).

Tables 9-A and 9-B show the trends in sectoral employment for women and men by sector. Substantial employment growth for women in 2006-2010 was registered in sectors that have been perceived as male dominated such as fishing, electricity, gas and water supply, construction, transport storage and communications, public administration and defense. Conversely, employment share of women was low compared to men in male-dominated sectors. The trend in employment growth for men for the same period also show substantial growth in sectors that have been perceived as traditionally female such as in manufacturing, hotels and restaurants, education, health and social work and in private households.

The employment sectors with high concentrations of informal economy and are traditional dominated by women show minimal growth such as agriculture, wholesale and retail, community/social and personal work and negative growth as in the case of manufacturing. The difference in terms of employment share of women and men in these sectors is minimal. This will also show that women with less education will most likely be employed in traditionally female ascribed sectors or in traditionally male sectors where little education is required (such as fishing) albeit with high concentrations of informality/informal economy. Women tend not to be choosy with jobs, while educated men or even those with little education would opt for formal employment and a certain degree of job security and regular pay (such as being employed in private households), as regular earning is traditionally expected among men/husbands.

Table 9 - A. Employment by Major Industrial Sector, Women and Men, Philippines, 2006 and 2010					
Women					
	Employment (In '000s)	Employment (In '000s)	Employment Growth (%)	Employment Share (%)	Employment Share (%)
	2006	2010	2006-2010	2006	2010
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	2872	2943	2.47	22.75	20.85
Fishing	101	127	25.74	0.8	0.9
Mining and Quarrying	14	17	21.43	0.11	0.12
Manufacturing	1400	1313	-6.21	11.09	9.3
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	21	25	19.05	0.17	0.18
Construction	29	45	55.17	0.23	0.32
Wholesale and Retail Trade	3738	4233	13.24	29.61	29.99
Hotels and Restaurants	484	574	18.6	3.83	4.07
Transport Storage and Communications	154	182	18.18	1.22	1.29
Financial Intermediation	196	226	15.31	1.55	1.6
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	275	413	50.18	2.18	2.93
Public Administration and Defense	558	737	32.08	4.42	6.21
Education	750	877	16.93	5.94	6.21
Health and Social Work	260	323	24.23	2.06	2.29
Other Community, Social and Personal	397	451	13.6	3.15	3.2
Private Households with Employed Persons	1374	1627	18.41	10.89	11.53
Total	12622	14114	11.82	100.01	100.98
Employment Concentration Ratio-top 3 (%)					62.37
Source: Promoting Gender Equality in the Labor Market for More Inclusive Growth Philippine Report. ADB. Compiled from Philippines. BLES. DOLE. Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Table 3.8. http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph					

Table 9 - B. Employment by Major Industrial Sector, Women and Men, Philippines, 2006 and 2010					
Men					
	Employment (In '000s)	Employment (In '000s)	Employment Growth (%)	Employment Share (%)	Employment Share (%)
	2006	2010	2006-2010	2006	2010
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	2872	2943	2.21	22.75	20.85
Fishing	1327	1342	1.13		
Mining and Quarrying	14	17	45.6	0.11	0.12
Manufacturing	1400	1313	4.05	8.26	7.85
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	108	125	15.74	0.54	0.57
Construction	1648	1971	19.6	8.23	8.99
Wholesale and Retail Trade	2465	2801	13.63	12.32	12.78
Hotels and Restaurants	402	488	21.39	2.01	2.23
Transport Storage and Communications	2329	2541	9.1	11.64	11.59
Financial Intermediation	148	174	17.57	0.74	0.79
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	508	733	44.29	2.54	3.34
Public Administration and Defense	927	1110	19.74	4.63	5.06
Education	249	299	20.08	1.24	1.36
Health and Social Work	99	128	29.29	0.49	0.58
Other Community, Social and Personal	406	462	13.79	2.03	2.11
Private Households with Employed Persons	239	299	25.1	1.19	1.36
Total	20013	21921	9.53	100.01	100
Employment Concentration Ratio-top 3 (%)					58.79
Source: Promoting Gender Equality in the Labor Market for More Inclusive Growth Philippine Report. ADB. Compiled from Philippines. BLES. DOLE. Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, Table 3.8. http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph					

24. Share of women and men in wage employment. As reflected in the Philippine Labor and Employment Plan (PLEP):2011-2016, the share of women in wage employment hardly changed. During the years 2008-2010, employment rates for men and women have remained more or less the same. The share of women in wage employment in 2009 was placed at 41.9% which is of little change from 41.2 percent in 2001.⁷⁵

For young people, their employability correlates with their educational attainment. Peculiarly, employment rates decrease with educational level, a pattern that is reversed only at the completion of a college degree (and then mainly for women). Employment for women who have not finished high school decreases steadily over multi-year period (2006-2010); for college graduates employment rates increased gradually over the same period from (20.2 in 2006 to 21.4 in 2010). The explanation for this phenomenon may be found in the types of available jobs. Many jobs do not

⁷⁵ DOLE. 2011. Philippines Labor and Employment Plan 2011-2016. Page 11.

require formal education such as in the agriculture and MSMEs, and jobs of these types are not sustained, decreasing jobs for non high school graduates. On the other hand, as a result of the growing number of college graduates, many business establishments now require a college degree even for factory, sales, or clerical jobs. There are women college graduates who cannot afford to be unemployed and as such are not too selective about jobs.

Women's consistent edge in literacy over men is subverted in the area of employment. Over time, women tend to lag behind men in the work force. In addition to gender discrimination in many institutions, particularly in higher paying jobs, there are often inadequate facilities that would enable women to combine work and family responsibilities. Mismatches between education and the job market; forms of work-place inequities that keep women in and from certain kinds of jobs; high maternal and neonatal mortality rates; and cultural and economic pressures that compel educated women to stay at home and care for the family are among some of the oft-cited reasons.⁷⁶

25. Women and men unemployment. Notwithstanding 2005, when men's and women's rates were close to one-another, women in the Philippines have since the mid-1990s seen higher rates of unemployment than men. Beginning in 2006, however, female unemployment rates fell below those of men. This decline came with a concomitant improvement in their EPR during the same period, indicating an overall improvement in employment opportunities for women⁷⁷.

Unemployment is a particular problem for young people in the Philippines. Young women, in particular, are disproportionately affected by unemployment: in 1995, unemployment among young women stood at 24 percent – some 6.4 percentage points higher than men. By 2010, however, this gap had declined to 3 percentage points (19.5% against 16.5%). In 2010, youth (aged 15-24 years old) comprised only one-fifth (21.3%) of the labour force but more than half (51.1%) of the total unemployed. Youth jobless rates were more than twice the national rates and more than three times the adult (ages 25 and over) unemployment rates (in both the old and new data series). Unemployment rates of the prime and elderly age groups averaged at 5 percent and 2 percent, respectively, as against that of the youth which stood at 17 percent, based on new data series.⁷⁸

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Decent work country profile: Philippines. International Labour Office. Geneva ILO. 2012. Page 11.

⁷⁸ Ibid. Page 13.

Table 10. Labor Force Participation Rate, Employment rate, and Underemployment Rate, 1998-2012

	Labor Force Participation Rate			Employment Rate			Unemployment Rate		
	Both Sexes	Men	Women	Both Sexes	Men	Women	Both Sexes	Men	Women
1998	64.6	81.2	48.1	89.7	90.2	89.0	10.3	9.8	11.0
1999	65.1	81.1	49.2	90.2	90.3	90.0	9.8	9.7	10.0
2000	63.6	79.6	47.7	88.8	89.1	88.4	11.2	10.9	11.6
2001	67.1	82.4	51.8	88.9	89.2	88.4	11.1	10.8	11.6
2002	67.4	82.0	52.8	88.6	88.9	88.2	11.4	11.1	11.8
2003	66.7	82.2	51.4	88.6	89.0	88.1	11.4	11.0	11.9
2004	67.5	83.8	51.2	88.2	88.5	87.6	11.8	11.5	12.4
2005	64.7 a/	79.6 a/	49.9 a/	b/	b/	b/	7.8 a/	7.8 a/	7.8 a/
2006	64.2	79.3	49.3	92.0	91.8	92.4	8.0	8.2	7.6
2007	64.0	78.8	49.3	92.7	92.5	93.0	7.3	7.5	7.0
2008	63.6	78.8	48.6	92.6	92.4	92.9	7.4	7.6	7.1
2009	64.0	78.6	49.4	92.5	92.4	92.8	7.5	7.6	7.2
2010	64.1	78.5	49.7	92.7	92.4	93.1	7.4	7.6	6.9
2011		78.5	49.7		92.4	93.1		7.6	6.9
2012		78.5	50.1		92.8	93.9		7.2	6.7

a/ The NSO adopted the new (ILO) definition of unemployment in the LFS questionnaire starting with the April 2005 survey round. As the data for January 2005 were based on the old definition of unemployment, averages for 2005 were computed using the data from April, July and October survey rounds. Due to the change in methodology, labor force data series for 2005 and onwards are not comparable with the old.

b/ 2005 average cannot be computed due to the adoption of the new unemployment definition starting April 2005 of the LFS, per NSCB Resolution No. 15 dated October 20, 2004. The revision affects the composition of the labor force which is the base for the computation of the employment rate. Hence, data for employment rate starting April 2005 onwards are not comparable with prior survey rounds/averages.

Source: DOLE BLES

Source of basic data: National Statistics Office, Labor Force Survey, Public Use Files.

26. Employment opportunities for women and men. The agriculture sector, which includes forestry and fishing, continues to employ large numbers of workers in the Philippines, although it does so at a declining rate (Table 11). New jobs are instead found in other workplaces, mainly in export-oriented economic zones and BPOs. The fastest-growing employment sectors are the services industries. The global trend of increased trade in services, especially in business processing outsourcing—sometimes also called the call or contact center industry—has benefited the Philippines. Service firms in information and communication technology have absorbed an increasing number of workers over the past decade. The domestic tourism industry has also experienced a strong expansion. More men than women work in the agriculture sector, though there is an increase in women’s unpaid family work in agriculture. However, in many of the new workplaces, more women

than men are employed. But the number of “new jobs” is not substantial to narrow the gap between male and female unemployment rates.

