

THE CIVIL SERVICE ACADEMY OF THE PHILIPPINES :
A VEHICLE FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT PARTICIPATION

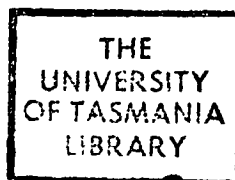
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MARIA MILAGROSA ALVAREZ IMBUIDO

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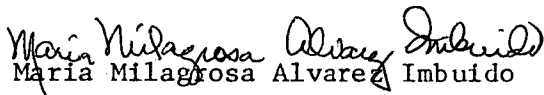
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ABSTRACT

The Civil Service Academy of the Philippines: A Vehicle for Rural Development Participation

When the people are given decent shelter, afforded proper education and access to other social amenities, their reformed values and aspirations are preserved, enriched and transmitted to the future. All these are indispensable to the national effort for development. It is the change in economic status of the people that encourages them to be active participants in development and adjust to the changes that development generates and guarantees.

A strategy for economic and social development of rural areas in the Philippines intended to reduce poverty, should take cognizance not only of expanding individual income and access to social amenities but likewise adopt a system of steadily increasing the participation of the people in the rural areas, in economic, social and political activities to mobilize their potentials.

This thesis attempts to bring to focus some of the salient issues and features of rural development participation. Rural development participation denotes "the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions which enhance their well-being, e.g., their income, security or self-esteem".

My major focus is on the crucial role that the Civil Service Academy, the training arm of the Civil Service Commission and the principal mechanism for the integration and coordination of training activities and programs of the government, could play in support of rural development participation by virtue of its position in the bureaucracy. In demonstrating this point, attention was first drawn to the roles of women, voluntary associations and

paraprofessionals, illustrating them with case histories of six depressed barangays.

This study has examined the role that the CSA could play in rural development by utilizing training as an intervention. As put forth in this study, this is possible if the CSA adopts a working philosophy oriented towards greater support for the development and promotion of training programs designed to increase awareness of the participants on the importance of participation of women, voluntary associations and paraprofessionals in rural development. It is with the hope that the training participants will consider these three sectors when they formulate policies and implement programs for rural barangays.

It is further suggested that the CSA build the institutional mechanisms for a continuing supportive relationship between her and the graduates of the training programs to ensure that its training efforts will be successfully followed up. For it is a recognized fact training would be more effective and the impact on the client organizations more significant if there is a continuous and more intensive relationship or clearly defined linkages between the organizations serviced and the training institute.

INTRODUCTION

This is primarily concerned with one of the most popular concepts dominating development thinking in this decade ... participation in the context of rural development. Some salient issues and features concerning rural development participation will be presented in the first chapter of this thesis. This will be followed by a presentation of survey results of six depressed barangays¹ in the Philippines, citing arrangements and institutions which present opportunities or obstacles to rural development participation. In the subsequent chapters, attention will be drawn to the roles of women, voluntary associations and paraprofessionals in rural development participation. Analysis results and insights gained will be used to identify supportive institutional mechanisms to foster rural development participation.

The Civil Service Commission has been utilized by the government as one of the main instruments for effecting development. The Commission in turn, utilizes training and research as an intervention to rural development. The major focus of my thesis then is on the crucial role that the Civil Service Academy could play in support of rural development participation by virtue of its role as the training arm of the Commission and its hierarchical position in the bureaucracy. Created under Presidential Decree No. 1218, the Academy

1. A barrio or barangay is the smallest political and administrative unit in the Philippine political system. In the Philippines, self-government was a principle long recognized but for which little was done to make it a tangible reality. In 1955, the barrio council was created to allow for local elections at this level. However, due to lack of financial support, it failed to function. In 1973 the barangay council or citizen assemblies were created under Presidential Decree 86 with the idea of further increasing local participation. Its function includes maintenance of peace and order, promulgation of ordinances and resolutions, establishment of cooperative enterprises for improvement of economic status, implementation of public work projects and collection of taxes and licence fees. (For a historical background on the barangay, refer to full text of *The Philippine Priorities and Prospects for Development*, pp. 89-90.)

serves as the principal mechanism for the integration and coordination of training activities and programs of the government.

Literature on development administration has identified the bureaucrat² as a critical factor or variable in the development process, particularly the critical mass of administrators who wield enormous authority in the allocation of resources and the selection of programmes designed to effect development.³

The College of Public Administration, University of the Philippines, suggested the value commitments of development-orientedness as : 1) change orientation, 2) action propensity, 3) commitment to economic development, 4) concern for economic equality, 5) concern for public participation, 6) concern for conflict avoidance, 7) concern for the nation, and 8) selflessness.⁴ It is towards the formation of these value commitments amongst senior public executives that the Civil Service Academy has included in all its executive development training programs the rural immersion component, aptly called the "Rural Development Module". It best exemplifies a serious attempt to infuse

2. Jose Veloso Abueva, "Administrative Culture and Behavior and Middle Servants in the Philippines", from *Development Administration in Asia* edited by Edward W. Weidner, Duke University Press, Durham, North Carolina, 1970, pp. 132-186.

3. See Jose V. Abueva's comparative material on the higher civil servants and the legislators, "Social Backgrounds and Recruitment of Legislators and Administrators in the Philippines", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, IX (January, 1965), pp. 10-29.

Refer to Robert B. Stauffer, "Philippine Legislators and Their Changing Universe", *World Politics*, XXVIII, No. 3, (August, 1966) pp. 556-597, for a more comprehensive study of Filipino legislators.

4. Raul de Guzman and Ma. Aurora Carbonel, *Development-Orientedness of Filipino Administrators*, NSDB-UP Integrated Research Program, University of the Philippines, Quezon City, March, 1976, p. 9.

not only managerial expertise in the participants but much more critical, a sense of commitment to the improvement of the poor in the rural areas.

The rural development module entails the immersion of the participants into the mainstream of rural life. The learning experiment puts the participants in depressed barangays and lets them interact with the rural populace. These barangays, classified as "depressed" areas by the Ministry of Local Government and Community Development, are surveyed and pre-selected by the Civil Service Academy. They are actually located in remote areas away from the urban centres by at least five kilometres and not along the national highway. The output of a rural immersion is a case history for each barangay by each learning team.⁵

What is rural development?

...The involvement of the rural poor in making decisions on development efforts which affect them and the contribution of their resources to development activities as well as the assurance that the poor in fact benefit from interventions⁶ intended to help them, are essential to rural development.

Rural poverty and underdevelopment is one of the priority areas of concern of the Philippines as well as of most Third World countries today. Improved economic and social life of the rural poor has become a primary thrust in programs of national development. Through rural development, the Philippine government hopes to solve its poverty problems.

The term "rural" is quite ambiguous, however it has several distinctive characteristics which differentiate it from urban. A rural

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5. This refers to a group report on every barangay studied. A report contains the usual socio-economic profile and other empirical data on the community. In Chapter II, I consolidated the bulk of the baseline data gathered by the various teams, with the end in view of making comparative analysis vis-a-vis participation in rural development with special focus on women, paraprofessionals and voluntary organizations.
 6. John M. Cohen and Norman T. Uphoff, *Rural Development Participation: Concepts and Measures for Project Design, Implementation and Evaluation*, Cornell University, Rural Development Monograph No. 2, January 1977, Introduction, ix.

area is characterized by the dominance of agricultural employment, the presence of a less defined division of labour and a low population density with accompanying simple social structures.⁷

Rural development is the strategy designed to extend the benefits of development to the poorest of the poor in rural areas mainly through increased production and raised productivity.⁸ Rural development has been identified to be a process designed to enhance the economic, social and political life of poor people in defined rural areas.⁹ Rural development which is concerned with the modernization while at the same time increasing the availability of goods and services in rural areas recognizes that improved food supplies, nutrition, health and education, improves the physical well-being and quality of life of those residing in the rural areas.¹⁰

The World Bank's definition of rural development, by virtue of its role as a lending institution, is:

The central concept of rural development...is of a process through which rural poverty is alleviated by sustained increases in productivity and incomes of low income rural workers and households. The emphasis is on raising output and incomes rather than simply re-distributing current income and existing assets, although the latter may be desirable or even essential in an overall rural development strategy which links production with distributive or equity objectives.¹¹

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7. *Rural Development*, Sector Policy Paper, World Bank Publication, Washington, 1975, p. 3.
 8. See "Rural Development Strategy, The Integrated Area Development (IAD) Approach", integrated papers of Dr Raul P. de Guzman, Professor and Dean, College of Public Administration, University of the Philippines and Jose M. Lawas, Director, Regional Development Staff, National Economic Development Authority; integrated by Vicente Mariano, Local Government Centre, University of the Philippines, p. 1.
 9. De Guzman, *op. cit.*
 10. Sector Policy Paper, *op. cit.*
 11. World Bank, *The Assault on World Poverty: Problems of Rural Development, Education and Health*, Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press, 1975, p. 17.

The basic objective of rural development then is improved productivity and output. However, over the past few years the growing gap between the rich and the poor and the reality that one quarter of the total world population is still living below the poverty line considering that these households still have incomes of less than \$100 per annum have caused development experts grave concern. The First Development Decade (1960s) was marked by failures. Rapid industrialization led to economic growth but the benefits did not filter down to the poor. The development strategies of the 1950s and 1960s, for some of the poor, not only meant disproportionately fewer benefits but even worsened situations.¹²

The advent of the Second Development Decade saw the reversal of this trend. Greater efforts by development agencies have been exerted towards greater participation by those who are supposed to be the direct beneficiaries of the development efforts. One such agency is the Asian Centre for Development Administration in Malaysia which defines rural development to be:

...a process which leads to a continuous rise in the capacity of rural people to control their environment, accompanied by a wider distribution of benefits resulting from such control. This definition reflects basically three concerns... First, it suggests that rural development should be viewed as a process raising the capacity of rural people to control their environment which is more than agricultural development or economic development of rural areas. Such a conception encompasses simultaneous development in all aspects of rural life: social, economic, cultural and political. Secondly, rural development as a process should continuously raise the capacity of rural people to affect their total environment enabling them to become initiators and controllers of change in their environment rather than merely

12. Barbara Howell, "Women in Development", Bread for the World Publication, November, 1978, Background Paper No. 29. Also based on conclusions drawn from studies prepared for the ILO-sponsored World Conference on Employment held in Geneva and the FAO-sponsored World Conference on Agricultural Reform and Rural Development held in Rome in 1976 and 1979 respectively. Refer also to *Rural Asia, Challenge and Opportunity*, Praegar, New York, 1978.

the passive objects of external manipulation and control. Thirdly, the concept reflects the increasing concern with the wider distribution of benefits accruing from technical developments and the participation of the under-privileged and weaker sections of the rural population in the process of development.¹³

There is definitely a growing concern for participation in rural development especially in recent years. Although there is little systematic knowledge on the concept, even the United Nation's Economic and Social Council has recommended that governments should "adopt popular participation as a basic policy measure in national development strategy" and should "encourage the widest possible active participation of all individuals and national non-governmental organizations, such as trade unions, youth and women's organizations, in the development process in setting goals, formulating policies and implementing plans."¹⁴

What is the meaning of participation? The term is quite ambiguous and there are no standard definitions, but for purposes of this thesis the definition of Uphoff *et al.*, which encompasses a wide range of things will be adopted. It denotes "the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions which enhance their well-being, e.g., their income, security or self-esteem".¹⁵

Participation in the rural development context will be discussed in greater length in the next chapter.

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13. Asian Centre for Development Administration (ACDA), *Approaches to Rural Development in Asia*, Vol. 1, Kuala Lumpur, 1976, p. 5.
 14. Norman T. Uphoff, John M. Cohen and Arthur A. Goldsmith, *Feasibility and Application of Rural Development Participation: A State-of-the-Art Paper*, Cornell University, Rural Development Monograph No. 3, January 1979, p. 1.
 15. *Ibid.*, p. 4.

CHAPTER I

RURAL DEVELOPMENT PARTICIPATION

In the Philippines almost three-quarters of the entire population of forty nine million live in rural areas where social services are poor, economic activities are limited, agricultural productivity low and unemployment high. The national government is giving high priority to the economic development of rural areas, however, as pointed out by the World Bank, there is a need to enlarge local responsibility for formulating and administering programmes and projects.¹⁶

A strategy for economic, political and social development of rural communities necessitates the expansion of open opportunities for more active and effective participation of the rural populace in the process of their own development.¹⁷ Hence there is a need to define an institutional framework for rural development participation.

There are really no exact definitions of rural development participation but for purposes of clarifying the concept, this thesis will cite four features which characterize rural development participation.

As an approach, rural development participation entails the combination of: (1) *Administrative decentralization*, bringing the institutions and government personnel closer to the rural populace and reorienting them to the needs of the rural people; (2) establishing or working through existing *local organization*, which can act on behalf of rural people and involve them in different aspects of development work; (3) placing *local leaders* in a central position to bridge the community and government; and (4) recruiting and training

16. *The Philippines Priorities and Prospects for Development*, A World Bank Country Economic Report, Washington, USA, 1977, p. 89.

17. De Guzman, *op. cit.*

a set of *paraprofessionals* to provide greater access to services and inputs for rural people.¹⁸

In this connection, the rural development participation approach should be viewed as one that seeks to build on the resources and strength of both the local community and of the higher levels of the government. Recently four principles associated with rural development participation as an alternative, have emerged.¹⁹ One, "participation" should *not* be viewed as a *separate program* or sector for rural development, but rather as an approach to be integrated as feasible in all activities. Rural development participation does not mean a ministry or agency for people's participation but instead envisions all parts of the government as attuned to the possibilities and advantages of participation.

Two, rural development participation should emphasize *local organization*, which can give rural people more voice and greater involvement in programs. It is desirable to work with a variety of organizations, both of heterogeneous and homogeneous membership, to empower local people for greater participation in programs. Organized groups will prevent powerful elites from dominating all community activities.

18. Norman T. Uphoff, John M. Cohen and Arthur A. Goldsmith, *Feasibility and Application of Rural Development Participation: A State-of-the-Art Paper*, Cornell University, Rural Development Monograph Series No. 3, January, 1979, p. 27.

For further reading read Robert S. McNamara, *Address to the World Bank Group, Nairobi, September, 1973* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 1973), pp. 17-18, wherein the president of the World Bank described the needed new approach to rural development in similar terms, noting that it is not possible "For governments to deal directly with over 100 million small farmer families. What is required is the organization of local farm groups...smallholder association, county or district level cooperatives, various types of communes...Experience shows that there is a greater chance for success if the institutions provide decentralization of authority, popular participation and local leadership." *Ibid.*, footnote.

19. Norman T. Uphoff, *et al.*, *ibid.*, pp. 28-30.

Three, attention has to be given to the *distribution of assets* in furthering participation, for it is known that the more unequal the distribution the more difficult it is to have broad participation in decision-making and in benefits. Rural development participation aims to prevent biases inequality introduces by designing programs that would involve and benefit certain groups and utilizing and encouraging special organizations for those outside the ambit of development.

Lastly, rural development participation does not emphasize local autonomy but instead promotes linkages between national centres, regional centres and local communities on terms mutually agreed upon. Hence, a reciprocal relationship is necessary to build and maintain participation in any socio-economic activities. It seeks to build on the resources and strength of the local community and of higher levels of government.

In essence therefore, administrative decentralization, local organizations, clearly established linkages and an outside catalyst are the elements involved for greater participation for rural development.

