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**Towards a Generalist Approach
in Social Work Practice**

**Rethinking
Community Development**

**Globalization and the
Feminization of Migration**

**Conceptual Framework
for Developing Impact Indicators
for Agricultural Programs**

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FOREWORD

The present publication is primarily designed to help social development practitioners and students to get a broad view of issues and concerns in Community Development, Social Work and Women and Development. Prof. Mendoza's article, *Generalist Approach in Social Work Practice*, points to a departure from the traditional separate methods of social work practice into Social Casework, Social Groupwork and Community Organization to a generalist approach as influenced by the social systems theory. Regardless of setting, the generalist approach uses the framework of a common generic base in social work values and knowledge to enable social workers to be responsive to the needs and problems of people in developmental context.

Professor Luna's article *Rethinking Community Development* traces the changing concept of community development from its use as a counter-insurgency measure with minimum participation of the people in the implementation of programs to its current goals of people's welfare, capability-building and participation. Corresponding to the goals are the interrelated fields in community development comprising of community education, community organization and community resource management.

Globalization and the Feminization of Migration by Dr. Rosalinda Pineda -Ofreneo highlights the increase in the number of Filipino migrants of various categories with the growing feminization of migration in vulnerable occupations as domestic helpers and entertainers. The complex phenomenon of globalization affecting most of the world needs to be understood to explain why there is no immediate end foreseen in the migration of Filipino women who are subject to the complex interaction of the "pull and push factors" exacerbated by this process.

In the *Conceptual Framework for Developing Impact Indicators for Agricultural Programs*, Prof. Barrameda, *et. al.* contend that while agrarian reform is a core component to address the equity issue in rural poverty alleviation strategies, it is necessary that land redistribution be complemented with support programs to assist the farmers "to form cooperatives and gain access to agricultural credit, inputs and market." Basically agricultural programs need to be people-oriented, but it is for the beneficiaries themselves to judge their effectiveness in bringing about change in their lives.

It is our hope that the collection of wide-ranging articles in this publication will arouse the interest of professionals and students in these areas of concern in social development. We wish to encourage the readers to reflect on the issues and raise questions to refine our tools for a better understanding of the concepts of social development and how we can use these effectively in our work with people.

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Dean, CSWCD

Towards a Generalist Approach in Social Work Practice

Thelma Lee - Mendoza

Abstract

Social work practice in Asia has followed the Western model which means the use of the traditional separate methods of social casework, social group work, and community organization. This model, however, has been overtaken by newer ways of viewing social work practice. A major source of influence is social systems theory. In addition, in the case of developing countries, the United Nations' call for a more development-oriented social welfare that is not bound by traditional ways of helping people has led to efforts to improve the content of social work education particularly in the social work practice area. The pursuit of a "generalist approach" in practice is one such effort.

This paper presents a framework for a "generalist approach" in social work. The author contends that a common generic base in social work values and knowledge can and should be taught to social work students.

She presents an outline of what she thinks should comprise this value base and knowledge base that is essential if a "generalist" practitioner is to work with client systems of all "sizes."

(**Keywords:** social work; traditional methods; casework; groupwork; community organization; systems theory; holistic approach; values base; knowledge base).

Social work as a profession is concerned with the enhancement of the individual's social functioning. Social functioning is the result of person-situation interaction, *i.e.*, the interaction between the individual's coping abilities and the demand of his/her situation or environment. This is achieved through what have been established as the three functions of social work:¹

1. to assist individuals and groups to identify and resolve or minimize problems arising out of disequilibrium between themselves and the environment (remedial or curative function);
2. to identify potential areas of disequilibrium between individuals or groups and the environment in order to prevent the occurrence of disequilibrium (preventive function); and
3. to seek out, identify, and strengthen the maximum potential in individuals, groups, and communities (developmental function).

These three functions are interrelated. In actual practice, many social workers, regardless of field or setting that employs them, usually perform all of these functions.

In some instance, the practice of social work *vis-a-vis* the three functions mentioned calls for work with individuals in a one-to-one relationship; in some instances, for work with a family and other small groups, and in some instances, with larger groups and collectivities such as organizations and communities. Such social work practice is called social casework, social groupwork, and community organization, respectively. In Western countries in Europe and in the United

States, these three traditional methods are practiced separately, which means that a social work practitioner chooses one of these three methods as his/her area of "specialization" and engages in the practice of only that method. A review of the definition of each of these methods will make for a better appreciation of the subject of this paper.