Table 11. Percentage of Women in the Unpaid Family Workers in Agriculture									
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Share of women (%)	49.95	50.39	51.30	52.00	50.67	50.85	51.31	52.13	52.22
Source: BLES, Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment (2008 and 2011)									

Interestingly, the Decent Work Country Profile 2012 assessment on *work, family and personal life* states that a rising trend in the proportion of men becoming economically inactive due to household/family duties contrast the declining trend in women in similar situations which may suggest that men are now sharing in these duties and represents a break from tradition and a possible advancement in terms of gender equality in the labour market. The country profile also shows that while the proportion of married men who are employed remained unchanged, a growing proportion of married women are now in employment. On the downside, an increasing trend of economic inactivity is observed among the youth (15 to 24 years) and this was accompanied by a high proportion of youth who are neither in school nor in employment, particularly among women.⁷⁹

The Decent Work Country Profile 2012 notes family structures are also changing, with a decline of employed men who are household heads, and an increase in the proportion of women who take on this role.⁸⁰

A disturbing trend is the increasing use of casual laborers by sectors such as wholesale and retail and restaurants which is seriously disadvantaged women in terms of low pay and lack of job security and continuity. Data showed an increase in the share of casual workers, and a decline in the share of permanent workers, indicating a decline in work security and a reduction in wages. This aspect, which is a growing trend in the Philippines, seriously exploits women’s labour, especially young women (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012; GLMS, sub section iii, page 24).

27. Women’s and men’s wages. Based on the 2008 NDHS, of total respondents, 60% of married women age 15–49 are employed. Eighty-five percent of employed women receive cash only, while 6% are not paid at all.

Over the period 2001–2005, both men and women experienced an increase in average nominal daily basic pay but the increase for females was lower by 1%. The JCGA 2008 also stated that in agriculture and non-agriculture industries, men are paid considerably more on a daily basis than women.

Private households has a very high proportion of low-paid employees at 63.7 percent in 2001, rising to 75.5 percent in 2009 then decreasing to 73.8 percent in 2010.⁸¹ Standard gender analysis would often point that most of those who are employed in private households are women.

⁷⁹ Decent work country profile: Philippines. International Labour Office. Geneva ILO. 2012. Page 39.

⁸⁰ Ibid.

The Decent Work Country Profile (2012) Philippines noted that for four years (2001-2004), women reported a higher average than men as regards real daily basic pay. However, from 2005 to 2008, men's pay surpassed women, and in 2009, women's pay was marginally higher and continued to slightly increase in 2010.⁸²

Overall, as the Decent Work Country Profile (2012) of the Philippines would show- the average daily basic pay of women in real terms was generally lower than that of their male counterparts, except in occupation group that includes plant, machine operators and assemblers. Women in this group demonstrated the lowest employment share (less than 10%) and the narrowest gender wage gap compared to other occupational groups. This means that although women account for only a small proportion of workers in this occupational group, their basic pay was relatively higher than that of their male counterparts.⁸³ This trend is reinforced by social and cultural norms to a large degree and the lack of legislation or enforcement supporting equality of pay for women. The 2012 GLMS cites the CEACR finding that there is a disconnect between the national law (in relation to the combination of Article 135(a) of the Labor Code and the 1990 Implementing Rules of RA No. 6725) and the international standards set and principle of "equal pay for work of equal value" (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012).

28. Women Migrant Workers. Overseas labour migration has continued to offset some of the effects of weak domestic job growth. The large number of OFWs is a key feature of the Philippine labour market. The annual flow of OFWs reached the one million mark in 2006 (1.063 million), followed by robust growth rates in 2008 (14.7% or 1.236 million) and 2009 (15.1% or 1.423 million). About three-fourths of OFWs are land based workers.⁸⁴

Over the 9 year period (2001-2009) women were dominant in three (3) major occupation groups: services *e.g. domestic workers and caregivers* (55.7%); professional and technical workers *e.g. nurses and teachers* (27.7%); and production *e.g. factory workers* (11.2%).⁸⁵ The 2011 survey on OFWs conducted by NSO on the other hand, will show not much difference in terms of the number of women and men OFWs. During the survey period, NSO states that there were more male OFWs (1.1 million or 52.2% of the total OFWs) than female OFWs (47.8%). However data would show that there are more women for the largest proportion of OFWs which is the age groups of 25 to 29 years and the 30 – 34 age group.⁸⁶

Female OFWs were younger compared to male OFWs. About 26.6% female OFWs were in age group 25 to 29 years, and 24.8% were in age group 30 to 34 years. Among the male OFWs, the largest proportion was in age group 45 years and over (22.9%).⁸⁷

⁸¹ Decent work country profile: Philippines. International Labour Office. Geneva ILO. 2012. Page 23.

⁸² Ibid.

⁸³ Ibid.

⁸⁴ The Philippine Labor and Employment Plan 2011-2016. DOLE. 2011. Page 12.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ NSO. 2011. Survey of OFWs 2011.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

Most of the male OFWs were employed either as plant and machine operator and assembler (23.8%) or as trade and related worker (23.5%), while more than half (55.5%) of female OFWs were laborers and unskilled workers.⁸⁸

An emerging concern is the return and reintegration of women migrant workers. This aspect of migration carries with it enormous potentials to empower women economically considering the skills and knowledge that have been acquired during years of work abroad. Another aspect of labour migration deals with the issue of de-skilled professionals and their concomitant reintegration into the formal economy. At the moment, the National Reintegration Center for OFWs (NRCO) is the office mandated to look into reintegration of migrant workers.

29. Women in the private sector. The private sector in the Philippines represents 95% of the economy and accounts for 85% of total expenditure from 1991–2002. It employs more than 90% of the country's total workforce. Of the 825,000 registered private companies, 91% are microenterprises and 8.5% are small and medium-sized enterprises, while only 0.5% are large enterprises. A study by the Women's Business Council showed that women owners of micro, small, and medium sized enterprises can be found in manufacturing (41%); jewelry, garments, and furniture (37%); marketing (9%); and real estate (7%).¹⁷ However, a lack of training and access to credit are perennial issues. Women owners are also pressured to balance managing their business and family life.

30. New Work Places for Women. The JCGA 2008 provided a substantial analysis on new work places for women which included information technology (IT) intensive business processes. The call center industry employed almost 50,000 of the 82,000 workers in the BPO industry. For instance, in 2005 the 75 call centers had almost 50,000 employees and 58.8 percent of them are women. Other important BPO industries for women were data processing with a share of 65.2 percent of women and the medical transcription industry with a share of 74.5 percent. These new types of industries show a clear preference for employing women (ADB 2008b: 28f; NSO 2009c). In 2005, more than half of the employees in the BPO industry were women. At the same time these workplaces are linked to new occupational health hazards such as long working hours and sleep deprivation and caffeine dependence, stress and exposure to different types of chemicals.⁸⁹

The case study on BPOs in the GLMS (Section IV, page 60) showed that, despite being a new industry, the existing social and cultural biases are prevalent. Women are employed in the low skilled and low paying jobs (e.g.; voice services, data entry, technical support, business analysts, accounting, clerical) while men are employed in the high skilled and higher paying jobs such as IT engineers, hardware trade, quality officers and supervisory/management. The BPO industry is also characterized by high attrition rate because workers are young, over-qualified, they regard the employment as being temporary, and the nature of the work with night shifts, as being stressful and demanding. Nevertheless, a recent report by IBM Global Locations Trend stated that the Philippines has surpassed India as the leading country in the world in the BPO industry with employment growth predicted to increase by 25% by 2016. The BPO industry offers strong employment prospects for women in future (although not in massive numbers) but special interventions are needed to make it more inclusive for women where they are able to also freely compete in jobs in men's traditional domain in the BPO sector. A useful intervention would be to promote programs on

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ GTZ and DTI. Enhancing Competitiveness through Gender Mainstreaming: The role and status of women and men in MSME development in the Philippines. 2010. Page 34.

educating women on labour market trends, HR demand and supply and job prospects and remuneration. This will enable women to make informed choices about their education and career paths. Sex-disaggregated data should be collected and disseminated through effective channels for this purpose (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012).

31. Women in the Informal Economy. The World Bank estimates that up to 80 percent of economic activity (globally) takes place in the informal economies. Excessive bureaucracy and regulation may prevent firms from entering the formal sector.⁹⁰

There were about 10.5 million informal economies operators in the Philippines as identified in the 2008 Informal Sector Survey, a nationwide survey conducted by the NSO. Of the total number, 6.8 million (66%) are males and 3.5 million (34%) are women (Table 47 – A). Self employed numbered to about 9.1 million while employers at 1.3 million.

Many women, especially in lower income groups, work in the informal economy or in vulnerable employment, where activity is often untaxed and usually not counted by the authorities. It is where labor rights and contracts cannot be enforced. While informal employment can lead to short term gains, these may be outweighed by informality's long term negative impact on economic growth and job creation.⁹¹

Economic participation of women in the informal economy is lowest in the ARMM, low participation is also observed in Cagayan Valley, Ilocos Region and the Cordillera Administrative Region. In the NCR estimates of women in the informal economy is almost equal with that of men (49%) and substantial estimates (above 35%) in Central Luzon, CALABARZON, Central Visayas, and Northern Mindanao, these are regions with high agricultural activities and with highly urbanized cities (Table 48 – A). Majority of men and women in the informal economy belong to the 25 – 54 age group (Table 47 – B).

Given the distribution of male and female in the informal economies as shown by the 2008 ISS, it can be estimated that 50 percent of women in the informal economy are in agriculture and around 30 percent are in wholesale and retail trade. The remaining 20 percent are distributed in other informal economic activities such as manufacturing, hotel and restaurants and household/domestic work.

Based on the NSO 2008 ISS, the nature of employment for women in the informal economy can be characterized by the following:⁹²

- 72 percent do not have formal written contract of employment, most of the women are employed through verbal agreements only.
- 54 percent receive salaries without the standard payslip.
- 70 percent are not covered by social insurance (SSS/GSIS).

