

Making the Philippine MDG Report Gender-Responsive



**CEDAW Watch Philippines
2009**



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East and Southeast Asia

Regional Office

UN Building 5th Floor

Rajdamnern Nok Ave.

Bangkok 10200 Thailand

www.unifem-eseasia.org

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Cover photos by Kara Santos, Dondi Tawatao and Noel Celis.

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CEDAW Watch Philippines

Women and Gender Institute, Ground Floor, Caritas Bldg, Miriam College

Tel. (632) 580 5400 local 3590; Fax (632) 435 9229

Email: wagi@mc.edu.ph;

Website: www.cedaw-watch.org

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Foreword

UNIFEM supports and welcomes this Philippine initiative on *Making the Philippine MDG Report Gender-Responsive* that demonstrates how gender equality and women's empowerment perspective can be explicitly reflected in reporting on each of the eight MDG goals. It provides a template of how sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis of trends may be reported against each MDG goal and show gender-differentials in progress and persisting gaps. This should help sharpen state responses and citizens' advocacy in terms of proactive policies, development programming and resource allocation for the remaining half of MDG implementation.

This policy brief on Philippine MDGs reveals that there are serious lags in Philippine MDG implementation in the areas of maternal mortality rates and access to reproductive health services partly due to the lack of comprehensive gender-responsive strategies in addressing women's health and economic needs. It shows gaps in adapting and linking MDG 3 with the socioeconomic context of women's roles and responsibilities in the household, in the community and in society that should also be reflected in other MDG goal indicators. It recommends that CEDAW and BPfA advocates, especially the national women's machinery and women's NGOs, be part of the consultation process for the succeeding series of Philippine MDG reports. It further recommends a review of MDG indicators and the inclusion of other key indicators that would better capture the gender dimensions of achieving MDGs in the Philippines.

UNIFEM advocates for a gender-responsive, rights-based approach to MDG implementation and reporting. This is a good country-specific response and follow-up to earlier UNIFEM global and regional resource materials such as *Pathways to Gender Equality: CEDAW, Beijing and MDGs* in 2005 by its global headquarters and *Making MDGs Work for All: Gender Responsive Rights-Based Approaches to the MDG* by its East and South East Asia Regional Office.

This Philippine report provides a good template of gender-responsive MDG reporting and makes it easier to enhance and update the next Philippine MDG report. UNIFEM invites development practitioners within government and civil society to draw on the rich data, analysis, targets and indicators of this publication to engender the implementations of all MDGs.

Dr. Jean D'Cunha

Regional Programme Director

UNIFEM East and South East Asia Regional Office

Message

The Millennium Development Goals (MDG), adopted in 2000, are important targets set by the global community which it hopes governments will achieve by 2015. Gender is an important theme that cuts across all the eight MDGs and should be mainstreamed and incorporated in current and future MDG programming. This report by CEDAW Watch Philippines, through one of its members, the Women and Gender Institute (WAGI), compellingly argues that in the Philippines and in the rest of the world, formulating gender-responsive development strategies is not only inclusive but also enhances programs that contribute to achieving all MDG goals.

CEDAW Watch Philippines aims to catalyze a movement of women from all sectors nationwide to advocate and defend women's rights, particularly the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. It seeks to partner with women's groups and other civil society organizations to strengthen their capacity in implementing the CEDAW. In line with this, WAGI as a CEDAW partner and an organization that has always been at the forefront of gender, human rights and governance, once again brings to light vital gender issues that need to be considered in monitoring and assessing how the Philippines is faring in terms of achieving the MDGs. We hope that this report raises significant points that can provide greater impetus to all concerned to examine all MDGs with a gender lens that will go a long way in promoting gender equality and the rights of women. Hopefully, the next round of Philippine MDG reports will consider some of the issues that we tried to bring to fore here.

We thank Prof. Jean Franco, coordinator of the Women's Human Rights, Governance and Democracy program of WAGI, for preparing and writing the report. Rest assured that WAGI will continue to critically engage and collaborate with government and civil society actors toward the achievement of the MDGs.

Aurora Javate-De Dios

Convenor, CEDAW Watch Philippines

Executive Director, Women and Gender Institute

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List of Abbreviations

AMP	Adjustment measures program
ARV	Anti-retroviral
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BLE	Bureau of Local Employment
BLES	Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
BRW	Bureau of Rural Workers
BWYW	Bureau of Women and Young Workers
CARP	Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CES	Career Executive Service
CFO	Commission on Filipinos Overseas
CHED	Commisson on Higher Education
CLOA	Certificate of land ownership award
COMELEC	Commission on Elections
CPCS	Crime Prevention and Coordination Service
CSC	Civil Service Commission
CSO	Civil society organization
DAR	Department of Agrarian Reform
DBM	Department of Budget and Management
DFA	Department of Foreign Affairs
DILG	Department of Interior and Local Government
DOH	Department of Health
DOLE	Department of Labor and Employment
DSWD	Department of Social Welfare and Development
DepEd	Department of Education
EP	Emancipation patent
FHH	Female-headed household
FLEMMS	Functional Literacy Education and Mass Media Survey
FNRI	Food and Nutrition Research Institute
FP	Family planning
FPS	Family Planning Survey
GAD	Gender and development
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GDP	Gross domestic product
GNP	Gross national product
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IACT	Inter-Agency Council against Trafficking
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IDUs	Injecting drug users

IRA	Internal revenue allotment
IUD	Intrauterine device
LGU	Local government unit
MCIHDC	Multi-Sectoral Committee on International Human Development Commitments
MDGs	Millennium development goals
MHH	Male-headed household
MIMAROPA	Mindoro-Marinduque-Romblon-Palawan
MMR	Maternal mortality rate
MOA	Memorandum of agreement
MOU	Memorandum of understanding
MSM	Men who have sex with men
MSNAT	Multi-Sectoral Networks against Trafficking in Persons
MTPDP	Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan
NBI	National Bureau of Investigation
NCR	National Capital Region
NDHS	National Demographic and Health Survey
NEDA	National Economic and Development Authority
NGO	Nongovernment organization
NNS	National Nutrition Survey
NSCB	National Statistical Coordination Board
OFW	Overseas Filipino worker
OWWA	Overseas Workers and Welfare Administration
PCIJ	Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism
PCTC	Philippine Center for Transnational Crime
PIP	People in prostitution
PMS	Premarital sex
POLO	Philippine overseas labor office
PPGD	Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development
SDC	Social Development Committee
TB	Tuberculosis
TESDA	Technical Education and Skills Development Authority
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
VAD	Vitamin A deficiency
VAWC	Violence against women and children
VCT	Voluntary counseling and treatment
WCCPC-PNP	Women's Crisis and Child Protection Center-Philippine National Police
WEDC	Women in especially difficult circumstances
WHO	World Health Organization

Introduction

The Millennium Declaration was adopted by 191 member States of the United Nations in September 2000. The document contained eight time-bound and specific goals that signatory countries are committed to achieve by 2015. Dubbed as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), these are as follows: (1) Eradication of extreme poverty and hunger; (2) Achievement of universal primary education; (3) Promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women; (4) Reduction of child mortality; (5) Improvement of maternal health; (6) Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; (7) Ensuring environmental sustainability, and (8) Developing a global partnership for development.

Since its inception, national and global women's groups have decried the MDGs as being minimalist. National reports show insufficient sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis. Specifically, concerns are raised on the inadequacy of targets and indicators and their silence on the contextual issues of gender relations that hamper the achievement of gender equality. The three Philippine MDG reports since 2000 are a case in point.

According to advocates, Goal 3 should be expanded to include matters that consider the differential impact of development outcomes on men and women. The crux of the argument is that the achievement of all goals enshrined in the Millennium Declaration relies to a great extent on addressing gender equality and women's empowerment. In this regard, scholars and activists turn to two of the major achievements of the global women's movement: the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) as international commitments on gender equality that can be linked to the MDGs in theoretical and empirical terms. The links, as will be discussed later, make a compelling framework for engendering MDG reporting.

The Philippines and the Policy and Institutional Mechanisms on the MDGs

1. As a signatory, the Philippines has adopted policies in the pursuit of achieving the MDG targets. In fact, the MDG and the country's 1987 Constitution are complementary. In the words of the Philippines' permanent representative to the United Nations:

“At the heart of the MDGs are social justice and human rights. And the Constitution of the Philippines expressly provides that Congress shall give highest priority to the enactment of measures that protect and enhance the right of all the people to human dignity, reduce social, economic and political inequalities, and remove cultural inequities by equitably diffusing wealth and political power for the common good. (Sec,I, Article XIII).”¹

2. The MDGs are essentially enshrined in various international human rights treaties² that the Philippines has signed and committed to implement such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESPR), and the CEDAW.

3. The government's Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP), 2004 to 2010 and the Medium-Term Public Investment Program, 2004-2010 are geared toward the achievement of the MDGs. The country's legislative branch has even created a Special Committee on the MDGs to shepherd needed laws and budgetary requirements for the MDGs.³

4. The country's National Statistical Coordination Board is the repository of MDG indicators that gathers all available data from various sources. Toward this end, it has conducted consultative meetings to capacitate and lay down the coordinating mechanisms in harnessing data sources and indicators.

5. There are also current attempts to localize the MDGs and the Department of Interior and Local Government (DILG) is the lead agency tasked to do this. Along this line, local government units (LGUs) are also required to localize the MDGs in their development plans to further improve subnational indicators. Ideally, this should serve as a tool in informing LGUs to prioritize the allocation of the Internal Revenue Allotment (IRA) in terms of achieving MDG goals.⁴ The Community-Based Monitoring System serves as a tool to further enhance data system at the LGU level which covers its progress in achieving the MDGs.⁵ In this regard, it has issued a policy guideline to all LGUs in the country on how to localize the MDGs per goal and according to projects, programs and activities. In September 2007, the DILG also launched a monitoring and evaluation system to track LGU responsiveness to the MDGs. It is likewise in the process of documenting best practices and has urged local leaders to replicate them.⁶



Millennium Development Goal 1 targets full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people (Photo courtesy of Kara Santos)

6. The business community and civil society groups have also been enjoined by government to advocate the MDGs. Key business groups have established the Philippine Business Road Map to help build awareness on the MDGs in the private sector.⁷

This paper seeks to put a more nuanced gender perspective to the Philippine MDG Report. It is divided into five parts. The first part presents the Philippine context and the policy and institutional mechanisms put up as part of its commitment to the MDGs. This will be followed by the second part which discusses some of the critiques of the Philippine MDG reports, including the 2007 mid-term report. Subsequently, the third part provides an analysis on why there is a need for making the MDG reports more gender-aware and -responsive. The fourth part gives a brief overview of the framework of this paper that links the CEDAW, MDGs and the BPfA and why these are mutually reinforcing. Finally, the last part presents an alternative MDG report from a gender perspective using data and gender-sensitive indicators.

