

Gender Concerns and Human Development

Jeanne Frances I. Illo

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For comments, suggestions and further inquiries, please contact:

Room 334, School of Economics, University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City

+632 927 8009

+632 927 9686 loc 334

<http://www.hdn.org.ph>

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JEANNE FRANCES I. ILLO

The *Philippine Human Development Report 1997* focused on “gender,” viewed through the lens of the changing status of women. The thematic essay captures the main findings of the various papers in the report. It began with a review of progress and trends before it explored the following areas: (1) access to and public expenditures in health and education; (2) economic opportunities and unpaid work, (3) gender-based hazards; and (4) women’s empowerment. It concludes with two key messages:

- *Gains achieved by the Philippines have been significant. But gender gaps remain substantial in economic opportunities, decisionmaking, and access to resources.*
- *Women are the key to sustainable human development. “Human development, if not engendered, is endangered.”*

It also proposes two general courses of action:

- *Assess economic policies and programs in terms of their gender responsiveness and gender-based impact.*
- *Develop a system of gender-disaggregated data collection, processing, and dissemination at both the local and national levels.*

This present essay reflects on whether or not the issues raised in the *1997 Report* are meaningful today. It reinvestigates some of the themes covered in 1997 and explores what have been done *vis-à-vis* the suggested actions.

Women’s concerns and gender issues

Valuation of unpaid work

The *1997 Report*, particularly the thematic essay, makes a critical contribution to the human development framework by stressing the importance of women’s unpaid work, both as a constraint to choices and opportunities and as itself contributing to human development. It also unpacks the “household activities and expenditures” element in the framework.

Unpaid work embraces caring activities, which, unlike the usual analysis of “labor” in terms of measurable output per hour, may be viewed as “labor undertaken out of affection or a sense of responsibility for other people, with no expectation of immediate pecuniary reward” [Folbre 2003:216]. It also covers unpaid labor contributed by family members in micro and small enterprises in the business sector, informal work in the delivery of public services, and volunteer work in nonprofit or social organizations or enterprises.

In their thematic essay, Floro and Tan note:

While there is increasing recognition that nonmarket household production is a significant economic activity providing the necessary goods and services for social reproduction, there are several methodological issues concerning its

documentation and measurement that makes this area of production quantitatively elusive. Part of the difficulty lies in assessing the value of nonmarket production. Markets for many nonmarket goods and services are often distorted or nonexistent, presenting difficulties for estimating their monetary value...Despite serious difficulties, it is urgent to have a systematic documentation of women's [and men's] unpaid work and to integrate the information generated in policy decisionmaking and formulation, especially in important social and economic concerns such as the development of children, women's health and gender equality.

The concern for documentation and measurement has taken the form of a call for the collection of large-scale time use data, a call made by the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) and various Gender and Development (GAD) advocates since the 1990s. **Table 1** enumerates the efforts to galvanize support for a nationwide time use survey, but no periodic, nationwide survey has materialized so far.

The interest in time use data stems from a desire to make visible the wide array of women's work and to gain formal recognition of women's contributions to the economy, including their unpaid, reproductive work. This creates not just goods and services for current consumption, but, more important, it produces the next generation of female and male workers (human capital) and citizens.¹ Will this generation observe the same gender roles and division of labor, or will women and men move toward more shared roles and responsibilities? The conduct of periodic, nationwide time use surveys can shed light on these and similar questions.

Time use surveys can provide the data for the valuation of unpaid work. Since 1997, there have been efforts to incorporate satellite accounts in the System of National Accounts (SNA) following the revision of the SNA in 1993 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). This recognizes the concept of household production, which results from the combination of unpaid labor, goods, services, and capital.²

As noted by various observers, the operational inclusion of unpaid work in SNA has varied among countries.³ In the Philippines, the SNA production boundary consists of the production of all market and nonmarket goods and services of the following institutional sectors: (1) financial corporation, (2) nonfinancial corporation, (3) general government, and (4) nonprofit institutions serving households. For the fifth sector (households), however, only market goods and services and nonmarket goods are included in the production boundary, or are counted in the GDP.