⁹⁰ World Bank 2010: *Women, Business and Law*. Measuring Legal Gender Parity for Entrepreneurs and Workers in 128 Economies, Washington DC. 178p.

⁹¹ Spaeth, Brigitte; Franco, Jean; Raras, Sam. 2010. Enhancing Competitiveness through Gender Mainstreaming: The role and status of women and men in MSME development in the Philippines. 2010. PSP SMEDSEP, GTZ, German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development. Page 23.

⁹² These observations/computations are based on the NSO 2008 ISS Table 11. Employees: (Type of production unit, Informality) By Conditions of Employment of Primary job by Sex, Philippines: April 2008 (Estimates in thousands)

- 83 to 85 percent are not provided with paid leave, no paid sick leave, no paid maternity and paternity leave.
- 50 percent are not covered by any form of protection from dismissal.
- 80 percent of the women will not be compensated upon their dismissal.
- Most of the women in the informal economy are high school graduates (39%), followed by elementary graduates (17%) and college graduates (14%). Elementary, highschool and college undergraduates account for the rest 39 percent.⁹³

32. Micro-Small-Medium Enterprises (MSMEs). Expectations have been raised that MSMEs particularly in manufacturing and services could become the key to new dynamism in economic development⁹⁴. The assessment conducted by GIZ and DTI in 2010 on the role and status of women and men in MSME development in the Philippines, notes that about one half of the enterprises are owned and managed by women. Most of these enterprises are small consisting of only the owner/manager without any employees. Most of them are motivated out of necessity. They are founded with little capital below PHP 10,000.00⁹⁵ in activities with low entry barriers, such as retail trade, food stalls or personal services, but also with low productivity.⁹⁶

The MSME sector is extremely heterogeneous. The technologically backward sweatshop can be found alongside highly flexible and innovative small enterprises⁹⁷.

Although, the statistics are not always up to date and reliable as desired⁹⁸ the following tendencies can be concluded for MSMEs in the Philippines:

- as in most countries MSMEs constitute the vast majority of enterprises in the Philippines;
- in 2006 the share of MSMEs of all enterprises was 99.7 percent and they provided almost 70 percent of the jobs generated by all enterprises⁹⁹;
- micro and small enterprises constitute often the only source of new employment and serve as a safety net not only for the urban poor;
- four out of ten Filipinos aged 18 to 64 are engaged in business which is half of the Philippine labor force¹⁰⁰.

Integral in the above mentioned tendencies is the fact that women play a significant role as entrepreneurs and operators¹⁰¹ and as part of the labor force¹⁰² of MSMEs.

⁹³ These observations/computations are based on the NSO 2008 ISS Table 3. Employed Persons: Type of Production Unit by Highest Grade Completed, by Primary Job by Sex: April 2008

⁹⁴ GTZ and DTI. Enhancing Competitiveness through Gender Mainstreaming. The role and status of women and men in MSME development in the Philippines. 2010.

⁹⁵ Equivalent to 167 EUR or 218 USD

⁹⁶ GTZ and DTI. Enhancing Competitiveness through Gender Mainstreaming. The role and status of women and men in MSME development in the Philippines. 2010. Page 9.

⁹⁷ GTZ and DTI. Enhancing Competitiveness through Gender Mainstreaming. The role and status of women and men in MSME development in the Philippines. 2010. Pages 44-45.

⁹⁸ Ibid. Page 44.

⁹⁹ Ibid. Pages 29-30. <http://www.dti.gov.ph/dti/index.php?p=321> accessed on 26 April 2010.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid. Page 40. GEM Philippine Report 2006-2007.

¹⁰¹ Ibid. Pages 56-61.

¹⁰² Ibid. Page 26.

There is evidence that MSMEs of different sizes are interlinked as a result of tightened industrial tissues through which various forms of business linkages (subcontracting, franchising, value chain and cluster development, etc.) happen. This linkage would enable better use of the potential of the different enterprises¹⁰³ and the linkages that are in turn formed among women entrepreneurs can be the key to furthering the issue of women's economic rights and gender equality into the forefront of MSME development.

33. Women's access to land and property. Increasing women's access to land and securing their property rights provide improved economic security and welfare. In the Philippines, access to land is still an elusive goal for women because of the cultural preference for men to be caretakers and inheritors of land. In 2003, a mere quarter of all the emancipation patents distributed went to women. Likewise, certificate of land ownership awards were granted to less than 16,000 women compared to more than 33,000 grants to men (CGA 2008 Table 1.9). The legal framework does not give women full rights to property. Article 96 of the Family Code of the Philippines (EO 209) provides that the administration and enjoyment of the community property shall belong to both spouses jointly. In case of disagreement, the husband's decision shall prevail, subject to the wife having recourse to the court for proper remedy, but she must bring her action within 5 years from the date of the contract implementing such decision. This provision was actually culled from the Civil Code of 1949, which was drafted by an all-male Civil Code Commission. According to its proceedings, the rationale for privileging the husband is that "tradition and experience show that, in very serious matters concerning family, it is usually the husband who makes the ultimate choices."

Despite the lack of an operational sex-disaggregated land information system, some land administration agencies are able to provide data on the gender profile of their beneficiaries, albeit intermittent and outdated. Available data indicate a gender gap in holders of land tenure instruments, especially among married men and women according to data of Second Land Administration and Management Project (LAMP2). Land tenure accomplishment reports of the Department of Agrarian Reform for 2006 and Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) for 2003 to 2007 show a gender gap in the list of beneficiaries of agrarian reform and land patent issuances, respectively. In 2006 women comprised only 25% of the total number of recipients of Certificates of Land Ownership Awards and Emancipation Patents in the whole country. In the same year, only 18% of leasehold contracts (for land areas exempted from agrarian reform) included women as leaseholders. From 2003 to 2007, only 39% of the recipients of public land patents issued by DENR were women.

A World Bank study examined literatures on women's customary access to land in some provinces of the Philippines (Judd & Julnuan, 2001). This literature survey found rural women in the studied provinces and regions to be equal with men in rights to land ownership, although in many areas it is the men who administer or manage the conjugal property. This situation is supported by sex-disaggregated data on holders of patents issued by the Provincial Environment and Natural Resources Office (PENRO) in Leyte in 2010 under LAMP2.

A study commissioned under LAMP2 showed private organizations to have a stronger preference for the hiring of men in land administration positions (SMART Research Services, Inc., 2007). More than half of the study's respondents from the private sector said that they preferred men for land use

¹⁰³ Ibid. Page 10.

planner, survey aide, engineering assistant, project engineer, geodetic engineer, civil engineer, and drafters. The gender distribution of land administration personnel in the private sector is 81.9% males and 18.1% females.

The situation is however different in the public sector. Only one-third or less of the respondents from the public sector shared the same view although one-half of them preferred men for project managers. The data on LAM personnel in the public sector show an almost gender balanced distribution, with 54.2% males and 45.8% females. Records of the Bureau of Local Government Finance on applications for certifications of training hours on real property appraisal/valuation for LGU land assessors and appraisers as of July 2011 also reflect an almost gender balanced distribution, with 52.94% females and 47.06% males.

34. Taxation. Government decisions and directions on taxation (fiscal policy) can either promote gender equality or further inequalities. This is because taxation policies and taxes affect women and men differently. However, constant is the appreciation that women can pay taxes if only employment opportunities are predictably available and when taxation policies take into account existing gender biases affecting women at home and in the world of work.

The PDP 2011-2016 states that generation of employment is a contribution expected from the private business sector. Government's responsibility however – through fiscal and monetary policies – is to create an environment for vigorous economic activity, as well as to ensure that enough gains from growth are set aside for larger social purposes or channeled into social investments that facilitate future growth, including addressing gender biases in the world of work and taxation. These social gains, will be dependent on government decisions regarding the size and direction of public spending and taxation (fiscal policy) and by decisions regarding the control of the nation's money supply (monetary policy) (PDP 2011-2016, page 36).

Enhanced gender analysis could make decisions regarding the control of the nation's money supply more aware of the gender biases that exist in fiscal policy and monetary policy. Lack of awareness and low gender competence, preclude the BIR from instituting gender responsive tax reforms.

CHAPTER 3

Agency: Increasing Women's Voice and Participation in Development

The discussion on *agency*, defined as the ability of women and men to express themselves (exercise voice) in accordance with their preferences and to take actions on their own behalf (to influence their surroundings), focuses on multiple dimensions: agency within a household and in several aspects of the public domain, including civil society, the private sector, and politics. The assessment also focuses on safety and security as a dimension of agency, defining violence against women as the extreme deprivation of agency.

35. Decisions on managing women's earnings. The 2008 NDHS shows that more than half (54%) of women expressed that they make joint decisions with their husbands about the wife's earnings, while 42% say that they make decisions about those earnings by themselves.

Table 12 shows that a slightly higher percentage of females aged 15 and above with accounts at a formal financial institution compared to men. This higher percentage may also be attributable to the government's conditional cash transfer programme since majority of accounts are registered under the name of the mother.

	Female	Male
Account at a formal financial institution	34	19
Account used for business purposes	7	4
Account used to receive government payments	7	4
Account used to receive remittances	15	10
Account used to receive wages	9	8
Account used to send remittances	6	5

Source: The World Bank Group

36. Violence against women and children (VAWC). Gender-based violence poses physical and mental health risks to women and children. The observation made in the JCGA 2008 was that the number of reported cases remains low (see JCGA 2008 Figure 1.13). However, the figures for 2009 – 2011 would show substantial increase in the reported cases (Table 13). The passage of the Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Act of 2004 (RA 9262) and the sustained advocacy and information campaign involving both men and women could have improved public understanding of VAWC. Structures for reporting that are in place, such as the Women's and Children's Desk in PNP precincts could have also influenced the increase in reporting. Rape and beating (physical injuries) consistently constitutes the highest number of reported cases.