Casework is defined as "a personal service provided by qualified workers for individuals who require skilled assistance in resolving some material, emotional, or character problem. It is a disciplined activity which requires a full appreciation of the needs of the client in his family and community setting. The caseworker asks to perform this service on the basis of mutual trust and in such ways as will strengthen the client's own capacities to deal with his problems to achieve a better adjustment with the environment."² Social groupwork is a method "through which individuals in groups in social agency settings are helped by a worker who guides their interaction in program activities so that they may relate themselves to others and experience growth opportunities in accordance with their needs and capacities to the end of the individual, group, and community development."³ Community organization is "a process by which a community identifies its needs or objectives, orders (or ranks) them, develops the confidence and will to work at them, finds the resources (internal and/or external) to deal with them, takes action in respect to them, and in so doing extends and develops cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community."⁴

This Western model of social work practice that has different practitioners engaged in doing the three methods has been followed in many Asian countries and continue to be used, almost unquestioningly in some places, even as new ways of viewing social work practice have emerged in the last two decades. The fact is, predictions or expectations related to these traditional methods go back to many decades past.

As early as 1942, Bertha Reynolds could discern "a generic social work that is basic to all forms in which it appears today and that

is not sharply divisible even into the categories of casework, group work, and community organization."⁵ In 1955, Arlien Johnson stated that "the objectives, principles of operation, and ways of working with people are found to have generic content and to be adaptable to many situations and settings.... It may be that eventually the present specializations and designations of methods will disappear in favor of a social work method in which new forms of specialization will emerge that will be based on a broader foundation than any of the methods that has developed to date."⁶ In 1965, Katherine A. Kendall expressed the same idea. In that year's Annual Program Meeting of the Council of Social Work Education, she predicted that by the late 1960s, the familiar curriculum tracts of casework, groupwork, and community organization would begin to disappear. In her effort to fathom the future, she said, "the old curriculum policy of 1962 had worn well and was gracefully retired by 1970."⁷

These predictions seem to have come true. Although there is appreciation for the contributions of these original methods that have served as pillars for practice, the call is for social workers to accept and encourage the emergence of new, relevant methods for contemporary practice at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.⁸

There is today a strong movement away from the practice of separate social work methods. In many schools, social work practice is no longer taught as separate methods of casework, group work and community organization but as "micro practice" where students learn how to work with individuals and groups, and "macro practice" where they learn about how to do community organization and social planning. In the field of practice, there are now more "social workers" and less "caseworkers," "group workers" and "CO workers," just as agencies are now more identified as "social work agencies" than as "casework agencies," etc. In the social work literature, different terminologies are used, *i.e.*, "integrated practice," "integrated methods," "unitary approach," "generalist approach," and "general method," but the objective is the same - to move away from the traditional separate methods of practice.⁹

All these efforts stem from the common view that most social problems involve different social systems, and that one cannot and should not deal with one system in isolation from other systems. This "holistic" approach to social work practice is based mainly on social systems theory. In social systems theory, all social units - individuals, groups, organizations, and communities are conceived as systems. Each system has an internal organization consisting of subsystems and is related to other systems in its environment (our notion of the individual as a "bio-psychological being" reflects a systems perspective about the individual). Systems theory provides social work with a tool for analyzing and organizing data about clients, and offers many options for intervention. The use of a systems model as a conceptual model for practice allows social workers to focus their attention on the person-situation/environment interrelatedness.¹⁰

Besides the influence of social systems theory, the trend towards a more "holistic" approach in social work practice in Asian countries, particularly the underdeveloped ones, was spurred by the United Nation's declaration of the "social development decade" first in 1960, then in 1970, which brought about an assessment of many of these countries' social welfare goals and programs. In the field of social work, there followed an examination of the relevance of social work education and practice to the realities confronting the majority of people who are the users of social work agency services. Starting in the late sixties, there was already an expressed need to teach and practice social work that is not "methods bound" (*i.e.*, based on the traditional separate methods of casework, group work and community organization).¹¹ This means that the social worker is not in a "straight jacket," confined to work only with one type of client, and, limited to the procedures and techniques of his/her method of "expertise." Rather he/she will work with an individual, a group or a community (which, in the new thinking is not necessarily a "geographic" community but any large collectivity of people such as a hospital ward or a tenement housing area) is necessary, and will use any one of these as a point of entry for helping. One of the major criticisms against the traditional methods is that a practitioner approaches all client problem situations on the basis only of his/her method of specialization.