Table 1. Efforts toward addressing the need for time use data

1997	Memorandum of agreement between NCRFW and the National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB) for the project, "Development of a Framework toward Measuring Women's and Men's Contribution to the Economy," under the second phase of the NCRFW Institutional Strengthening Project, funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)
1999	Framework for measuring women's and men's contribution to the economy finalized by the NSCB
2000	NSO (National Statistics Office) 2000 Pilot Time Use Survey conducted in Batangas and Quezon City, under the CIDA-supported NCRFW Institutional Strengthening Project

2002	Presentation of the framework for measuring women's and men's contribution to the economy during NSCB Executive Board meeting; launching of the UNDP Asia-Pacific Gender Equality Network (APGEN) Project on Integrating Unpaid Work into National Policies, which issued a call for a national time use survey in 2004
2003	Users' Forum on Integrating Unpaid Work into National Policies, organized by the NSO, NEDA, Asian Development Bank (ADB), UNDP-APGEN, and NCRFW
2007	Highlighting of unpaid work in national statistics during the plenary session and a side session organized by the NCRFW during the National Conference on the Philippine Statistics Association
2008	Advocacy Forum on Gender Statistics, organized by the NCRFW with the Inter-Agency Task Force on Gender Statistics

Without time use data, labor force surveys are used as basis for estimating contribution of labor to GDP. These surveys, however, are problematic because they do not recognize work done by “housekeepers” who are not paid for their labor. There is a need to redefine “economic activity” to include activities that produce the next generation of workers. A recent paper of the National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB) claims that neglecting to account for unpaid work has resulted in the undervaluation of GDP by 27 percent to 40 percent, and the underreporting of women's contribution to GDP by at least 13 percentage points [Virola et al. 2007].

What are the implications of having reliable time use data, or information on unpaid work, to policymaking and action?

The time use data can provide a firm basis for advocacy for State and private sector workplace support for women's care activities as well as day care centers. There are laws regarding these, but their effectiveness has been hampered by the absence of implementation and monitoring guidelines and budgets.

The estimate of women's contribution to GDP and the high ratio of the value of unpaid work to total wages are important starting points for a social marketing of private sector support for women's unpaid work. The products of unpaid work—meals, clean clothes, and other care services that would have cost more if these were purchased from the market—significantly depress subsistence wages, enabling business establishments to become competitive. But left to themselves and with few exceptions,⁴ the private sector will probably not invest in facilities that help their workers, particularly women, balance their work and family life.

Day care centers, however, are two-edged. As Elson [2005] and Folbre [2003] have noted, allowing women to bring their children to work reinforces the sexual division of labor. Men should share in the actual care of children. Some community-based enterprises have addressed this problem by conducting awareness-raising sessions with the men. Where this was done, some of the men have reportedly been convinced to share in domestic work such as minding children and preparing meals. This dual approach takes off from the recognition that gender norms affecting gender relations and division of labor can change, although these are not likely to change easily. Until this happens, women need to be supported with their child care work.

Education and health-related capacities and access

The *PHDR 1997* noted the advances made in the areas of health and education since the end of World War II. Illiteracy, morbidity, and mortality rates have declined. It also noted that the absence of “explicit legal and cultural barriers to women’s education” in the country had enabled girls and women to enroll in large numbers, causing the gap in educational indicators to be narrower than elsewhere. In fact, girls and women had overtaken boys and men insofar as school participation, completion, and cohort survival rates were concerned.

These trends persist. The gender parity ratio (or ratio of female to male rates) in simple literacy rate widened from 0.3 percentage points in 1994 to 0.4 in 2000 and 1.7 in 2003. The same pattern was evident in functional literacy rate, where the gap increased from 1.7 in 1994 to 4.4 in 2003. Among people who had not completed any grade, the gender parity ratio dramatically dropped from 1.02 in 1990 to 0.84 in 2000, while the sex ratio among college graduates rose, too, although not as dramatically. Conversely, dropout rates (or proportion of school leavers) at the basic education level continue to be higher among boys than girls.