There is a need likewise to recognize and explore the potentials of human resources for increased participation, especially where implementation and benefits of rural development projects are concerned. Dr Ernst Fritz Schumacher recognized and supported this when he said that development does not start with goods; it starts with people and their education, organization and discipline.²⁰

It is apparent that the obvious link between indigenous organizations, participation and rural development has been overlooked.²¹ Darling noted that:

20. E.F. Schumacher, *Small is Beautiful A Study of Economics As If People Mattered*, Great Britain, p. 164.

21. Norman T. Uphoff, *et al.*, *ibid*, p. 37.

Indigenous human factors are the primary determinants of development. All development activity starts with human factors and builds from that foundation. Development is achieved through indigenous processes stimulated by indigenous motivations, guided by indigenous organization, fuelled by indigenous capacities working to fulfil goals that represent indigenous values.... Performing but a limited role, external resources contribute to development only where they reinforce indigenous human factors.²²

Local or indigenous organizations may be viewed in terms of functions or forms. Considered by functions, they are: (1) *insurance*, where all members of a group share their resources with anyone meeting personal tragedy, to meet funeral expenses, for instance, or to provide food for a member hard-hit by drought, disease or pests; (2) *welfare*, to assist community members through redistributive practices that share the surplus with all, often without regard for their contribution to its creation; (3) *reciprocity*, to help break resource bottlenecks, such as exchanging labour or savings on a *quid pro quo* basis, such as when a field has to be done quickly or a dowry has to be paid; (4) *provision of public goods*, to get all persons contributing to collective facilities such as roads and schools; and (5) *pooling of productive assets*, to expand the range of productive possibilities, whether for individual or collective production, by combining labour, capital, land or water access.²³

Considered by forms, they include age-grade groups, burial societies, religious celebration clubs, rotating celebration clubs, rotating credit and savings groups, mutual-aid teams, water users associations and others.²⁴

It has been emphasized that many indigenous organizations are not democratic in the conventional western sense. They may have no provisions for

22. Roger Darling, "A Return to Valid Development Principles", *International Development Review*, 19, 4, 1977, p. 28.

23. Norman T. Uphoff, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

24. *Ibid.*, pp. 38-39.

majority rule in decision-making processes, competition for leadership positions and formal mechanisms for holding leaders accountable to members. "Nevertheless, where members are of relatively equal status, where norms restrain the arbitrary exercise of leadership authority, or where decisions are based on group consensus, such organizations may provide a relatively accurate expression of popular will, despite the absence of conventionally democratic procedures".²⁵

The implications for rural development therefore are: One, in designing and implementing programs which intend to get broader participation by rural people, it is advisable to consider, first if any, the indigenous organizations existing in the locality, and, two, indigenous organizations may be more effective as a means for fostering participation of rural people in project implementation than as a tool for encouraging bottom-up control over decision-making.²⁶

25. *Ibid.*, p. 40.

26. *Ibid.*, p. 55.

CHAPTER II

A SURVEY OF SIX DEPRESSED BARANGAYS
IN BATANGAS, PHILIPPINES

The purpose of this chapter is to give a clear picture of typical depressed rural barangays in the Philippines. Survey results of six depressed barangays in four municipalities in the Province of Batangas in the Philippines will be presented. A description of the various physical and socio-economic conditions of these barangays will first be made. Dynamic arrangements and institutions within the barangays which present opportunities or obstacles to rural development participation will then be highlighted with the intent of buttressing general statements on rural development participation made in the previous chapter.

In the subsequent chapters, attention will be drawn to the roles of women, voluntary associations and paraprofessionals in rural development. An assessment will be made as to how it is possible to establish mechanisms for eliciting greater, more effective and popular rural development participation in these six barangays.

The barangays covered by this study include: Sambal, Puting Bato West, Puting Kahoy, Lucban, Baclaran and Dao.

Principal considerations in the selection of these study areas include: they are typical of Philippine rural communities and they are in adjacent municipalities. Batangas is one of the areas earmarked to be one of the beneficiaries of aid from the governments of Denmark and the United States for the expansion of municipal water supply systems²⁷ and as a probable site of an industrial estate.²⁸

27. *The Philippines Priorities and Prospects for Development*, op. cit., p. 79.

28. *Ibid.*, p. 240.

The data gathering upon which this thesis is based was carried out between November 1979 and July 1981, by participants of the Executive Leadership and Management Program, an executive development program for senior executives of public enterprises or government-owned and controlled corporations.²⁹ A uniform questionnaire was used in data gathering³⁰ and was conducted through random surveys of at least 20% of the households; interviews with barangay captains, councilmen and other officers either as a group or individually.

Batangas is one of three provinces in south-western Luzon where two principal mountain building axes of the country intersects making it an area of crustal instability.³¹ Active volcanism and strong seismic activity periodically disturbs the pattern of life of the people in the region. The landscape is a marked contrast between the alluvial lowlands and the volcanic uplands which is typical of the Philippines.³² It is only along the west coast of Batangas where any material of non-volcanic origin may be found. At the eastern side of the region is the majestic Mount Banahaw which dominates the skyline. The northern portion of the region is dominated by the expanse of Laguna de Bay into whose reaches poke two spurs of the Eastern Seaboard Range. The upland areas are often connected by lightly consolidated deposits

29. This data is also supplemented by personal knowledge for I have been in these barangays myself having been the program coordinator of the ELM III. In view too of my extensive travel in all parts of the country, I know that these are typical of the Philippine rural scenes, the bulk of them being in subsistence fishing and farming.

30. Please see Appendix A for the outline followed by the participants in preparation of the case history.

31. T.M. Burley, *The Philippines an Economic and Social Geography*, London, 1973, p. 186.

32. *Ibid.*, p. 187.

of ashes, cinders, and tuffs fanning out from the originating volcanoes. The principal feature of Batangas is Lake Taal, roughly one third the area of Laguna de Bay.³³ upon which is Taal Volcano, the lowest volcano in the world. The volcanic soil attributes to its being one of the richest agricultural provinces. It produces rice, corn, sugarcane, coffee and every imaginable fruit. The Batangueños³⁴ breed and raise horses, cattle and hogs. It is the largest sugar cane producing province of the nation. Fishing is the other source of income of the people. It is in this setting that these areas of study are found.

The depressed barangays and the municipalities are reflected in the chart below:

BARANGAY	MUNICIPALITY
1. Sambal	Lemery
2. Puting Bato West	Calaca
3. Puting Kahoy	
4. Lucban	Balayan
5. Baclaran	
6. Dao	Tuy

A. The Barangays: A Demographic Background

Sambal (Ilaya and Ibaba) was a political unit in the municipality of Lemery until there was a substantial increase in population that it had to be split into two for better supervision and governance. But for purpose of this study it will be treated as one.

33. *Ibid.*, p. 188.

34. Residents of Batangas.

Sambal is a predominantly fishing village with a population of 2,260 of which 80% depends on deep-sea or shoreline fishing as the sole means of livelihood. The sandy soil has been classified by the Bureau of Soils as unproductive for agricultural crops. The high velocity winds make it doubly difficult for plants to grow. Most houses are made of nipa, bamboo and wood. Almost half of the houses have no furniture. Although electricity is available in the barangay, there are no facilities for potable water. Except for a pathway, there is no feeder road through which the fishermen can bring their catch to fish markets and consumer outlets. It has two elementary schools, one public and the other private, the former is housed in four pre-fabricated school buildings with twelve classrooms.³⁵

Barangay Puting-Bato-West³⁶ is two kilometres east of the town proper of Calaca along the national highway, traversed by the asphalted national road and is accessible only by one partially developed road. It has one main street along which most of the 1,200 residents live. During the dry season this road with its inches of dust is seldom traversed by vehicles and is a health hazard to the residents. It has an elementary school, a Catholic chapel and an Iglesia ni Kristo chapel as well as an unfinished community centre. Around 218 houses constructed of either light or strong materials compose the barangay. Only 50% of the households enjoy the luxury of electricity and only 10 out of 218 houses have shallow wells constructed by the governments.³⁷

Barangay Puting-Kahoy³⁸ is another outlying barangay of the Municipality of Calaca. Its population of 781³⁹ is direct descendants of the original

35. Civil Service Academy, ELM I, Executive Learning Team 1, Group Report, December 14, 1979, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City, Philippines, (Mimeo Manuscript), pp. 1-5.

36. Refer to Appendix B.

37. Civil Service Academy, ELM III, Executive Learning Team 2, Group Report, May 16 1980, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City, Philippines, (Mimeo Manuscript), pp. 4-6.

38. Refer to Appendix C.

39. May 1980 census.

settlers, there being hardly any influx of emigrants, intermarriages even among first cousins are not uncommon, and so it is with marriages at age fourteen. It occupies an area with rolling slopes ranging from 10° to 60° ; with the northern portion situated on a higher elevation. The arable land is planted to coconuts, corn, sugarcane, rice, coffee, bananas, fruits and vegetables. The barangay is faced with several natural and man-made handicaps. The first handicap is the lack of water resources, which are limited to streams originating from small springs found near the southern tip of the barangay. The second handicap is the lack of transportation that people have to walk three to four kilometres of rough barangay road to town to bring their produce. For heavier hauls, the people use pack horses and a few animal-drawn carts. Another handicap is the condition of the so-called barangay road itself. This road was originally a creek that had undergone continual erosion by water during the rainy season. During the dry season, the scrapings and gradings make the road at least usable. When the really heavy rains render the road to Calaca impassable, the farmers take their produce to Cavite, another province to its north. The problem of access, water supply, health and sanitation, electricity and agricultural production all compete for government attention. It has no health centre nor electric power. The majority of the people live in nipa and bamboo dwellings with only a sprinkling of mixed wood and semi-concrete ones.⁴⁰

Another area of study along Balayan Bay is barangay Baclaran,⁴¹ a picturesque coastal fishing village of approximately 1,250 people. It has a land area of 150 hectares of which fifteen percent is utilized for agriculture

40. Civil Service Academy, ELM IV, Executive Learning Team 4, Group Report, July 3 1980, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City, (Mimeo Manuscript), pp. 1-21.

41. Refer to Appendix D.

although fishing is still its primary source of income. The barangay has its own barangay hall, a multi-purpose concrete basketball court, a makeshift chapel, a school building, electric power and adequate water facilities. Of the 179 families, twenty own television sets and stereo sets and almost all own radio sets. Sixty percent of the houses are made of concrete materials. There are four vacation houses of non-resident landowners and a well developed beach resort for local and foreign tourists in the area. The barangay is linked to the town proper by several jeepneys⁴² and tricycles as well as motorized bancas.⁴³

Barangay Lucban⁴⁴ is likewise in Balayan. It is composed of 255 hectares of agricultural land. Since 1900, Lucban has been the property of one couple otherwise known as "hacienderos" or landowners. All of the 587 people of Lucban, through the years of intermarriages have formed a closely knit kinship system much attached to the soil they till. The people have known no other ways of increasing their income. The low price of sugar in the world market compounds the difficulty of rising above the poverty line. The people continue to engage doggedly in sugar farming hoping that someday they would be freed from the bondage of poverty. The barangay has two school buildings, four artesian wells and electricity. The construction of the barangay road in 1969 and its subsequent upgrading with the use of gravel and sand encouraged jeepney owners to increase the number of trips to the town proper. The 1980 oil crisis however caused the reduction of these trips to one trip in the morning and another in the afternoon.⁴⁵

42. Jeepney - a popular form of motor transport which is actually an old American Army jeep with an enlarged body designed to carry ten or more passengers.

43. Civil Service Academy, ELM III, Executive Learning Team 1, Group Report, May 16, 1980, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City, Philippines, (Mimeo Manuscript), pp. 1-5.

44. Refer to Appendix E.

45. Civil Service Academy, ELM III, Executive Learning Team 4, Group Report, May 16 1980, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City, Philippines, (Mimeo Manuscript), pp. 1-8.

The last barangay, Dao,⁴⁶ is in the municipality of Tuy, noted as the number one sugar producer in the province. Eighty percent of its total land area of 465 hectares is devoted to sugarcane, ten percent to rice, corn, vegetables and other crops and ten percent for residential houses, road networks and public places. Dao has 178 households with a total population of 1,084. It has its two school houses, chapel and barangay hall. There is no river except for a small creek which always dries up during the dry season. Domestic potable water is being supplied by artesian wells which are mostly privately owned. Most of the houses are supplied with electricity. It has one gravel road and several dirt roads which are muddy and impassable during the wet season and dusty during the dry season. Transportation to and from the municipal centre is by means only of three tricycles and three passenger jeepneys. The economic environment of the barangay is significantly permeated by the traditional tenancy system which has existed for a number of decades.⁴⁷

These barangays are striking examples of the type of rural poor communities in the Philippine countryside. The data shown in Figure 1 for instance indicate the level and trend of the average family income and expenditure in each of the barangay. The earnings represent payment for labour services, generated through paid employment or through self-employment in fishing and farming.

46. Refer to Appendix F.

47. Civil Service Academy, ELM III, Executive Learning Team 3, Group Report, May 16 1980, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City, Philippines, (Mimeo Manuscript), pp. 4-12.

Figure 1

<u>BARANGAY</u>	<u>INCOME</u> ⁴⁸	<u>EXPENDITURE</u>
Sambal	P5,660.00	P5,660.00
Puting Bato West	6,000.00	6,000.00
Puting Kahoy	-	-
Lucban	5,034.00	5,564.00
Baclaran	5,755.00	5,755.00
Dao	7,500.00	5,500.00

B. Sources and Forms of Wealth in the Study Area

The economic condition of the six barangays is basically agricultural except for two in which fishing exceeds farming figures. The majority of the tenant farmers who are mostly responsible for others' lands grow sugarcane. Although they also grow other food crops they do not do so in sufficiently large quantities for it to be brought to the markets regularly.

In Puting Bato West, Puting Kahoy, Lucban and Dao, the majority of the people are still living below the "poverty threshold". Their gross income annually comes up to P6,200.00 per household but after deducting farming expenses and family expenditures, practically nothing is left of their net income. Some 400 households are in this category. These households farm an average of 2 to 4 hectares of sugar land.

On the other hand, some smaller farmers who cultivate less than 2 hectares each have a net income of less than P1,000.00 per annum. These remaining households, representing a small sector of the studied population, are living on the bottom line of the poverty threshold. These families are

48. Sources: National Census and Statistics Office, and COMELEC and Rural Bank.

the farm labourers who augment their income through odd-jobs in and out of the barangays.

The traditional tenancy system, which was introduced by the Spaniards, ushered in the practice of private land ownership. Previously the Filipinos had known only communal ownership of land,⁴⁹ but this new tenancy system now significantly permeates the economic environment of these barangays. More than 90% of the sugar lands, including the lots where the tenants live, is owned by a few rich families who are actually living outside these barangays. Actually only 10% of all families own the sugar land that they cultivate.

The farmers share the crop earnings with their landlords on a 50-50 basis after the sugar mills deduct 35% for the milling of their sugarcane produce. The farmers share 50% of the expenses on fertilizers delivered by the landlords and shoulder the entire cost for use of tractors which is P1,200.00 per hectare cultivated.

In Sambal and Baclaran, which are basically dependent on fishing, other industries are almost non-existent or only supportive to this basic industry. Generally, the fishermen are either owners of fishing vessels or non-owners (voluntary labour).

An average sized fishing vessel ("pukutan" or "banca") with all the necessary fishing equipment approximately costs P40,000.00. Usually fifteen persons are required to man an average fishing boat. A small sized vessel would cost P14,000.00 and every fishing trip necessitates three crewmen.

Income derived from a fishing trip is characterized by extreme fluctuation from no catch at all to a bountiful catch. Voluntary labourers'

49. *The Philippines in Brief*, published by the President's Centre for Special Studies, Office of the President, Malacanay, Philippines, 1980, p. 9.

compensation depends on the volume of catch in one fishing trip. Sharing of income per trip, net of all expenses, is 33% for return on capital and 67% for the fishermen.

These fishermen also engage in shoreline fishing. When the weather is relatively fair, they cast their nets along the shore while on rough days, they swim with fine nets to catch milkfish fry and shrimp fingerlings. These activities are however only limited within the members of the family since the output is very minimal.

These fishermen are confronted with problems, one of which is dwindling fish supply and marine resources in the foreshore areas. The increase in the price of oil has a major adverse effect on them because it means a relative decrease in the share of labour to total revenue inasmuch as fuel cost is deducted prior to labour's share. Capital, an integral input to fishing, is primarily provided by quasi-capitalists.⁵⁰ Return on capital takes the form of commission. The principal has no maturity date and this arrangement is to the advantage of the quasi-capitalists inasmuch as no fixed interest or amortization is due regularly which is appropriate to fluctuating production characteristic of the fishing industry.

Other earnings coming from non-fishing and non-farming sources are quite minimal since only very few families engage in embroidery, weaving, government service and own light trucks, jeepneys and tricycles engaged in limited commercial scale. Other earnings from other farm related activities like poultry and piggery are also not quite significant.

50. Quasi-capitalists are fishing vessel owners who had financed part of their operations through loans. Capital is most often augmented, to a significant extent, by moneylenders. (ELM I Report No. 1, pp. 10-11).