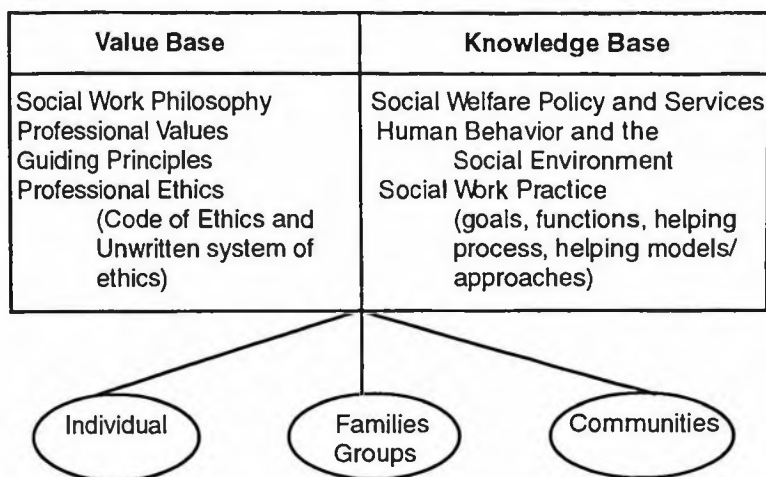
I have been advocating an "integrated method of social work practice" in the Philippines since the late sixties. The first paper I wrote related to the subject, "Social Work Models of Intervention in the Philippine Setting" was an initial effort to develop a set of interventive models that can be applied to all types of client systems.¹² My premise was that there are "models" of helping clients regardless of size, each requiring certain knowledge and skills from the social worker and that if the latter is competent in the use of these intervention models, he/she will be able to work with any client system. The response to this paper, written in 1968, was rather lukewarm. Most of our social work educators were not ready for such a way of viewing practice. Indeed, old habits die hard.

Today, with the wide acceptance of systems theory which emphasizes interaction and interdependence, and following many workshops and papers written on the need to rethink and modify the teaching of social work practice, the picture is changing. The need to teach a "generalist approach" instead of the traditional separate methods of social casework, social group work and community organization is generally accepted in the Philippines although the how of doing this has not been agreed upon. Additionally, the term "generalist approach" seems to be more acceptable than "integrated method of social work practice," which was what I initially used,¹³ apparently because the word "method" is reserved for the three traditional methods. I have no objection to the more popular term, but hope that before long we in social work will have no more need to qualify our method or approach as "generalist," "integrated" or "unitary" because we know we have a common method of helping people.¹⁴

I shall now present a framework for social work practice which has served me well in my teaching since my interest in the "integrated method of social work practice" started in the late 1960s. This framework contains what I think should be the values and knowledge base/foundation for every "generalist" social work practitioner. It can therefore be used as a guide in developing a generalist-oriented undergraduate social work curriculum, in both a developed (e.g., Japan, Singapore) and underdeveloped or developing country (e.g., Philip-

piners, Sri Lanka). It is my belief that adequate grounding in these values and knowledge foundation will sufficiently prepare students for gaining competence in social work with a client system regardless of size. For lack of space I shall describe this framework only briefly.

Framework for Generalist Social Work Practice



Value base

It is doubtful that we can really teach attitudes, and yet we are convinced about the great need for future social work practitioners to have the "right" attitudes or feelings about people and their problems, about their rights as well as responsibilities in society about the goals of development, about professional relationships, etc. What I believe we should emphasize, therefore, is the teaching of our professional philosophy and values, using whenever appropriate, instructional methods that can impart content in more meaningful ways. We hope, or perhaps, we should expect, that as a result, students who already have the kind of attitudes essential for practice will get reinforcement in their attitudes, or derive additional inspiration and challenge. For others, we hope that the effective teaching of philosophy and values will mean change or modification of their attitudes.

Among the most important ideas/concepts that should be included in the teaching of social work's philosophical base are the following:

1. The philosophy of social work rests on the belief in the inherent worth and dignity of the human being, from which belief emanate the practice principles we adhere to, *i.e.*, acceptance of people as they are; individualization of clients; participation of the client in the helping process; self-determination as a right of the client; confidentiality; non-judgmental attitude; and worker self-awareness.
2. The ultimate value of social work rests on the conviction that it is good and desirable for people to fulfill their potentials, to realize themselves, and to balance this with equal effort to help others do the same, which is a value not unique to social work but held by a democratic society.¹⁵
3. There are values held in common by the entire profession and they constitute a minimum commitment for the social worker.¹⁶
 - a. Each person has the right to self-fulfillment, deriving her or his inherent capacity and thrust toward that goal.
 - b. Each person has the obligation, as a member of society, to seek ways of self-fulfillment that contribute to the common good.
 - c. Society has the obligation to facilitate the self-fulfillment of the individual and the right to enrichment through the contribution of its individual members.
 - d. Each person requires for the harmonious development of her or his powers socially provided and socially safeguarded opportunities

for satisfying her or his basic needs in the physical, psychological, economic, cultural, aesthetic and spiritual realms.