While the gender gaps may have favored women, other education indicators are troubling. Gender role stereotyping in tertiary level courses women and men pursue is one persistent problem. But particularly troubling are the dropout rates, which have been increasing since at least school year 2002-2003. The reasons children leave school are chilling. Boys are taken out of school to work in farms or seek other forms of employment, probably more now than before. Meanwhile, girls are said to leave school to help with housework and child care, but there is evidence that suggest that many quit because they got pregnant or have been recruited to work in the city.

These have negative long-term consequences as they compromise the development of capacities that could have helped females and males participate better in society and the economy as adults. The government has in place a dropout reduction (DOR) program for years now. What it can also do is to help schools and their boards to respond to gender-differentiated reasons for dropping out.

In the area of health, high maternal mortality rate (MMR) continues to be a problem. The Family Planning Survey (FPS) conducted by the National Statistics Office (NSO) in 2006 revealed that for every 100,000 live births in the Philippines, 162 women die during pregnancy and childbirth or shortly after childbirth. This MMR is slightly lower than the 1998 National Demographic and Health Survey estimate of 172 deaths and the 1993 National Demographic Survey estimate of 209 deaths, but still far from the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target of 53 by 2015 [NCRFW 2009 and NEDA 2007].

To address the high MMR problem, the recently enacted Magna Carta of Women (Republic Act 9710) provides under Section 17 for (1) comprehensive health services, including maternal care, “responsible, ethical, legal, safe, and effective methods of family planning,” and (2) comprehensive health information and education.

Experiences with gender laws, or laws in general, show that their implementation is often hindered by inadequate funding, lack of understanding among key stakeholders of their roles in the implementation, low political commitment, cultural norms and assumptions that make reporting of gender crimes difficult, and absence of effective monitoring system. These happened with the Anti-Sexual Harassment Act of

1995 (RA 7877), Anti-Rape Act of 1997 (RA 8353), Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003 (RA 9208), and the Anti-Violence against Women and Children Act of 2004 (RA 9262) [ADB et al. 2008:81-82]. Unless the problems are addressed early on, they can also easily hamper the effectiveness of the Magna Carta of Women.

High maternal mortality rate is just part of a bigger problem: high population growth and the absence of a population program that can contain the problem.⁵ Limited-sample time use studies have shown that in families with children aged five years or below, particularly infants and toddlers, a large part of women's time is spent caring and watching over them.

A study conducted in the early 1990s suggests that the time allotted by mothers for child care jumps from nine percent to 21 percent in rural areas and from 12 percent to 15 percent in urban areas with additional young children in the family [Domingo and Cabegin 1994:31 and Illo 2009]. In contrast, fathers in rural or urban areas spend no more than 6 percent of their time with their young children. Women with babies or toddlers often temporarily withdraw from economic activities that will take them away from home, but not when the enterprise can be continued without leaving home. They resume their economic enterprises once the children are in school or there are older children who could keep an eye on their younger sibling.

The dangers of losing a child to injuries or accidents are very real. Injuries account for a significant proportion of childhood deaths.⁶ Injury rate among children was highest at 0-4 years old. Leading causes reportedly differ by age group. Among children younger than one year, it is suffocation (248 per 100,000); among one- to four-year-olds, it is drowning (89 per 100,000).

Economic opportunities

At least up until 2007, the Philippine economy has markedly improved. GDP grew by 7.3 percent in 2007, the highest growth in 31 years. This growth, however, seems not to have made a significant dent on poverty reduction, nor has it equally benefited urban centers, the countryside, and the provinces.⁷ Jobs have not been created at the same pace as the growth of the labor force. Moreover, half of all new jobs are those that poor women and men have created for themselves—in what constitutes the country's informal economy [ADB et al. 2008:8].