In order to know the extent of the problem, the National Statistics Office, conducted the 2008 NDHS which included a module on violence against women entitled "Women's Safety Module". The module generated statistics and information on women's experiences of violence from their spouses/boyfriend or dating partner, incidence of violence against women by geographical area,

demographics of the victims and perpetrators, including services availed¹⁰⁴. The major findings are as follows:

- 20% of women age 15–49 have experienced physical violence since age 15¹⁰⁵.
- 7% experienced violence in the past 12 months¹⁰⁶.
- 4% of women who have ever been pregnant report having experienced physical violence during pregnancy¹⁰⁷.
- 4% of women who have ever had sex had their first experience of sexual intercourse forced against their will.
- 9% of women have ever experienced sexual violence.
- women with higher levels of education and those from wealthier households are less likely to report having experienced physical violence. Spousal violence was also included as a sub module in 2008 NDHS and would show that:
 - 18%¹⁰⁸ of women who have ever been married have experienced physical or sexual violence by a husband¹⁰⁹.
 - 10% of women experienced spousal physical or sexual violence in the past 12 months.
 - 49%¹¹⁰ of women whose husbands get drunk very often report that they are victims of physical or sexual violence.
 - About one-fifth of women report that they have fought back physically, while 27% have fought back verbally.
 - 18% have sought help from an outside source such as their own family or a friend/neighbor.
 - 16% of women report that they have ever committed physical violence against their husbands when he was not already physically hurting her.
 - One in seven women agreed that a husband is justified in beating his wife for certain reasons.
 - The most common reason for justifying wife beating is neglecting the children (12%).
 - The current or former husband/partner is the person most often committing the violence. Fathers, mothers, and other relatives are also commonly cited as perpetrators of violence.
 - Pushing, shaking, and slapping are the most commonly reported forms of physical violence. Women from the poorest households are most likely to experience physical or sexual violence by their spouse. College-educated women are least likely to experience spousal violence.

Another area of concern is violence against young girls in the school. The 2009 State of the Filipino Children Report by the Council on the Welfare of Children stated that, out of 10,000 child abuse cases reported by the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) in the years between 1998 and 2004, 5-8 percent was committed by teachers. Aside from teachers, children suffer in the hands of janitors, bus drivers, and school personnel. Children also experienced violence committed

¹⁰⁴Source:<http://sgdatabse.unwomen.org/searchDetail.action?measureId=15529&baseHREF=country&baseHREFId=1039> accessed on July 2012.

¹⁰⁵ NDHS, NSO. 2008. Page 13.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Almost one fifth of the women survey.

¹⁰⁹ NDHS, NSO. 2008. Page 13.

¹¹⁰ Almost half of those interviewed.

by their fellow students, such as bullying, or as participants of gang-related fighting. Types of violence experienced by children include verbal, physical, and sexual abuse.¹¹¹

Table 13. Annual Reported Cases of Violence Against Women									
	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Reported cases in the PNP	6,271	5,374	4,882	5,729	6,905	9,485	15,104	12,948	
Details:									
Rape	997	927	659	837	811	770	1,042	832	
Incestuous Rape	38	46	26	22	28	27	19	23	
Attempted Rape	194	148	185	147	204	167	268	201	
Acts of Lasciviousness	580	536	382	358	445	485	745	625	
Physical Injuries	3,553	2,335	1,892	1,505	1,307	1,498	2,018	1,588	
Sexual Harassment	53	37	38	46	18	54	83	63	
RA 9262	218	924	1,269	2,387	3,599	5,285	9,974	9,021	
Threats	319	223	199	182	220	208	374	213	
Seduction	62	19	29	30	19	19	25	15	
Concubinage	121	102	93	109	109	99	158	128	
RA 9208	17	11	16	24	34	152	190	62	
Abduction / Kidnapping	29	16	34	23	28	18	25	22	
Unjust Vexation	90	50	59	59	83	703	183	155	
Source: Philippine National Police - Women and Children Protection Center (WCPC) in Philippine Commission on Women (pcw.gov.ph)									

The LGBT also experience domestic violence and gender based violence. The FGD¹¹² conducted for the CGA 2012 with representatives of the sector reveals that male children, who show physical manifestations and behaviors usually attributed to femininity (the *Bakla or Bading*, as they are labeled derogatorily) and female children who show physical manifestations and behaviors usually attributed as masculine (the *Tomboy or Tibo*, as they are labeled derogatorily) are most likely to experience gender based violence and this is usually perpetuated by men which can also include their fathers or older brothers, male neighbors and playmates. The violence is usually justified as a

¹¹¹ Because I Am A Girl, PLAN International, WAGI. The National Situationer of Girl Children in the Philippines 2012. Page 21.

¹¹² CGA 2012 FGD with LGBT. December 4, 2012. World Bank Knowledge Center, Ortigas, Mandaluyong City, Manila, Philippines.

corrective measure to “discipline” the child into behaving according to the norm expected of his sex. This same children would most likely to experience gender based violence such as bullying in schools and public/commercial spaces.¹¹³ In the case of lesbians, there are reported risk of being victims of “corrective” rape, another measure to “discipline” them into behaving according to the norm expected of her sex.¹¹⁴

The CSO UPR Report on the situations of LGBTs in the Philippines (2011) showed that research (conducted by the Philippine LGBT Hate Crime Watch) revealed 141 documented cases of hate crimes¹¹⁵ from 1996 to August 2011 of which ninety-five cases involved gay men, twenty-six involved transgenders, sixteen involved lesbians, and four involved bisexuals. From an average of ten LGBT people murdered between 1996 and 2008, the number has risen to twelve in 2009, 26 in 2010, and 27 from January to May 2011.¹¹⁶ The UPR CSO Report (2011) also cited an ISIS research exposing systematic rape¹¹⁷ of lesbians by men to “correct” and to remind lesbians that they are “still women”.

Reporting gender based violence to the police and authorities is a hurdle that LGBT victims face, the FGD conducted for the CGA 2012¹¹⁸ with representatives of the sector reveals that:

- Reporting of violence perpetuated on LGBTs is a problematic area. Majority of PNP officers are not aware of SOGI issues and are not aware of gender issues confronted by the LGBT persons.¹¹⁹
- Reporting of corrective rape and gender based violence inflicted on transwomen and transmen are coursed through usual crime reporting procedures- there is no capacity to note GBV of LGBTs as similar to VAWC and this capacity gap is also noted among social workers and health personnel.¹²⁰
- Gay men and lesbians reporting GBV to PNP often get discriminated on the basis of their gender identity- they are even often blamed for the violence they encountered, deserving

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ Hate crimes generally refer to criminal acts that are seen to have been motivated by bias against persons belonging to a certain social group, usually defined by race, religion, sexual orientation, disability, class, ethnicity, nationality, age, gender, gender identity, social status or political affiliation.

(<http://thephilippinelgbthatecrimewatch.blogspot.com/>) cited in Submission of the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) Coalition Report on the situations of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) persons in the Philippines for the 13th Session of the UN Universal Periodic Review For the Philippines (May 21 – June 1, 2011)

¹¹⁶ Aside from the 141 cases there are 31 cases of LGBT killings that are in the process of being reviewed and verified as of Aug 2011. (<http://thephilippinelgbthatecrimewatch.blogspot.com/2011/09/in-beginning-posted-sometime-in-june.html>) accessed 2011-11-25, cited in Submission of the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) Coalition Report on the situations of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) persons in the Philippines for the 13th Session of the UN Universal Periodic Review For the Philippines (May 21 – June 1, 2011)

¹¹⁷ Surfacing Lesbians, Bisexual Women and Transgendered People’s Issues in the Philippines: Towards Affinity Politics in the Feminist Movements. 2010. page 16. cited in Submission of the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) Coalition Report on the situations of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) persons in the Philippines for the 13th Session of the UN Universal Periodic Review For the Philippines (May 21 – June 1, 2011)

¹¹⁸ CGA 2012 FGD with LGBT. December 4, 2012. World Bank Knowledge Center, Ortigas, Mandaluyong City, Manila, Philippines.

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

such circumstances because of the way they present themselves (look, manner of dress, behavior and manner of speech).¹²¹

The UPR CSO Report (2011) also found that lesbians are not afforded the same mental and psychosocial support and protection as heterosexual women. The language use of “women” in RA 9262 and RA 9710 does not comprehensively include lesbians and bisexual women and made transgender women invisible as evidenced in the Implementing Rules and Regulations of RA 9710 where it made reference to sexual orientation¹²² but not to gender identity.

According to the UPR CSO Report (2011), the major challenge in addressing Hate Crimes has been the lack of a legal framework in the Philippines as well as the definition of “extra-judicial killings” which is limited to politically motivated crimes.

Table 14. Research conducted by Iwag Dabaw Inc. in Davao City- 97 LGBT Respondents				
Types of Abuse	Within Family	Police / Military	Intimate Relationship	Public Places
Physical	56.00%	28.00%	48.00%	18.00%
Economic (theft victims)	36.00%	33.00%	24.00%	4.00%
Sexual	14.00%	50.00%	40.00%	4.00%
Verbal	76.00%	78.00%	88.00%	76.00%
Total (in person)	59 (61%)	18 (19%)	25 (26%)	64 (66%)
Source: http://outragemag.com/online/tag/davao-lgbts/ accessed: January 29, 2013				

37. Trafficking of women and children. There is progress in halting human trafficking. The Philippines is now at Tier 2 Status in the Global Trafficking in Persons Report and no longer in the Tier 2 Watch List Status. The global community now recognize the efforts both government and civil society have made to combat human trafficking at home and abroad.

38. Early marriages. Traditional early marriages are still in practice in few areas or indigenous groups in the country. Some of the marriages are forced and brought about by abduction of women and girls.¹²³

39. Women’s political participation. While there is a long history of women’s participation in politics, there is still a considerably low level of representation of women, in comparison with men. There is also an existing paradox in women’s representation in the Philippines –two (2) women have been elected as Presidents of the state and numerous women appointed in cabinet posts – but women, in general, continue to be in the lower levels of government hierarchy.