- e. As society becomes more complex and interdependent, increasingly specialized social organization is required to facilitate the individual's effort at self-realization.
- f. To permit both self-realization and contribution to society by the individual, social organization must make available socially provided devices for needs satisfaction as wide in range, variety and quality as the general welfare allows.

I think the teaching of social work ethics should form part of the philosophical base of social work practice. Social work ethics would cover such areas as relationships with clients, with professional colleagues and the profession itself, and one's agency. A country's professional Code of Ethics for social workers would of course be the major instrument for teaching ethics, but the unwritten rules of conduct and duties of a social worker should be given as much attention in social work education.

Knowledge Base

The knowledge base of social work encompasses the concepts and theories, skills and attitudes necessary for effective, efficient practice. Broadly speaking, therefore, the knowledge base of social work includes its value base or foundation which has been presented. However, I am now using the term "knowledge base" to mean the body of theory which social workers apply in their practice and which come from different sources: (1) knowledge generated and tested in the basic disciplines (psychology, sociology, etc.) which are learned in "General Education" courses and later reinforced through appropriate additional courses (sometimes called "elective" and "cognates") when the student is already taking professional social work

courses; (2) knowledge from other professions (like law, medicine and public administration); and (3) knowledge from the profession itself.

Three areas denote substantive knowledge in social work and undergraduate courses in social work are organized along these three areas: Social Welfare Policy and Services, Human Behavior and the Social Environment, and Social Work Practice. (A fourth area, Field Instruction, focuses on the student's application and integration of what has been learned in these three areas).

The following is an outline of the content of the knowledge base of social work:

1. Social Welfare Policy and Services

The key word for this area is "social welfare," and the objective is to help students acquire a knowledge of the general policies, conditions, laws, institutions, programs, and a broad range of services which are relevant to social welfare in present day society. Students are expected to learn the nature of social work functions and contributions in relation to social welfare problems and corresponding programs and services.

Theme: Society responds to a variety of human needs and problems through the institution of social welfare.

Area Content: (1) Needs, problems and social provision; (2) Goals/motivations for social welfare; (3) Social welfare and administration and research as a base for sound planning; (4) Fields of social welfare, policies, programs and services; (5) Social work in social welfare.

II. Human Behavior and the Social Environment

This knowledge area focuses on knowledge about the person as a biopsychosocial being, the interaction between him/her and the

physical, social, cultural, political and economic forces in the environment which affect or influence him/her and his/her behavior.

Theme: The person is a biopsychosocial being; internal and external forces influence his/her behavior and condition.

Area Content: (1) Concepts of social functioning, social reality, social change, disequilibrium, (2) *Selected behavioral/social science theories:* psychoanalytic and ego psychology; systems theory, role theory, communication theory, small group theory, culture theory, learning theory, and organization theory.

III. Social Work Practice

This area is primarily concerned with helping the students learn and apply the methods and skills for professional social work practice - the "what to do and how to do it" aspects. The term "Social Work Practice" is preferable to "Social Work Methods" (what this knowledge area used to be called) which means casework, group work, and community organization.

Theme: Social work is a problem-solving activity that takes place within a meaningful client-worker relationship.

Area Content: (1) The social work profession: its goals and functions (including a review of its historical development, bringing the students to where it is today; the priorities in the light of a given country's situation); (2) The value base of social work (although the teaching of professional philosophy and values described earlier should be built into all the curricular areas, its teaching should be given emphasis in the Practice Area since it is a major aspect of generic work practice): philosophy and principles, values, professional ethics and standards; (3) The Problem-solving Method: the knowledge and skills involved in the problem-solving steps/processes, *i.e.*, Assessment, Goal and Action-Planning, Intervention, Evaluation and Termination; and (4) Helping Models/Approaches applicable to (a) all types of client systems (*e.g.*, the crisis-centered approach; the problem-solving approach); (b) individuals and small groups (*e.g.*, the task-

centered approach); (c) small groups (e.g., the developmental approach, the mediating approach); and (d) communities (e.g., the community development model; the social action model).

The foregoing is not an exhaustive presentation of the attitudes, knowledge and skills base for a generalist approach to social work practice. It is also not a proposal for a pattern for undergraduate social work education for any region or country. My purpose is to make all of us who are engaged in social work education realize that a reorientation and reordering of the traditional way of teaching social work practice (i.e., through the separate methods of casework, group work and community organization) can be done. We should do it if we want our students to practice social work in a way that is relevant and responsive to the needs and problems of the people they are working with.