The gender gap in the labor force participation continued through the decade following the publication of the *PHDR 1997*, although there appears to have been a narrowing of the gap caused by a fall in the labor force participation rate among men in some years. There has also been an increase in the unemployment rate among men between 2002 and 2006, reversing past trend. It is hard to ascertain the sustainability of this new trend. Since 1997, women's share in wage and salary jobs has increased, and so has the proportion of women own-account workers. Lastly, the domestic economy continues to fail in offering employment opportunities to women and men, fuelling the labor outmigration. Women overseas Filipino workers (OFWs) continue to leave, outnumbering men among land-based new hires [ADB et al. 2008:14-15].

Different groups of women face varying economic opportunities. The better educated women continue to dominate in the education-sensitive occupational categories (administrative/executive/government officials, professional/technical, and clerical). They outnumber men in ICT-based industries, but they often occupy low-

paid, low-tier jobs in electronic assembly lines, answering phone calls or Internet inquiries in call centers, or encoding company data. More and more women, however, are breaking into the better-paid jobs in design and content processing [ADB et al. 2008:28].

Many women, however, are found in agriculture, working as unpaid family labor, or in the non-agricultural, informal economy, running micro-enterprises or toiling as home-based workers, sewing parts of garments, or producing other goods as part of export-oriented value chains. Some studies have shown that women's contribution (out of incomes from these enterprises) to the household coffers is not insignificant. At least a third of income of poor households reportedly comes from women's various economic micro-scale activities [NCRFW 2004]. The choice to stay informal and micro is partly related to gender division of labor, where women are expected to "keep house and care for the children," regardless of their other occupation or preoccupation [ADB et al. 2008:38].

Economic empowerment measures have to expand beyond the concern over the formal labor market to the micro-enterprises and the informal economy that employ about half of the labor force (particularly women). A combination of measures—beyond the usual microfinance—is needed to address the various concerns of micro-entrepreneurs, both women and men.

Participation in politics and governance

As noted in the thematic essay, Filipino women's engagement in formal politics—or the formal seeking or exercise of power in electoral campaigns and public spheres of decisionmaking—dates back to the two decades of struggle and mobilization for female suffrage from the 1910s to the 1930s, which led to the enactment of the Woman Suffrage Law in 1937. Since then, and particularly during the past three decades, the Philippine government has made significant efforts in making its governance institutions accessible to women [ADB et al. 2008:23].

Nonetheless, among the candidates to elective offices, men outnumber women at national and local levels. As one scholar noted, "Winning in an election has always been a challenge to women career politicians. Election costs are tremendously high, despite election rules against expenditures, and only those with money can equally compete. Women politicians must also be acceptable to the network of patronage politics prevalent in the country which is dominated by seasoned male politicians" [Aguilar 1991-1992:1-2].

Men also continue to win more seats at all levels, although there has been a 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. Despite these developments, politics is still a male domain.⁸ The rising percentage of women in electoral politics is partly due to the widespread practice of women contesting the positions vacated by their male spouse, and thus has more to do with political dynasty than "women's empowerment."⁹ However, a few groups such as the Center for Asia Pacific Women in Politics (CAPWIP) have been striving to wean women politicians, both newcomers and old-timers, away from traditional politics of patronage to politics for social transformation.

In addition to efforts of women nongovernment organizations (NGOs), the NCRFW has supported advocacy campaigns and training of women and women's groups within and outside

government. Their combined efforts have produced several gender-sensitive female leaders and made possible the integration of gender concerns in regular orientation programs of newly elected local chief executives, networking with and capacity building of women elected officials through their associations, and the passage in 2003 of the Manila Declaration on Gender-Responsive Governance—a statement of principles and actions that presently guides the policy advocacy and program development work of women elected officials all over the country [Sobritchea 2005].

In areas where these effects are strongest, exemplary gender-responsive local governance practices have emerged and been recognized by award-conferring bodies for excellence in local governance. Davao City has a Women Development Code (City Ordinance 5004) and Gender Watch Project. The province of Bulacan and Cebu City are other examples [NCRFW 2004].