The paper was presented in a public forum attended by 24 representatives of key government agencies, nongovernment organizations (NGOs), academe, international development organizations, and the media (see Annex). The reactions of the participants are incorporated in this report.

The Philippine Progress Reports on the MDGs

7. So far, the Philippines has submitted three progress reports on the MDGs. The first report was released in May 2003 while the second one was in June 2005, which served as a five-year review. The National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA) prepared the reports through the collaborative efforts of the Multi-Sectoral Committee on International Human Development Commitments (MC-IHDC) and the Social Development Committee (SDC).

8. Progress reports are important for many reasons. Tracking the progress of the implementation of the MDGs and monitoring whether they are likely to be achieved or not is a means of advocating budgetary, accountability and policy commitments to achieve the goals. It is also a vital tool for public information in creating awareness for the MDGs and its relevance to the country's overall strategy for development.

9. The First Philippine MDG Progress Report showed that there is a high probability of achieving targets on the eradication of extreme poverty, access to basic amenities, universal primary education, gender equality, lowering child mortality and HIV/AIDs prevalence. The report also pointed out collaborative measures that can be taken by national and local governments and the private sector which can help finance the achievement of the goals. The first report, however, has been criticized for being too "rosy" and not giving enough attention to geographic disparities, for its inadequate use of human rights language and, in particular, for its lack of a gender perspective.⁸



*The country is on track in lowering child mortality
(Photo courtesy of Dondi Tawatao).*

10. The Second Philippine MDG Progress Report considered the criticisms articulated during the first report. Among others, it pointed out wide disparities across regions and that targets that will most likely be achieved are those on reducing extreme poverty, child mortality, incidence of tuberculosis, malaria and HIV/AIDS, dietary requirement, gender equality in education, and access to safe drinking water.⁹ Identified as the cross-cutting challenges are the wide disparities across regions, the need to increase resource allocation for MDG-related programs and projects, full enforcement of laws, the need to strengthen monitoring and evaluation which includes sex-disaggregated data, and the need to localize and advocate for the MDGs. In preparing the report, the gaps identified are the availability of data and their comparability coupled with the coverage of initiatives.¹⁰ The report, nonetheless, was still criticized for not putting more effort on sex-disaggregation of data which was only discussed in relation to the achievements of Goal 3.¹¹

11. The 2007 Philippine Mid-term Report on the MDGs indicated that the Philippines is on track on the following targets: halve extreme poverty, eliminate gender disparity in education, reduce mortality rate of

children five years old and under, halve morbidity due to malaria, reverse loss of environmental resources, halve lack of access to safe water, improve the lives of slum dwellers, and improve macro finance, trade and debt payment systems. Nonetheless, the report was still poorly lacking in sex-disaggregated data on many of the targets. More importantly, gender analysis was either limited or absent in most of the goals (Table 1).

12. Moreover, Social Watch Philippines released an alternative report on the MDGs in 2007. Among others, it argued that contrary to the 2007 official mid-term report of the government, the MDGs are far from being achieved in the Philippines, particularly when regional disparities are incorporated in the reporting.

Making the Case for Engendering the MDGs

13. As a global commitment that sets measurable targets for development, the MDGs have been criticized for being too minimalist. Specifically, women's rights advocates argue that "they do not take into account the dynamics of gender relations and the attendant inequality between women and men affecting development outcomes and goals."¹³ Moreover, they claim the MDGs have insufficient indicators for gender equality and hardly mainstream it in all the goals.¹⁴ And while it is not inconsistent with human rights standards, the MDG implementation framework needs to be anchored more strongly on human rights principles, particularly the CEDAW and the BPfA.¹⁵



MDG implementation must be anchored on human rights principles such as the right to be free from hunger (Photo courtesy of Dondi Tawatao)

observed the following: "(a) gender equality and women's empowerment perspectives were not adequately mainstreamed into reports; (b) women were still viewed in terms of their vulnerabilities and traditional gender roles; (c) the approach to women under the other goals was instrumental — seeing improvements in women's situation as a means of achieving other goals, such as reducing child mortality — rather than rights-based and focused on realizing women's human rights as the primary objective."¹⁶ This was the case despite the policies issued by the UN Commission on the Status of Women, the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and the UN Commission on Statistics.

15. In 2005, another review was conducted by the UNDP Bureau of Development Policy. This time, 78 national reports were evaluated. The report set out concerns on the area of range and scope of reporting where sex-disaggregated data were not followed by a thorough gender analysis and did not look at class or ethnicity concerns. Another issue raised the linkages across goals where analysis on child survival, for instance, was not presented as being related to gender equality. Lastly, it was pointed out that gender experts should have been consulted in producing reports for all the goals.¹⁷

16. Meanwhile, to ensure effective implementation of the MDGs, then UN Secretary Kofi Annan and UNDP head Mark Malloch Brown spearheaded the UN Millennium Project which was tasked to identify

Table 1: Philippine MDG Rate of Progress at the National Level

MDG	Baseline (1990 or year closest to 1990)	Current Level (2005/2006 or year closest to 2005/2006)	Target by 2015	Average Rate of Progress (1990-2005/06 or year closest to 2005/06)	Required Rate of Progress (2005/2006-2015)	Ratio of Required Rate to Average Rate (=b/a)	Probability of Attaining the Targets
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger							
A. Proportion of families below							
Subsistence threshold	20.4	10.2 (2003)	10.2	-0.85	0	0	High
Poverty threshold	39.9	24.4 (2003)	19.95	-1.29	-0.37	0.29	High
B. Proportion of population below							
Subsistence threshold	24.3	13.5 (2003)	12.15	-0.9	-0.11	0.13	High
Poverty threshold	45.3	30.0 (2003)	22.65	-1.28	-0.61	0.48	High
Prevalence of malnutrition among 0-5 year-old children (%underweight) - Based on international reference standards	34.5	24.6 (2005)	17.25	-0.66	-0.74	1.11	High
Proportion of households with per capita intake below 100 percent dietary energy requirement	69.4	56.9 (2003)	34.7	-1.25	-1.85	1.48	High
Achieve universal primary education							
Elementary participation rate	85.1	84.44 (2005-06)	100	-0.05	1.56	33.01	Low
Elementary cohort survival rate	68.4	69.9/d (2005-06)	84.67	0.11	1.48	13.79	Low
Improve maternal health							
Maternal mortality ratio	209	162 (2006)	52.2	-3.62	-12.2	3.37	Low
Increase access to reproductive health services							
Prevalence rate of men and women/couples practicing responsible parenthood	40	50.6 (2006)	100	0.82	5.49	6.73	Low
Reduce child mortality							
Under 5-mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	80.0 /g	32.0 (2006)	26.7	-3	-0.59	0.2	High
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	57.0 /g	24.0 (2006)	19	-2.06	-0.56	0.27	High
Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases							
HIV prevalence	< 1%	< 1% (2005)	< 1%	0	0	0	High
Malaria morbidity rate (per 100,000 population)	123	59.0 (2004)	24	-4.57	-5.83	1.28	High
Ensure environmental sustainability							
Proportion of families with access to safe drinking water	73.7	80.2 (2002)	86.8	0.57	0.52	0.91	High
Rate needed to reach target/current rate of progress <1.5 High; 1.5 to 2.0 Medium; >2.0 Low							
Source: Missing Targets: An Alternative MDG Mid-term Report, Social Weather Philippines.							

ways to guarantee that MDG targets will be met by the States. The Task Force on Education and Gender Equality argued that education alone is insufficient to achieving gender equality. While education is an important goal in itself, the Task Force opined that other factors need to be considered for it to be a sufficient condition for women's empowerment.¹⁸

17. More importantly, the Task Force compellingly laid down the claim that “gender equality and women's empowerment are central to the achievement of all the Millennium Development Goals.” It broadened the targets for Goal 3 to include not just education but also the following seven priorities: (a) Strengthening opportunities for post-primary education for girls while meeting commitments to universal primary education; (b) Guaranteeing sexual and reproductive health and rights; (c) Investing in infrastructure to reduce women's and girls' time burdens; (d) Guaranteeing women's and girls' property and inheritance rights; (e) Eliminating gender inequality in employment by decreasing women's reliance on informal employment, closing gender gaps in earnings, and reducing occupational segregation; (f) Increasing women's share of seats in national parliaments and local government bodies; and (g) Combating violence against girls and women.¹⁹

18. At the same time, at the UN World Summit in 2005, women's rights activists successfully lobbied to expand the goals pertaining to gender equality (Goal 3) to include the following: (a) An end to impunity for violence against women; (b) Universal access to reproductive health; (c) The right to own and inherit property; (d) Equal access to labor protections; and (e) Increased representation of women in government decision-making bodies.

19. Others focused their critique on the targets and indicators. For instance, some argued that the MDGs are output-based and do not really incorporate input or process targets.²⁰ This has consequences in measuring achievements for gender equality. Thus, to more effectively address the goals, especially for gender equality, *diagnostic or causal indicators* are needed which give an idea on why some targets are not being met.²¹ For instance, women's lack of access to cash income is a major impediment to achieving gender equality, making this a diagnostic indicator for achieving Goal 3.²² Aside from *diagnostic indicators*, *strategy indicators* are also needed. Because the achievement of gender equality requires strategies,

indicators are needed to determine if these strategies are being ensured. An example would be that in some contexts, inadequacy of separate toilets for boys and girls prevent the latter from attending secondary schools. Thus, a good strategy indicator would be the proportion of secondary schools with separate toilets for boys and girls.²³

20. For its part, the Philippines has also expanded its indicators for Goal 5. Out of the eight MDGs, the Philippine government has created 14 targets with each of their corresponding indicators. This includes the additional target that the Philippines has identified under Goal 5 on improving maternal health. Aside from reducing maternal mortality rate



The country is on track in achieving gender equality in education (Photo courtesy of Noel Celis).

by three quarters by 2015, the additional target identified is to “increase access to reproductive health services to 60 percent by 2005, 80 percent by 2010, and 100 percent by 2015.” This is in line with the country's commitment to the International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo in 1994

and the BPfA in 1995. Women's rights groups were instrumental in advocating for this additional target under Goal 5.²⁴

21. However, consistent with the study of the UNDP on national reports, the Philippines, along with other countries, continue to produce MDG progress reports that lack the gender dimensions in development. As had already been noted above, the 2007 Mid-term MDG Report of the Philippines is a case in point.

22. These reasons provide a case for making the MDG reporting more gender-responsive. At the core of this is a normative human rights framework, which is the CEDAW and the BPfA, that focuses on gender relations as a key area of concern.