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Magna Carta of Women Implementing Rules and Regulations 2010 pp 3, 37, 45, & 65 (http://pcw.gov.ph/index.php/downloads/doc_download/376-republic-act-9710-magna-carta-of-women) accessed 2011-11-25, cited in Submission of the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) Coalition Report on the situations of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) persons in the Philippines for the 13th Session of the UN Universal Periodic Review For the Philippines (May 21 – June 1, 2011)

¹²³ UN WOMEN Mindanao Consultation – Scoping Mission and FGD in Davao City, September 2011. Unpublished Notes by Eleanor Conda

Position	1998		2001		2004		2007		2010	
	Women	Men								
President	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
Vice-President	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
Senators	2	10	1	12	3	9	1	11	2	10
Congressmen	20	188	33	172	32	179	45	173	48	174
Governors	13	65	15	62	15	62	18	62	16	60
Vice-Governors	9	69	10	67	7	71	13	67	10	65
Board Members	93	629	120	607	125	623	123	635	120	614
Mayors	233	1,374	241	1,301	244	1,352	274	1,320	294	1210
Vice-Mayors	174	1,433	192	1,356	222	1,375	230	1,365	245	1260
Councilors	2139	11,007	2198	10,467	2251	10,881	2329	10,797	2314	10103
TOTAL	2,684	14,776	2,810	14,044	2,900	14,553	3,034	14,431	3,049	13,498

Source: House of Representative and Senate

As the 2008 JCGA previously stated, the Philippine Government has made significant efforts in making its governance institutions accessible to women. There is marked increase in the number of elected women, particularly in the House of Representatives. The number of women mayors has also consistently increased since 1995. While on the surface these developments are positive, politics is still a male domain.

The presence of women in electoral politics frequently has more to do with a political dynasty. A 2004 study by the Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism found that 70% of the women in the House of Representatives in 2001 were members of political clans. This finding suggests that women in politics may be “benchwarmers” (place holders) for male relatives who are awaiting their turn or eligibility to run for office. Women party list continue to hold seats in congress and other party list are fielding women representatives. LGBT Filipinos are now closer to being represented and participating in government through the party list.

Election Year	Chamber	Positions Filled	No. of Elected Legislators	
			Women	Men
1998	Senate	12	2	10
	House of Representatives	208	20	188
2001	Senate	13	1	12
	House of Representatives	209	33	176
2004	Senate	12	3	9
	House of Representatives	210	32	178
2007	Senate	12	1	11
	House of Representatives	218	45	173
2010	Senate	12	2	10
	House of Representatives	222	48	174

Source: Commission on Election

40. Women in the civil service. As of December 2010, the government personnel inventory conducted by CSC will show that there are 1,409,660 government personnel. An increase of 96,122 based on 2008 figures (1,313,538). Female employees accounted for 58.7 percent (numbering 827,157) while the number of male employees totaled 582,503 or 41.3 percent of the total government workforce.¹²⁴ Table 17 presents the distribution of male and female employees by region and sex.

Table 17. Number of Government Personnel by Region and by Sex: 2010			
Region	Male	Female	Total
1	25,922	39,519	65,441
2	19,219	23,409	42,628
3	38,549	76,442	114,991
4A	44,138	83,124	127,262
4B	14,106	26,490	40,596
5	23,776	50,048	73,824
6	37,253	65,493	102,746
7	30,784	53,272	84,056
8	24,015	45,190	69,205
9	19,462	31,441	50,903
10	19,576	35,517	55,093
11	16,064	29,328	45,392
12	17,364	31,107	48,471
NCR	222,656	193,612	416,268
CAR	10,956	16,318	27,274
CARAGA	13,210	24,326	37,536
ARMM	5,453	2,521	7,974
TOTAL	582,503	827,157	1,409,660
Source: CSC 2010 Inventory of Government Personnel			

Of the total workforce, 1,266,285 are career personnel, of which 772,027 or 54.8 percent are women and 489,258 or 34.7 percent are men. The remaining 148,375 personnel, are non-career and males number at 93,245 or 63 percent while females total 55,130 or 37 percent.¹²⁵ Government career personnel number 1,261,285 or 89.5 percent of the overall government workforce. Of this, women outnumber the men by 61 percent as against 38.7 percent respectively. Non career personnel total 148,375, where a reverse in terms of distribution will show 63 percent in favor of men and women account for only 37 percent.¹²⁶

Table 18 shows that women dominate the second level posts at the LGUs, SUCs, NGAs and GOCCs, with the exception of LWDs where the men outnumber women by 117. Even so, men dominate the first and third level posts for all government agencies.¹²⁷

¹²⁴ http://excell.csc.gov.ph/cscweb/2010IGP_stat.pdf

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ http://excell.csc.gov.ph/cscweb/2010IGP_stat.pdf

Table 18. Distribution of female and male employees by type of government agency and by level of position										
Agency	First Level			Second Level			Third Level			TOTAL
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	
LGUs	82,863	78,580	161,443	35,743	61,090	96,833	331	257	588	258,864
LWDs	6,442	1,722	8,164	1,655	1,538	3,193	28	5	33	11,390
SUCs	7,732	4,618	12,350	12,731	19,916	32,647	70	58	128	45,125
NGAs	12,768	10,101	22,869	255,530	528,917	784,447	44,239	36,566	80,805	888,121
GOCCs	5,878	2,233	8,111	16,036	20,764	36,800	7,212	5,662	12,874	57,785

Source: PCW - TSD, data reflects the sum of Tables 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 of the 2010 Inventory of Government Personnel

A total of 148,375 or 10.5% of the total government staff complement are non career posts. LGUs account for the most number of non-career personnel at 72% of the total non-career workforce and of this, 36 percent are women. The 2010 figures will show that parity have been reached for non career positions in the SUCs at 50-50% for both women and men. For the rest of the agencies, men dominate coterminous positions.¹²⁸

41. Women in the judiciary. The judiciary is male dominated, though this dominance is slowly easing. A significant breakthrough in 2012 is the appointment of the first woman Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

For the period 2007 to 2010, male judges outnumber the female judges at the regional trial courts, metropolitan trial courts, municipal trial courts-in-cities, municipal trial courts, municipal circuit trial courts, shari'a district courts and shari'a circuit courts. The 2011 Annual Report of the Supreme Court still show unequal distribution of female and male judges. These figures hardly changed since the JCGA of 2008 (Table 19).

Table 19. Justices/Judges in the Judiciary by Sex as of December 31, 2011							
Courts	Female		Male		Total Incumbent Judges	Total Number of Vacancies	Total Number of Judicial Positions
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage			
Supreme Court	3	20%	12	80%	15	0	15
Court of Appeals	23	36%	41	64%	64	5	69
Sandiganbayan	2	14%	12	86%	14	1	15
Court of Tax Appeals	5	56%	4	44%	9	0	9
Regional Trial Court	254	33%	511	67%	765	206	971
Metropolitan Trial Court	32	52%	29	48%	61	34	95
Municipal Trial Court in Cities	72	43%	95	57%	167	48	215
Municipal Trial Court	117	42%	159	58%	276	108	384
Municipal Circuit Trial Court	110	37%	191	63%	301	171	472
Shari'a District Court	0	0	0	0	0	5	5
Shari'a Circuit Court	3	10%	26	90%	29	22	51
GRAND TOTAL	621	37%	1,080	63%	1,701	600	2,301

Source: 2011 Annual Report, Supreme Court

¹²⁸ Ibid.

42. Structures for gender equality and women's empowerment. PCW is the country's oversight agency for gender equality and women empowerment. With the passage of RA 9710 MCW, PCW is poised to strengthen its partnership with the CHR as the mandated Gender Ombud of the country. It is expected that this partnership will usher the improvement of systems for ensuring women's rights and gender equality as required by MCW and CEDAW.

At the national level, women sectoral representation is recognized in the NAPC and this structure is also evident in the RDC where a committee on GEWE is created. Even if this committee is represented by government agencies' representatives, usually gender focal persons from DSWD, DOH, DepEd, DOLE, in some regions, a number of women's NGOs also participate in the committee. Inter-agency committees have also been created at the meso level where women NGOs and CSOs are given wider space to participate such as the RIACAT, to monitor progress in halting trafficking of women and girls, the regional VAWC committee, and the committee for the protection of children.

The formation of local sectoral representation for women has been a common practice for some LGUs in the country and local legislative councils assigns a committee on the welfare of women and children and family. This committee is usually chaired by an elected council member and by tradition is assigned to a woman council member.

The GAD Focal Point Systems have been created by NGAs with the broad mandate to mainstream gender equality and women empowerment actions in the agencies' programmes and projects. In 2011, PCW issued Memorandum Circular No. 2011-01 to further strengthening of the GAD Focal Point System. Its primary task is to prepare GAD plans and budgets and conduct consultations among women and men internally (within the agency) and with its external clients (constituents). The GAD focal points are also expected to institute a GAD capability-building and advocacy programs to promote gender awareness and participation of officials and staff in gender mainstreaming efforts.

CHAPTER 4

Directions for Policy

This final Chapter will focus on policy and gender mainstreaming recommendations in the light of recent progress and challenges to gender equality.

43. Laws to end all forms of discrimination need to be passed and revise discriminatory provision consistent with CEDAW. Four (4) versions of the Anti Discrimination Bill has been filed in the House and Senate; two (2) versions in the lower house are authored by Bayan Muna and Akbayan, and two (2) versions in the Senate, authored by Sen. Miriam Defensor Santiago and Sen. Ramon Revilla Jr.

Pending versions of the Anti-Prostitution Bill in the House and Senate targets the demand side of prostitution by criminalizing those who exploit and engage in prostitution and human trafficking. This bill would have a far-reaching impact in the protection of women from violence.

There is also a push for the passage of Gender Balance Bill.