Participation in governance is not limited to electoral politics.¹⁰ Various laws enacted in the 1990s have provided for women's representation in specific decisionmaking bodies such as the National Anti-Poverty Council (NAPC), which assigns the "women sector" a seat under the Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act of 1997 (RA 8425), and the National Commission on Indigenous Peoples (NCIP), which has two women commissioners out of seven pursuant to the Indigenous Peoples' Rights Act of 1997 (RA 8371).

Women occupied more than the allotted seats in agricultural and fishery councils at different levels, but accounted for a much smaller percentage (no more than 29 percent) of the membership of agrarian reform governing units or councils, and a yet much smaller share in protected areas management boards. At the local level, there is no enabling law that would strengthen the sector representation provision of the Local Government Code. Meanwhile, a related bill continues to languish in Congress.

In the Philippines as probably elsewhere, women have long been involved in grassroots organizations, social networks, cultural associations, and religious organizations.¹¹ Women's influence in decisionmaking can be seen in the successful advocacy by women's organizations of gender-budget initiatives and landmark laws that seek to protect the rights of women. At the local level, women's groups have worked with local legislators and GAD advocates in local governments to craft GAD Codes, plans, and/or programs [IPC/CIDA 2003, NCRFW 2004, and Sobritchea 2005].

On the PHDR proposals

GAD budget and gender-responsive programs

In the late 1980s, the government embarked on a gender mainstreaming campaign to remove gender bias in its policies (regulations, circulars, and issuances), operations and procedures, and programs. In 1992, Congress enacted the Women in Development and Nation-Building Act (RA 7192), which set forth three broad strategies for providing women rights and opportunities equal to that of men, including gender mainstreaming. The other two strategies are (1) setting aside and utilizing a substantial portion of overseas development assistance (ODA) funds to support programs and activities for women and (2) making all government departments responsible for ensuring that women benefit equally and participate directly in the development programs and projects of the department.

At the national level, the NCRFW helps a network of GAD focal points to mainstream GAD in various government agencies; the NCRFW is undertaking an assessment of its gender mainstreaming program.¹² Several things can be said about the focal point system.

Many of the focal persons have gone through several training programs in the 1990s, but probably not as many have received updated GAD inputs. Some have been active for years, while others have either been reassigned or lost the support of management.

In addition, the capacities of the GAD focal points vary dramatically with some able to prepare GAD plans, design projects, or assist their colleagues integrate GAD or respond to gender issues in their work. Their influence also varies with their location. Those based in the personnel/human resources divisions are able to address sexual harassment cases or include human resources type of activities (such as day care centers) in their agency GAD plans and budgets. In contrast, those with the planning division are able to integrate gender concerns in plans.

In a few agencies, the countless gender sensitivity sessions and GAD trainings seemed to pay off. GAD focal persons and technical working groups in the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) and the Philippine Ports Authority (PPA), for example, have been able to mobilize their GAD budget to continuously upgrade their capacities to do research, design and monitor projects, and improve services. In the case of PPA, its halfway houses and antitrafficking in persons program are exemplary [ADB et al. 2008:92]. As will be apparent in the next section, not many government agencies have been able to fashion its mainstream programs or services to address gender issues.

Domestically financed GAD budget

The Implementing Rules and Regulations (IRR) of RA 7192 provides for a GAD budget allocation from the regular budgets of government departments and agencies. The first GAD budget call came out in 1994 for national government agencies; it was followed a few years later for local government units. Beginning in 1995, the General Appropriations Act (GAA) included a GAD budget provision.