23. The need for a gender-aware and gender-responsive MDG reporting cannot be over-emphasized. MDG reports are instruments for public information, advocacy, policy and accountability. There is a need, therefore, for MDG reports to be gender-aware in which gender is a cross-cutting factor. Restricting gender concerns only to Goal 3 is not enough. A gender-aware and gender-responsive national MDG report is useful and meaningful for several reasons: It would catalyze gender-responsive policy making and programming, and would facilitate more optimal resource allocation. As a tool for public advocacy on gender equality and a means to create a supportive environment, it can translate commitments to actual results on the ground and can serve as a platform for partnerships between government and civil society organizations committed to women's rights. In addition, making gender issues visible across the goals will broaden the scope of responsibility for women's rights and will hopefully help diverse actors reach a consensus on a common agenda and deploy resources where they are most needed.²⁵

A Framework for Engendering the MDG Report: The CEDAW, BPfA and the MDGs

24. The CEDAW, BPfA and the MDGs are mutually reinforcing frameworks that can be used to formulate a gender-responsive MDG report (Table 2).²⁶ The three documents should be viewed as complementary tools – CEDAW as the overarching ideological and legal framework while the BPfA and MDG translate it into broad action plans. CEDAW is the women's bill of rights; BPfA is programmatic based on issues or areas of concern; MDG is concrete, time-bound, with measurable goals and targets and indicators for poverty reduction. The MDG explicitly supports CEDAW. MDG is not a brand-new agenda but is a new vehicle for implementing CEDAW and BPfA. The resources and commitment being mobilized for the MDG can be harnessed to support CEDAW and BPfA implementation.²⁷



The recently signed Magna Carta of Women can further advance MDG 3 on gender equality and empowering women (Photo courtesy of NCRFW)

25. The CEDAW is a theoretical framework that sets standards for gender equality and nondiscrimination. It does not specify the contextual dimensions on which discrimination will occur. It is actually the BPfA that enumerates specific actions that will help realize the goals of CEDAW.²⁸ On the other hand, CEDAW strength-

ens the BPfA, which is nonbinding on States, with its monitoring and enforcement mechanism.²⁹

26. As a global norm, CEDAW then serves as the instrument for measuring whether barriers to gender equality are making the MDG targets difficult to achieve. Moreover, “the accountability processes set up under CEDAW provide a model for considering the process by which goals are translated into intended results.”³⁰ The MDGs, on the other hand, with vigorous advocacy from the UN and governments, can ens the BPfA (which is nonbinding on States) with its monitoring and enforcement mechanism.²⁹

26. As a global norm, CEDAW then serves as the instrument for measuring whether barriers to gender equality are making the MDG targets difficult to achieve. Moreover, “the accountability processes set up expand the audience reach of CEDAW.”³¹

27. Adopted by the UN General Assembly in December 1979, the CEDAW came into force as a treaty in December 1981. There are 186 state parties to the Convention as of 29 April 2009.³² It was signed by the Philippines on 15 July 1980 and was ratified and entered into force in 1981. The Philippines also signed its Optional Protocol on 21 March 2000 and ratified it on 12 November 2003. The Optional Protocol was entered into force in 2004. Country reporting is every four years to the UN-CEDAW Committee. The Philippines submitted its combined 5th and 6th reports in July 2004 and had its constructive dialogue with CEDAW in August 2006.

28. The BPfA was adopted by the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women. Though a nonbinding commitment at the State level, progress on its implementation is reviewed every five years at the national, regional and global levels. In 2000, BPfA+5 resulted in a political declaration adopted at the 23rd UN Assembly special session. The global level review for BPfA+10 was held on March 2005 at the 49th session of the UN Commission on the Status of Women. The UN and women’s rights advocates are now having preparatory activities for the upcoming Beijing +15 review in 2010.

29. The MDGs have 16 global targets and 48 global indicators. At the opening of the recent 63rd Session of the UN General Assembly, progress on the MDGs was a major agenda item. The Philippines has released three reports since 2000. The latest is the mid-term review published in 2007.

30. The CEDAW, BPfA and the MDGs are consistently well integrated into the country’s development goals. CEDAW facilitated the formulation of the Philippine Development Plan for Women, 1989-1992 developed during the administration of President Corazon Aquino. Soon after, this was updated to become a 30-year perspective plan during the time of President Fidel Ramos and was called the Philippine

“The Committte also emphasizes that a full and effective implementation of the Covention is indispensable for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. It calls for the integration of a gender perspective and explicit reflection of the provisions of the Convention in all efforts aimed at the achievement of the MDGs and requests the State Party to include information thereon in its next periodic report.”

- CEDAW Committee’s Concluding Comments on the Philippines’ CEDAW Country Report, 2006

Plan for Gender-Responsive Development (PPGD), 1995-2025. It incorporated the women's agenda articulated in the BPfA. To respond to urgent concerns that need to be addressed, a time slice of the PPGD was drafted under the present administration. Dubbed as the Framework Plan for Women, it seeks to attend to three key areas of concern: (a) women's economic empowerment; (b) women's human rights; and (3) gender-responsive governance. The MDGs, on the other hand, greatly informed the formulation of the national economic plan, which is the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan, 2004-2010. The targets outlined in the document are in line with the country's commitment to the Millennium Declaration.

31. An engendered national report should be able to bring CEDAW and BPfA advocates and experts and involve them in broad consultation with relevant sectors. It should utilize commitments to CEDAW and BPfA for situation analysis in achieving more gender-sensitive global targets and indicators at the national level. The end goal should be to frame national indicators that respond to CEDAW and BPfA priorities, improve statistical capacity on gender equality issues, and identify appropriate implementation measures.

Table 2. Common Concerns of the MDGs, CEDAW and the BPfA

MDG Goals	Related CEDAW Articles	Related Critical Areas of Concern
1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	3. Guarantee of basic human rights and fundamental freedoms, including hunger 11. Employment 14. Rural women	A. Women and poverty - the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women F. Women and the economy - inequality in economic structures, policies, productive activities and access to resources
2. Achieve universal primary education	10. Education 16. Marriage and family life	L. The girl child - persistent discrimination against and violation of the rights of the child B. Education and training of women - inequalities, inadequacies and unequal access to education and training
3. Promote gender equality and empower women	7. Political and public life 8. Representation 10. Education 11. Employment	B. Education and training of women F. Women and the economy G. Women in power and decision-making - inequality between women and men in power and decision-making at all levels
4. Reduce child mortality	12. Health	C. Women and health - inequalities, inadequacies and unequal access to health care and related services
5. Improve maternal health	12. Health	C. Women and health
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	12. Health	C. Women and health
7. Ensure environmental sustainability	7. Political and public life 14. Rural women	K. Women and the environment - inequalities and management of natural resources and safeguarding the environment
8. Develop a global partnership for development	7. Political and public life 8. Representation	F. Women and the economy G. Women in power and decision-making

Note: CEDAW Articles 1 (Discrimination), 2 (Policy measures), 4 (Special measures) and 5 (Sex role stereotyping and prejudice) are relevant to all MDGs.

Source: Lorraine Corner. 2008. Making the MDGs Work For All: Gender-Responsive Rights-Based Approaches to the MDGs. United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), pp. 175-176.

Toward a Gender-Responsive MDG Report

The following is an MDG report presented from a gender perspective. It lays down indicators and gender analysis not present in past Philippine MDG reports. The indicators are by no means exhaustive. What is important is that the analysis below is able to bring to fore key gender issues that need to be taken into account in the Philippine MDG reporting process.

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme hunger and poverty

32. Female share in wage employment in agriculture, industry and services sector. Women's access to jobs is important for a variety of reasons. Not only does it break the cycle of poverty, it is also vital to women's empowerment as having paid employment increases women's mobility, arguably improve their decision-making power within the family, and allows them to seek better reproductive health.³³ Over the years, the gap between the labor force participation and employment rates between men and women has narrowed. Women 35 to over 60 years old even have higher employment rates than men. However, women still dominate in industries which are an extension of their reproductive tasks. For instance, in 2007, more than 75 to 85 percent of employed workers in private households and in the health and education sectors were women. Most men, on the other hand, can be found in construction, agriculture and fishing, transport, and mining and quarrying (Table 3).

Table 3. Employed Persons by Industry and by Sex, 2007

By Major Industry	Level(in '000)			Distribution (in%)	
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female
All Industries	33,561	20,543	13,019	61.2	38.8
Agriculture	11,786	8,764	3,022	74.4	25.6
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	10,342	7,437	2,905	71.9	28.1
Fishing	1,444	1,327	117	91.9	8.1
Industry	5,121	3,673	1,448	71.7	28.3
Mining and Quarrying	149	135	14	90.6	9.4
Manufacturing	3,059	1,684	1,375	55.1	44.9
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	135	112	23	83	17
Construction	1,778	1,742	36	98	2
Services	16,654	8,106	8,549	48.7	51.3
Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles and Personal and Household Goods	6,354	2,526	3,828	39.8	60.2
Hotels and Restaurants	907	409	498	45.1	54.9
Transport, Storage and Communications	2,599	2,428	170	93.4	6.5
Financial Intermediation	359	156	203	43.5	56.5
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	885	578	307	65.3	34.7
Public Administration and Defense	1,551	950	601	61.3	38.7
Education	1,035	259	776	25	75
Health and Social Work	373	101	272	27.1	72.9
Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities	849	435	415	51.2	48.9
Private Households with Employed Persons	1,740	262	1,478	15.1	84.9
Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies	2	2	1	100	50

Source: BLES- DOLE

33. Female share of new employment opportunities in each sector and subsectors. In 2007, 600,000 jobs were generated, way below the annual target of 1.5 million jobs. Of this, more than a third (35.6 percent) went to women workers. Agriculture, however, lost 53,000 jobs, displacing many rural women relying on this sector, whether in an unpaid or informal basis. While there was an increase of 28,000 jobs generated in manufacturing for men, this was at the expense of 27,000 women workers (Table 4).

Table 4. Jobs Generated by Sex, 2006-2007 (in thousands)

Industry	Both Sexes	Men	Women
All Industries	599	387	213
Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry	-27	-23	-3
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	-53	-33	-20
Fishing	26	10	17
Industry	115	134	-20
Mining and Quarrying	8	9	-1
Manufacturing	1	28	-27
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	6	4	2
Construction	100	93	6
Services	509	274	233
Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles and Personal and Household Goods	71	41	30
Hotels and Restaurants	14	4	9
Transport, Storage and Communications	107	94	12
Financial Intermediation	9	6	3
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	87	62	25
Public Administration and Defense: Compulsory Social Security	41	12	29
Education	22	8	14
Health and Social Work	7	0	6
Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities	36	25	11
Private Households with Employed Persons	115	21	94
Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies	0	1	0

Source: BLES - DOLE

34. Ratio of females to male wages in all sectors. Except in very few industries, males, in general, are considerably paid higher on a daily basis than women. In agricultural industries, men receive 20 percent higher wages than women while on nonagricultural industries, women get 9.4 percent less than men (Table 5).