The Philippines ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1981. There are discriminatory provisions in some laws that are currently enforced *viz* CEDAW and RA 9710 that needs to be reviewed; being a State Party to CEDAW, the government, should initiate revisions on:

- a) Family Code of the Philippines
 - (i) Article 14: on the provision on giving preference to the father's consent to the marriage of children between the ages of 18 and 21;
 - (ii) Articles 96 and 124: on the provision on giving preference to the husband's decision, in case of disagreement with the wife, on the administration and enjoyment of community and conjugal properties;
 - (iii) Article 211: on the provision of giving preference to the husband's decision, in case of disagreement with the wife, over the persons of their common children;
 - (iv) Article 225: on the provision on giving preference to the husband's decision, in case of disagreement with the wife, on the exercise of legal guardianship over the property of unemancipated common child;
 - (v) Article 55, No.1: on the requirement for repeated physical abuse and grossly abusive conduct as a ground for legal separation.
- b) Revised Penal Code
 - (i) Articles 333 and 334: on adultery and concubinage;
 - (ii) Article 202: on the definition of vagrants and prostitution;
 - (iii) Article 351: on premature marriages; and
 - (iv) Article 247: on death inflicted under exceptional circumstances;
- c) Rules of Court - Rule 131 Section 3 (jj), on disputable presumptions.
- d) Code of Muslim Personal Laws;
- e) RA 8353, on removal of criminal liability of rapist when victim marries him.
- f) R.A. 10158, or the revision of Article 202 of the Revised Penal Code will continue to criminalize women and girls in prostitutes (unlike male prostitutes and vagrants), while men who participate in their exploitation are not held liable for prosecution.

44. Accelerate the implementation of RA 9710 (MCW) through the Women’s EDGE Plan 2013 – 2016.

The implementation of RA 9710 remains a challenge for PCW and CHR. In particular, majority of the MCW provisions are yet to be mainstreamed in agencies and LGUs plans and budgets.

The expanded oversight role of PCW and CHR as gender *ombud* will require upgrading of institutional capacities in terms of budget, human resource, management systems and M & E. The ODA GAD support efforts towards addressing deficiencies in capacities and the UN will squarely address the need to strengthen capacities of PCW and CHR as indicated in the UNDAF 2012-2018 Outcome Area 3.6.

Under the leadership of PCW, the *Women’s EDGE Plan 2013 – 2016* have been formulated and is expected to be the *gender equality guiding plan* for the Philippine Development Plan 2011 - 2016. The plan goals are anchored on the CEDAW and RA 9710 (MCW) and its implementation is expected to drive gender mainstreaming in the NGAs and LGUs. However, capacities of national and local GAD focal points must be built in order for the targets to be mainstreamed in GAD plans and budgets as well as in the regular agency and LGU plans.

Endowments

The challenge faced by the Philippines in human development manifest in the un-equal access of women and men to basic endowment and opportunities specifically education and health, basic services and even basic needs. Access by girls and boys and women and men to education- basic, secondary and tertiary- show positive correlations in employment and incomes (economic opportunities) and participation in development (agency). Boys and girls dropping out of school early will most likely become child laborers (where girls are most likely to be home based unpaid workers). Juvenile delinquency has been associated among boys’ who are not in school. And girls who are not in school will most likely marry or get pregnant early and have more children. High maternal mortality rates indicate women’s and girl’s poor awareness and access to basic and reproductive health care. Low health seeking behavior among men and boys also indicate poor awareness and lack of access to health care. Data and analysis would show that the unequal access to education and health contribute to population growth, rise of informal settlements, food insecurity, maternal mortality, teen age pregnancy, high prevalence rate of STI and HIV transmission, violence against women and children, leaving no resources towards more strategic endowments such as social protection that will benefit the most vulnerable and marginalized women and men such as those with disabilities, rural poor, urban poor, IP groups and Moro communities. The present conditions of inequalities surrounding education and health, other basic services and basic needs such as food, have become major obstacles and constraints in allowing women and men, girls and boys, to live healthy and productive lives. Addressing the gaps in education and health is therefore strategic to increase economic opportunities and agency of women and men.

45. Addressing barriers that impede the attainment of MDG targets. The Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the MDG point to “a low probability of achieving the targets for universal primary education, improving maternal mortality, and increasing access to reproductive health care by 2015.” This same issues has been pointed out in the 2008 Joint Country Gender Assessment¹²⁹ and

¹²⁹ Paradox and Promise in the Philippines, A Joint Country Gender Assessment (2008) by Asian Development Bank, Canadian International Development Agency, European Commission, National Commission on the Role of Filipino

current data (2011) would show very little progress towards the 2015 target. The lack of budget, lack of capacities and lack of political will appear to be major barriers in achieving the targets for universal primary education, improving maternal mortality, and increasing access to reproductive health care.

- 46. Addressing underperformance in educational outcomes for boys.** Improving enrolment and survival rates of girls and boys in terms of education across all levels should remain at the top of concerns that need to be urgently addressed by government. Consistent underperformance in educational outcomes for boys results in high juvenile delinquency and perpetuation of inequalities and wrong notions of masculinities that can lead to violence in the future and could potentially affect women and girl children. There are still more boys dropping out of school because of lack of interest as well as the need to work.¹³⁰ A review of the curriculum and classroom/school practices in the context of *boys' lack of interest and the factors surrounding the need to work*, should lead to innovative solutions such as expanding the social role of schools and enriching the learning/teaching rubric to capture and/or regain child interest while providing options to protect poorest boys and girls from child labor, exploitation and abuse.
- 47. Urgent implementation of the RH Bill.** The immediate implementation of the reproductive health (RH) law is absolutely critical for the Philippines. With rising maternal mortality, teenage pregnancy and HIV and STI transmission, the RH law as it was designed would empower women to make all-important choices for themselves and for their families. The Aquino administration should continue unwavering support and monitoring of the implementation of the reproductive health and responsible parenthood law as it is a crucial element in the pursuit of inclusive development.
- 48. Making housing, shelter and secure tenure projects affordable to women.** The country's housing and shelter agencies will benefit by knowing and internalizing the gender equality dimensions of housing and security of tenure. A rigorous gender analysis needs to be done to know the extent of women exclusion and/or involvement in terms of decision making, influence, and benefits of housing and secure tenure programmes.

The PDP 2011-2012 recognizes the need for investing in mass and socialized housing and increase the number of housing loans and strengthening of HGC through equity infusion from the government to establish a stronger guaranty system that will encourage the funding of socialized and low-cost housing projects by the private sector and housing developers.

Funds for housing can be secured and sustained, only if there is a viable system of guarantees for both the government and private financial institutions that cater to the funding requirements of housing production and end-user financing. The HGC can guaranty loans granted by financial institutions and developers for housing up to 20 times its net worth. What is clear is that socialized and low-cost housing projects will benefit more women as they are usually affordable. The challenge is how to design loan packages that are accessible to women's incomes and guarantees for women availing housing finance.

49. Expanding social protection. The PDP 2011 – 2016, concludes that the benefits of existing social protection programs are compromised by weak targeting systems resulting in high leakage to the nonpoor, undercoverage of the poor, low program impact and wastage of scarce resources. Existing social protection programs are inadequate in terms of coverage. While partnership with nongovernment organizations (NGOs) and other stakeholders have succeeded in making social services accessible to the poor, NGOs tend to flock to selected advocacies like children’s causes, leaving behind other sectors, such as the disabled and elderly, wanting.¹³¹

The *Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino* Programm is a step in the right direction as it not only addresses practical but strategic gender needs as well. Further work is needed, however, to consolidate social protection programs and complement these with the CCT. The bigger challenge is the expansion of the CCT to make it the core program in the convergence of social protection initiatives to ensure sustainability of beneficiaries’ gains.¹³²

Indigenous Peoples (IPs) living in highly fragile and vulnerable ecosystems, people in the Cordillera highlands and in Mindanao Island, are among the poorest in the country and this brings to mind another important dimension of social protection which is *property ownership and inheritance rights of women*- this is particularly significant for rural women and IP women.

In Mindanao, the Moro struggle for ancestral domain as carried out by the MNLF and MILF¹³³ has caused the displacement of nearly two million people from 2000 and 2006¹³⁴. The recent siege of Lahad Datu in Sabah, Malaysia by the Royal Army of the Sultanate of Sulu also caused the displacement of many families. Most IDPs in Mindanao, especially in the ARMM¹³⁵ are Muslim women and children who suffer from the lack of food aid and medicines, blockades, insensitive and inadequate service delivery.¹³⁶ Local Government Units (LGUs) in ARMM have relatively weak capacity for the protection of women victims¹³⁷. It is in this context that social protection for moro women and women in conflict situations in the ARMM becomes an important component for peace frameworks.

Also, a review of gender-differentiated access to pension and other insurance mechanisms and the conditional cash transfer mechanisms should be done in the context of national and local legislation to determine appropriate mechanisms for social protection that will impact positively on the lives of women and children.

50. Investing in pro-poor and gender responsive infrastructure. The government has devoted considerable resources to deliver social services to those lacking access to health care and education. However, poor households in isolated areas have difficulty in going to health centers and

¹³¹ ADB, 2009. Cited in the Philippine Development Plan 2011 – 2016. Page 245.

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ Moro National Liberation Front and Moro Islamic Liberation Front

¹³⁴ Armed conflicts include clashes between the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP), the Moro Islamic Liberation Front, The Moro National Liberation Front, and the New People’s Army

¹³⁵ ARMM - Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao

¹³⁶ UN WOMEN. 2010. Presentation of Atty. Laisa Masuhod Alamia, Program Manager, Nisa Ul-Huqq Fi Bangsamoro, Consultation on the Maguindanao Province Gender and Development Code, Sardonyx Hotel, Cotabato City. September 27, 2010.

¹³⁷ http://www.pcco.org.ph/downloadables/GEForum07/3_LGSPA%20Gender%20Initiatives%20CIDA%20Forum%20final.pdf

schools, even when services are offered for free or at highly subsidized rates. Clearly, poor infrastructure provision, aside from being a hindrance to investment and business activity, also prevents women and girls physical access to basic services.