During the 15 years or more of implementation and sustained advocacy, compliance with the GAD budget policy has been consistently low, averaging less than 40 percent of national government agencies. In recent years, the GAD budget has usually ranged between P0.84 billion (in 2002) and P2.16 billion (in 2007), while utilization averaged about 36 percent.¹³

An analysis of the agency GAD plans and accomplishment reports suggest that the GAD budget has been used primarily to fund various capacity development or training programs on GAD, usually in the form of gender sensitivity training; advocacy, dissemination of information and education on gender issues; setting up or improving facilities for women employees; establishment of sex-disaggregated database; promotion of the use of nonsexist language; and agency-specific gender mainstreaming activities. Most are focused on preparing the organization to provide services or design projects or programs that address women's concerns or gender issues. Some, however, are directly related to improving agency outputs or operations through the integration of gender in national, sector, or local development planning and the revision of textbooks and module development to erase or counter social and gender stereotypes.

It is not clear whether GAD budgets and plans have led to increased consciousness on gender and development in an entire organization. With a possible exception of a few agencies, there is little to suggest that the GAD budget has been successfully used as leverage for making the whole agency budget more responsive to gender-related concerns.¹⁴

ODA-funded projects

The National Economic Development Authority (NEDA) monitors the ODA-related GAD budget policy. Before 2006, NEDA classified foreign-assisted projects into whether these are women-specific projects, have a component for women, or have “integrated” women’s concerns. Monitoring, however, has been difficult as there was no mechanism for ODA donor reporting. The third category was also ambiguous, making it hard to ascertain whether or not ODA projects have indeed allotted 20 percent of their budget to women’s concerns.

In 2006, NEDA began to use the Harmonized GAD Guidelines, a tool it developed with the NCRFW and the ODA-GAD Network¹⁵ to guide the review of project proposals and the monitoring of ODA portfolios. The design checklists determine the gender responsiveness of projects at entry, while the project implementation, management, and monitoring and evaluation (PIMME) checklists help measure the gender responsiveness of projects at implementation. Instead of just focusing on women’s concerns, the guidelines force all projects to confront relevant gender issues.

In 2009, NEDA requested 21 bilateral aid agencies, embassies, and multilateral agencies that provide assistance through loans or grants to submit their GAD monitoring report using the Harmonized GAD Guidelines and a prescribed GAD monitoring template. In all, 20 organizations responded. Their combined ODA portfolio amounted to \$9.5 billion. Of this, 35 percent reportedly support projects that are, by design, gender-responsive or gender-sensitive (that is, are set up to address key GAD issues and to involve women in significant ways), while 65 percent went to projects that have not been designed to respond to gender issues or that have not even identified any gender issue [NEDA 2009]. Not surprisingly, the gender-blind projects consisted mainly of infrastructure projects.

Examples of issues that gender-responsive/sensitive projects are designed to address vary among the sectors. In the social reform and development sector, these include lack of access of poor women to health and reproductive health services, gender-differentiated access to education and educational outcomes, need for provision of spaces in training centers for breastfeeding, sexist educational or training materials, and absence of sex-disaggregated information systems. Rural development projects are addressing issues on women’s participation in resource management activities and their membership and leadership even in male-dominated organizations, access to microfinance and micro-enterprises, biases in distribution of resources and access to training (biodiversity, coastal resource management), and lack of recognition to women’s claims to land. Sex-disaggregated land information system was also developed to capture and show social and gender data.

Meanwhile, in the governance and institutional development, gender-responsive/sensitive projects are responding to issues on women’s access to justice, the need for gender-sensitive handling of specific women’s issues such as violence and sexual harassment, and women’s representation in both membership and leadership of organizations. In the industry and services sector, there are projects that recognize the need to incorporate gender analysis in the value chain analyses, establish microfinance facilities and ensure equitable distribution of its benefits as well as from scaled-up selected commodities, and the development of local and national enabling environments for women micro-entrepreneurs [NEDA 2009].

These attempts to track regular domestic and ODA GAD budget allocations and execution are important and need to be sustained. So must the conduct of audit by the Commission on Audit (COA) of the GAD budget utilization. However, NEDA and the NCRFW have to scrutinize more carefully the GAD monitoring reports (ODA) and GAD plans, budgets and accomplishment reports (regular budget) that they receive.