**Table 5. Average Daily Basic Pay by Major Industry Group and Sex
(in PhP), 2007**

Major Industry Group and Sex	Both Sexes	Men	Women	Variance (in %)
All Industries	266.65	268.79	263.42	2
Agricultural	132.65	137.56	114.64	20
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	130.56	135.38	114.2	18.5
Fishing	159.4	160.01	145.4	10
Non- Agricultural	292.36	303.7	277.53	9.4
Mining and Quarrying	205.09	204.31	214.25	-4.6
Manufacturing	277.19	290.86	257.9	12.8
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	460.73	455.99	484.78	-5.9
Construction	256.1	253.92	375.46	-32.4
Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles and Personal and Household Goods	242.49	254	227.35	11.7
Hotels and Restaurants	242.6	269.93	214.55	25.8
Transport, Storage and Communications	344.19	314.69	507.3	-38
Financial Intermediation	473.44	463.35	481.42	-3.8
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	378.04	348.46	439.45	-20.7
Public Administration and Defense; Compulsory Social Security	411.57	421.72	393.61	7.1
Education	460.85	450.2	464.41	-3.1
Health and Social Work	400.23	417.28	393.46	6.1
Other Community, Social and Personal Activities	272.65	285.72	256.01	11.6
Private Households with Employed Persons	121.06	173.84	111.82	55.5
Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies	1,089.33	1,143.40	942.23	21.4
	266.65	268.79	263.42	2
	132.65	137.56	114.64	20
	130.56	135.38	114.2	18.5

Note: Data exclude basic pay of wage and salary workers paid on commission basis

Source: BLES - DOLE.

35. Increase in social protection and adherence to the Labor Code for women factory workers.

In 2004, female union members represented only 14 percent of 962,000 female paid employees. In 2006, for every three unionized workers in nonagricultural establishments, only one was female. Male union members numbered 272,000 while female union members were only 151,000. Most of the unionized members were in the manufacturing industry and in establishments wholly-owned by Filipinos with 200 or more workers. Male union officers and presidents also outnumbered female union officers and presidents (Table 6).

Table 6. CBA Coverage in Nonagricultural Establishments Employing 20 or More Workers by Major Industry Group, Type of Ownership of Establishment, Type of Employment Size and Sex, June 2006

Major Industry Group Type of Ownership and Employment Size	Union Members			Union Officers		Union Presidents	
	Both Sexes	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All Industries	423,000	272,000	151,000	21,944	7,058	2,913	560
Mining and Quarrying	6,000	5,000	*	228	12	21	-
Manufacturing	186,000	121,000	65,000	11,859	2,946	1,338	218
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	30,000	25,000	5,000	1,545	335	190	8
Construction	12,000	9,000	3,000	353	69	45	18
Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles and Personal and Household Goods	34,000	18,000	16,000	2,000	1,106	366	99
Vehicles, Motorcycles and Personal and Household Goods							
Hotel and Restaurants	12,000	9,000	4,000	1,256	373	269	14
Transport, Storage and Communications	56,000	47,000	8,000	1,754	246	242	23
Financial Intermediation	30,000	11,000	19,000	951	456	197	39
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	6,000	5,000	1,000	269	52	27	3
Private Education Services	24,000	9,000	15,000	715	1,069	112	114
Health and Social Work except Public, Medical, Dental and Other Health Services	0	0	0				
	18,000	6,000	12,000	326	217	26	21
Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities	9,000	6,000	3,000	689	177	81	1
All Types of Ownership	423,000	272,000	151,000	21,944	7,058	2,913	560
Wholly Filipino-Owned	307,000	202,000	105,000	16,102	5,534	2,209	438
With Foreign Equity	75,000	50,000	25,000	4,030	711	540	48
Wholly Foreign-Owned	41,000	20,000	21,000	1,812	813	163	74
Employment Size	423,000	272,000	151,000	21,944	7,058	2,913	560
20 – 99	51,000	33,000	18,000	7,237	2,576	1,423	270
100 – 199	55,000	41,000	15,000	5,389	1,488	605	115
200 and Over	317,000	198,000	119,000	9,318	2,994	885	175

Source: 2007 Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment, BLES - DOLE

36. Notes on Poverty Data. The difficulties of establishing whether women are necessarily poorer than men are well known and are due to the fact that surveys on income and consumption are commonly carried out at the household rather than at the individual level. The case is true for the Philippines. Recent studies have also questioned the common belief that female-headed households are necessarily poorer than those headed by males. In the Philippines, data from 1988 to 2003 consistently showed that female-headed households (FHHs) had lower poverty incidence compared with those headed by men. In the same vein, FHHs had average per capita income higher than male-headed households (MHHs). FHHs also did well in managing their resources as they spent relatively more on education and medical services than those of their male counterparts. Despite this, it is important to stress that in the Philippines, as in many other countries, the increase in per capita income of women has not resulted in the decrease of their household tasks nor in a more equitable share of such work with men. Similarly, women's greater participation in productive activities and access to independent incomes are failing to result in a more equitable distribution of responsibilities and claims in the household, with men still tending to use earnings for personal use, while women employ such resources for the benefit of dependents (Chant 2007). Finally, it has been argued that non-poor households may actually have some of the poorest women in them such as those who are victims of gender-based violence, the disabled and the elderly.³⁴ In other contexts, girls are not sent to schools even if their families are not poor.³⁵

37. Percent of women beneficiaries of financial and nonfinancial business services. Microcredit is widely recognized as a powerful tool to combat poverty. Global experience also shows the impact of microcredit in poverty reduction is higher by targeting women. Women are known to register high repayment rates and are better microenterprise managers, perhaps because of their experience in managing the family budget. The 2007 State of the Microcredit Summit Campaign Report, for instance, showed that most

microfinance institutions in the Philippines catered to women (Table 7). However, women microentrepreneurs faced more constraints than men as they were still responsible for most of the domestic and childcare responsibilities. As such, they tended to spend less time working in microenterprises or were likely to forego training and investments which could make their businesses more productive. Moreover, because the assets of the family are often under the husbands' name, women/wives might find difficulty in putting them up as collateral to secure loans for their businesses. Domestic violence also affected women's decision to secure loans for investments.

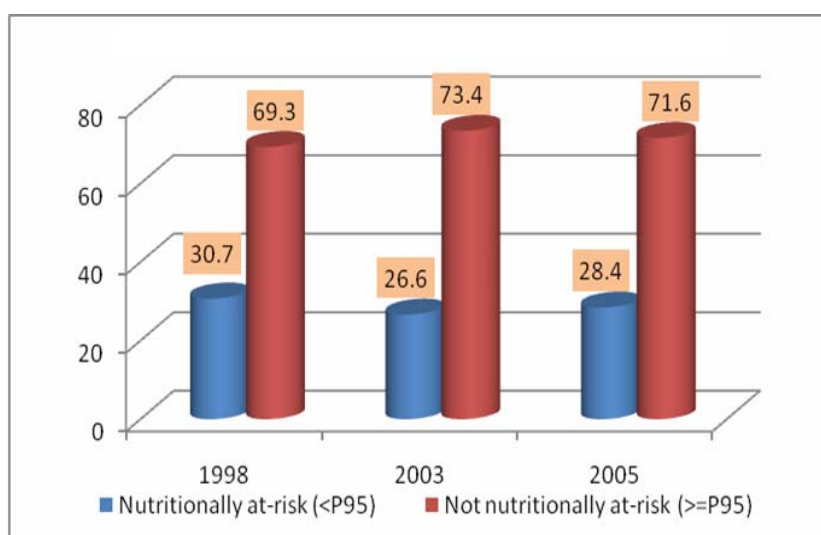
Table 7. Total Active Women Clients, Selected Microfinance Institutions

Institution	Total Active Clients	Total Women (in %)
Center for Agriculture and Rural Development	247,782	100
TSPI Development Corporation	115,370	99.8
Kabalikat Para Sa Maunlad Na Buhay	89,628	100
Alalay Sa Kaunlaran Sa Gitnang Luzon	43,259	82
Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation	66,530	100
Talete King Panyulung Kampampangan	18,486	96
Kazama - Grameen	24,140	99
Ahon Sa Hira Inc.	26,856	100
Bukidnon Integrated Network of Home Industries	7,064	96
Serviamus Foundation Incorporated	7,466	99

Source: State of the Microcredit Summit Campaign Report 2007

38. Nutrition/malnutrition levels by sex. Maternal nutrition is an important determinant of birth weight and, consequently, the child's chances for survival and normal development. Statistics show, however, that the percentage of pregnant women not getting proper nutrition is still high. In 2005, 28 out of 100 pregnant women were nutritionally at risk, worsening from 26.6 percent in 2003 (Figure 1). The prevalence of anemia among pregnant and lactating women in 2003 was also a serious concern as it remained higher than its rate in 1993. Anemic mothers may predispose their infants to anemia. In addition, the National Demographic Health Survey (NDHS) of 2003 indicated that poor women with little education tended to have more child deaths compared to non-poor and educated women.

Figure 1. Percentage Distribution of Pregnant Women, 1998-2005



Source: 2003 and 2005 NNS, 2003 NDHS

While the prevalence rate of vitamin A deficiency (VAD) declined to 17.5 percent in 2003 from 22.2 percent in 1998, it was still higher than the cut-off point of 15 percent prescribed by the World Health Organization (WHO). Deficiency in vitamin A causes night blindness that may lead to xerophthalmia, and eventually, to total blindness.

The 2003 National Nutrition Survey (NNS) also had questions that pertained to the household's experiences on food security. Because there was no food or money to buy food, about 18 percent of children skipped or missed meals, 8.2 percent experienced not eating for a whole day, and 15.1 percent went hungry and did not eat. It must be noted though that more mothers (33.7 percent) than children (21 percent) had experiences of food insecurity, a reflection of the innate nature of women to feed their children first before themselves in times of food scarcity (Table 8).

Table 8. Selected Nutrition Indicators, 1993, 1998, 2003

	1993	1998	2003
Prevalence of Iron Deficiency Anemia			
Infants (6mos. - <1Yr)	49.2	56.6	66.2
Children 1-5 years	25.7	29.6	29.1
Children 6-12 years	42	35.6	37.4
Pregnant women	43.6	50.7	43.9
Lactating women	43	45.7	42.2
Prevalence of Vitamin A Deficiency			
Infants (6mos. - <1Yr)	37.5	42.2	47
Children 1-5 years	35.6	37.6	39.3
Children 6-12 years	35.3	38	40.1
Pregnant women	16.4	22.2	17.5
Lactating women	16.4	16.5	20.1
Waist Circumference/Prevalence of Android Obesity			
Male adults (WC>=102cm)	...	2.7	2.4
Female adults (WC>=88cm)	...	10.7	17

Source: FNRI

Goal 2: Achieve universal access to primary education by 2015

39. Sex-disaggregated participation, cohort survival, dropout and completion rates. In general, basic education data for 2007-2008 indicated equal status between males and females. Nearly all basic education indicators showed favorable trends for women. The participation rates of females in both elementary and secondary levels were better than that of males. They were also more likely to stay in school, with the females having higher cohort survival rates than males (Table 10).