Figure 2

<u>BARANGAY</u>	<u>SOURCE OF INCOME</u>		
	<u>FARMING</u>	<u>FISHING</u>	<u>OTHERS</u>
Sambal		80%	20%
Puting Bato West	65%	10%	25%
Puting Kahoy	98%		2%
Lucban	83%		17%
Baclaran	30%	60%	10%
Dao	90%		10%

Source: These figures are compiled from ELM reports.

The foregoing figures clearly indicate that the majority of the people are engaged in farming and fishing, both of which are seasonal occupations. Employment in sugarcane farming is seasonal. Harvest begins in November and ends in February. Planting on the other hand commences in March and over by April. Hence, employment in sugarcane farms is not available for six (6) months between May and October. Employment in fishing is likewise seasonal. The fishing season starts in December, peaks off in March and April and tapers off in June and July. The rest of the months are typhoon months and fishing is minimal. It is significant to note that both occupations are at the mercy of the almost whimsical variability of a monsoon climate, thus giving a clear picture of the degree of unemployment and underemployment in the areas on certain slack periods of the year, which is for six months!

A serious and disturbing implication is that both fishing and farming are mainly male-dominated occupations which means that if the men are unemployed or underemployed half of the year, then the women are worse off. For an examination of the role and expectations of the women in these depressed

areas by this study shows that they are generally regarded as housewives and housekeepers. They are not regarded in the dual roles of housewives *and* farmers or housewives *and* fisherwomen but only as housewives in their supportive role.

The problem is worsened if we consider the fact that the women outnumber the men in these barangays as reflected in Figure 7 in Chapter III. The women in these barangays are definitely either unemployed or underemployed. Although these women may be involved in agricultural related activities, there is a vast reservoir of untapped human resources here.

Figure 3

LAND OWNERSHIP		
<u>BARANGAY</u>	<u>PROPERTY POOR*</u>	<u>PROPERTY OWNER**</u>
Sambal	-	-
Puting Bato West	69%	31%
Puting Kahoy	98%	2%
Lucban		100%
Baclaran	10%	90%
Dao	10%	90%

* Property Poor - Total percentage of land owned by poor farmers.

** Property Owner - Total percentage of land area owned by landlord/s, but held responsible by tenants.

In order that the rural poor may participate in the political life of their respective barangays, they must not only be adequately equipped with entrepreneurial and managerial skills to run the affairs of their government but also to build institutions that will transcend kinship and personal familiarity. Ownership by others of the land they till could account for

the inability of the people to truly develop into potent communities capable of self-sufficiency and self-reliance despite limited resources. Total participation of the people in projects designed to increase productivity may be an impossibility if the land they till is in the hands of one or two persons whose vested interest may be threatened should there be an attitudinal change in the people reflective of their aim for economic stability and financial independence, such as when they decide to form voluntary associations.

When the "horse" of colonialism died in Latin America, Africa and Asia, the peoples of these regions did not completely bury it. They were not completely liberated for through the centuries they have internalized its image and adopted its habits. This inhibition, according to Paulo Freire,⁵¹ afflicts the Third World:

...The oppressed, who have adapted to the structure of domination in which they are immersed and have become resigned to it, are inhibited from waging the struggle for freedom so long as they feel incapable of running the risks it requires.⁵²

This dilemma could best be illustrated with the cases of Dao and Lucban. Dao is principally a sugarcane farm area with 90% of its total hectarage owned by a few big landed gentry. It is therefore at the mercy of these landlords who have already manifested strong resistance to irrigation and intercropping. Irrigation of the land could improve crop yields by 30% to 40% per crop year and it would bring significant economic benefits to the people. This could in turn generate a series of alternate economic activities

51. Paulo Freire, former Fellow of the Centre for the Study of Development and Social Change, among others, and very recently working closely with the government of Guinea-Bissau as a consultant.

52. P. Freire, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Great Britain, 1972, p. 24.

that would lead to the increase of the standard of living of the people. Intercropping is likewise opposed for purely selfish reasons, for example, (a) it is difficult to keep track of other produce which does not pass a central station such as the case of sugarcane, or (b) the farmers will reap produce from the land they do not own! This same situation is likewise obtaining in Lucban where the entire barangay is owned by a single landlord and he had expressed his desire that the entire area will remain planted with sugarcane only.

Implications

All this information on the barangays indicates the income level of the people, poor allocation or distribution of assets and the non-participation of the majority of the people in income generating activities. As stated in Chapter I of this thesis, attention has to be given to the distribution of assets to further participation, for in situations where there is unequal distribution of resources (such as in the six depressed barangays cited), it is difficult to broaden participation particularly in decision-making.

So unless the government and the citizens of these barangays intervene in the present tenurial and quasi-capitalists systems or introduce reforms to counteract the oppressive attitude and behaviour of the powerful landlords and quasi-capitalists, then the people will forever remain the oppressed farmers and fishermen with no chance to rise up beyond the poverty threshold. For rural development participation to be effective, there is a need for increased awareness of the biases inequality introduces. Voluntary associations have been known to have succeeded in exerting pressures on the powers that be and should therefore be examined and explored as a possible alternative.

C. Socio-Cultural Realities

Figure 4

EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES		
<u>BARANGAY</u>	<u>ELEMENTARY</u>	<u>HIGH SCHOOL</u>
Sambal	2	0
Puting Bato West	1	0
Puting Kahoy	1	0
Lucban	1	1
Baclaran	1	0
Dao	1	0

Lack of education and skills characterizes the low-income group which makes them less eligible to enjoy economic opportunities. Ignorance and lethargy of the poor are the direct product of their economic and political dominion.⁵³ This is a vicious cycle that tends to perpetuate their position of disadvantage. Mass poverty is a major set-back to their very survival. Awareness of this, attributes for the common aspirations of the parents in these barangays, that is for their children to obtain high school or even college education. Except for Lucban which has a high school and an elementary school, educational facilities in the rest of the barangays consist merely of elementary schools.

In Puting Bato West elementary school, Grades 1⁵⁴ and 2 have two sections each while Grades 3 and 4 have only a section each. In each section there are approximately forty students. Almost all the children of elementary school age in the barangay are accommodated.

53. P. Hodges, "A Voice in the Silence", *New Internationalist*, No. 54, August 1972, p. 12.

54. A Filipino child is expected to commence elementary schooling at age 7. Elementary education in the Philippines is free.

In Puting Kahoy however, due to the constraints in the number of teachers⁵⁵ and school rooms, only three classes are conducted during any one school year: either Grades 1, 3 and 4 or Grades 2, 3 and 4. As a rule classes in Grades 3 and 4 are continually conducted but those ready to commence Grade 1 have to wait for a year while those who have completed Grade 1 during the preceding year are first taught their Grade 2.

This problem is due to some unclear policies of the Ministry of Education with regard to appointment of teachers or lack of concern on the part of local administrators.

In Dao, the literacy level of the barangay people is estimated at 70%. There is an elementary school with a student population of 180. As of 1980, there were four high school students and one college student of Dao enrolled in schools outside the barangay.

In Baclaran, the people recognized the lack of educational facilities and opportunities beyond that offered by the public school system in the barangay which is from Grades 1 to 4, as an impediment to the socio-economic development of the barangay.

Viewed from a different perspective, these statistics indicate that these barangays have the available human resources who are potential paraprofessionals. The adult populace who have finished elementary grades or who have dropped out before completion of elementary education may be tapped for this purpose. Recruiting and training a set of paraprofessionals⁵⁶ to provide greater access to services and inputs for rural people is one of the requirements of rural development participation.

55. School teachers to qualify for employment must have at least completed a Bachelor of Science in Education degree.

56. Paraprofessionals' role in rural development will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter V.

Also, considering the importance of educative training and acquisition of skills to make the poor employable, the local government who has jurisdiction over the education of the people should introduce programs particularly at the barangay level which will contribute to the elevation of the adult literacy level, so that they may be in a better position to contribute in the building of a better society.

One of the most effective ways of assisting adults improve themselves is through non-formal educational programs. Knowledge will definitely be an asset to the poor. They will know their rights, will be able to participate in formulation of policies and to take a more active role in community affairs. Educational programs to help group action and introduce skills that have income earning potential within or outside agriculture will to a certain extent reduce their lack of power.⁵⁷

On the part of the people, having recognized the lack of educational facilities as a felt need, they should through voluntary associations initiate projects themselves to meet this need.

Health Facilities

The health and general welfare of the people is of major concern to any government for it occupies a major role in the social development of its people. A healthy citizenry is an asset particularly to any nation embarked in the task of nation building.

One of the major efforts of the Philippine government is geared towards the improvement of medical services especially in rural areas. However, in Lucban, Sambal, Dao, Baclaran, Puting Kahoy and Puting Bato West, this effort

57. Norman T. Uphoff, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

seems to be still so far removed from becoming a reality unless the government will introduce programs utilizing the services of workers other than those of professional and technical personnel. It is very apparent that if these barangays will depend on the extension of rural services to be provided by the government through conventional means, their expectations might never be realized. A promising alternative form of extending the needed health and agricultural services is the systematic use of paraprofessionals.

Figure 5

HEALTH FACILITIES	
<u>BARANGAY</u>	<u>TYPE</u>
Sambal	one (1) health centre
Puting Bato West	none
Puting Kahoy	none
Lucban	none
Baclaran	none
Dao	one (1) barangay clinic

Source: ELM Reports

The foregoing data clearly indicate that the common denominator in these barangays is the glaring reality of poor or no medical health facilities and services. Five of the six barangays have no health centres. Only one, Dao, has a barangay clinic which is visited by a medical team, composed of a doctor, a dentist and a midwife, once a month. In all the barangays environmental sanitation is a major problem. Lack of potable water, absence of toilets and inadequate or lack of basic knowledge on personal hygiene account for the high incidence of children with worms. Cases of first degree malnutrition have been recorded in Dao, Puting Kahoy, Puting Bato West

and Sambal, while there are no available data from Baclaran and Lucban. It is apparent therefore that although the government is exerting efforts towards the improvement of medical health services in this Province, the benefits do not reach the poorest of the poor, who by virtue of their poverty are the most deserving of attention.

D. Political Realities

Political and Administrative Structures

The Filipino barangays look like a double enchainment of tiny huts - on stilts and with wide windows in the immemorial Malay style of house-building, strung along a single road. Each house has a verandah, full of potted plants, a main room which doubles as the sitting-room and bedroom and a clean-swept yard where an assortment of domesticated animals roam.

Children are conspicuously present everywhere, usually on the street cum playground, at the river or creek where the women do their washing or in the vicinity of sari-sari stores which sell tins of milk or sardines, soap, matches, oil, eggs, ballpens, kerosene for the lamps and every imaginable item.

"'Barrios' (barangays) have a noisy, friendly, open atmosphere, for Filipinos do not share the Anglo-Saxon passion for privacy and conduct their lives like a friendly permanent public exhibition. The laughter of children mixes with the 'cicadas' (crickets), the Coca-Cola commercials (from the transistor radio) and the occasional brawl at the sari-sari store. Life is more rigid and orderly than it seems, for it is hemmed in by a framework of custom, tradition and familiar loyalty".⁵⁸ (Emphasis mine),

58. C. Guerrero Nakpil, *The Philippines The Land and the People*, National Media Production Centre, Manila, Philippines, 1978, p. 25.

It is likewise very easy to identify administrative and political boundaries because these barangays have been specifically assigned its demographic boundaries. The barangays covered in this study are no exception.

One area of commonality which is quite significant is the formal centralization of authority at the "village" level and the leadership pattern established in all the barangays. Although there is the presence of the Barangay Council, which is composed of six elected members and the chairman of the Kabataang Barangay, decision-making and policy-making still rest on the barangay captain.

The barangay captain is a critical variable in the development of a barangay. Their opinions are highly respected by the people. Their degree of participation, cooperation and support will provide the necessary impetus to any barangay project. A barangay captain does not only perform political functions but is often called upon to act as arbiter in disputes and misunderstandings. Most of them have great influence and authority over their constituents. This is particularly marked in Lucban, where it is reported that "In politics, Lucban proved easier to manipulate. The lack of open discussion of issues reduced voting to personalities".⁵⁹

In all the six barangays, the barangay captains have been in office for at least ten years. Their genuine concern (a barangay captain does not get any salary except travel allowance) for the welfare of the community enhances their credibility among the people. Hence, it is reasonable to conclude that this has resulted to a high degree of unity, loyalty and in apathy. However, the people of the barangays still have to be motivated to get involved in identifying, articulating and seeking solutions to their felt needs.

59. ELM III, Executive Team No. IV, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

It may be worthwhile pointing out too that although this feeling of solidarity does facilitate interaction and introduction of development projects, eliminate crimes and petty bickerings to a certain extent, yet no aspect of social organization functions exclusively in support of barangay solidarity per se. The nature of kinship, economic, political and religious ties does assume a dysfunctional character in development-oriented activities. An example of this is the case of Sambal wherein Filipino values⁶⁰ cause the people of the barangay to overlook the barangay captain's lack of leadership and managerial skills. Although it could provide the needed impetus to collective activities like fiestas, infrastructure related projects and socio-civic action programs. In this matter the women play an important role.

As a whole, the barangay women are predominantly perceived as the family housekeeper, i.e., taking care of the children and doing household chores. However, a number of the respondents cited that a negligible percentage of the women folk also engage in sugarcane farming and shoreline fishing and a slightly higher percentage in various occupations like embroidery and shawl making. In general, women's agricultural participation as direct producer is very negligible.

60. In the article "Philippine Cultural Values" (*Sociology in the Philippine Setting*, Phoenix Publishing House, Quezon City, Philippines, 1963, revised edition, pp. 55-71), several Filipino values which influence administrative norms have been defined. Two of these values have been observed to be particularly evident in barangay Sambal. One is "Utang no Loob" which when applied to family relationships means a debt of gratitude. When applied to complex society relationships, it denotes a process by which the individual can place himself in a secured network of mutual obligation even when going beyond kinship lines. In essence, the assumption is that the acceptance of help imposes the assumption of an obligation of gratitude.

Another Filipino value is "Pakikisama" which is defined as a facility at getting along with others in such a way as to avoid outward signs of conflict. It refers especially to yielding to the wish of a leader or the majority in order to make a group decide unanimously.

In Barangay Puting Bato West, the women have formally assumed a very limited role in the activities of the barangay. The Women's Auxiliary Brigade is not organized. There are no women's organizations except the Flores de Mayo Committee which functions only in May in connection with one of the festivities of the Catholics. The role of women in the barangay is generally confined to the house.

In many countries, women's involvement in politics is a relatively new concept. In fact, the majority of the countries today do not even provide meaningful political participation for anyone. In Dao however, the political leader is a woman. She has held her position for ten years and holds the distinction of being the only lady barangay captain in the municipality of Tuy which has 22 barangays. As a result of her long list of successful development projects like a barangay library, kindergarten school and cultural house, she had been recognized as the "Most Outstanding Barangay Captain for 1978". Although the barangay brigades of Baclaran and Sambal are active, it is only in Dao where total commitment and participation of the Catholic Women's League, Women's Auxiliary Service, Rondalla, Marching Girls and other civic and voluntary organizations in community projects like road construction and maintenance, beautification, cultural shows, sports and other religious activities are strongly felt.

It has likewise been observed that in Dao, the political affiliation of all elective barangay officials is the same as the municipal mayor. As a consequence, there is excellent coordination between the provincial, municipal and barangay governments. The people attribute this to the very active leadership and deep commitment of its lady barangay captain.

Another critical factor encompassing and reaffirming women's status is direct participation in political institutions where decisions are made

about social values and resource allocation. Community institutions classify which work is higher or lower in value and label them as male or female jobs. Participation activates all other resources. Hence, it is imperative that program and project planners consider these institutions involved in resource allocation and skill classification for policy implications.⁶¹

In the neighbouring municipality of Balayan, on the other hand, the linkages between the provincial, municipal and barangay governments are evidently not well established. Apprehensions that any development efforts in Baclaran will have to contend with the political climate or situation not only at the barangay level, but also at the municipal and provincial levels. While the ruling political party in Baclaran and the municipality Kilusang Bagong Lipunan (KBL), the provincial governor is affiliated with the Nationalista Party. In Lucban, even at the barangay level there is already the lack of proper communication and coordination between the councilmen and the barangay captain. Complete communication breakdown between the provincial, municipal and barangay governments have been reported.