For locally funded GAD budgets, the questions are: Will the GAD plans really promote GAD in the agency and help produce more gender-responsive services and programs? Will the planned activities contribute to the achievement of performance indicators? Considering that inputs are rarely able to generate results immediately, how often can the same activities appear in GAD plans and budgets?

For ODA-funded projects, NEDA can ask: Are GAD ratings given projects backed up by evidence? Are the reported GAD initiatives producing gender equality or women's empowerment results? NEDA should begin requesting donor agencies to report GAD results.

Collection and utilization of sex-disaggregated information

Gender sensitivity or awareness-raising sessions usually have several core messages. Of these, the importance of sex-disaggregated data is the stickiest. It is not surprising therefore for government agencies and ODA-funded projects to offer their sex-disaggregated database as a proof that they have "mainstreamed gender."

The message has been reinforced time and again by continuous advocacy of the NCRFW, GAD advocates, and women's organizations not only for the generation of information classified by sex of decisionmakers, participants, beneficiaries, or clients, but as well as for the collection of data on specific gender issues such as VAWC, land claims, constraints to women's access to finance and other inputs, work hazards in women-dominated workplaces, and control over reproductive health problems and services.

At the local level, the Department of Interior and Local Government (DILG) encourages local governments to assess themselves on several gender-related items using the Local Governance Performance Measurement System (LGPMS). These items include passing a GAD Code, having a GAD budget, and implementing a GAD plan. Another local-level GAD monitoring tool is the Gender-Responsive Local Government (GeRL), which helps local governments review their programs and services against gender-related variables.

For decades now, labor force and education statistics have been sex-disaggregated. These data have been used by policymakers, planners, and researchers. Other sex-disaggregated databases, however, are not as well used. It is not evident whether projects analyze these in order to fine-tune project design or implementation, or improve project management. Without a clear idea as to why they are collecting sex-disaggregated data, it comes as no surprise that agencies and projects are asking themselves: Why collect these data?

Future research

From a wide array of research topics that should be pursued, three will be mentioned here. The first is unpaid work and changing gender roles and relations. These can be captured by periodic, large-sample, national time use survey. This will be a difficult and costly enterprise, but has to be done.

Another issue that needs to be investigated is the notion of *de facto* and *de jure* household headship, and household spending and saving patterns. As the *1997 Report* shows, the Family Income and Expenditures Survey (FIES) database does not allow for a comparison of female- and male-headed households in similar stage of their life cycle. It cannot be used to answer whether or not the gender of the household head matters. Without controlling for life cycle effect and/or asset status, it appears that female household heads are less poor than their male

counterparts, spend more prudently, and pay loans and taxes. It neglects to mention that the women had more resources at their disposal (incomes and transfers) and could therefore invest and share.

A third research issue is related to the role of the women's movement and its various strands in promoting women's status and interests. This should cover different arenas of action, including political engagement through the party list rule or as a critic of government, legislative lobbying, monitoring of government and NGO commitments, delivery of services, and networking and coalition formation.

Conclusion

The *Report* uses the term “engendering” as a way of capturing the intent of “putting gender” into the discussion or “something” that we wish to “engender.” Very often, there is disregard for the fact that the “something” that we wish to “engender” can already be heavily gendered and based on masculine standards. What the statement probably means is that unless human development is at the same time sensitive and responsive to women's gender needs and interests, it may be an endangered concept. It's probably not as sexy, but it is definitely more precise.

A final note: The authors of the various papers, particularly Maria Sagrario L. Floro and Edita Tan, who wrote the thematic essay, the editors, and Solita Collas-Monsod, who provided overall leadership in conceptualizing the *1997 Report*, must be commended. Their efforts produced a collection of evidence-based, robustly argued articles on key dimensions of women's status and key areas of women's human rights—social, economic, and political. The *Report* also highlighted how gender relations affect women's well-being. It did this by implicitly embedding it in the discussions of economic participation and workplace hazards (in the form of sexual harassment) and by exploring the effects of violence against women on their well-being in the article “Breaking the Silence.” In so doing, the *Report* captured key issues that continue to resonate to this day.