NOTES

1. Commission on Social Work Practice, National Association of Social Workers (1958). "Working Definition of Social Work Practice." *Social Work* 3(4), pp. 5-8.
2. Report of the Working Party on Social Workers in the Local Authority Health and Welfare Services (London: HMSO, 1958), pp. 182-183.
3. Harleigh B. Trecker, **Social Group Work Principles and Practice** (New York: Association Press, 1955), p. 39.
4. Murray Ross, Community Organization: **Theory, Principles and Practice** (New York: Harper and Row, 1967), p.39.
5. Bertha Reynolds, **Learning and Teaching in the Practice of Social Work** (New York: Rinehart and Co., 1942), p.5.
6. Arlien Johnson, "Development of Basic Methods of Social Work Practice and Education," *Social Work Journal*, 36, July, 1955, p.109.
7. Katherine A. Kendall, "To Fathom the Future," *Journal of Education for Social Work*, Vol. 3, 1, 1967, p.2.

8. Maria O'Neil McMahon, **The General Method of Social Work Practice: A Problem-Solving Approach** (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1990).

9. To appreciate this ongoing effort in developing a more relevant methodology for social work practice, refer to the following:

- Helen Northen, "An Integrated Practice Sequence in Social Work Education," paper presented at the 16th Annual Program Meeting of the Council for Social Work Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota, January 24, 1968.

- Lola Selby, "Steps and Process Toward Change in the Teaching of Methods: One School's Experiment," paper presented at the Annual Program Meeting of the Council for Social Work Education, Denver, Colorado, January, 1965.

- Philippine School of Social Work and UN ESCAP, Proceedings of the Seminar-Workshop on "Integrated Methods in Social Work and Social Work Education," Manila, Philippines, June 3-28, 1974.

- Howard Goldstein, **Social Work Practice: A Unitary Approach**. (University of South Carolina Press, 1973).

- Thelma Lee-Mendoza, "The Integrated Method of Social Work Practice," in **Philippine Encyclopedia of Social Work**, 1977, pp. 178-187.

- Louise C. Johnson, **Social Work Practice: A Generalist Approach**. Massachusetts: (Allyn & Bacon, 1989).

- Maria O'Neil McMahon, **The Generalist Method of Social Work Practice: A Problem-Solving Approach** (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1990).

10. The context for the use of a system model for practice is the job "assignment" of social workers for which they are able to be held accountable, *i.e.*, the enhancement of the social functioning of individuals. Social functioning is the result of the people's coping and environmental demands and social workers' helping relationships with people are focused on problems of social functioning.

11. See Social Welfare Board and SWA-UNICEF-Assisted Social Services Project. **Report of the First National Workshop on Social Work Education** (Tagaytay City, Philippines, 1967) p. 16. Refer also to the International Association of Schools

of Social Work (IASSW). **Report of the International Congress of School of Social Work** (Manila, Philippines, 1970).

12. See Social Welfare Board and SWA-UNICEF - Assisted Social Services Project. **Report of the Second National Workshop on Social Work Education** (Silang, Cavite, Philippines, 1968).

13. See Thelma Lee-Mendoza "Integrated Method of Social Work Practice," in **Philippine Encyclopedia of Social Work**. Department of Social Services and Development and the Philippine Association of Social Workers, 1978. (pp. 178-186).

14. It is significant that the need to move away from the traditional separate social work methods has been clearly and continuously expressed in the social work literature of the country (*i.e.*, United States) from which these methods originated. For example, consider the following statements: (1) "... the present conceptualization of social work methods seems to be gravely misleading ... both social work education and practice have been confused and disturbed by an inappropriate methodological framework ... this appears to have retarded concentration on the characteristics of many of the problem areas confronted by social work methods, and has slowed or even prevented the conscious acquisition of a whole set of potentially useful, but thus far unused (in a systematic sense) techniques." (see Herbert Bisno, "A Theoretical Framework for Teaching Social Work Methods and Skills, With Particular Reference to Undergraduate Social Welfare Education," in **Journal of Education for Social Work**, Vol. V, No. 1 (Fall, 1969), pp.5-17); (2) "The small voluntary agency finds that it cannot afford a variety of specialists, and the large public agency has learned that to be effective it cannot separate individual and family improvement from societal change. For those who seek the world in holistic terms, the generalist has come to represent a promising solution." (See Maria O'Neil MacMahon, **The General Method of Social Work Practice: A Problem-Solving Approach**. Prentice Hall, Inc., 1990 (p. 329).

15. See "Working Definition of Social Work Practice," in **Social Work**, National Association of Social Workers (USA). April, 1958.

16. See Werner V. Boehm, "Objectives of the Social Work Curriculum of the Future," in **Curriculum Study**, Vol. 1, New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959. (pp. 43-44).