40. Sex-disaggregated achievement rate in elementary & secondary levels. Achievement rates are likewise in favor of girls both in elementary and high school. The decreasing quality of education, as manifested in the worsening achievement rates from elementary to high school for both sexes, however, should be a cause for concern. It must be noted though that compared to previous years, achievement scores among Grade Six were higher in school year (SY) 2007-2008 compared with SY 2006-2007, except in English in which girls had slightly lower scores (Table 9).

Table 9. Mean Percentage Score of Grade Six Students in the National

Subject	SY2006-2007		SY 2007-2008	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
English	58.69	63.1	60.64	63.08
Math	58.41	61.47	63.11	65.14
Science	51.47	52.99	57.56	58.75
Filipino	65.04	68.98	72.05	74.77
Hekasi	59.33	62.53	66.53	68.84
Over-all	58.59	61.81	63.98	66.12

Source: DepEd

41. Ratio of girls to boys in elementary, secondary and tertiary education. Enrolment ratio for boys was slightly higher than girls at the elementary level, according to figures from SY 2007 to 2008. At the secondary level, however, girls outnumbered boys by at least six percent (Table 10).

Table 10. Basic Education Indicators, SY 2007-2008

ENROLMENT	Elementary (in %)			Secondary (in %)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Gross Enrolment Ratio	102	102.9	101.1	81.4	78.7	84.2
Participation Rate	84.8	84	85.7	61.9	57.4	66.6
Cohort Survival Rate (Gr. VI/Yr. IV)	75.4	70.9	80.1	79.9	75.2	84.5
Completion Rate	73.1	68.4	78.3	75.4	70.2	80.5
Average Dropout Rate	6	7.2	4.7	7.5	9.3	5.6
Achievement Rates (Gr. VI/Yr. II)	64.5	64	66.1	49.3	47.9	50.5
Share/Ratio of Male to Female		52	48		49	51

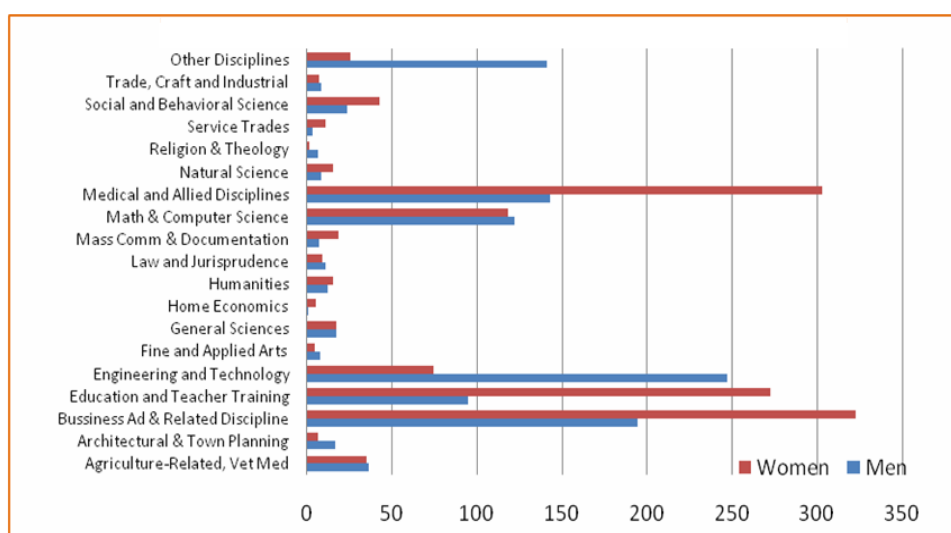
Note: Gross Enrolment Ratio refers to the total enrolment in a given level of education as a percentage of the population which, according to national regulations, should be enrolled at this level. It is a measure of the "capacity" of a region's elementary and secondary schools.

Participation Rate is the ratio between the enrolment in the school-age range to the total population of that age range. Cohort Survival Rate is the proportion of enrollees at the beginning grade or year who reach the final grade or year at the end of the required number of years of study.

Dropout Rate is the proportion of pupils/students who leave school during the year as well as those who complete the grade/year level but fail to enrol in the next grade/year level the following school year to the total number of pupils/students enrolled during the previous school year.
Source: DepEd

In the tertiary or college level, the pattern of gender stereotyping in the chosen area of discipline still persists. Women continue to choose fields that perpetuate their socially-ascribed roles. They dominate education and medical and allied fields and business administration. On the other hand, very few women take engineering and technology courses. While indeed there is gender stereotyping in course selection, data in 2003 showed that women tended to excel when they chose fields that were traditionally taken by men as indicated by their higher percentage in the following fields: criminology, fisheries technology, forestry, geodetic engineering, geology, mechanical engineering, metallurgical engineering, mining engineering, naval architecture and marine engineering, electrical, and sanitary engineering. Indeed, this manifested that stereotyping rather than poor competency prevented women from braving the odds of male-dominated fields.

Figure 2. Enrolment in Tertiary Level of Education by Area of Discipline and by Sex, 2004-2005



Source: CHED

42. Ratio of literate females to males between 15-24 years of age; between 25-44 years of age.
Except for the 60 and over age cohort, women outdid men in both basic and functional literacy (Table 11).

Table 11. Basic and Functional Literacy by Age and Sex, 2003

Age Group	Basic Literacy Rate			Functional Literacy Rate		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
10-14	94.7	93.1	96.4	76.7	73.2	80.3
15-19	96.7	95.6	97.8	88.8	86.1	91.5
20-24	96.4	95.4	97.5	91	88.7	93.3
25-29	85.2	94	96.5	88.4	86.6	90.2
30-39	93.9	92.8	95.1	85.6	83.7	87.6
40-49	92.8	92.3	93.4	83.4	81.5	85.4
50-59	89.3	88.9	89.7	77.6	77	78.2
60 and over	82.2	83.5	81	67.5	67.9	67
PHILIPPINES	93.4	92.6	94.3	84.1	81.9	86.3

Note: Basic literacy is the ability of a person to read and write with understanding a simple message in any language or dialect while functional literacy is a significantly higher level of literacy which includes not only reading and writing skills but also numerical skills. The skills must be sufficiently advanced to enable the individual to participate fully and efficiently in activities commonly occurring in her life/ situation that require a reasonable capability of communicating by written language.

Source: 2003 FLEMMS, DepEd

43. Ratio of females to males in technical and vocational education and training. Enrolment in vocational-technical courses showed an almost equal distribution between females (50.7 percent) and males (49.2 percent) in SY 2004 to 2005.

Goal 3: Promote gender equality

44. Percent of women in national parliament and percent of women in local government bodies.

While the country has had two women presidents, the Philippine Senate, a nationally elected body, is still dominated by males. Nonetheless, there was a marked increase in the number of women elected to the House of Representatives in 2007 compared with that in 1995 (Table 12). In the same period, women mayors had consistently increased in numbers. Despite these gains, politics in the country is still a male domain, 70 years after Filipino women gained the right to vote. In addition, the presence of women in electoral politics has highlighted the issue of political dynasty in the country. A study by the Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism (PCIJ) revealed that seven out of ten women in the House of Representatives in 2001 were members of political clans (Coronel 2004). In essence, this questions the real meaning of women's participation and raises the concern that they may be mere "bench-warmers" for their male kin who are waiting for their turn to run for elective office (Hega 2003). It must be pointed out though that there were also a number of cases in which women who were supposed to merely replace their husbands fared better in governance compared with their spouses.

Table 12. Number of Elected Women and Men by Position, Year and Sex

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

*Preliminary Report (as of December 2, 2007)

Source: COMELEC

45. Percent of women at all levels of the civil service. Females dominated the bureaucracy, accounting for 56.3 percent of the total government workforce in 2004. There was a greater proportion of females in the career service³⁶ compared with the noncareer service, suggesting that females preferred jobs that ensure security of tenure. There were, however, more male executives, or those in the third level positions, than females. In 2004, they numbered 5,941 out of 9,381, or around 63.3 percent of the total (Table 13).

Table 13. Number of Government Personnel by Sex, 2004

Particulars by Category of Service	Total	Male	Female
Total	1,475,699	644,178	831,521
Career	1,316,166	543,765	772,401
Noncareer	159,533	100,413	59,120
By Level of Position			
Total	1,316,166	543,765	772,401
First Level	373,625	210,700	162,925
Second Level	926,183	322,871	603,312
Third Level	9,381	5,941	3,440
Non-Executive Career	6,977	4,253	2,724
By Classification of Position			
Total	159,533	100,413	59,120
Coterminous	17,276	10,224	7,052
Casual	99,112	60,968	38,144
Contractual	21,533	11,793	9,740
Elective	20,802	16,880	3,922
Noncareer Executive	810	548	262

Note: First level - Clerical, trades, crafts and custodial service positions; Second level - Professional, technical and scientific positions; Third level - Positions in the Career Executive Service (CES); Non-executive career - Career positions excluded from the CES with salary Grade 25 and above (e.g. scientist, professional, foreign service officers, members of the judiciary and prosecution service); Third level positions in the LGUs; Noncareer executive - Secretaries/officials of Cabinet rank who hold their positions at the pleasure of the President, supervisory and executive positions with fixed terms of office (e.g. Chairperson and member of Commission and board).

Source: CSC

46. Percent of women voters. Voter turnout in the 2007 national elections was lower for both men and women compared with that in 2004 (Table 14). However, in both election years, more women than men registered as voters and actually voted on election day. Nonetheless, there is no known gender vote in Philippine politics.

Table 14. Percent of Women Voters, 2004, 2007 Elections

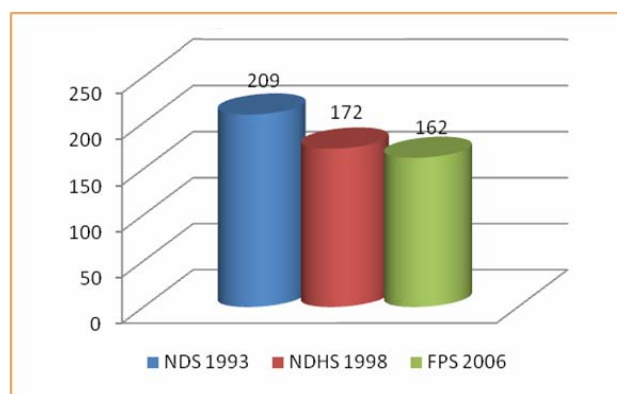
Particulars	May-04			May-07		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total Number Of Registered Voters	43,523	21,360	21,964	44,314	21,852	22,383
Total Number Of Registered Voters Who Actually Voted	33,510	16,495	17,015	32,400	16,001	16,399
in percent	77	77.2	77.5	73.1	73.2	73.3

Source: COMELEC

Goals 4 and 5: Child mortality and maternal health

47. Maternal mortality ratio per 100,000 births. The 2006 Family Planning Survey (FPS) showed that the Philippines' maternal mortality rate was down to 162 for every 100,000 live births from 172 per 100,000 live births in the 1998 NDHS (Figure 3). The decline, however, was not enough for the country to meet the MDG goal of an MMR of 53 by 2015. It was also still relatively higher compared with other Southeast Asian countries. Moreover, while national average was declining, rural areas needed increased attention. In 2000, a big bulk of maternal deaths, according to the Philippine Health Statistics, came from Southern Tagalog, Bicol and Western Visayas.