In Calaca, the informal system has been observed to be more potent than the formal system. Puting Kahoy relies heavily on the fact that the Municipal Development Officer hails from there and Puting Bato West's link to the municipal officials is through friendship and "kumpare" relationships. This temerity of the barangay leaders to approach the municipal and provincial officials is traced to the last election wherein the new municipal mayor lost in this barangay because the people owed a certain amount of gratitude to the former mayor and the barangay captain's loyalty to and friendship with him.

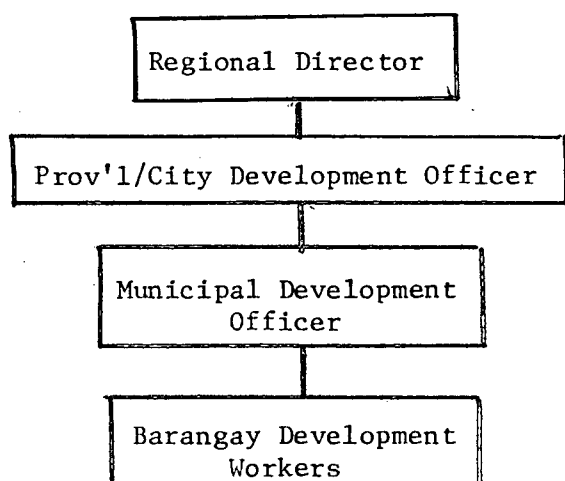
61. Kathleen A. Staudt, *Women and Participation in Rural Development: A Framework for Project Design and Policy-Oriented Research*, Rural Development Committee, Centre for International Studies, Cornell University, New York, December 1979, p. 62.

Apparently, it is only the linkage between the municipal mayor of Lemery and barangay captain of Sambal that could nearly approximate that of Dao. However, the barangay people still feel that the provincial governor has not shown enough concern for their welfare so that he does not rate highly with them.

The Constitution of the Philippines states that "The state shall guarantee and promote the autonomy of local government units, especially the barrio (barangay), to ensure their fullest development as self-reliant communities..."⁶² The Ministry of Local Government and Community Development is the government agency principally charged with the task of implementing the Constitutional mandate. Programmes and projects of the MLGCD are implemented through the municipal development officer at the municipal level, the provincial/city development officer at the provincial and city level and the regional development officer at the regional level.

Below is the organizational structure of the MLGCD showing the intergovernmental framework:

Figure 6.



62. Constitution of the Philippines, Section 10, Article II.

The summary of findings of the ELM participants as far as intergovernmental relations between the depressed barangays and their respective municipal governments are concerned show that:

In Baclaran, the linkages between the barangay and the municipal governments are evidently not well established. The people have expressed apprehensions over development efforts of the barangay due to political climate.

In Lucban, it was observed that there was a complete communication breakdown between the barangay and the municipal government and even between the barangay captain and the barangay council.

The people of Puting Kahoy feel that their only link to the government is through the municipal development officer who happens to be from Puting Kahoy.

While in Puting Bato West, the formal organization system of the municipal government is better reached through the informal communication network such as personal familiarity and kinship ties.

In Sambal and Dao on the other hand, excellent coordination and communication between the barangay and the municipal government have been reported.

Rural development participation promotes linkages between national centres, regional centres and local communities. It does not work on the principle of local autonomy. Except for Sambal and Dao, there is a need to foster closer linkages between the barangays and the municipal governments in order to build and maintain participation in socio-economic activities.

Decentralization, electing officers and involvement in local government administration are some of the requirements of participation. There is citizen participation in these barangays. There is only a need to give more

encouragement to the people to participate in the weighty and critical decisions that affect them.⁶³ For it may be inferred from the findings that the barriers to effective citizen participation have not been removed and the basis for cohesive communities not established.

Manzoor Ahmed observed this to be true in Indonesia and in other countries when he wrote:

Projects are often cited as examples of community participation in situations where the national political system has not yet established the basis for cohesive communities and has not removed the barriers to community participation; however, sometimes a closer examination reveals that even in these projects, community participation merely means giving a voice in local decisions to the influential people, rather than to the most needy and deprived many of whom constitute the majority. It may also be found that a disproportionately small share of the services and benefits go to the neediest.⁶⁴

It is indeed crucial that these barangays in their struggle for freedom from hunger and dependence and their fight for development should focus attention on the development of an indigenous base, geared to meet their special development needs, almost as a matter of physical necessity.

Yet, as Hadad rightly notes, "If development is really intended for the people, it cannot remain the sole prerogative of a few elites in the government bureaucracy and the business sector".⁶⁵ Development necessitates the participation of the people in the process of ameliorating the living conditions in their respective barangays. Thus the people themselves become both the object and the means in the process of societal transformation and human development.⁶⁶

63. P. Freire, *op. cit.*, p.130.

64. Manzoor Ahmed, "Community Participation, The Heart of Primary Health Care", in *Assignment Children*, UNICEF, Geneva, No. 42, April/June, 1973, p. 88.

65. Ismid Hadad, "A Note from the Editor", *PRISMA, The Indonesian Indicator*, No. 16, March 1980, p. 2.

66. *Ibid.*

The implications here then are that, development of the barangays necessitate major redirection in the policies of each of the governmental units of Sambal, Baclaran, Lucban, Dao, Puting Kahoy and Puting Bato West, as well as a change of attitudes on the part of the people. Unless these barangays conduct their affairs to meet the unmet felt needs of their people independent from some external pressures, then development for them is far away. Freire believes that development implies full mobilization of the people by the people themselves. Hence, it calls for the liberation of the people from certain values and practices that it may allow itself to "colonize" itself in the way that the people of China collectively mobilized themselves for the Great Leap Forward.

Forces Favouring or Impeding Development

Developing and underdeveloped countries today are ruled by several forces inimical to their interest. These forces are not the usual resultant effect of economic factors alone but are brought about by the product of human actions. The peculiar condition of a once colonized or invaded country for instance, to be bonded as it were to the colonizer, according to Freire, is one 'effect' which in turn becomes a 'cause' of dominion.⁶⁷

More than others, a once colonized or invaded nation craves for an "image" which would spell its "acceptance" by others. This trait is deeply embedded in and deeply moulded into the character of the people. These same people are especially disturbed when others, particularly those whom they look up to, disapprove of some of their choices, decisions and policies. Although this reflects a people's regard for the views and opinions of others, it does however betray their lack of self-confidence, immaturity and degree of inhibition.

67. P. Freire, *op. cit.*, p. 126.

This situation could be changed, according to Freire, only when the invaded person or persons draws away and views the dehumanizing reality from a totally different perspective. Or have a third eye view the situation and point the reality out to them. Introducing change in this light becomes not a matter of "plastic surgery" or "face lifting" but rather of the radical and deliberate change in conditions, outlooks, values and attitudes of the people. For circumstantial and certain attitudinal predispositions have often times been observed (as in the six barangays in this study) to be roadblocks to development.

Sambal, Puting Bato West, Puting Kahoy, Lucban, Baclaran, and Dao are all economically depressed areas. For them development necessitates the full mobilization of all the human and natural resources by its people. They should not allow certain political, economic, physical and sociological forces to shape or influence the course of their destiny, for if they do, they will never achieve development.

Analysis of the data further reveals three constant features - a common characteristic in all barangays, which is quite *obscured* but which has to be taken into account in the perspective of new policy directions. They are the *certain roles* that the women, voluntary associations, and paraprofessionals *could play* in these barangays, to make them more efficacious objective aids to the development of the barangays. These three groups will be discussed in greater lengths in the succeeding three chapters.

Above all these is the underlying problem of how to design programs and projects which would ensure the active participation of the majority of the people in these barangays and to motivate them into relating themselves with greater efforts in rural development efforts. As stated earlier in this paper, rural development is one of the top priority concerns of the Philippine

government. The eventual success or failure of this government thrust rests on the participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living with as much reliance as possible on the proper mobilization of the people and based on their consciously felt needs. So unless the various sectors in the barangays feel that programs and projects are theirs and value them as practical contributions to their barangays' development then it would be difficult for success to be realized.⁶⁸

These six barangays are typical of the rural villages in the whole country. The Civil Service Academy by bringing its participants to the rural barangays of Sambal, Puting Kahoy, Puting Bato West, Lucban, Baclaran and Dao has made them aware of the glaring and staggering conditions of the rural poor. Will the CSA, be able to make the paths of the legions of bureaucrats and the multitude of rural poor cross and their interest coincide? The CSA, as the training arm of the Civil Service Commission, could play a crucial role in support of participation in rural development in general, and the development of the six barangays in particular, by virtue of its position in the bureaucracy.

68. Raymond Pomerleau, "Community Participation in Planned Social Change", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, January, 1967, Vol. XI, No. 1, p. 72.

CHAPTER III

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Any attempt to focus on the role of women in development will necessitate the inclusion of a wide range of issues due to the basic assumption that women's biological role of reproduction and responsibility of nuturing and bringing up children is dominant. Women's economic participation in most countries is as a consequence conditioned by political beliefs, cultural values and conceptual obstacles.

Economic expansion in urban centres necessitates greater labour force participation by women whereas development in rural areas has intensified women's participation in non-capitalist modes of production.⁶⁹ The inter-connection between rural women's economic participation and their contribution to development must be understood because of the implications relative to women's social status.⁷⁰

This chapter focuses on women and the strategies of rural development, examining the role and status of women in terms of their possible contribution to the development of their barangays or how the development of their barangays could contribute to their welfare. An analysis of rural women's role in development, especially the intervention of cultural constraints is critical to understanding the impact of development projects and programs⁷¹ on women.

69. C.D. Deere, "Rural Women's Subsistence Production in the Capitalist Periphery", *The Review of Radical Political Economies*, Vol. 8, No. 1, 1976, p. 10.

70. *Ibid.*

71. The terms "programs" and "projects" are used to refer to the process of community development. They refer to different levels or degrees of specificity in the development process. A program relates to a broad sector such as the country proper or provinces within the country operating under national guidelines, whereas a project is regarded as an individual component of a program whose objectives are specifically determined. (R. Pomerleau, "Community Participation in Planned Social Change," *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. XI, No. 1, January 1967, p. 72).

Women and Rural Development

Rural development, as defined in the first chapter, is the strategy designed to enhance economic, social and political life and to extend the benefits of development to the poorest of the poor in rural areas mainly through increased production and raised productivity. It transcends particular sectors, encompasses various projects and programs designed to raise agricultural and economic output and reflects the political, social and economic conditions of a particular country or region.⁷² As a strategy, rural development implies greater interaction between the modern sector and the traditional sector, meaning increased trade in farm produce and in technical inputs and incomes rather than merely the redistribution of present income and existing assets.⁷³

An International Labour Organization report strongly recommended more intensive production methods on small farms for both crops and livestock raising as a means of increasing rural incomes. "Both output per worker and output per unit of land should be raised through the application of better seeds and chemical inputs, but not necessarily through mechanisation."⁷⁴

This suggested solution to rural unemployment is commendable and could undoubtedly result in greater demand for labour. However, although it would consequently increase the total number of persons employed yet it does not provide the needed mechanisms whereby both the women and the men may equally benefit in terms of jobs created. In this regard, bodies which are charged

72. *Rural Development, op. cit.*

73. *Ibid.*

74. Kate Young, *et al.*, "Development Process", *IDS Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 3, p. 21.

with the task of rural development should consider both the male and the female sections of the rural population in terms of whose well-being policies, programs and projects are designed and evaluated. If this is deliberately done, projects designed to raise production and income will not, due to oversight and neglect, increase underemployment and/or unemployment of women.⁷⁵

One important component of rural development could be to ensure rural women's economic participation in subsistence agricultural production. For example, China's agricultural programme attempts to integrate women along with men in development. Her development strategies have given great emphasis to the reorganization of the relations of production, a number of pro-agrarian measures and an integrated approach centred primarily on the communes which closely linked agricultural production to distribution, rural capital formation, rural industries and a wide range of social and welfare activities.⁷⁶ Policies intended to collectivize gradually the means of production, distribution and consumption were formulated.⁷⁷ The government encouraged the growth of women's mutual aid teams which eventually became permanent institutions in rural villages.⁷⁸

...the mobilisation of women to participate in production is the most important link in the chain that protects women's own vital interests... it is necessary to begin with production for both economic prosperity and economic independence promote the political status of women, their cultural level and improve their livelihood, thereby leading the way to emancipation.⁷⁹

An examination of the role and expectations of the women in the depressed areas by this study shows that they are generally regarded as

75. *Ibid.*

76. Elisabeth Croll, *Women in Rural Development*, ILO, Geneva, 1979, p. 1.

77. *Ibid.*, p. 2.

78. *Ibid.*, p. 3.

79. *Ibid.*, p. 8.

housewives and housekeepers. They are not regarded in the dual roles of housewives *and* farmers or housewives *and* fisherwomen but only as housewives in their supportive role. These women are however already, directly or indirectly, involved in agricultural related activities. Hence they fall within the category of unpaid female labour, whose participation in community affairs has been and still is discouraged.

Many other commentaries on the gender division of labour have noted an overwhelming percentage of peasant women in rural areas actively participate in farming activities. One example is the peasant women of Latin America who are actively involved in agricultural tasks like planting, weeding, harvesting and threshing. Some of these women even take control of seed production and processing of agricultural products for home consumption as well as for market exchange.⁸⁰ Yet these are not regarded as part of the labour force to be paid.

Boserup in 1970 said that the female farming system based on shifting cultivation, is typical of much of Africa. Plantations and other export industries recruit only male workers at wages insufficient to maintain a worker's whole family. Women therefore have to remain in the village to attend to the farm to support the family.⁸¹

Even when provisions are made for workers to have their families with them, such as the case of the Zambian copper mine, subsistence land plots are provided to each family to keep labour costs below the level needed to support whole families,⁸² and the women who remain home to look after the children are expected to look after these plots.

80. Lourdes Carpio, "La Mujer Campesina: Una Alarmante Postergacion", *Educacion*, Vol. 1, No. 3, November 1970, pp. 9-17.

81. Deere, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

82. *Ibid.*

In Asia on the other hand, in order that plantation owners are assured of sufficient labour supply for the irrigated, labour-intensive farms, whole families are recruited.⁸³ But just like the African plantations, Asians avoid paying a "family wage to the male by relying on women's agricultural participation either as a direct producer or a rural proletarian".⁸⁴ This is also true in West Indian plantations where whole families are recruited to work in plantations. Here the wage labour of women and children are utilized only during peak agricultural periods.⁸⁵

It may be concluded that women's agricultural participation cross-culturally takes a variety of forms - from full proletarianization, to a reserve labour force responsive to the changing socio-economic conditions, to subsistence production.⁸⁶ Whatever the conclusion however it is clear that agricultural division of labour reflects a strategy to maintain the cheapest labour force for capital accumulations and the landowners' desire to maintain low wages.⁸⁷

Married women alone, in the areas to which this study relates, collectively form a large, untapped and/or exploited reservoir of labour. Real economic benefits could accrue for these women and their families if efforts are made to involve them more directly in productive agricultural pursuits without necessarily sacrificing family responsibilities.

83. *Ibid.*

84. *Ibid.*

85. *Ibid.*

86. *Ibid.*, p. 11.

87. *Ibid.*

An assessment of barangay prospects show that in Dao there are existing women's organizations presently very active and involved in social and charitable activities like fiestas, wakes and calamity drives. If properly mobilized these would create conditions in the barangay that will facilitate information dissemination, provide cohesive participation in community based projects and serve as intra interorganizational linkages.

Women working cooperatively provide strong social development possibilities. The success of the kindergarten school in Dao (of the six barangays covered in this study only Dao has a kindergarten) is a testimony to the claim that women's groups enhance the prospects of institutionalizing development along locally defined lines.⁸⁸

Women's work, integral to development, should be reflected in organizational activities which represent the comprehensiveness of their participation. Such organizations can then support both influences on and involvement in a wide variety of single-purpose groups provide vehicles for comprehensive participation along these lines.⁸⁹

The results of a study on farm managerial efficiency in the Vihiya Division, Kenya which compared female to male managers, shows that women are more technically efficient maize farmers than men.⁹⁰ In another study in Western Kenya women's productivity (measured in terms of crop diversification, time of innovation and income-earning orientation) equalled to men's in an area wherein agricultural services are minimal.⁹¹

88. K.A. Staudt, *op. cit.*, p. 62.

89. K.A. Staudt, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

90. *Ibid.*, p. 31. (For complete detail of the study refer to Peter Russell Moock, "The Efficiency of Women as Farm Managers", *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 58:5, December 1976.)