Rethinking Community Development

Emmanuel M. Luna

A Reason for Reflection

Retracing one's roots or origin could be disturbing and fear-some especially if the past left some marks that continue to create odd influence to the present. But one just has to face realities and learn from the past to be able to move on. Going through a "review of development work" in the Philippines points to some uncomfortable but acceptable "assessment" of how community development has been practiced. In the past, community development was viewed primarily as an instrument of the government bureaucracy in exercising control and in soliciting support from the people. The following accounts at-test to this:

- a. "Community development was originally conceived by the European colonial powers ... to involve the rural and urban communities in programs of the national government ... in support of the government objectives."

- b. "In the 1950s, several private organizations came to prominence by espousing the 'community development' approach Under neo-colonial conditions, the approach was modified to suit the objectives of the national government: facilitate control of depressed or remote areas; persuade the masses to conform to government policies and goals; and institutionalize a system of patronage anchored to the government bureaucracy."
- c. As practiced by government organizations and the Magsaysay government, "community development was used as a counter-insurgency measure ... and emphasized the involvement of target groups only in the implementation stage of the program/project primarily through contribution of labor."
- d. In the late 1960s and the early 1970s, a modified community development approach was practiced by private organizations that were formed based on NGO initiatives. They stressed entrepreneurship as a basic element "that would emancipate the poor from conditions of poverty" (NCPD 1988).

One of the institutions that was historically linked to community development in the Philippines includes the Presidential Assistance on Community Development (PACD) established in 1956 "to organize the barrios throughout the country and coordinate the delivery of basic services from government and private organizations.... The principal sources of PACD funding were the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and USAID" (NCPD 1988). In 1972, the PACD was abolished and the Department of Local Government and Community Development (DLGCD) was established. The community development function was transferred to the Ministry of Human Settlements in 1980, which was later on abolished after Marcos was overthrown in 1986.

With the popularity of community development in the 1960s, a Department of Community Development was established when the UP Institute of Social Work and Community Development was created in 1967. Community development, then, became the youngest academic program among the applied social sciences.

After almost three decades of having community development as an applied field of study, it is imperative to reflect and to draw some insights on how community development practice has been for the past years. How did CD promote changes in the lives of the people and the communities? How did the practice contribute in the development of concepts in community development? While it is recognized that there should be a praxis: actions guided by theories and theories enhanced by practice, there seems to be an imbalance on this. The rich experiences in community development require a synthesis. As University professor and sociologist, Dr. Delia T. Castillo noted, applied fields of study such as community development, social work, social development and community organization "are relatively young and their identities need continuing validation" (Castillo, 1994:22).

One of the recurring questions concerning community development is its relation or distinction with community organizing. In the 1950s, the term "community development" was defined as "a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and the fullest possible reliance upon the community's initiative" (UNBSA 1955:6). Both CD and CO, or the "combined form 'community organization and development' (COD) refer to similar concepts of progress through local action" (Ibid).

Community development is also equated to locality development and is considered as one of the three types of CO, together with social action and social planning. Until today there are different perspectives on this. Others say that CO is the same as CD. Others think that CO is the process and CD is the goal. There are also notions that CO is more political and CD more socio-economic and physical. It is still possible that there could be those who think that, and practice CD as a counter-insurgency measure.

Some Initial Thoughts: Concepts and Processes

What then is community development? This brief paper does not attempt to provide a comprehensive reflection on community development, but merely expresses one's initial thoughts. The following concepts and processes are not meant to synthesize nor provide a sole answer to the question. Rather, these concepts are put forward to stimulate further reflections and exchanges among CD practitioners and the academe towards a better appreciation, understanding and redefinition of community development. Or at least, to create an issue for discussion.

Community development is an applied social science concerned with the study and practice of people's collective action in ensuring the wholistic and corporate well-being of the people. This concept entails the following elements:

an applied social science - Community development is rooted to the basic social sciences in initiating social change for the betterment of the people in the community. As a science, it employs the scientific processes in problem solving, from the analysis of the situation, problem identification, planning, implementation and evaluation of the processes employed and their outcome.

a study and a practice - It is concerned with both the enhancement of the theory and the improvement of the practice. Community development praxis entails the reflection-action-reflection process.