Economic Opportunities

Given the data and analysis on labor force participation rates and average daily basic pay, men are still at an advantage over women in terms of economic gains from formal employment. Gender gap is also pronounced in access to productive resources, specifically land ownership, favoring the men. The other indicators of employment tend to favor women in terms of number (participation) such as overseas employment and participation in the informal economy and MSMEs. However, analysis of the data and its implications to equal economic opportunities would show that women OFWs are confined to low paying jobs such as in the services and manufacturing sector compared to men who dominate the professional and technical categories where pay are higher. Further, women OFWs also face inequalities in overseas employment that has been characterized by trafficking, work related harassment and sexual abuse. Women in the informal economy, over and above low wages, also face vulnerabilities in terms of job insecurity and lack of or absence of social protection. These vulnerabilities add up to social costs for women and children. The challenge to promote equal economic opportunities in the Philippines is to shift focus towards providing more opportunities for women and keeping them in the labor force during their productive years, ensure employment of women OFW upon their return, and increase productivity of women who dominate the informal economy and MSMEs. Labour policies will have to be reviewed in relation to decent work principles, the RA 9710 and RA 10354 to encourage more women to participate in the labour force alongside gender sensitive men. The review of labour policies and revisions of laws should also take into consideration the already positive education outcomes for women in the country.

51. Accounting women's contribution to the economy. The PDP 2011-2016 states that Filipino women are relatively advanced in comparison to women in other developing countries in the areas of education, profession, politics and legislation. However, women and girls contribution to economic development is not yet accounted in current economic analyses/frameworks and the effect of improved economic development has not been analyzed in terms of its impacts on women and girls and gender equality and changes in the informal structures such on the traditional roles of women and men. GAD mainstreaming should consider institutionalizing the practice of analyzing gender equality impacts and how these affect differently among women and men (benefits) as well as how development processes harnesses the contribution of women and men (influence), as a reference to policy making at the national and local levels and basis for development planning.

52. Addressing women economic disadvantages and discrimination at the workplace. As pointed out by an ILO study¹³⁸, there is a serious need to analyze and address barriers that impact on gender differences in employment patterns of women compared to men (i.e. labour force participation rates, employment, unemployment and underemployment rates, types of jobs and occupations available, work status, etc.); gender-based discrimination in the terms and conditions of women's work which refers to hours of work, wages, maternity or paternity benefits, occupational health and safety, opportunities for training, career promotion, recruitment and other employment practices;

¹³⁸ Lazo, Lucita. 2008. A gender perspective in labour market governance. ILO Asia-Pacific Working Paper Series. Subregional Office for South-East Asia and the Pacific

and, gender differences in participation in labour market governance which refers to the availability of social space for women to have a voice in policy making on the management of the labour market¹³⁹.

The need to enact and amend certain laws and/or legal provisions to address discriminatory acts to women in labor and employment is now very much needed. The failure of existing legislation¹⁴⁰ to recognize real differences between sectors and groups, which fall short to international standard of “equal pay for work of equal value”, should be resolved. Women who are concentrated in industrial sectors suffering low daily wage are by this reason, further disadvantaged compared to their male counterparts (Celis, Magsombol and Sobritchea 2012; page 92). The 2012 GLMS notes that decent wage cannot be achieved through mere standardization of salaries or straightforward merit promotion plans as what is the current platform in the Philippines. Salary standardization lacks the competency or adequacy to determine decent wage highlighting the need to draft a more comprehensive job evaluation scheme that cuts across industries and sectors. Furthermore, the Salary Standardization Law, establishing Minimum Wages, and the Wage Rationalization Act (RA 6727) need to be reviewed so that the work of women is appropriately analyzed and evaluation methods that are objective and free from gender bias are applied.

Also, according to the 2012 GLMS, current increasing trend of casual labor is seriously disadvantaging women. Data shows an increase in the share of casual workers, and a decline in the share of permanent workers, indicating a decline in work security and a reduction in wages. This is a growing trend in the Philippines which needs to be further examined because it seriously exploits women’s labour, especially young women. This could be partially addressed through legislation.

The 2012 GLMS also recommends addressing the issues of workers in the informal economy. While proper laws and mechanisms are being put into place to transition workers from the informal to formal employment, workers in the informal economy should not be deemed as outside of the protection of labor laws. The right to labor should be recognized in workers engaged even in unregistered businesses and will entail policy change to ensure their right to social protection in terms of coverage in basic social services (SSS, Pag-ibig Fund, Philhealth), right to training and development, the right to file complaints against abuses and recognizing and acknowledging the contributions and potential for growth is essential to boost productivity as well as confidence of workers in the informal economy.

53. Reducing vulnerabilities of women OFWs. The need to review the government’s stand and DOLE’s policy track regarding the deployment of OFWs in vulnerable employment and in countries with high violations of women’s rights has been a persistent call made by GEWE advocates and labour migration watch groups. Overseas migration is a gendered phenomenon in the Philippines. Jobs available to women OFWs in the global market are high in care work, particularly domestic work where they are often vulnerable to abuses. The capacity of OWWA to implement gender responsive return and reintegration programmes for returning women and men workers need to be addressed immediately.

54. Gender responsive tax reforms. The Philippines may benefit in reducing income taxes on women and increase, by less, income taxes on men in a way that holds total tax revenue constant. The

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ Article 135 (a) of the Labor Code and Republic Act 6758, as discussed in Part IV of this report.

debate in the EU, where this policy has been proposed, argues that this policy would simultaneously reduce overall tax distortions and increase women's participation in the labour force, thus achieving the goals of quotas and affirmative action but in a more efficient way. While quotas impose quantitative constraints that prevent agents from equalizing costs and benefits at the margin, gender-based taxation changes relative prices but let agents free to optimize at the margin (Alesina, Ichino, & Karabarbounis, 2007).

Agency

Data and evidence will show that women representation is in place at the national and local levels. There is marked increase in the number of elected women, particularly at the Mayoralty posts and in the House of Representatives. Women's party list continues to hold seat in congress. Women in the civil service almost equal in number with the men and hold decision making positions. However, despite the promising gains for women representation and participation, VAWC is still a persistent issue all over the country and manifest across economic classes, poor and rich women are victimized, young and old. VAWC silences women, drowning their voices. This appears to be a major barrier for women and girls to participate in governance at the local level and make intelligent choices for their own development and that of their children.

55. Intensify measures to prevent child labor and protect the rights of the girl child. Many girls drop out of school because of housekeeping responsibility.¹⁴¹ There is a great need to intensify efforts to prevent girl children from child labor through the urgent implementation of the Kasambahay Law, and the International Labor Convention 189, on Domestic Work.

56. Intensify measures to stop VAWC and GBV. Current efforts on VAWC, though laudable, do not yet impact at the community and household levels.¹⁴² Empowering women and girls is an important success indicator in preventing VAWC. Also, current studies¹⁴³ point to the effectiveness of programmes addressing men and boys and masculinities which is not yet a standard practice in the Philippines.

57. Intensify measures to stop violence against children in school. Out of 10,000 child abuse cases reported by the DSWD in the years between 1998 and 2004, 500-800 cases are committed by teachers, janitors, bus drivers, and school personnel. Children also experience violence committed by students, such as bullying, or as participants of gang-related fighting (UNICEF, Plan International, WAGI, 2012). The baseline study on violence against children in public schools conducted by UNICEF with Plan International and the Council for the Welfare of Children in 2009, acknowledges the need to probe on the extent of violence against LGBT children and cited as a recommendation to "look into gender-based discrimination in schools, particularly as it related to actual or perceived sexual orientation of a child" as an important area of study (UNICEF, Plan International, WAGI, 2012).

58. Increase women's political participation. A study conducted 2008-2009 by Paz y Desarrollo (PyD), in partnership with Enjambra¹⁴⁴ and supported by AECID on women's political participation in seven selected countries in Asia including the Philippines surfaced several issues that deter women from participating in politics. Barriers point to limited access to resources, particularly social and political

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

¹⁴² For further validation.

¹⁴³ Partners for Prevention (UNDP, UN WOMEN, WHO)

¹⁴⁴ Enjambra contra la explotación sexual

networks. Absence and lack of capital and financial resources precludes women to run for public office. Structures and systems of political parties are male-oriented and, as such, are not necessarily responsive to the needs and situations of women. Women, also, have limited access in decision-making within these structures. The study also identified political dynasties, corruption, and violence as the backdrops of the political environment that deter women from participating in and carrying out political work (Enjambra contra la explotacion sexual and Paz y Desarrollo, 2009).

The need to impose affirmative action and temporary measures to ensure more women participation in politics can be carried by imposing quotas in the fielding party list representatives. Women quota can also be imposed in the election/appointment of officials of political parties and in the nomination of local and national party candidates.

Annex 1: Philippines Human Development Goals

Philippines Human Development Goals					
Goals/Targets/Indicators		Baseline	Target	Latest	Probability *
GOAL 1. ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER					
target 1.A	Halve, between 1990s and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day				
indicator 1.1A	Proportion of population below national poverty threshold **	33.1	16.6	26.5	Medium
		1991	2015	2009	
indicator 1.2	Poverty gap ratio **	8.6	4.3	2.7	High
		1991	2015	2009	
indicator 1.3	Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	6.2	increasing	6.2	
		1991		2009	
target 1.B	Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people				
indicator 1.4	Growth rate of GDP per person employed	1.6	increasing	0.5	
		1990		2011	
indicator 1.5	Employment-to-population ratio	59	increasing	60.1	
		1990		2011	
indicator 1.6	Proportion of employed population living below the national poverty threshold	20.5	decreasing	22.4	
		2003		2009	
indicator 1.7	Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment	51.3	decreasing	41.2	
		1990		2011	
indicator 1.7a	Proportion of own-account (self-employed) workers in total employment	35.6	decreasing	29.6	
		1990		2011	
indicator 1.7b	Proportion of contributing (unpaid) family workers in total employment	15.7	decreasing	11.6	
		1990		2011	
target 1.C	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger				
indicator 1.8	Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age using Child Growth Standards (CGS)	26.5	13.6	20.2	Medium
		1992	2015	2011	
indicator 1.9	Percent of household with per capita energy less than 100% adequacy	74.2	37.1	66.9	Low
		1993	2015	2008	
indicator 1.9a	Proportion of population with mean one-day energy intake less than 100% adequacy			73.3	
				2008	
indicator 1.9b	Proportion of population below national subsistence (food) threshold **	16.5	8.25	10.8	High
		1991	2015	2009	
GOAL 2. ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION					
target 2.A	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling				