91. *Ibid.* (For full details of the study refer to Kathleen A. Staudt, "Agricultural Productivity Gaps: A Case Study of Male Preference in Government Policy Implementation", *Development and Change*, July 1978.)

Women's contribution to rural development would increase if there is a decrease in domestic chores or if the men will share in consumption-oriented work like fetching water, cleaning the backyard, going to the market for the basic items, cooking the food and washing the clothes and the dishes, among other family-oriented responsibilities.

In Baclaran, for instance, it was also reported that "there are not enough support industries to provide employment for the housewives and the youth that could not be absorbed by sugar farming and fishing as well as provide additional income of the labour force during the off-season months of sugar farming and fishing."⁹²

Although this observation has been recorded in the Barangay Baclaran report only I have personally observed this situation to be true in the other five barangays covered by this study. It is significant to note however, that not one of the barangay reports discussed this aspect in spite of the inclusion of the Role of Women (see Section B, Part III of the Suggested Interview Guide). This is interpreted to mean a lack of awareness or indifference on the part of the participants to the role of women's participation in rural development.

Women and Health in the Six Barangays

The percentage of the female population in the areas of study as illustrated in Figure 7 show that women constitute more than fifty percent of the total population of landless, marginal farmers. It is evident that the general health conditions and social position of these barangay women deserve attention.

92. ELM III, Group 1, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

Figure 7

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION				
<u>BARANGAY</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>HOUSEHOLDS</u>
Sambal	1,085	1,175	2,260	204
Puting Bato West	512	588	1,100	-
Puting Kahoy	376	405	781	143
Lucban	310	277	587	105
Baclaran	662	588	1,250	180
Dao	488	596	1,084	160
	<u>3,433</u>	<u>3,629</u>	<u>7,062</u>	

These women, whether they are married or unmarried, or widows, are usually charged with the task of taking care of the children, aged and ailing parents and other sick relatives. Mothers are haplessly faced with the picture of malnourished children with rounded stomachs full of worms.

Figure 8 POPULATION PROFILE BY AGE OF THREE BARANGAYS

Age Brackets	: Puting Bato : : West :	: Baclaran :	: Lucban :	: Average
10 yrs & below	23%	22%	39%	28%
11-20	22%	25%	23%	23%
21-35	26%	38%	25%	30%
36-50	21%	10%	10%	14%
51-65 & above	8%	5%	3%	5%
	<u>100%</u>	<u>100%</u>	<u>100%</u>	<u>100%</u>

Figure 8 above, indicates that at least 28% of the combined population of three barangays (the other three barangays have no available statistics) are children, 30% in reproductive age and 5% are dependents due to old age.

Apart from the care of helpless or disabled members of their families, there are other health-related duties which are traditionally considered normal duties of mature women of these barangays such as delivering babies, giving pre and post natal care and first aid treatments.

As shown in statistics in the earlier part of this study (please see Figure 5), medical facilities and services are almost unheard of for these people. To reach a medical centre, they have to traverse through feeder roads which are badly maintained. The lack of transportation facilities compound the people's problems in the event that there are emergency cases.

Providing medical services for these remote areas is the concern of the Ministry of Health, their Rural Health Units and extension workers. The World Health Organization has stated that the minimum target for government health manpower-population ratio should be:⁹³

One physician per 10,000 population

One nurse per 5,000 population

One technician (laboratory, X-Ray, etc.) per 5,000 population

One health auxiliary per 10,000 population

One sanitary engineer per 250,000 population

One sanitarian per 15,000 population

One midwife per 5,000 population.

The figures however reveal that not even the minimum requirement is met in the area of study. Although these barangays have relatively small populations compared with the above standards, they are isolated, most being

93. Paul O. Woolley, Jr., *Synecrisis: The Dynamics of Health, IV: The Philippines*, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington D.C., July 1972, p. 52.

outside the five kilometres radius of any poblacion (urban centre) and therefore have relatively greater need of a better health care delivery system.

These barangays could achieve satisfactory health care if they are first and foremost made aware of the problems confronting them and then ensuring their participation in dealing with these major problems which are: communicable diseases, malnutrition, poor environmental sanitation and uncontrolled birth rate. In view of the role that women play in the health care of their families, they should be the main focus for the promotion of health projects.

Women have a vital role to play in any project designed to raise the standard of health care.⁹⁴ To become active participants in any health project, however, they have first to be motivated. This would be possible through increased awareness of the project and its beneficial effect on them and a deeper understanding that health is not only a personal imperative but also a social responsibility.⁹⁵

Banu recommends that traditional midwives and young women with a minimal educational background should form the core group to lead in such a project. They are a real part of the village scene and have not been removed by years of Western style education and urban living, being daily immersed in the life and problems of the village, and are therefore much better able to communicate than the professional outsider.⁹⁶ The government for its part, must provide for the basic training and education of these women in sanitation, nutrition,

94. Laila Parveen Banu, "Rural Women and Health: Experience from Gonoshasthaya Kendra", *IDS Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 3, p. 38.

95. *Bicol Integrated Health, Nutrition and Population Project*, Bicol River Basin Development Program, San Jose, Pili, Camarines Sur, Philippines, December 1978, p. 43.

96. Banu, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

and management of common illnesses or primary health care. The CSA could render technical assistance to the Ministry of Health in designing their training programs for the purpose.

Above all these, good village health care cannot be isolated from socio-cultural, economic and educational considerations.⁹⁷

What is needed is a team that will coordinate developments which would require broader integration of women into other agencies' programs and projects transcending bureaucratic lines.

All programs affect women, not simply those labelled as such. While women's interest should be integral to all staff and agencies, the dilemma, however, is that unless a strong women's program exists, women may be almost totally ignored, with little visible attention to the task of integrating their activities into all other programs. Program scope should range from areas clearly bound up with women's activity as mother and homemaker or family planning "acceptor", to address them as water carriers, technology and energy users, food producers, processors, and traders. These developments require broader interaction by women with staff than traditional bureaucratic patterns of organization provide.⁹⁸

All these experiences and discussions on women's participation point to the importance of women's direct involvement with all rural development programs as individuals, through one or several women's groups, in partnership with men or through participation in mixed-sex groups. The primary objective is to build on and create action opportunities and participation in decision making.⁹⁹

Inasmuch as all training programs conducted by line agencies of the government need the approval of the Civil Service Academy prior to implementation, the Civil Service Commission can make it a policy that the role of women in

97. *Ibid.*, p.40.

98. Kathleen Staudt, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

99. *Ibid.*

rural development as well as development's impact on rural women should be given significant attention so that there will be a broader integration of women into government programs and projects.

I would argue in conclusion that a government's understanding of the role of women in development is critical to the effective implementation of development programs and projects. It is not just a matter of merely integrating women into the mainstream of development strategies and policies but rather it calls for a thorough going commitment on the part of governments to liberate them from legal, cultural and religious discrimination.

There is likewise the apparent need for broader definitions of development to go beyond economic growth and adoption of western technology.¹⁰⁰ It is imperative that the concept includes marrying the notion of economic betterment and promotion of newer forms of non-hierarchical human relationships and the abolition of role prejudice.

I have suggested that there are deliberate attempts to exclude women from participating in decision-making. In almost all countries, women as a gender group, have been "assigned to mind the house and care for the babies", hence structurally located in the private domain.¹⁰¹ They are inhibited from attaining creative levels of performance by household responsibilities.

The women in the six depressed barangays particularly should be viewed from a different perspective and be given active roles in development efforts. The women should be persuaded to organize themselves and collaborate to overcome inbuilt biases of development programmes and policies which merely serve to reinforce a structure of inequality.

100. Barbara Howell, *Women in Development*, Bread for the World Publication, November 1978, Background Paper No. 29.

101. *Ibid.*

For a start, the Civil Service Commission should take a closer look at the results of this and other barangay immersion exercises and channel the results to the proper ministry for appropriate action. This study for instance has definitely identified the lack of educational facilities and limited educational opportunities in these barangays as one of the roadblocks to the integration of women in the development process. Being in a country where education (as in most Third World countries) is the principal means to recruitment to more prestigious jobs and means to higher economic, social and political status,¹⁰² there is a need to give greater educational opportunities to the people in these barangays. The women in particular, who are already disadvantaged in terms of occupational opportunities should be given priority.

The Civil Service Academy should make serious efforts in infusing in the minds of the participants in the rural immersion programs especially, the significance of women's participation in society in general and in the development process in particular. Imbued with this orientation, the Academy could then hope that these executives would consider the women as well as the men in the formation of theories and policies and execution of programmes and projects so that they may equally benefit from them.

It is further suggested that the Civil Service Commission through the Civil Service Academy build an institutional mechanism for a continuing supportive relationship between the Office of the Role of Women, the MLGCD and the different line agencies including public enterprises involved in community-based development projects. An institutional mechanism will definitely facilitate the evaluation of development projects involving women and assessment of women's participation could be made, monitored and evaluated.

102. Y. Rahardjo, "Some Dilemmas of Working Women", *PRISMA, Indonesian Journal of Social & Economic Affairs*, Vol. 1, No. 2, November 1975, p. 84.

CHAPTER IV

THE ROLE OF VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Almost all communities have an over-riding need for the involvement or participation of the members in community affairs. Basically a community is the result of man's need for belonging. A community, particularly a rural one is usually characterized by a web of associations or organizations. Governments' reactions to these organizations are usually positive, particularly if they could participate in community development efforts.

In the Philippines, voluntary associations of varied orientations have emerged particularly in the last decade. One such voluntary association, known as CO (community organizers) groups, recognizing that government agencies have tended to implement a top-down scheme of development planning, have initiated the formation of genuine people's organizations that have enough information and expertise to challenge the arbitrariness of government programs.¹⁰³

Professor Randolph David of the University of the Philippines listed the following as essential features of voluntary associations in an attempt to link voluntary associations with the concept of participatory development: firstly, that such organizations are concerned with basic human problems, most of which were generated by the chronic neglect or improvidence of governments. Secondly, that they are non-government in nature. Thirdly, organization stresses democratic participation and collective decision-making and accountability.¹⁰⁴

Goodell calls a voluntary association a corporate group. He defines it as "an enduring organization of individuals with a common purpose, able to

103. "Voluntary Associations and People's Participation in Development: Report on a Southeast Asian Colloquium", *PRISMA, The Indonesian Indicator*, No. 16, March 1980, p. 4.

104. *Ibid.*, p. 6.

act as an autonomous entity in establishing unitary external relations and systematically managing its internal affairs. The addition or loss of individual members in such a group does not alter its identity, continuity, autonomy, procedures and organization."¹⁰⁵

Hadad calls them self-help community groups, designed mainly as channels to foster people's participation and which are non-governmental and non-profit oriented groupings.¹⁰⁶

Voluntary associations may be classified as either government initiated (but not attached to any government agency) or people initiated organizations. Regardless of whether they are government sponsored or people initiated voluntary organizations, the involvement of the people in these organizations is a positive contribution to nation building and an indication of growing capacity for self-help.

Speaking of voluntary associations in Singapore, Chee-Meow Seah commented that these organizations after all have and are performing an invaluable intermediary role between the government and the people and also in initiating projects which contribute to the overall welfare of the society. Also, since the government is involved in these organizations it is possible to ensure that the activities would not deviate from the norms as established by the government.¹⁰⁷

It is not within the scope of this paper to propose the mechanics of forming voluntary associations but merely to analyze the need for voluntary

105. G. Goodell, "Are Organizational Skills Necessary for Sustained Rural Development?", A Working Paper, September 1981, p.4.

106. Ismid Hadad, "A Note from the Editor", *PRISMA, The Indonesian Indicator*, No. 16, March 1980, p. 2.

107. Chee-Meow Seah, "Voluntary Associations in Singapore: An Overview", *PRISMA, The Indonesian Indicator*, No. 16, March 1980, pp. 37-38.

associations. The role of the Civil Service Academy will also be discussed as it may affect the role of voluntary associations.

In the Philippines the government encourages the formation of brigades, whose membership is voluntary, to give support to the barangay. These voluntary associations are in existence in almost all the six barangays covered by this study except for Baclaran wherein no mention was made of the existence of voluntary associations. The barangay with the most number of brigades is Puting Kahoy (17) while the least is Lucban with only one. It is however in Dao where the barangay brigades appear to be most active. In the case of Barangay Puting Bato West, the brigades were already in the formative stage.

These barangays were organized to cover distinct needs of the people. In Puting Kahoy, brigades on the following areas have been formed: disaster, tanod (security), ladies auxiliary, volunteer, youth, justice, water, power, food, economic base, shelter, medical, education and technology, clothing and cottage industry, sports and recreation, ecological balance and mobility.

Initially, barangay brigades and voluntary associations are taxed with the responsibility of maintaining liaison with the government and to carry out programs in the barangays initiated by the municipal government. These organizations may however be utilized as vehicles to introduce changes.

The adoption of changes by members of the barangays as individuals would have very little effect at all on development. For these barangays, a holistic approach towards rural barangay development has to be introduced, for any of the barangays to really experience the benefits of development. At least a critical mass in the population should be persuaded to change or adopt some fundamental changes.

These changes are not merely to implement downward flows of policies, programs and resources but are instead intended to be another force to be reckoned with, in the economic, socio-political and even cultural development of these barangays. As a group the critical mass must be cohesive, have leaders and members who are responsible and committed to the barangays and its people by virtue of material or personal interests. There must also be mechanisms for maintenance of external liaisons and capable of changing leaders when need arises.

Any of the six barangays could attain socio-economic development if only there is a motivated private sector. "Only voluntary agencies can have the flexibility, the passion and dedication, the understanding and willingness to deal in individual and human terms rather than in general and bureaucratic terms, all of which are required both for identifying welfare problems and taking steps to deal with those problems".¹⁰⁸

One particularly successful community development project in the Philippines which showed a wide extent of citizen participation is the Lagulo Spring Development Project.¹⁰⁹ A government assisted project, it was initiated by the people and launched based on the people's real needs. According to the study, ninety three percent of the people endorsed it as necessary to solve a critical problem in the barangay and enthusiasm and voluntary participation was high.

For the six barangays, what is needed is to create an atmosphere wherein the barangays are stimulated to be independent and self-reliant relying more on local leadership and initiative in the development of their communities.

108. *Ibid.*

109. For more details of the Project, please refer to Raymond Pomerleau, "Community Participation in Planned Social Change", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, January 1967, Vol. XI, No. 1, pp.72-82.

The Civil Service Academy can act as an external agent to assist the people of the barangays to express their needs. It can also assist in demonstrating how to obtain greater readiness to accept change and to provide mechanisms for development of leadership skills. For as Raper said, "...the progress in rural modernization would depend initially on the willingness of villagers to try something new and that this in turn would require on their part, particularly in the early stages, faith and trust in their own local leaders".¹¹⁰

The Civil Service Academy could also orient the local officials to the role of people's participation (particularly through voluntary associations) in rural development, cautioning them from exerting any external pressures on the decision-making processes within these barangays. The Civil Service Academy can likewise help local government officials understand the need to encourage these voluntary associations to venture into projects which are realistic and attainable to be effective enough to be convincing. For the "process of adopting small changes and finding them effective would lead to an appetite for larger, more complicated and costly changes".¹¹¹

This strategy of awakening the people's interest in increased local participation may be directed by the Civil Service Academy towards innovations in agriculture, infrastructure, health, cooperatives, nutrition and environmental sanitation. A review of the data on the six barangays shows that these are the areas which need considerable attention and exhibiting a high degree of promise as potentially successful laboratory areas.

110. Arthur F. Raper, *Rural Development in Action*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca and London, 1970, p. 14.

111. Arthur F. Raper, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

It is therefore suggested that the Civil Service Commission through the Civil Service Academy build an institutional mechanism for a continuing supportive relationship between the MLGCD, voluntary associations and the local government executives who are graduates of the CSA training programs. For instance, an increased government subsidy may be used as a tool by which the voluntary associations, the local government executives and the CSA may be assured of the abovementioned relationship.