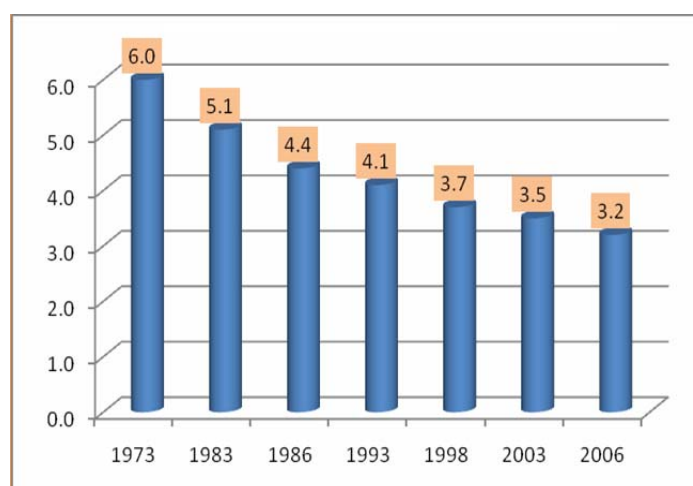
Figure 3. Maternal Mortality Rates, 1993-2006



Source: 1993 and 1998 NDHS, 2006 FPS

48. Total fertility rate. The country's total fertility rate steadily declined from a high of six percent in 1973 to 3.2 in 2006 (Figure 4). However, according to the findings of the NDHS, this rate was still considerably higher compared with those of Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam where women had an average total fertility rate of 2.5. The same report also pointed out two factors affecting fertility rates: urban-rural disparities in educational background and social status of the woman. The National Capital Region had the lowest fertility rate at 2.8 children per woman while the region of MIMAROPA had the highest at five per woman. Wealthier and educated women tended to have lower fertility rates than poor and less educated ones.

Figure 4. Total Fertility Rates, 1973-2006



Source: 2003 NDHS, 2006 FPS

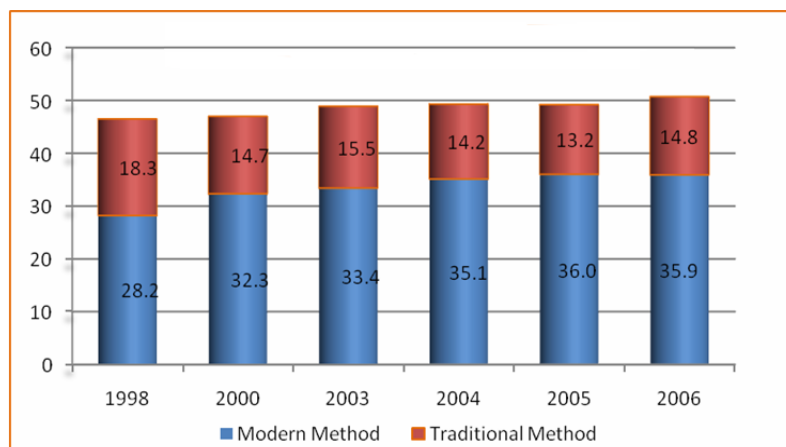
49. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel. According to the 2003 NDHS, women's access to health care generally improved from the previous years. However, poor and rural women still received insufficient health care. For instance, 61 percent of deliveries occurred at home while 38 percent occurred in a health facility. This represented an increase compared to 1998 when 66 percent of births occurred at home and a mere 34 percent of children were born in health facilities. Likewise, 60 percent of women in the country gave birth with the assistance of a doctor, nurse, or midwife compared with only 56 percent in 1998. Of this, 79 percent came from urban areas and only 41 percent from rural areas. Moreover, almost 70 percent of women raised the issue of not having the money for treatment as the reason preventing them from accessing healthcare. This was probably the reason why few women were able to complete ante-natal care. As a preventive method for pregnancy complications, the Department of Health recommends four ante-natal care visits for every pregnant woman. However, only 70 percent of them had completed this recommended number of visits during their pregnancies, according to the 2003 NDHS.

50. Proportion of contraceptive demands satisfied. The 2006 FPS showed that the use of contraception among married women tripled over the past 35 years from 15 percent in 1968 to 50.6 percent in 2006 (Figure 5). Thirty-six women out of 100 relied on modern family planning methods while 15 out of 100 relied on traditional family planning methods in 2006. Despite this increase in contraceptive use, problems remain with regard to unwanted and mistimed pregnancies. In the five years preceding the 2003 NDHS, 24 percent of pregnancies were wanted, but at a later date, while 20 percent were not wanted at all. Overall, the proportion of mistimed births decreased from 27 percent in 1998 to 24 percent in 2003. However, the proportion of unwanted births rose from 18 percent in 1998 to 20 percent in 2003.

The FPS also showed that the practice of family planning depended on the woman's age, education and socioeconomic standing. Contraceptive use was highest among married women aged 35 to 39 years at 58.2 percent and was lowest for those aged 15 to 19 years at 23.3 percent. Those with no education were the least likely to practice family planning. Use of FP method among women belonging to non-poor households was higher than among those belonging to poor households at 52.4 percent versus 47.3 percent. The difference was mainly due to the higher prevalence of female sterilization among non-poor women than among poor women.

51. Adolescent fertility rate. The 2002 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Survey revealed that there was an increasing tolerance for the Filipino youth, aged 15-24, to engage in premarital sex (PMS), but almost half of them were unaware that pregnancy is possible after only one sexual encounter. Seventy-nine percent of these first PMS experiences were without protection and around 80 percent of young females did not know the fertile period of their menstrual cycle. In 2003, 26 percent of women aged 15-24 had already begun childbearing (Table 15). They were likely to be from poor families, residing in rural areas, and with limited education.

Figure 5. Contraceptive Prevalence Rate by Method, 1998-2006



Source: NSCB

Table 15. Percentage of Women Aged 15-24 Years Who Have Begun Childbearing, by Background Characteristics, 2003

Background characteristics	Percentage who have begun childbearing	Number of women
Age		
15-19	8	2,648
20-24	48.5	2,209
Residence		
Urban	23.3	2,958
Rural	31.3	1,898
Education		
No education	*	27
Elementary	45.2	664
High schools	24.7	2,822
College or higher	20.3	1,344
Wealth index quintile		
Lowest	46	690
Second	38	801
Middle	29.1	943
Fourth	20.4	1,045
Highest	12.5	1,376
Total	26.4	4,556

Source: 2003 NDHS

52. Annual statistics on VAWC. With the passage of the Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act of 2004 (Republic Act 9262), cases of violence against women compiled by the Philippine National Police declined from 7,800 in 2000 to 4,600 in 2007 (Table 16). However, these figures may be understated since women victims often opted not to report them.

Table 16. Annual Comparative Statistics on Violence against Women by Classification of Offenses and Year, 2000-2007

Reported Case	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007*
Rape	1,121	1,026	972	1,045	997	927	659	639
Incestuous rape	242	188	91	72	38	46	26	22
Attempted rape	280	334	316	275	194	146	185	120
Acts of lasciviousness	733	725	733	646	580	536	382	261
Physical injuries/Wife battering	4,577	5,668	5,058	4,296	3,553	2,335	1,692	1498
Sexual harassment	93	57	109	112	53	37	38	372
RA 9262	-	-	-	-	218	924	1269	1443
Threats	397	588	561	420	319	223	199	145
Seduction	25	43	66	17	62	19	29	25
Concubinage	202	244	192	180	121	102	93	77
Sex trafficking/White slavery	8	20	16	4	17	11	16	32
Abduction/Kidnapping	37	86	45	36	29	18	34	18
Unjust vexation	122	153	125	101	90	50	59	35
Total	7,837	9,132	8,284	7,204	6,271	5,374	4,681	4,687

**Preliminary data (Jan-Oct 2007)*

Source: PNP

53. Proportion of cases of VAWC counseled by qualified personnel. The Department of Social Welfare and Development also compiles statistics on what it refers to as women in especially difficult circumstances (WEDC). These are victims of sexual abuse, physical abuse/maltreatment/battering, illegal recruitment, involuntary prostitution, armed conflict, human trafficking, detention, and others like HIV patients/potentials, strandeers, abandoned women, emotionally distressed women, unwed mothers, sexually exploited women, voluntarily committed or surrendered women, and neglected victims of disaster. The table below shows the WEDC clients provided with crisis intervention services by the DSWD (Table 17).

Table 17. WEDC Clients Provided Service by the DSWD, 2000-2007

Case Category	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Total	7125	6074	5608	5703	5559	5440	5378	5359
Sexually abused	900	707	518	495	373	348	333	319
Physically abused/ maltreated/ battered	3184	2318	1405	1926	1557	1582	1,438	1,475
Illegal recruitment	151	530	99	102	162	74	45	102
Involuntary prostitution	171	147	164	91	85	141	75	32
Armed Conflict/ Trafficking	43	839	45	96	94	117	53	174
In Detention	98	59	10	59	62	62	71	-
Others ¹	2578	1474	1702	-	-	1229	-	954
Uncategorized ²			1665	2934	3226	1887	3,363	2303

¹ Others include HIV patients/potentials, strandeers, abandoned women, emotionally distressed women, unwed mothers, sexually exploited women, voluntarily committed/surrendered women, and neglected victims of disaster.

² These are the estimated number of WEDC clients provided with crisis intervention services whose cases are not categorized.

Source: DSWD

Goal 6: HIV/AIDs and other diseases

54. Reported cases of reproductive tract infection and cancers of women and men. There are no data on this, according to the DOH.

55. Prevalence of TB, dengue, and malaria. Tuberculosis (TB) and malaria remain a major health problem in the Philippines. TB is the sixth leading cause of mortality and morbidity while malaria is the ninth leading cause of death in the country. Of the reported cases of TB between 2000 to 2003, males were more likely to be infected (Table 18). Significant improvements have been made in recent years in increasing TB detection and treatment. In 2007, the country achieved a TB case detection rate of 75 percent, exceeding the national and global target of 70 percent. The national TB treatment success rate is currently at 82 percent (Table 18). The national performance levels, however, do not reflect the situation in many locales where detection and treatment are still below target levels given the difficulty of breaking down the stigma of TB that keeps many of those infected with it from seeking treatment.