indicator 2.1	Net enrolment ratio in primary education	84.6	100	89.9	Low
		1990	2015	2010	
indicator 2.2	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 6 (Cohort Survival Rate)	69.7	100	74.2	Low
		1990	2015	2010	
indicator 2.2a	Primary completion rate	64.2	100	73.1	Low
		1990	2015	2010	
indicator 2.3	Literacy rate of 15 to 24 years old	96.6	100	97.8	Low
		1990	2015	2008	
indicator 2.3a	Ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 year-old	1	1	1	High
		1990	2015	2008	
GOAL 3. PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN					
target 3.A	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015				
indicator 3.1a	Ratio of girls to boys in primary education	1	1	1	High
		1996	2015	2010	
indicator 3.1a.1	Ratio of girls to boys in elementary participation rates	1	1	1	High
		1996	2015	2010	
indicator 3.1b	Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education	1.1	1	1.1	Medium
		1996	2015	2010	
indicator 3.1b.1	Ratio of girls to boys in secondary participation rates	1.2	1	1.2	Low
		1996	2015	2010	
indicator 3.1c	Ratio of girls to boys in tertiary education	1.3	1	1.2	Low
		1993	2015	2010	
indicator 3.2	Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector	40.1	50	41.9	High
		1990	2015	2009	
indicator 3.3	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	11.3	50	21.4	Low
		1992	2015	2010	
GOAL 4. REDUCE CHILD MORTALITY					
target 4.A	Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate				
indicator 4.1	Under-five mortality rate	80	26.7	33.5	High
		1990	2015	2008	
indicator 4.2	Infant mortality rate	57	19	24.9	High
		1990	2015	2008	
indicator 4.3	Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles	77.9	100	90.6	Medium
		1990	2015	2009	
GOAL 5. IMPROVE MATERNAL HEALTH					
target 5.A	Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio				
indicator 5.1	Maternal mortality	121-207	30.3-51.8	95-163	Low
	(based on 7-12 PMDF*** range)	1990	2015	2010	
indicator 5.2	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	58.8	100	74.3	Low
		1990	2015	2009	
target 5.B	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS				
indicator 5.3	Contraceptive prevalence rate	40	100	50.7	Low

		1993	2015	2008	
indicator 5.5a	Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit)	91.2	increasing	95.8	
		1993		2008	
indicator 5.5b	Antenatal care coverage (at least four visits)	52.1	increasing	77.8	
		1993		2008	
indicator 5.6	Unmet need for family planning	26.2	decreasing	22.3	
		1993		2008	
GOAL 6. COMBAT HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES					
target 6.C	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases				
indicator 6.6a	Prevalence associated with malaria	118.7	0	13.3	High
		1990	2015	2008	
indicator 6.6b	Death rate associated with malaria	1.4	0	0.2	High
		1990	2015	2006	
indicator 6.8a	Prevalence associated with tuberculosis	246	0	273.1	Low
		1990	2015	2008	
indicator 6.8b	Death rate associated with tuberculosis	39.1	0	29.7	Low
		1990	2015	2006	
indicator 6.9a	Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected under directly observed treatment short course (DOTS)	53	70	72	High
		2001	2015	2008	
indicator 6.9b	Proportion of tuberculosis cases cured under directly observed treatment short course (DOTS)	73	85	79	High
		2001	2015	2008	
GOAL 7. ENSURE ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY					
target 7.A	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies & programmes to reverse the loss of environmental resources				
indicator 7.1	Proportion of land area covered by forest	20.5	increasing	23.9	
		1990		2003	
indicator 7.2	Consumption of ozone-depleting CFCs (ODP tons)	2981	decreasing	236	
		1990		2009	
indicator 7.B	Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss				
indicator 7.5a	Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area	8.5	increasing	13.5	
		1990		2010	
indicator 7.6a	Number of species threatened with extinction	183	decreasing	209	
		1992		2011	
target 7.C	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation				
indicator 7.7	Proportion of families with access to safe water supply	73	86.5	84.8	High
		1990	2015	2010	
indicator 7.8	Proportion of families with sanitary toilet facility	67.6	83.8	92.5	High
		1990	2015	2010	
target 7.D	By 2020, have achieved significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers				
indicator 7.9	Proportion of families with access to	91	increasing	90.8	

	secure tenure	1990		2010	
GOAL 8. DEVELOP A GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP FOR DEVELOPMENT					
target 8.D	Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries thru national & international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term				
indicator 8.12	Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services	27.2	decreasing	11.2	
		1990		2010	
target 8.F	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications				
indicator 8.14	Telephone lines subscribers per 100 population	1.5	increasing	3.7	
		1990		2011	
indicator 8.15	Cellular phone subscribers per 100 population	0.1	increasing	95.2	
		1991		2011	
Probability of Achieving the Goal:					
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low ; Pace of Progress is less than 0.5 • Medium ; Pace of Progress between 0.5 and 0.9 • High ; Pace of Progress is greater than 0.9 					
Source: MDG Watch, NSCB as of 12 September 2012					

Annex 2: Laws and Policies on Gender Equality and Women Empowerment in the Philippines

Laws and Policies on Gender Equality and Women Empowerment in the Philippines		
Index Number	Title Significance and Relevant Provisions	Year Enacted into Law
RA 7192	The Women in Development and Nation Building Act	2002
RA 9710	Magna Carta of Women	2009
RA 8371	Act to Recognize, Protect, Promote the Rights of Indigenous Communities - Section 26. Provisions on the rights of indigenous women	1997
Endowments		
RA 7875	National Health Insurance Act of 1995	1995
RA 7883	Barangay Health Workers' Benefits and Incentives Act of 1995	1995
RA 8344	Act prohibiting demand of deposits or advance payments for the confinement or treatment of patients in hospitals and medical clinics	1997
RA 8508	Health Research and Development Act of 1998	1998
RA 8508	Philippine Aids Prevention and Control Act of 1998	1998
RA 8504	Philippine AIDS Prevention and Control Act of 1998 addressing the conditions that aggravate AIDs and HIV infection such as poverty, gender inequality, prostitution, marginalization, drug abuse and ignorance	1998
RA 10354	Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act of 2012	2012
RA 9994	Expanded Senior Citizens Act of 2010	2010
RA 8972	Solo Parents Welfare Act of 2000	2000
Expanding Economic Opportunities		
RA 6725	An Act Strengthening the Prohibition on Discrimination Against Women with Respect to Terms and Conditions of Employment Amending for the Purpose Art. 135 of the Labor Code, as Amended	1989
RA 7882	An Act Providing Assistance to Women Engaging in Micro and Cottage Business Enterprises and for other Purposes	1995
RA 8042	Migrant Workers and OFW Act	1995
RA 8289	Magna Carta of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises	1997
RA 8291	GSTs Act of 1997	1997
RA 8425	Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act – identifies women as basic sector/disadvantaged sector which this act addresses. Also led to creation of the National Anti-Poverty Commission and microfinance facilities for the poor.	1997
RA 10022	An Act Amending Republic Act No. 8042 otherwise known as the Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995, As Amended, Further Improving the Standard of Protection and Promoting of the Welfare of Migrant Workers, Their Families and Overseas Filipinos in Distress and for other Purpose	2009
RA 10151	An Act Allowing the Employment of Night Workers	2011
RA 10361	An Act Instituting Policies for the Protection and Welfare of Domestic Workers	2012
Agency		
RA 7160	Local Government Code – Women Representation in Local Development Councils and Local Special Bodies	1991
RA 7941	Party-List System Act of 1995	1995
RA 8187	Paternity Leave Act	1996
RA 8425	Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act	1997
RA 8552	Domestic Adoption Act of 1998	1998
RA 8171	Providing for the Repatriation of Filipino Women who have lost their Philippine citizenship by marriage to aliens or who are natural born	????

RA 8369	Family Courts Act	
RA 8508	Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act of 1998	1998
RA 10398	An Act Declaring November Twenty-Five Of Every Year As "National Consciousness Day For The Elimination Of Violence Against Women And Children"	????
RA 7877	Anti-sexual Harassment Act of 1995 Resolution No. 94-2854: Policy on SH in the Workplace	1995
RA 8353	Anti-rape Law of 1997	1997
RA 9208	Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003	2003
RA 9262	Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Act	2004
RA 7610	Special Protection of Children Against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination Act	
RA 8044	Youth in National Building Act	1995
RA 7658	Prohibiting the Employment of Children Below 15 Years of Age in Public and Private Undertakings	
RA 6972	Barangay-Level Total Development and Protection of Children Act	1990
RA 7600	Rooming-In and Breastfeeding Act of 1992	1992
RA 8296	The National Children's Broadcasting Day	1997
RA 9231	Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor and Affording Stronger Protection for the Working Child	
RA 1997	Children's Television Act of 1997	1997
RA 8980	The Early Childhood Care and Development Act	2000
RA 8044	Youth in Nation Building Act - that creates the National Youth Commission tasked with, among others, integrating the concerns of the girl-child/young women (ages 15-30 years old) in the Medium Term Youth Development Plan	1995
RA 8551	PNP Reform and Reorganization Act of 1998 - creation of women's and children's desks in all police stations - formulation of a GST program - equal opportunities for women in the PNP - prevents sexual harassment in the workplace - prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender and sexual orientation - requires 10% quota of the PNP's annual recruitment, training and education for women.	1998
Gender Mainstreaming		
RA 8745	DBM and NEDA to set guidelines for the implementation of GAD programs/projects with the 5% of the agency's total budget in accordance with RA 7192 and the PPGD.	1998
PCW MC No. 2011 - 01	Guidelines for the Creation, Strengthening, and Institutionalization of the Gender and Development (GAD) Focal Point System	2011
PCW – NEDA – DBM JC No. 2012-01	Guidelines for the Preparation of Annual Gender and Development (GAD) Plans and Budgets and Accomplishment Reports to Implement the Magna Carta of Women	2012

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