Subsidy sources may be either from the local government itself, the national government or public enterprises. The subsidies from the latter sources may be funnelled to the local government. Release of subsidy is subject to the condition that voluntary associations have had a successful undertaking, in which case requests for subsidy for an on-going or new projects may be made directly to the municipal government without necessarily having to get the recommendation of the barangay council.

The local government executives on their part, being graduates of the training programs of the CSA hence oriented to the role of voluntary associations in rural development, are in a more competent position to decide on the approval of the release of subsidies.

Thus, the voluntary associations assume a stronger and more influential position in the community, reinforcing one of its roles which is to maintain external liaisons.

The CSA to ensure that its graduates, as they carry on the task of rural development, are giving adequate support to voluntary associations must periodically monitor the extent of participation of local government executives in rural development projects undertaken by voluntary associations. This can be done by requiring the local government chief executives to submit periodic reports to the CSA.

CHAPTER V

THE ROLE OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The people in the barangays examined by this study are just like other "people in Third World countries who have, for generations been excluded from the decision-making process, oppressed by conditions of poverty, disabled from understanding existing reality and paralyzed by a culture of silence and a very real climate of fear".¹¹² In the previous chapter voluntary associations have been offered as an alternative means through which these people who are in the barangays may be mobilized into participating in their socio-economic development.

The rationale of community organizing is the development of a people who are capable of defining their own reality, identifying their own problems and determining their own future. From within the community, leaders are identified and developed. The people are encouraged to speak out their minds, problems are discussed and acted upon collectively and the community is trained to depend upon its own resources.¹¹³

Voluntary associations are issue-based and are not associated or affiliated with a government agency. The organization of voluntary associations is done by an organizer who maintains a low profile.

In this chapter another alternative is given wherein the Civil Service Academy could play an active role in the extension of services to these depressed rural barangays through people's participation. "If appropriate and needed health and agricultural services are to be extended widely to rural areas,

112. Karina Constantino-David, "Issues in Community Organization", *PRISMA*, No. 16, March 1980, p. 71.

113. *Ibid.*, p. 72.

new forms of organization and innovations in public administration will be required."¹¹⁴ This alternative is the utilization of paraprofessionals.

What are paraprofessionals? Paraprofessionals are persons indigenous to the service area who have very limited technical or specialized training who offer a means of providing needed services at low cost to underserved public, but the specific arrangements vary with circumstances.¹¹⁵

Paraprofessionals in contrast to voluntary associations, are identified, trained and organized by a government agency or instrumentality, to provide public services below the level of a fully qualified and credentialized subprofessional.¹¹⁶ They are not autonomous individuals or groups but are associated with a private or government agency. Their existence does not depend on the rise or fall of issues as being a non-issue based organization, it views the community as a whole rather than as a conglomeration of interest groups, classes of people, or sectors of the community.¹¹⁷

Milton Esman, *et al.*, give the following characteristics as usually associated with paraprofessional services:¹¹⁸

- 1) Unlikely to have more than elementary school education and may even be illiterate, but this may vary with the general level of education in the society.
- 2) Likely to have no more than a few months of technical training before taking up responsibilities.
- 3) Originate and have their roots in the region - though not necessarily in the particular community they are serving. They speak the local

114. Milton Esman, Royal Colle, Norman Uphoff, Ellen Taylor, *Paraprofessionals in Rural Development*, Centre for International Studies, Cornell University, New York, December 1980, p. 2.

115. *Ibid.*

116. *Ibid.*, p. 3.

117. David, *op. cit.*, p. 77.

118. Esman, *op. cit.*, p. 2-3.

dialect, understand local customs, and share local conditions and life styles, and thus should understand and empathize with the public being served.

4) Are in direct contact with the public. They may be the last link in the organizational chain that provides services; or alternatively, the first intermediary between the public and the official bureaucratic networks.

5) Are not autonomous actors. They are associated with a public or private agency that links their activity to sources of information, supplies, finance and other extra-community resources. It is responsible, in turn, for guiding, supporting and supervising their activities.

6) Do not ordinarily perform strictly routine functions under close supervision. Their scope is limited, they have some discretion and freedom of action in the way they deal with members of the public.

Above all these, the paraprofessional concept,¹¹⁹ unlike voluntary associations, does not revolve around the concept of raising the level of consciousness with the aim that there may emerge some social anger to provide the basis for a more organized community.¹²⁰ The paraprofessional approach seeks to reach effectively the poor, promote organization and activation of local public to help provide their own services, develop greater capacity to satisfy their needs by their collective efforts and link more productively to the bureaucratic servicing networks of government.¹²¹

119. For further groundings on the paraprofessional phenomenon, please read Royal D. Colle, Milton J. Esman, Ellen Taylor and Peter Berman, *Concept Paper: Paraprofessionals in Rural Development* (Ithaca, New York, Cornell University, Centre for International Studies, Rural Development Committee, March 1979). Another suggested monograph is by Doris M. Storms, *Training and Use of Auxiliary Health Workers: Lessons from Developing Countries* (Washington D.C.: American Public Health Association, 1979).

120. David, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

121. Esman, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

A review of the resources in Sambal, Puting Bato West, Puting Kahoy, Lucban, Baclaran and Dao shows that these areas have the potential to meet the requirements of paraprofessionals. Projects involving paraprofessionals may be launched in two major sectors, health and agriculture.

Health and agriculture are the two sectors suggested because there are already mechanisms established in the organizational structures of the Ministry of Health (please refer to Figure 9) and the Ministry of Agriculture, that would provide a favourable environment to projects involving paraprofessionals in these six barangays.

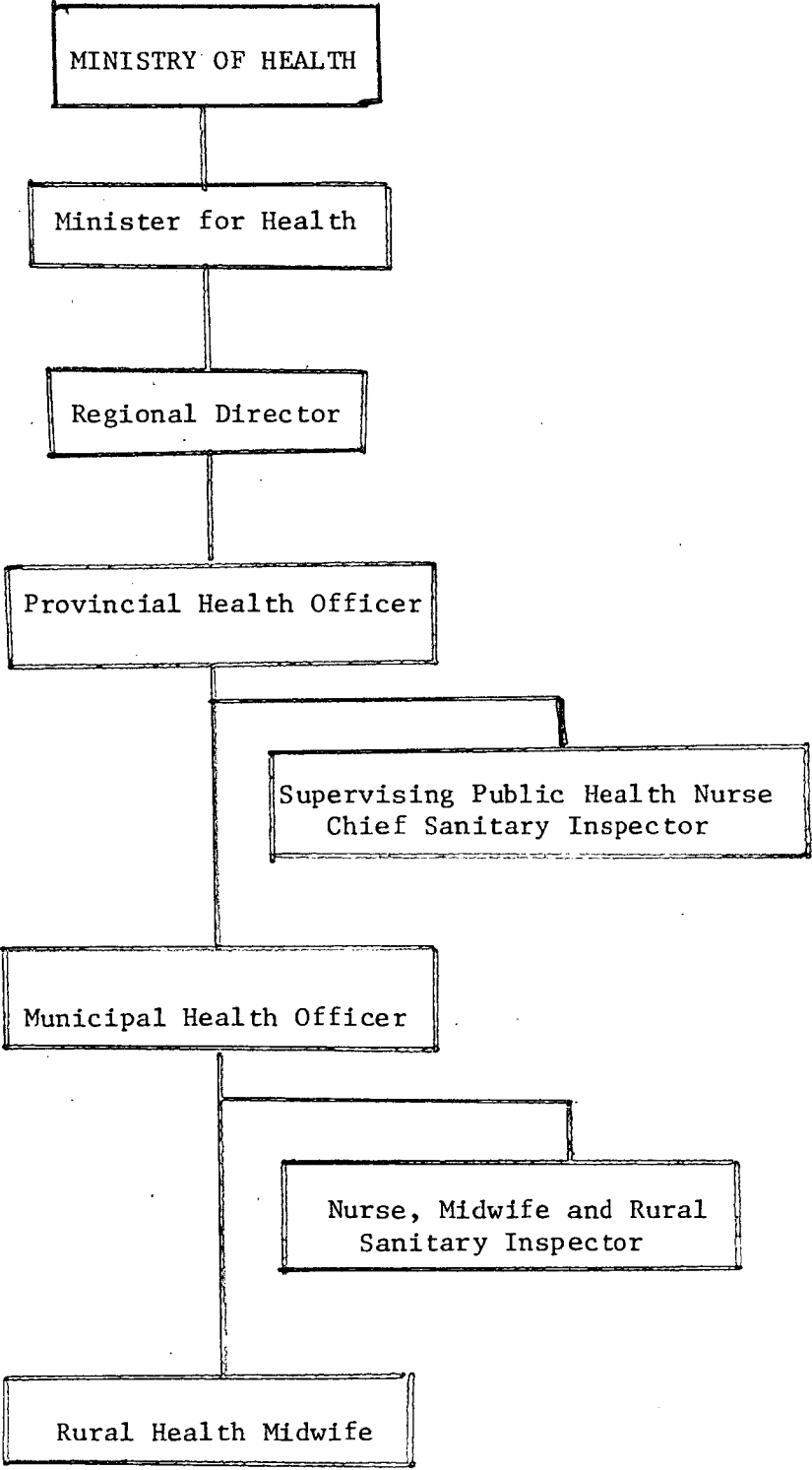
For the Ministry of Health, it is just a matter of extending further to the grassroots the services of the municipal health officer and his staff by expanding the structure to accommodate a corps of paraprofessionals. It may be recalled that the areas indicated in Chapter II of this study, which are in dire need of attention include: environmental sanitation, malnutrition, hygiene, pre and post natal care and general health care.

One of the six bureaux of the Ministry of Agriculture is the Bureau of Agricultural Extension whose primary responsibility lies in the improvement of the quality of life in the rural areas by acting as "little" ministries in their respective localities. This office assists in the program for increased production and the improvement of nutrition in the countryside.¹²² It likewise has an attached agency, the Philippine Centre for Rural Development. Through these bodies, the Ministry of Agriculture could play an important role in support of paraprofessionals in these six barangays.

The Civil Service Commission, on its part, could, through the Civil Service Academy, provide maximum support for paraprofessionals by facilitating

122. "Bounties of Green and Gold", *Philippine Development*, Vol. VIII, Nos 8 and 9, September 1980, p. 8-9.

Figure 9



the establishment of more productive linkages between these depressed barangays and the so-called bureaucratic servicing networks of the government such as the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture.

It is not within the scope of this paper to define the mechanism whereby the CSC may make this concept operational in Sambal, Puting Kahoy and the other four barangays, but one possibility is that the CSA could utilize its training programs as vehicles of implementation.

The Civil Service Academy could make provisions in its Rural Development module for its participants to provide appropriate skills development training in management practices like selection, training, compensation, supervision and support to potential paraprofessionals. This then becomes an exercise in transfer of technology for the participants. At the end of each training program, these government executives, as part of their re-entry program, must provide the necessary feedbacks to the administrators of the Ministry of Health and its field officers as well as that of the Ministry of Agriculture, so that they may activate the necessary mechanisms for support to the paraprofessionals.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, paraprofessionals operate as part of an organized public service or private agency. Community-based programs and projects which depend on paraprofessionals will fail if there is no reliable, appropriate support system.¹²³ As Coombs noted:

A community-based health or family planning program...that is not adequately tied in with and supported by higher levels in the system *could* be worse than no locally based program at all. It would be a deceptive sham, perhaps good for national and international public relations but quite unfair to the rural people... (V)illage workers and paraprofessionals can effectively carry out more important responsibilities than many highly trained professionals...are willing to concede -- provided (and this is crucially important proviso) they are properly selected and trained and are given steady and adequate supervision and support by more highly trained personnel.¹²⁴

123. *Ibid.*, p. 46.

124. *Ibid.*

The message is clear, the support of a central body which has an overall jurisdiction of the system is needed so that it will not just be treated as a mere independent component of a service.

In this connection, it is recommended that the Civil Service Commission through the Civil Service Academy build an institutional mechanism for a continuing supportive relationship between the line agencies, particularly the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture and the graduates of the training programs. This mechanism must ensure that volunteers from barangays are recruited to be trained as paraprofessionals.

Graduates of CSA training programs, upon re-entry to their respective organizations must be required to give support to specified rural communities, such as the six barangays covered by this study, which they have identified to be in need of and which have the potential human resources for paraprofessionals. Barangay volunteers for paraprofessional training must pass the initial screening of a multiagency team composed of representatives from the CSA, the MLGCD, the local government unit concerned and the barangay council. The local government chief executive recommends the volunteers to the Ministry of Health or the Ministry of Agriculture as the case may be, for training. Training of these volunteers will be undertaken by the aforementioned ministries in cooperation with the CSA. This is in accordance with Presidential Decree 1218 creating the CSA as the principal mechanism for integration and coordination of training activities and programs of the different ministries, bureaux, and agencies, including government corporations.

Upon successful completion of the training program, the paraprofessionals will be fielded to their respective localities and be assured of support and remuneration by either the Ministry of Health or the Ministry of Agriculture. They will be under the supervision and control of the regional offices of any of the aforementioned ministries.

CHAPTER VI

THE ROLE OF THE CIVIL SERVICE ACADEMY

Article XII, Section 1 of the 1973 Constitution of the Philippines and Presidential Decree No. 1, otherwise known as the Integrated Reorganization Plan are the legal basis for the creation and structuring of the Civil Service Commission, as one of the Constitutional Offices.¹²⁵

Presidential Decree No. 807 provided for the organization of the Civil Service Commission in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. The Philippine Civil Service Commission is the central personnel agency of the civil service system. It is designated to set standards, utilization, training and discipline of civil servants, among others. The jurisdiction of the civil service system is so wide that Albina Manalo-Dans, Commissioner of Civil Service had this to say: "Nowhere else in the Asian region nor even in the Western world is there a civil service system that encompasses not only the civil service, the academic institutions, elective officials, the public enterprises, and even the military, except in the Philippines. So pervasive is the ambit of the civil service system that it has been considered synonymous with government itself".¹²⁶

In the last decade, the Philippines underwent tremendous change affecting both the private and the government sectors. These changes called for the involvement of the Civil Service Commission in implementing the new programs of the government. To meet the challenges of its new responsibilities, the Civil Service Commission introduced several administrative reforms.¹²⁷

125. As a Constitutional Office it is free from political interference.

126. Albina Manalo-Dans, "Contemporary Developments in the Philippine Civil Service", Paper presented at the Conference of International Developments on Public Administration, The New South Wales Institute of Technology, July 20-21, 1981, p. 1.

127. No attempt will be made here to enumerate the various reforms but for further reading the following provide ample information.

In 1975, the Civil Service Commission selected training as its priority program. "The role of the C.S.C. in this effort is essentially, to establish policies and guidelines for training in the line ministries and agencies, and to provide assistance and consultation, whenever necessary, in the drawing up of training curricula, determination of training needs, selection of methods of instruction and of instructors, resource speakers and facilitators".¹²⁸

In 1978, the President established the Civil Service Academy (CSA) by virtue of Presidential Decree 1218. The Civil Service Academy was then established as the training arm of the Civil Service Commission. The President emphasized that whereas training, by and large, is the concern of the line agencies, the Civil Service Academy shall be responsible for the direct training of middle managers of the regular bureaucracy and of executives of public enterprises.¹²⁹

Since 1978, the Civil Service Academy has conducted the following training programs: Junior Executive Training Program-Supervisory Training for Executive Administrative Management (JET-STREAM) for junior executives or middle managers in the regular agencies of the national government; the School Executive Development Program (SEDP) and Development Program for Districts Schools Supervisors (DPSDS) for school superintendents and supervisors respectively; the Development Managers Training (DMT) for the highest officials of local governments; and the Executive Leadership Management Program (ELM) for the department heads of government-owned and controlled corporations or public enterprises.

128. *Ibid.*, p.10.

129. *Ibid.*, p.11.

The Civil Service Academy conducts training programs designed to complement similar undertakings by other government training institutions. These programs supplement the universal recruitment processes¹³⁰ into the Philippine civil service system. Through its executive development training programs, it intends to equip career officials with the outlook and skills necessary to cope with the exacting demands of the government's internal and external environment that they may be able to meet the challenges of development.