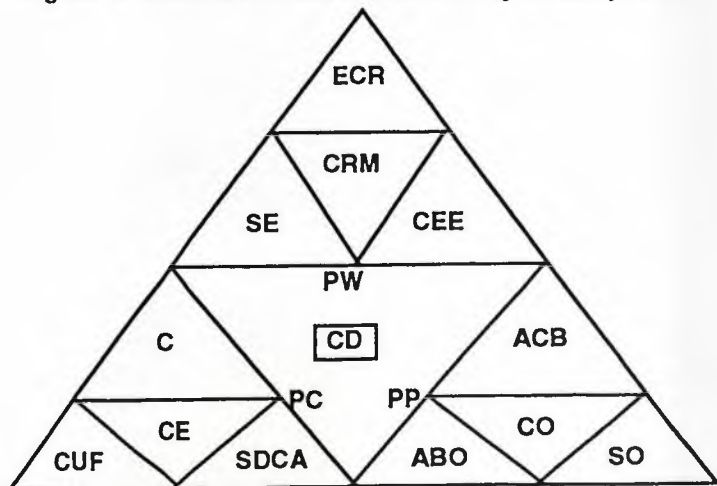
of people's collective action - The initiative and the involvement of the community people in the various phases of problem solving and reflection-action-reflection is the basic element of community development.

wholistic and corporate well-being of the people - Community development is concerned with the socio-economic-political, cultural spiritual and physical well-being of the people; not only of an individual person, but for the corporate welfare of the community.

Unlike the traditional concept and understanding of community development which have been considered obsolete (TWSC, 1990: 5), the current concept and practice of community development presupposes the heterogeneity and stratification in the communities and in the larger society. Poverty is a result of inequality and unjust relationships. The collective action of the people is necessary to transform the oppressive situations, the practices and the relationships prevailing in the communities. Goals such as structural changes in society are not end by themselves but should redound to the object of development — the people and their well-being.

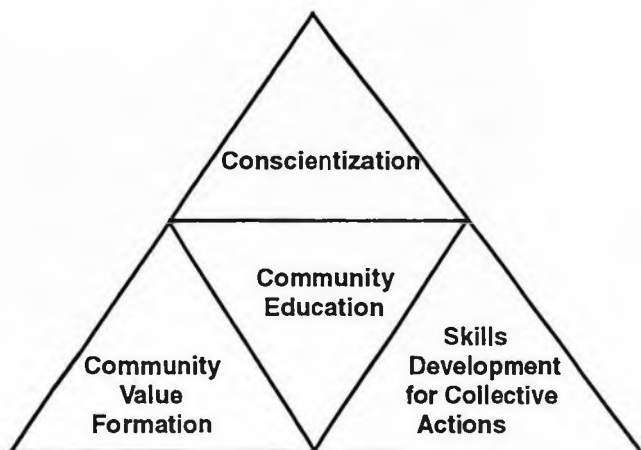
As such, community development has three main goals that are people-oriented. These are the enhancement of people's welfare, people's capability and people's participation. Corollary, there are three interrelated fields of community development that correspond to the goals, namely:

Figure 1. Goals and Areas of Community Development



* Triangle Paradigm modified from Elmer M. Ferrer . *Learning and Working Together: Towards a Community-Based Coastal Resources Management*. Quezon City: REDO, CSWCD, UP, 1992.

Community Education - Developing the capability of the people entails the formation of community values such as cooperativism, collective concern, a sense of nationalism, and similar concerns. It involves the enhancement of the people's skills necessary for them to act and respond to their situation. Most importantly community education includes conscientization which is "earning to perceive social, political and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality" (Freire 1970).



Community Organization - Enhancing people's participation in community development can only be done effectively if the people are organized. They can be organized into different forms: area-based mass organizations, sectoral organizations and networks, alliances and coalitions. These organizations are the people's instruments in expressing their will and effecting changes in their communities.



Community Resource Management - Ensuring the people's welfare is possible if the community resources are properly managed. The management of the community resources includes the establishment of social enterprises that will provide the basic social services such as housing, education, health, recreation, transportation, etc. Community economic enterprises are needed to transform the existing economic practices and to enable the people to have alternative sources of income. Similarly, environmental protection and rehabilitation are imperative to ensure a wholesome, livable, sustainable and ecologically-balanced habitat.



Figure 1 shows the interrelatedness of these three major fields of community development. They are mutually supportive and builds upon each other's accomplishments. In each of these fields — community education, community organizing and community resource management employ the scientific problem processes. (Table1)

Table 1. Community Development Processes

PROBLEM-SOLVING PROCESS	COMMUNITY ORGANIZING	COMMUNITY EDUCATION	COMMUNITY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
Assessment of the Situation and Problem Identification	Community Integration Community Diagnosis Social Analysis Identification of Leaders	Training Needs Analysis	Community Diagnosis Resource Inventory and Analysis
Planning and Implementation	Organization Building Community Mobilization Networking and Alliance Building	Training Design Development Curriculum Development Course Implementation Experiential - on-the-job Learning Processes	Resource Use Planning Project Development Resource Utilization, Replenishment or Rehabilitation
Evaluation	CO Evaluation	Training Evaluation	Project Evaluation Environmental Monitoring and Evaluation