Similarly, the malaria burden has markedly decreased in terms of morbidity and mortality over the years. Reported cases of malaria are also on a declining trend (Figure 6). The endemic situation of provinces has likewise improved. From 1990 to 2000, there were 26 provinces considered as Category A (1,000 cases reported per year); 22 as Category B (100 to <1,000 per year); 18 as Category C (<100 per year); and 13 as Category D (no indigenous cases for five years). By the end of 2007, only nine provinces remained as Category A; six additional provinces were declared malaria-free; and nine more were in the pre-elimination phase. Despite the scaling-up of efforts to control malaria, it remains endemic in 57 of the 79 provinces in the country, according to the DOH.

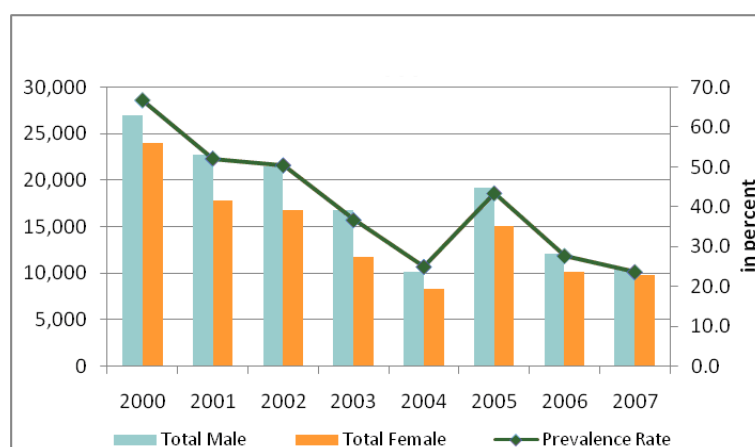
Meanwhile, the DOH reports that dengue deaths have been growing, especially in the NCR. The top contributors of dengue deaths are the cities of Quezon, Manila and Caloocan.

Table 18. Reported Cases of TB and Dengue by Sex, 2000-2003

Year	TB, all forms			Dengue Fever		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
2000	133,302	57	43	6,614	53.8	46.2
2001	118,087	57.8	42.2	21,927	52.8	47.2
2002	117,580	58.8	41.2	12,755	52.6	47.4
2003	88,132	60.3	39.7	17,303	51.5	48.5

Source: DOH

Figure 6. Reported Cases of Malaria by Sex, 2000-2007



Source: Field Health Service Information System, National Epidemiology Center, DOH

56. Persons with HIV/AIDS by Sex. The Philippine HIV and AIDS Registry carries a cumulative total of 3,061 reported cases from 1984 to 2007, more than half (52 percent) of which were detected in the last seven years of 2001 to 2007 (Table 19). Since 1984, 307 deaths from AIDS have been registered. The Philippines National AIDS Council³⁷ reports that young adults, men who have sex with men (MSM), people in prostitution (PIP), injecting drug users (IDUs), overseas Filipino workers (OFWs), and the partners of all these groups are particularly vulnerable to HIV infection. Of 342 new cases reported in 2007, 41 percent involved OFWs. The national adult HIV prevalence of 0.1 percent of the population is still relatively low. However, there are worrisome factors that this figure will increase in the future. For one, there is an increasing number of young people engaging in premarital sex who often have multiple partners. Most of them do not use any form of protection, either because they have difficulty having access to contraceptives or because they are constrained by their religious beliefs. In addition, there are disturbing misconceptions held by the youth that AIDS is curable and there is a very small chance that they will be infected by it. In 2005, the WHO estimated the number of Filipinos infected with HIV at 12,000.

Table 19. Incidence of HIV and AIDS by Sex, 2001-2007

Year	HIV Positives			AIDS Cases		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
2001	174	117	57	56	41	15
2002	184	130	54	44	34	10
2003	192	131	61	53	43	10
2004	199	138	61	37	28	9
2005	210	141	69	39	30	9
2006	309	219	90	36	28	8
2007	342	279	63	28	23	5

Source: HIV&AIDS Registry, National Epidemiology Center, DOH

57. Percentage of women receiving therapy.³⁸ In its 2007 Country Report for the UN General Assembly special session, the PNAC reported that anti-retroviral (ARV) treatment and support were given free to all indicated HIV patients in 11 treatment hubs³⁹ which are now in place across the country. Voluntary counseling and treatment (VCT) protocol is also being popularized both in government and private clinics. To date, 336 patients are under free ARV treatment. In 2006, the Philippine Health Insurance Corporation (Philhealth) passed board resolution number No.921 approving outpatient benefits for those with HIV/AIDS.

58. Condom prevalence/usage rate. Condom usage as a method of family planning in the Philippines is extremely low (Table 20). This raises the risk to women of unplanned pregnancy and contacting a sexually transmitted disease. Moreover, this is also an indicator of married women's weak negotiation skills with their husbands in urging them to use condoms.

Table 20. Percent Distribution of Married Women by Current Family Planning Method Used, 2006

Contraceptive Method	Total	Urban	Rural
Any Method	50.6	51.1	50.2
Modern Method	35.9	36.3	35.4
Pill	16.6	15.9	17.4
IUD	4.1	3.6	4.6
Injectables	2.8	2.5	3.1
Condom	1.6	1.9	1.2
Ligation	10.4	12	8.7
Vasectomy	0.1	0.1	0.1
Modern Natural Family Planning Methods	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other Modern Methods	0	-	0
Traditional Method	14.8	14.8	14.8
Calendar/Rhythm/Periodic Abstinence	7	6.4	7.5
Withdrawal	7.3	8.1	6.6
Other Traditional Method	0.5	0.3	0.7
No Method	49.4	48.9	49.8
Total	100	100	100

Source: 2006 FPS

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability

59. Proportion of CLOAs, lot titles (stewardship) awarded to women. Access to land and property rights by women provides economic security and improves their welfare (Grown, et.al. 2005:9). In the Philippines, access to land is still an elusive goal for women because of the cultural preference for men as inheritors and caretakers of land (ADB 2004). In 2003, a mere one-fourth of all emancipation patents (EP)⁴⁰ distributed in that year were given to women. Likewise, certificates of land ownership award (CLOA)⁴¹ were granted to 16,616 women compared with 33,711 to men (Table 21).

Table 21. Holders of Emancipation Patents and Certificates of Land Ownership Award by Category and Sex of Holders, 2003

	Total	Women	Men
Emancipation Patents (EP)	3,077	633	2,444
Certificate of Land Ownership Award (CLOA)	50,327	16,616	33,711

Source: NSCB

Goal 8: Establishing partnerships

60. Bilateral treaties for the protection of migrant workers developed and signed by both the sending and receiving countries. Currently, the Philippines is a party to only a handful of bilateral agreements or memoranda of understanding (MOUs) with host-countries. As of September 2008, it had MOUs with only the United Arab Emirates and with Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and British Columbia, all provinces of Canada, and a memorandum of agreement (MOA) with Bahrain. Kuwait is implementing a policy that there should be an employment agreement between domestic workers and employers. A proposal is pending with the European Union while an MOA with Saudi Arabia is yet to commence.

61. Presence of safety nets for displaced women and children and communities in bilateral and multilateral trade agreements. The MOUs and MOA mentioned above did not explicitly provide safety nets for displaced women and children and communities. However, prior to the signing of the protocols under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) negotiated during the Uruguay Round, the Philippines committed to provide adjustment programs for those who would be displaced by trade liberalization. Thus, the Department of Labor and Employment issued Department Order No. 7 (series of 2001),⁴² also known as the adjustment measures program (DOLE-AMP), which provides safety nets for displaced workers, including their dependents. The safety nets include: (a) the delivery of employment services such as job matching and referrals, employment guidance and counseling, skills retraining, and upgrading and livelihood/entrepreneurship development; (b) assistance to workers in obtaining their separation benefits and in making informed choices on re-employment options; and (c) emergency employment and other forms of subsidy to marginalized and less competitive displaced workers and their dependents, including out-of-school and out-of-work youth.

62. International coordinating mechanism to deter and prevent inter-country trafficking of women and children. In 2000, the Philippines signed the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. The Convention seeks to combat transnational organized crime and is a legally binding instrument that commits signatory States to seriously address it.

To implement the Convention, the Philippines adopted a “one country team approach” where the Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA), the labor and social welfare attaches, the Task Force against Human Trafficking⁴⁵ of the Commission of Filipinos Overseas, and the Philippine Overseas Labor Offices (POLOs) coordinate with the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol)⁴⁶ to prevent international human trafficking.

The creation of an Inter-Agency Council against Trafficking (IACAT),⁴² the Multi-Sectoral Networks against Trafficking in Persons (MSNAT) and Anti-Trafficking Task Force at the Ports, on the other hand, seeks to maintain all local networks involved in curtailing human trafficking, especially of women and children, and strengthen the enforcement of RA 9208, or the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003. Aside from this, the Philippines also has a special arrangement with ASEAN nations with regard to its campaign against human trafficking. The ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, particularly Declaration Nos. 17, 20, 21 and 22, signed last 13 January, enumerate its commitments to prevent international human trafficking and address its aftermaths.

63. Percent of LGU budget⁴⁸ utilized for gender-responsive projects that positively benefited women. The utilization of the gender and development (GAD) budget has fluctuated over the years (Table 22). Moreover, there is still a huge gap between proposed GAD budget allocation and actual expenditures. This either means that there is no political commitment to GAD priorities or that the GAD budget simply has been used for other purposes, partly because several LGUs lack the competence to pursue and identify worthy projects that can be funded by it.

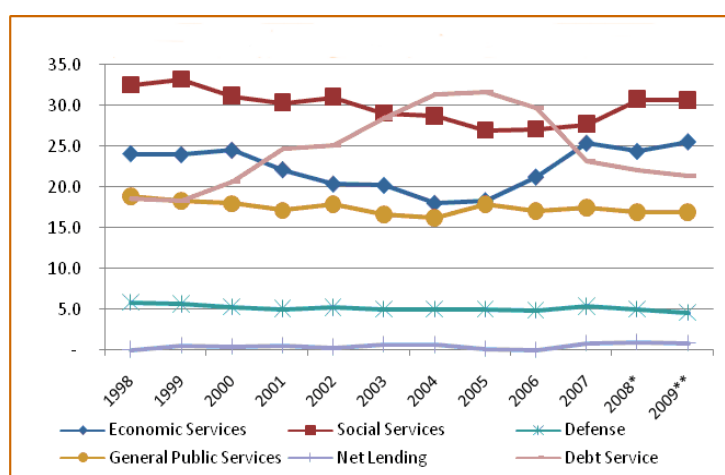
Table 22. Planned Versus Spent GAD Budgets, 2002–2006

Year	Proposed GAD Budget (in bn pesos)	GAD Expenditures (in bn pesos)	Percent Utilization
2002	0.84	0.31	37
2003	4.74	0.51	11
2004	3.93	1.7	43
2005	2.16	0.65	30
2006	1.1	0.91	82

Source: DBM

64. Proportion of social services vis-à-vis reducing debt burden. Scarce budgetary resources and a large population hamper Filipinos' access to basic services. While the share of social services to the gross domestic product (GDP) has been increasing since 2006, the budget for health and education is below international standards. The WHO benchmark for health expenditure in developing countries like the Philippines is at least five percent of GDP while the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) prescribes a standard of six percent of the gross national product for investments in education. The dramatic decrease in the allocation for economic services also negatively affects job creation and generation of livelihood opportunities. While the debt service allocation has significantly decreased in recent years, it still occupies more than 20 percent of the budget pie. These shortfalls affect women's role as care providers as they usually bear the burden in their families of decreased government subsidies. The unpaid work they do at home becomes even heavier and longer in critical times.