All training programs that are beamed towards enhancing managerial and administrative capabilities of management are the concern of the CSA. The CSA conducts the following executive development training programs:¹³¹

Executive Forum - This conference brings together presidents and general managers and other officials of equivalent rank of public enterprises to discuss problems and issues that generally affect government-owned and controlled corporations within the framework of the new, emerging development perspectives. In this conference, participants are provided with opportunities to appreciate the causal relation between environmental forces and productivity in corporations; explain current, significant and controversial public enterprise management issues; share experiences of executive concern, and propose institutional and other working arrangements to coordinate corporate goals with national objectives.

130. Emmanuel Astillero and Maria Milagrosa A. Imbuido, "The Rural Immersion Program of the Civil Service Academy", A Paper presented to the Management Education Council, University of the Philippines, July 1980, p. 1.

Also, compared with the British and French recruitment systems, which developed over hundreds of years and which we cannot afford, our bureaucratic leaders are drawn from diverse sources in varying ways. Some are recruited by proven educational achievement, some by work achievement and others through familial and political linkages. The recruitment system then, being what it is, consequently lays some burden on "on-the-job-training" which hopefully corrects some oversight in the recruitment process. (*Ibid.*, footnote.)

131. All descriptions of training programs are from the brochures on the Civil Service Academy Programs.

Executive Leadership and Management Program - This course is intended for corporate executives below the rank of those participating in the Executive Forum but not lower than that of assistant department manager. This program aims to provide corporate executives with the outlook and skills necessary to cope with the exacting demands of national and international forces affecting the corporate operations of the government, analyze the fundamental forces of change and examined managerial approaches in solving problems of public enterprises. One of the learning modules underscored in the program is Rural Development.

Both training programs are intended to develop executive leadership and management skills in public enterprises. The CSA likewise conducts direct training programs for school executives. These are:

School Executive Development Program - This program is designed to develop the leadership skills of school executives as administrators of educational programs and as leaders in community development. Within the school organization and the community at large, these school superintendents and assistant school superintendents necessarily work with people through whom they are able to achieve the goals and objectives of their respective organizations. The training program has three major components: 1) personal awareness, 2) managerial effectiveness and 3) community involvement and participation.

Development Program for Schools District Supervisor - The participants of this training program are the school district supervisors. This course is designed to develop the leadership skills of the participants as innovative administrators of educational programs and as leaders in community development. As leaders in the community, it is imperative that they possess managerial capabilities, leadership and interpersonal skills that will enable them to

get the invaluable cooperation of those with whom they work within their organizations and in their communities.

Junior Executive Training-Supervisory Training for Executive

Administrative Management - This training program is for chief of division of the line ministries, the public enterprises and the local governments. This program is concerned with the theories and concepts of management, practical insights into the world of the middle manager and a rural development component.

Development Managers Training - This program is structured towards developing the highest local government administrators into a professional manager who can effectively run and administer his immediate official concerns and at the same time link efficaciously with the community. The local government executive today has emerged as a dynamic force for development. It is for this reason that he be developed not only into becoming an effective government official but more as a person who can adequately and satisfactorily manage development.

The Civil Service Academy likewise conducts joint training ventures with other agencies on specialized areas, which have been delegated to specific agencies on the basis of functional expertise. Although these courses are the main concern of the agencies to which they have been delegated, the CSA provides support and where necessary, stirs the agencies to hold these courses.

Participants of CSA training programs are definitely the government officials who, by virtue of their positions, are the ones who could give the needed support to rural development efforts.

As mentioned earlier, the Civil Service Academy, through its training programs specifically with the inclusion of the rural development module is making serious efforts to infuse a sense of commitment to the upliftment of

the poor in the rural areas. This is evidenced by the rationale of the syllabus of the ELM¹³² which is as follows:

"Module VII. Rural Development"

The Philippines is predominantly rural and agricultural, and will remain so the next century. While census definitions place rural residents at only 7 out of 10 Filipinos, the proportion is actually higher: as urban areas are (like rural areas) devoid of even basic services to make living convenient, comfortable and productive. If households receiving P3,000.00 per annum would be our poverty line then 80 percent of Filipinos would be considered poor in 1975; of these, 8 out of 10 would be in agriculture and the bulk of them is in subsistence fishing and farming. Therefore, it is easy to see where our priorities lie: in rural development.

The aim of this module is to develop a sensitive awareness among affluent government corporate executives of the poverty and underdevelopment now prevailing in our rural areas. By so doing, it is hoped that somehow, in the course of their work in the urban areas, they would keep these rural poor (always) in mind and if the right opportunity comes, to develop some mechanisms that will alleviate the grinding poverty in our rural areas.

132. ELM IV, *op. cit.*

Note: A government program which carries this rationale further is a research (see Robert Chambers, "Managing Rural Development", *Institute of Development Studies Journal*, September 1974, Vol. 6, No. 1., p. 4), which was mainly concerned with the design and testing of management procedures for use by government servants in rural areas in Kenya, was carried out during 1971-1973 in collaboration with Deryke Belshaw of the Overseas Development Group of the University of Norwich. It was linked with the Kenya government's Special Rural Development Programme. The objective included raising rural incomes and employment opportunities and sharpening the effectiveness of the government machine in rural areas. Its rationale was:

"It is commonplace that executive capacity is a constraint on rural development in developing countries. Traditional prescriptions for increasing such capacity have been qualitative (more manpower, more technical assistance, more finance) and usually qualitative only through an emphasis on the importance of training. Where administrative reform has been undertaken, attention has tended to focus on organization and procedures in headquarters and on the reduction of corruption. Valuable though these approaches may be, the working hypothesis of the research...is that a keypoint of leverage in improving the effectiveness of rural development programmes in general and of agricultural extension in particular is the devising and introduction of planning and management techniques and procedures for the lower levels of administration".

All the CSA programs have the rural development module although on a lesser scale. Participants of the JET-STREAM are made to undergo a four-day Social Laboratory activity. This module is intended to provide them with first hand experience in rural life while gathering empirical data and identifying the needs and problems of very depressed rural communities.

Prior to the launching of a social laboratory activity, JET-STREAM participants attend sessions on the dimensions of rural poverty to broaden their understanding of rural-urban dynamics and intra-intergovernmental linkages.

The output of each learning team is a written report which contains a brief profile of the community (demographic, economic, socio-cultural and level of technology and capital); identified needs and problems; summary and recommendations. A validation session is held wherein the participants and the representatives of the community discuss the findings of the group. The reports are presented to the class in a plenary session at the end of the rural immersion.

The rural development module of the DMT is actually more of an exercise in transfer of technology rather than a rural immersion effort. The participants of the DMT are billeted for a week in a poblacion where they monitor and evaluate a municipal project from planning to implementation. The aim of the module is to improve the participants' skills in public policy analysis, thereby increasing their administrative capacities in local government. DMT participants, unlike the ELM and the JET-STREAM participants do not stay in depressed areas but in progressive rural communities because they study the various development projects of the local government units (projects which are either successful or failures); the impact of these projects on the development of the community as well as on the people directly and

indirectly affected by these development projects, and to study the probability of adopting these projects in their back-home situations.

School superintendents and supervisors who are participants of the SEDP and the DPSDS are taken to rural community projects of the Central Luxon State University to capture, within a brief two-day stay the dynamics of project planning and implementation. Although the DMT, SEDP and the DPSDS are management skills development-oriented, yet built into each program is the overriding theme of rural development. The ideological orientation of the ELM and JET-STREAM programs towards adopting rural development as a working philosophy is however the most evident.

The directions that the Civil Service Commission is taking through the bureaucrats' increased involvement in rural development by way of its policy directions and training programs is definitely an indicator that it is veering away from the assumption that the bureaucracy always has a "somewhat ambiguous role in the matter of innovation".¹³³

It likewise follows that if the CSC is becoming more humanistic or less bureaucratic, it is veering away from the pure orientation of public administration which is on rules and procedures or established norms of conduct. Is it (knowingly or unknowingly) gravitating then towards social administration which emphasizes the human element and human services? Will it through its rural development efforts provide the answer to bureaucratization or "minimize the pathological aspects of bureaucracy"?¹³⁴

133. Wallace S. Sayre, "Some Problems of Public Administration in a Developing Economy", *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 8, No. 2, 1962, p. 143.

134. G.B. Sharma, "Social Administration: Some Conceptual Aspects", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, University of the Philippines, January 1970, Vol. XIV, No. 1, p. 58.

Sharma had surmised that it is not beyond the capacity of 'civil servants' to become 'social servants' provided the organization is understood and followed more as a means for promoting the well being of the citizen and the community he belongs to, rather than as an end in itself.¹³⁵

Sharma listed the following attributes of a social administrator:

1) emphasizes the importance of human element; 2) does not stay confined in his ivory tower surrounded by his files, rules and regulations; 3) humane; 4) goes to the field of human endeavour where socio-economic problems are being solved in actual life.¹³⁶

Majority of Philippine bureaucrats like most bureaucrats of Third World countries who are oriented to Western procedures and methods, are trained first, to isolate himself from the political system of which he is a part and second, to confine his activities to the specific responsibilities of his job descriptions.¹³⁷

Reconstructing the political system becomes a major focus of pressure on the administrators as the development process occurs. By orienting administrators to the development programs of the government through its training programs, the CSC has assumed the role of a change agent.

Also, orienting these same administrators to the realities of rural poverty will cushion the possibility of them becoming an obstacle to the rural development efforts of the government. Thus far, a group of senior executives of public enterprises has already supported this view:

135. *Ibid.*

136. *Ibid.*, p. 59.

137. Douglas E. Ashford, *op. cit.*

The six-day rural immersion of Executive Learning Team II has been a very rewarding experience. Done in Sitio Kabaritan in Sto. Domingo, Bay, Laguna, this social laboratory has given the team an opportunity to empathize with the people of the sitio. It has allowed us to understand the feelings, hopes and aspirations of this simple but friendly people... During the immersion process, the Team was able to view rural life in a different context. Gone were the ivory tower perspectives from the executive swivel chair. In its place came the realization that in the lives of our brothers in the countryside, problems that executives consider petty are real and overpowering. While our stay in the sitio was brief, we also found that Government Corporate Executives with their management training and sophistication have a real opportunity to contribute something for the benefit of rural communities.¹³⁸

The CSC through its training programs is therefore creating a "more vigorous environment for development".¹³⁹ By virtue of its position in the administrative system it can provide the necessary external inputs and support towards greater local participation.

It is not sufficient though that the rural immersion module of the CSA be strictly limited towards documenting the rural immersion experience as a case study and proposing partial solutions to the needs of these communities, such as Lucban, Dao, Puting Kahoy, Baclaran, Puting Bato West and Sambal. The CSA should carry this role further by making built-in provisions in its training programs for more action-oriented schemes. Since the government has emerged as the prime mover of development, it is imperative that the CSA develop the necessary manpower capabilities and establish mechanisms so that the delivery of the services particularly to the grassroots will be more adequate and effective.

138. Civil Service Academy, ELM I, Executive Learning Team 2, Group Report, December 5, 1979, Development Academy of the Philippines, Tagaytay City (Mimeo Manuscript; Preface page).

139. D. Ashford, *op. cit.*

The CSA has realized the critical role that the local government administrator, for instance, plays in rural development, as evidenced by the rationale of the Development Managers Training Program. The CSA is conducting this Program to improve his skills and knowledge and re-orient his attitudes. The CSA should carry this task further and with more serious efforts. Hence, it is recommended that all CSA Rural Development Modules either be re-structured to enable greater emphasis to rural development in general and participation in particular, or new courses of longer duration tailored to rural development alone be designed.

CONCLUSION

This study has examined closely the role that the Civil Service Commission through the Civil Service Academy could play in rural development by utilizing training as an intervention. As put forth in this study, this is possible if the CSA adopts a working philosophy oriented towards greater support for the development and promotion of training programs designed to increase awareness of the participants on the importance of participation of women, voluntary associations and paraprofessionals in rural development. It is with the hope that the training participants will consider these three sectors when they formulate policies and implement programs for rural barangays.

In order to fulfil its role as an agent of change, the CSA has to operate through the executives of the bureaucracy who attend its training programs. These training participants come from organizations which have direct and distinct linkages with the rural populace. For these graduates to implement what they learned during the training period, they need the continuous support of their own organizations. They need an environment receptive to change. Hence, the CSC must build the institutional mechanisms for a continuing supportive relationship between her and the graduates to ensure that its training efforts will be successfully followed up. For it is a recognized fact that the results of training programs can be more effective and the impact on the client organizations more significant if there is a continuous and more intensive relationship between the organizations serviced and the training institute.¹⁴⁰

In this connection, Chapter IV of this study, wherein the participation of voluntary association in rural development has been the focus of discussion, contains a suggested institutional mechanism for a continuing supportive relationship between the CSA and its client organizations.

140. Hans C. Blaise, "An Analysis of Selected Strategies of Institution Building for Public Services", *Management Training for Development*, edited by Inayatullahi, The Asian Centre for Development Administration, Malaysia, 1975, p.296.

It has been recommended in Chapter V of this study that another institutional mechanism that would give support to the participation of paraprofessionals in rural development, be established. This mechanism will establish a continuing supportive relationship between the line agencies, particularly the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture, the graduates of the CSA training programs and the CSA itself.

It is also not sufficient that the training programs of the CSA be strictly limited towards documenting the rural immersion experience as a case study and proposing partial solutions to the needs of these communities. The CSA should carry this role further by making built-in provisions in its training programs for more action-oriented schemes.

In view of the wide jurisdiction of the civil service system and the strategic placement of the CSC in the governmental organizational hierarchy, it is in the best position to exert influence and give support for rural development. The CSC could be the vehicle through which the gap between the legions of bureaucrats, who are the very people who could participate in rural development and the vast majority of the rural poor, may be bridged.

The people of Lucban, Sambal, Puting Bato West, Puting Kahoy, Dao and Baclaran are representative of the multitude of other rural poor in the Philippines who need external inputs to build their capacity for self-help. The CSC on its part, has the power, administrative capability and institutional capacity to channel these external inputs towards this end. Will the Civil Service Commission then take up the challenge to pursue more vigorously programs that would enhance the completion of the development process as it travels its full cycle in the social system?

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FRAMEWORK FOR RURAL IMMERSION CASE HISTORY REPORT

- OBJECTIVE: The Report should be able to build a case history of a depressed barangay.
- PURPOSE: The case history should enable readers to understand and appreciate the different dimensions of rural poverty.
- USES: The case history will put into a permanent document the state of development of a barangay - a sort of baseline - against which future development can be composed.
- A written report is also an effective method of enabling participants to internalize the lessons of rural development.
- The case history will be used for training purposes in CSA and other institutions.
- OUTPUT: Not more than 25 pages for case history.