Notes

¹ This point was forcefully made by Solita C. Monsod during the 10 October 2009 roundtable discussion.

² This is captured in groups seven to 10 of the United Nations Trial Activity Classification System, namely, unpaid services for own final use (domestic and caregiving services); informal sector production of goods and services for own final use by unincorporated enterprises owned by households (subsistence production and other kinds of informal enterprises); unpaid volunteer/informal domestic and care giving services to other households; and production of housing services for own final consumption (imputed rents of owner-occupied housing).

³ See, for instance, Hirway [2005].

⁴ Among the large establishments, Johnson and Johnson is a notable exception. It offers a child care center and summer children's workshop onsite, flexible hours that help employees to take care of their family responsibilities, and compressed workweek during the summer.

⁵ A number of studies suggest that women have very little control on how many children they will bear. See, for instance, "Unmet Needs," a study commissioned by the Population Commission of the Philippines.

⁶ Injuries as cause of death among children account for one out of 20 children below one year of age, one out of seven in children 1-4 years old, one in five in the 5-9 years old group, and one in three in the 10-14 years old group [UNICEF, Draft 2007 Philippine Situation of Women and Children].

⁷ The *Philippine Human Development Report 2008/2009*, for instance, shows wide variations in the provincial, annual per capita income figures (from \$5,101 in Metro Manila to \$942 in Tawi-Tawi) and the HDI as well.

⁸ See *Paradox and Promise* [ADB et al. 2008:23]. The 2000 Census of Population and Housing placed the voting population at 43.3 million. Women slightly outnumbered men (50.1 percent to 49.9 percent). At least since 1995, women voters' turnout rate had been higher than the men's: 71.0 percent vs. 70.3 percent in 1995, 87.0 percent vs. 85.7 percent in 1998, and 76.7 percent vs. 75.9 percent in 2001 [NCRFW 2004]. This slight edge that women voters have over men voters have not been translated into votes for women candidates.

⁹ A 2004 study by the Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism found that 70 percent of the women in the House of Representatives in 2001 were members of political clans [Coronel, Chua, Rimban, and Cruz 2004].

¹⁰ The judiciary, another governance arena, is male dominated as well, although this dominance is slowly easing. In 1997, about 80 percent of the total judges were male. By 2006, female judges comprised 30 percent. In 2008, six out of 15 Supreme Court justices were women. Meanwhile, in the bureaucracy or the civil service, women comprise the majority. However, they tend to be found at the second level or the rank and file positions. Men occupy the executive or the managerial jobs. See *Paradox and Promise* [ADB et al. 2008:22-23].

¹¹ The Philippine feminist movement was born in 1905 with the organization of the *Asociacion Feminista Filipina* (Association of Filipino Feminists). The period 1972-1986 saw a second wave of political activism among Filipino women, with tens of thousands of women involved in street protests as well as underground activities against the Marcos regime. As the

NGO community grew in the 1980s, women organized their own NGOs and served as leaders in mainstream NGOs, organizing, mobilizing, waging political education, and lobbying the Legislature for bills that address women's issues and concerns [Aquino 1993-1994].

12 An earlier study of the role of the NCRFW in the gender mainstreaming effort is captured in Honculada and Pineda-Ofreneo [2000].

13 NCRFW unpublished annual GAD budget reports, 2002-2008.

14 For best practices at the local level, see *Gender Responsive Governance at Work: LGU Experiences in Using the GAD Budget* [NCRFW 2005].

15 The ODA-GAD Network is an informal organization of gender focal persons of ODA agencies operating in the Philippines. Formed in 2001, the Network serves as a venue for sharing of tools, experiences, and problems encountered in promoting gender equality/equity; coordinating activities; and planning joint actions.

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