Figure 7. Sectoral Allocation of National Government Expenditures, 1998-2009



Source: DBM

Concluding Notes and Some Recommendations

At best, this paper provides a snapshot of how a national report on the MDG can be made more gender-responsive through careful inclusion of key indicators that better capture the gender dimension of achieving the MDGs. It is, however, acknowledged that local data need to be improved through the actual collection of relevant data and incorporating sex-disaggregated information. In the Philippines, where regional and provincial disparities are characteristic of uneven economic development and where local autonomy has been an institutional arrangement since 1992, capturing local data in terms of MDG achievement is an urgent concern. Thus, it is a welcome development that the first provincial level MDG report is in the offing. Hopefully, this would, at the very least, include gender-responsive analyses.

To reiterate, there is a need for CEDAW and BPfA experts to be part of the consultation process in putting together the next Philippine MDG report. Aside from advocating a gender-responsive report, there is a crucial need to capacitate statistical agencies and data collection bodies on gender analysis. The capacity-building should include qualitative analysis since gender relations can only be culled from this type of data collection. Finally, there is also a need to review periodic government surveys such as the Labor Force Survey and the Family Income and Expenditure Survey, among others, and their questionnaires so they can reflect gender considerations. This knowledge base is vital in understanding to what extent the country's development achievements have benefitted men and women equally and how its development debacles have also marginalized them.

Endnotes

¹ Philippine Statement by Hilario G. Davide, Jr., Permanent Representative of the Philippines to the United Nations on the Thematic Debate on the Implementation of the Millennium Development Goals, entitled “Recognizing the achievements, addressing the challenges and getting back on track to achieve the MDGs in 2015,” 2 April 2008.

² United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2006. Human Rights and the Millennium Development Goals: Making the Link. Oslo Governance Center.

³ Manalo, Rosario and Melanie Reyes, “The MDGs: Boon or Bane for Gender Equality and Women’s Rights.” Paper presented by Ambassador Manalo to the Masteral Seminar at the Unibersidad de Complutencia de Madrid, Spain, 1 December 2005, pp.2-3.

⁴ This was stated by Ms. Gladys Franco of the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) during the public presentation of this paper, 26 November 2008.

⁵ NSCB Resolution Number 6, Series of 2005.

⁶ DILG Memorandum Circular 2008-53.

⁷ Message of Ms. Deborah Landey at the Launching of the Second Philippine Progress Report on the MDGs, Centennial Hall, Manila Hotel, 16 June 2005. Available at www.neda.gov.ph/econreports_dbs/MDGs/Msgs_Presentations/landey.doc.

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⁹ Second Philippine Progress Reports on the Millennium Development Goals, 2005, p.3.

¹⁰ Power point presentation at the Consultation Meeting on the MDGs in Asia and the Pacific. 23 February 2005. Available at www.mdgasiapacific.org/files/shared_folder/archives/manila_consultation_feb_2005/2nd_mdg_report_wo_scriptrev.ppt.

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¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Lorraine Corner. 2008. Making the MDGs Work For All: Gender-Responsive Right-Based Approaches to the MDGs. United Nations Development Fund for Women.

¹⁷ UNDP, 2005. En Route to Equality: A Gender Review of National MDG Reports.

¹⁸ Caren Grown, et.al. Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women, United Nations Development Programme, 2005, pp.28-29.

¹⁹ Caren Grown, et.al., 2005, p.29.

²⁰ Dr. Jan Pronk, Collateral Damage or Calculated Default? The Millennium Development Goals and the Politics of Globalization, Inaugural Address as Professor of the Theory and Practice of International Development, Delivered on 11 December 2003 at the Institute of Social Studies, The Hague, Netherlands.

²¹ Lorraine Corner, A “How-To” Guide to Engendering the MDGs: Concept Paper Document Outline, Forthcoming, pp.8-9.

²² Ibid.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Serrano, p.115.

²⁵ UNDP, 2005. En Route to Equality A Gender Review of National MDG Reports, pp. 3-4.

²⁶ Lorraine Corner. 2008. Making the MDGs Work For All: Gender-Responsive, Rights-Based Approaches to the MDGs. United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), p.4-5.

²⁷ Lee Waldorf, Pathway to Gender Equality: CEDAW, Beijing and the MDGs. New York: GTZ and UNIFEM.

²⁸ Dairiam, Shanthi, 2005, p.7.

²⁹ Eleanor Conda, From De Jure to De Facto Rights for Women: Towards A Framework for Strengthening Implementation of the CEDAW in the Philippines. Women and Gender Institute-Miriam College, 2006, p.40.

³⁰ Achievements and Challenges in Linking the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Millennium Development Goals. United Nations Development Fund for Women, for CIS, February 2005.

³¹ Conda, Eleanor, 2005, p. 42.

³² <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/states.htm>.

³³ Grown, Caren Geeta Rao Gupta, Aslihan Kes. 2005. *Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women*. Earthscan. UK and USA: p.9.

³⁴ Corner, p.22.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ **Career Service** - the entrance of employees is based on merit and fitness, determined by the competitive examinations or on highly technical qualifications. Employees under this category enjoy opportunities for advancement to higher career positions and security of tenure.

Noncareer Service - the entrance of employees is based on factors other than the usual test of merit and fitness utilized for the career service. Their tenure is limited to a period specified by law, or is coterminous with that of the appointing authority or is subject to his/her pleasure, or is limited to the duration of a particular project for which purpose employment was made.

³⁷ The Philippine National AIDS Council (PNAC) is a multi-sectoral body comprising of representatives from government departments, various sectors and professional groups, and NGOs.

³⁸ There is no sex-disaggregated data on this.

³⁹ These treatment hubs are the: (1) Ilocos Training Regional Medical Centre, La Union; (2) Baguio General Hospital; (3) San Lazaro Hospital, Manila; (4) Research Institute of Tropical Medicine, Alabang; (5) UP – Philippine General Hospital, Manila; (6) Bicol Research and Training Regional Medical Centre, Albay; (7) Don Vicente Sotto Memorial Medical Centre, Cebu City; (8) Corazon Locsin Medical Centre, Bacolod City; (9) Western Visayas Medical Centre, Iloilo City; (10) Davao Medical Centre, Davao City; and (11) Zamboanga City Medical Centre, Zamboanga City.

⁴⁰ Under the Philippine government's Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program (CARP), an emancipation patent (EP) is the land title granted to the tenant upon fulfillment of all government requirements.

⁴¹ Also under the same program, a certificate of land ownership award (CLOA) is a document given to the beneficiary by the Department of Agrarian Reform (DAR) which contains restrictions and conditions contained in the CARP law and other applicable statutes.

⁴² http://www.ble.dole.gov.ph/issuances/DO_7_01.pdf.

⁴³ http://www.uncjin.org/Documents/Conventions/dcatoc/final_documents_2/convention_eng.pdf.

⁴⁴ Approved by General Assembly resolution 317(IV) of 2 December 1949 and was entered into force on 25 July 1951, in accordance with Article 24 which recognized the following agreements: (1) International Agreement of 18 May 1904 for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, as amended by the Protocol approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 3 December 1948; (2) International Convention of 4 May 1910 for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, as amended by the above-mentioned Protocol; (3) International Convention of 30 September 1921 for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women and Children, as amended by the Protocol approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 20 October 1947; and the (4) International Convention of 11 October 1933 for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women of Full Age, as amended by the aforesaid Protocol.

⁴⁵ Created by virtue of EO 548-A that redefined in clearer terms the functions of POEA and CFO in the fight against illegal recruitment and human trafficking.

⁴⁶ <http://www.interpol.int/>.

⁴⁷ Composed of the Bureau of Local Employment (BLE), Bureau of Women and Young Workers (BWYW), Bureau of Rural Workers (BRW), Commission on Filipinos Overseas (CFO), National Bureau of Investigation (NBI), National Police Commission – Crime Prevention & Coordination Service (Napolcom-CPCS), Philippine Center for Transnational Crime (PCTC), Overseas Workers and Welfare Administration (OWWA), Technical Skills and Development Authority (TESDA), and the Women's Crisis and Child Protection Center-Philippine National Police (WCCPC-PNP).

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Annex
List of Participants

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|---|---|
| 1. Maj. Marilyn Yap
Directorate for Investigation and Detective
Management (DIDM)
Philippine National Police | 13. Winnie Alvarez
Institute for Social Studies and Action |
| 2. PO3 S. A. Singh
DIDM, PNP | 14. Daryl Leyesa
Centro Saka Inc. |
| 3. Beatriz Sañga
House Committee on Women and Gender
Equality | 15. Renard Ycasiano
Senate Economic Planning Office |
| 4. Clementina P. Lachica
House Committee on Women and Gender
Equality | 16. Elizabeth Yang
PILIPINA |
| 5. Supt. Milet G. Batac
Bureau of Jail Management and Penology | 17. Luz Lopez-Rodriguez
UNIFEM |
| 6. Erlina H. Castillo
Commission on Population | 18. Chingbee Templo
Women's Feature Service |
| 7. Goyi Solis
Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement | 19. Janelyn Francisco
Centro Saka Inc. |
| 8. Gladys Franco
National Commission on the Role of Filipino
Women | 20. Becky Gaddi
Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement |
| 9. Clarence R. Carlos
Writers' Studio, ABS-CBN | 21. Jean Franco
Women and Gender Institute, Miriam College |
| 10. Benjamin Jose G. Bautista
National Economic and Development
Authority | 22. Jeannie Manipon
Women and Gender Institute, Miriam College |
| 11. JO1 Wena Fe Dalagan
Bureau of Jail Management and Penology | 23. Melanie Reyes
Women and Gender Institute, Miriam College |
| 12. Allie Cortez
National Economic and Development
Authority | 24. Aurora Javate-De Dios
Women and Gender Institute, Miriam College |

Gender is an overarching theme that encompasses the eight Millennium Development Goals the world's nations have committed to achieve by 2015. Yet, country reports, including the Philippines', have still to fully reflect how gender considerations have figured in crafting, implementing, and monitoring development strategies and programs that could meet the MDGs. CEDAW Watch Philippines, through one of its members, the Women and Gender Institute of Miriam College, has put together this policy brief ***Making the Philippine MDG Report Gender-Responsive*** to show how gender can be made an integral part of a country's report in monitoring the progress of its MDG implementation.