GUIDE TO BARANGAY CASE HISTORY

THE LAND AND ITS PEOPLE

- A. History
 - Origin, the early people
- B. Demography
 - . Population and its distribution
 - . Age
 - . And other demographic derivations
- C. Geography
 - . Terrain
 - . Location
 - . Land Uses/Natural resources
- D. Accessibility
 - . Transport system
 - . Markets
 - . Vital services and facilities
- E. Economy
 - . Economic sectors - Agriculture
 - . Major occupations - Earnings
 - . Income and income distribution
 - . Employment and unemployment

- F. The Village Society
 - . The major clans and their roles in the village
 - . The power structure
 - . Community organizations, church, government, civic
- G. Government Programs
 - . Inventory (What government programs operate in the barangay?)
 - . Evaluation and assessment
 - . Extent of people participation
- H. Issues, Problems, Needs
 - . Social
 - . Economic
 - . Physical
 - . Institutional

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Barangay: _____

Name of Respondent: _____
(Pangalan ng Kapanayam)Name of Wife/Husband: _____
(Pangalan ng asawa)

1. DEMOGRAPHIC

1. No. of children: _____	Ages: 1 - 10 _____
(Blg. ng anak)	11 - 20 _____
	20 - 35 _____
	35 - 50 _____
	50 - above _____

2. Ratio - Male: _____	Female: _____
(Blg. ng lalaki)	(Blg. ng babae)

3. Total no. of persons in the house: _____
(Kabuuang dami ng mga tao sa bahay)

II. ECONOMIC

A. Income-Expenditure Relationship:

1. Sources of income: _____
(Mga pinagkukunan ng ikinabubuhay)

2. How much per annum? _____
(Magkano sa loob ng isang taon?)

3. Total income per annum? _____
(Kabuuang kita sa loob ng isang taon?)

B. Expenditures:

(Mga pinagkakagastusan)

1. Food	How much per annum
(Pagkain)	(Magkano sa loob ng

P _____

2. Health	How much per annum
(Kalusugan)	(Magkano sa loob ng

P _____

3. Education	How much per annum
(Edukasyon o pag-aaral)	(Magkano sa loob ng

P _____

4. Taxes	How much per annum
(Mga Buwis)	(Magkano sa loob ng

P _____

5. Socio-Civic	How much per annum
(Pangsosyo-sibiko, kawanggawa, atbp.)	(Magkano sa loob ng

P _____

6. Entertainment (Libangan) P _____
7. Investment (Pamumuhunan) P _____
8. Repayment of debts (Pagbabayad ng mga utang) P _____
9. Clothing (Damit) P _____
10. Others (Atbp.) P _____
11. Total expenditures per annum (Kabuuang kagastusan sa loob ng isang taon) P _____

C. Employment Pattern:

1. Husband _____
(Trabaho ng lalaki)
2. Wife _____
(Trabaho ng maybahay)
3. Children (Male) _____
(Trabaho ng anak na lalaki)
4. Children (Female) _____
(Trabaho ng anak na babae)
5. Others in the house who are employed: _____
(Iba pang kasambahay na may trabaho)
6. Type of work of (31) _____
(Trabaho ng mga kasambahay)
7. Unemployed _____
(Mga iba pang kasambahay na walang trabaho)
8. Why? _____
(Bakit walang trabaho?)
9. Age of children normally start working: _____
(Karaniwang gulang ng anak bago magsimulang magtrabaho)
10. Type of work _____
(Uri ng trabaho)

D. Wealth Distribution:

1. Land ownership Yes _____ No _____
(Kayo po ba ay may pag-aaring
lupain - residensiya o pang-
agrikultura)

2. If rented or leased, at how much per annum? ₱ _____
(Kung inuupahan lamang, magkano sa loob ng isang taon?)
3. Where does the landlord reside? _____
(Saan nakatira ang tunay na may-ari?)
4. House ownership Yes _____ No _____
(Kayo po ba ay may pag-aaring bahay)
5. If house is rented or leased, at how much per annum? ₱ _____
(Kung ang bahay ay inuupahan lamang, magkano ang upa sa
loob ng isang taon?)
6. Where does the landlord reside? _____
(Saan nakatira ang tunay na may-ari?)
7. Farm or trade equipment ownership: Yes _____ No _____
(Pagmamay-ari na lupang sinasaka
o kagamitang pangkalakal)
8. If rented or leased, at how much per annum? ₱ _____
(Kung inuupahan lamang, magkano ang upa sa
loob ng isang taon?)

E. Product/Goods Distribution Pattern:

1. Types of market where products are sold: _____
(Mga uri ng tindahan ng produkto, hal. sari-sari, supermarket, palengke, atbp.)
2. Product marketing outlet: _____
(Sentro ng bilihan/tindahan ng mga produkto)
3. Marketing System (flow of goods from manufacturer to consumer
(Paraan ng takbo ng produkto magmula sa gumawa o lumikha nito hanggang sa karaniwang mamimili o gagamit ng produkto)

4. Frequency of product marketing: _____
(Dalas o limit ng pagtitinda/pagbibili ng mga produkto)
5. Types of goods bought: _____
(Uri ng mga produktong binibili)
6. Sources: _____
(Pinanggalingan o pinagmulan ng mga produkto)
7. Purchasing system: _____
(Pamamaraan ng pamimili ng produkto)
8. Frequency (average): _____
(Dalas o limit)

III. SOCIO-CULTURAL

A. Family System:

1. What percentage of the people in the barrio are related to you in terms of:

a. blood _____ b. ritual kinship _____

(Porsyento ng mga kamag-anakan sa baryo ayon sa:

- a. dugo _____
- b. mga seremonyas tulad ng binyag, kumpil, kasal, atbp. _____

B. Role of Women:

1. Function of women members of the family _____
(Mga gawaing pangkaraniwan ng kababaihan sa pamilya)
2. Women's perceived role _____
(Ano sa inyong palagay ang dapat na maging katungkulan ng kababaihan sa pamilya at sa lupunan)

C. Leadership Pattern:

1. People looked up to as leaders _____
(Mga taong tinitingala bilang pinuno o lider sa baryong ito)

D. Customs and Practices Favoring or Impeding Development

1. Eastens development _____
(Mga kaugaliang sa palagay ninyo'y nakababalan pang lalo sa ating pag-unlad).

E. Level of Aspiration:

1. Level of education the respondent aspires _____
(Gaano kataas na pinag-aralan ang pinangarap ninyong maabot?)
2. Children _____
(Gaano kataas ang pinapangarap ninyong maabot sa pag-aaral ng inyong mga anak?)
3. Economic level of living aspired _____
(Ano pong uri ng pamumuhay ang pinangarap ninyo para sa inyong pamilya?)
4. Other aspirations _____
(Iba pang layunin/pangarap sa buhay)
5. Have you reached the level aspired for? _____
(Natamo na ba ninyo ang mga layunin/pangarap na ito?)

- 5 -

6. What is your general feeling about this? _____
 (Ano ang inyong palagay/damdamin tungkol sa bagay na ito?)
7. What do you intend to do about this? _____
 (Ano ang binabalak ninyong gawin tungkol sa bagay na ito?)

IV. LEVEL OF TECHNOLOGY AND CAPITAL

A. Farm or Trade Inputs

1. Farm Inputs: _____
 (Kapital ng pang-agrikultura tulad ng makinarya, abono, manggagawa, lupa, atbp.)
2. Trade inputs: _____
 (Puhunang pangkomersyo tulad ng kapital, manggagawa, hilaw na sangkap (raw materials), atbp.)
3. Equipment used: _____
 (Mga kagamitang pang-agrikultura o pangkomersyo)
4. Ownership: _____
 (Pagmamay-ari)

B. Household Technology

1. Appliances: _____
 (Mga modernong kagamitang pambahay)
2. Other equipment: _____
 (Iba pang kagamitan sa bahay - hal. makina)

C. Sources of Capital

1. Loans for farm/trade: _____
 (Utang na kapital pang-agrikultura o pangkalakal)
2. Loans for education/health/food, etc.: _____
 (Utang para sa edukasyon/kalusugan/pagkain, atbp.)
3. Loans for other investments: _____
 (Utang para sa pamumuhunan)
4. Are you a member of a cooperative association? _____
 (Kayo ba ay kasapi sa isang samahang kooperatiba?)
5. Why? _____
 (Bakit?)

V. GOVERNMENT/PRIVATE SECTOR PARTICIPATION

1. What government programs have served and/or are serving your barrio? (e.g., education, health, social services, infrastructure, credit, technical assistance, etc.)

(Anu-ano pong programa ng pamahalaan ang nakatulong na/o kasalukuyang tumutulong sa pagpapaunlad ng baryong ito?)

2. Are you satisfied with these services? Why?
(Sapat ba ang mga paglilingkod o serbisyong natatanggap ninyo? Bakit?)
-

3. Expectations from government:
(Mga inaasahang pamamalakad o pamamaraan ng pamahalaan para sa ikauunlad ng buong bayan)
-

4. Are you satisfied? Why?
(Nasisiyahan ba kayo sa pamamalakad ng ating pamahalaan? Bakit?)
-

5. Expectations from the private sector:
(Mga inaasahang tulong o simulain mula sa pribadong sektor na binubuo ng mga negosyante)
-

6. Are you satisfied? Why?
(Nasisiyahan ba kayo sa kanilang tulong? Bakit?)
-

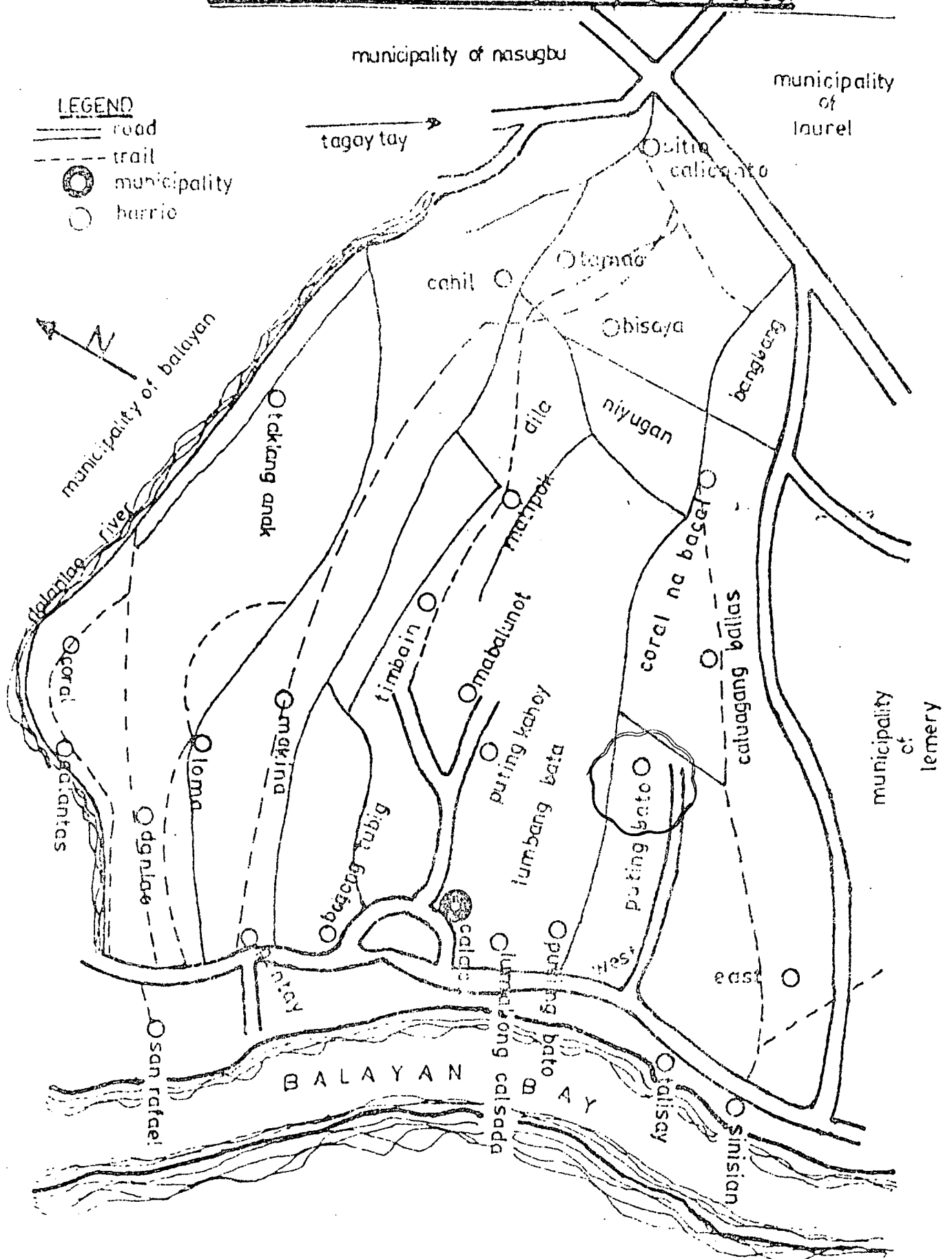
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SUGGESTIONS/RECOMMENDATIONS TO DEVELOP THE BARANGAY

1. Do you know the technical people from government who are available in case of assistance?
2. What are the problems of the barangay? (Individual perception) (In terms of priority).
3. What are your recommended solutions?
4. How would you implement your solution?

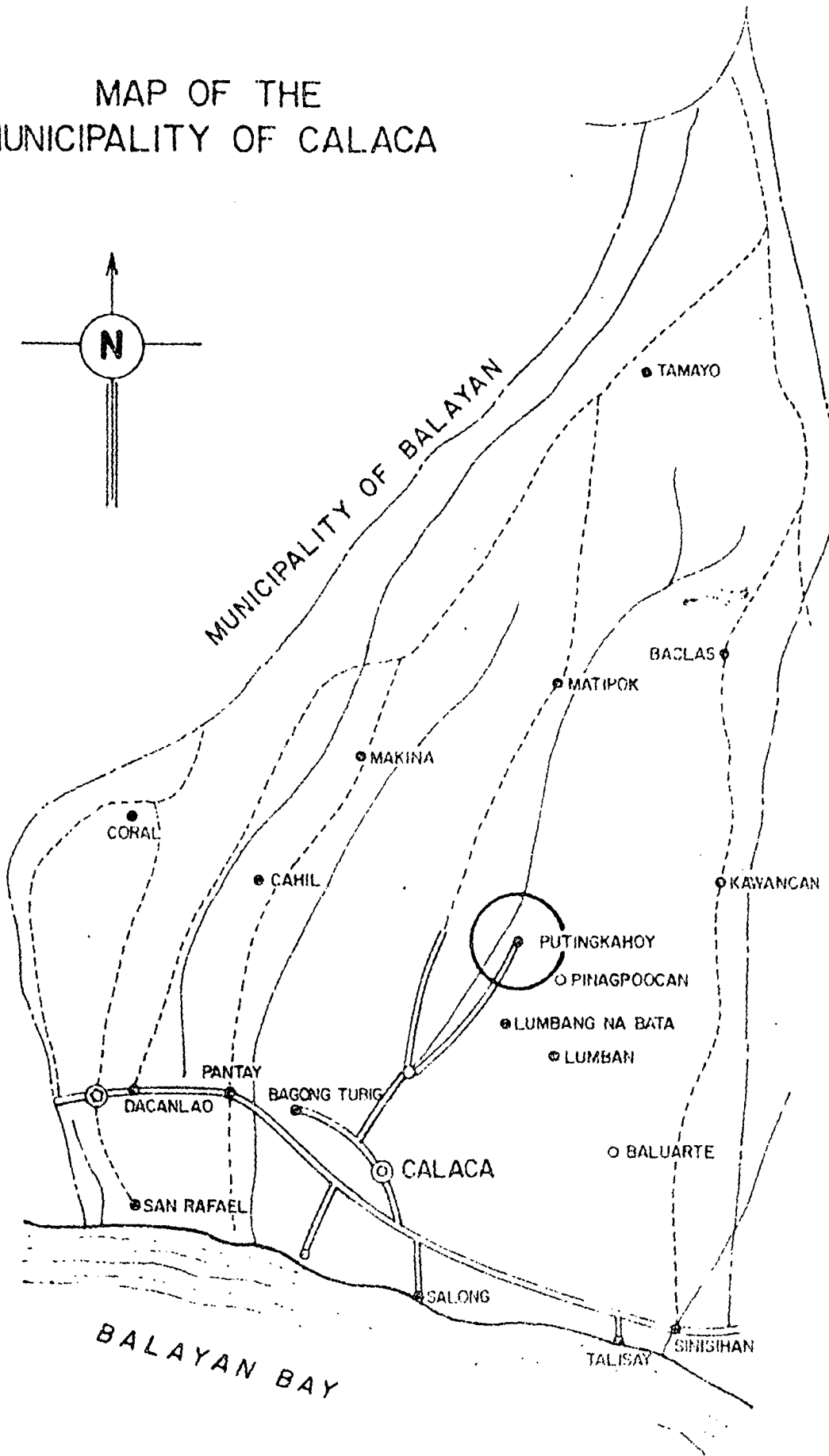
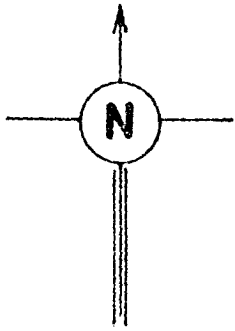
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Map of the Municipality of Calaca



MUNICIPALITY OF NASUGBO

MAP OF THE MUNICIPALITY OF CALACA





MUNICIPALITY OF BALAYAN
PROVINCE OF BATANGAS

LEGEND:

1ST CLASS ROAD (ASPHALT) NATIONAL ~~_____~~

3RD CLASS ROAD (LOOSE SURFACE) ---

MUNICIPAL BOUNDARY —00—

POBLACION

BARRIO