Table 2. Different Approaches in Working With Communities

APPROACHES	FOCUS OF THE APPROACHES			DESCRIPTION/OUTCOME
	EDUCATION	ORGANIZING	RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	
Dole-out Service delivery and Top-Down Development Planning	Acceptance of the program	Aims to facilitate program implementation	Management by outsider and/or for the benefit of the people outside the community	Traditional and dole-out approach in the provision and utilization of community resources without involving the people, leading to dependency, economism and destruction of the people's culture and environment. <i>Example:</i> Provisions of western medicines and feeding programs to upland communities; construction of dam in communities of indigenous people.
Traditional Organizing	Acceptance of charismatic personalities	Political party or civic organizations supportive of charismatic leaders	Usually not engaged in community resource management	Produces community organizations that are individualistic and not responsive to the overall needs of the people in the community; the organizations merely serve the interests of the outside organizers. <i>Example:</i> POs organized by traditional politicians for electoral support or by community elites for their social functions.

APPROACHES	FOCUS OF THE APPROACHES	DESCRIPTION/OUTCOME
	EDUCATION ORGANIZING RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	

Traditional Informational Campaigns	Acceptance of charismatic leaders and programs	Not interested in organizing CRM	Informational and politically oriented campaigns among the people by traditional politicians and the bureaucracy without any organizational or material benefits accruing to the people. The main purpose is to popularize personalities or a program and draw support from the people. <i>Examples:</i> Training program to promote Bagong Lipunan (Marcos time) or Philipines 2000.
Entrepreneur Development	Skills development for the economic development of the members	Group formation to manage the enterprise	Management based on capitalistic mode - from the production, marketing and distribution of benefits. A traditional approach of organizing the people merely for resource utilization and management without clear political vision of where the organizing would lead to. <i>Example:</i> Community livelihood projects organized by or co-opted by private enterprises to do sub-contracted works.
Community Extension	Technology Transfer	Formation of groups to participate and implement the program	Externally driven; management dependent on the outside Introduction of new system of utilizing community resources through education and training; Community education can eventually motivate people to organize. <i>Example:</i> Appropriate technology programs among "kaingeros."

APPROACHES		FOCUS OF THE APPROACHES		DESCRIPTION/OUTCOME
		EDUCATION	ORGANIZING	RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
Solid Mass Organizing	Social Analysis and Conscientization	Mass organization for political actions	Regards CRM as palliative	<p>Produces highly conscientized and organized people's organizations but lacks interest and capability in undertaking socio-economic or environmental endeavors.</p> <p><i>Example:</i> Political organizing done by cause-oriented groups during the Martial Law period.</p>
Community Development	Social Analysis	People's organization	Integrated management of social services, economic enterprises and environmental programs.	<p>Integrates the education, organization and resource management concerns of the community. The outcome is a conscientized and organized PO involved in various community affairs, including both the political concerns and the management of their resources.</p>
	Community values Skills development Conscientization	People's organization for socio-economic and political change and for the management of community resources		

To distinguish community development approach to other approaches involving the communities, one has to look at the goals, processes and principles of the approach. At present, there are a lot of development initiatives taking place in and for the communities. While they may be engaged in one or all of the fields of community development, the basic premises and processes are not in consonance with CD. The outcome of these approaches are usually not favorable to the people. Table 2 shows some of these approaches, together with the community development approach to provide some contrasts.

While the specific methods and techniques of current community development practice are continually being developed and improved, these innovations have to be anchored to the basic principles to enhance growth. An acronym SEEDLING is used to describe these processes.

S - sustainable

E - empowering

E - efficient and effective

D - democratic and participative

L - localized and equitably distributed benefits

I - inter-intra linked

N - non-threatening to people's culture

G - gender sensitive

Conclusion

The concepts and processes of community development described in this brief reflection veer away from the traditional views of Community Development. It also negates the idea of community development as a mere "social preparatory phase" necessary to facilitate the implementation of development programs coming from above. The extensive Philippine experiences in community organizing, community education, community resource management and community development in general are very valuable resources Filipino practitioners have in their hands. Similarly, conceptual frameworks and paradigms that synthesize experiences or guide the practice are equally important. A continuing dialogue to thresh out issues and refinements in community development is necessary for equipping as the challenges of the new century comes closer to our doorstep.

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Globalization and the Feminization of Migration

Rosalinda Pineda-Ofreneo

The latest data on Philippine migration highlight a number of trends which can be linked, directly or indirectly, to what is already considered an inescapable given — the megatrend called globalization.

One trend is the increase in the number of Filipino migrants in absolute terms, which is consistent with the global phenomenon of "international labor circulation" in tandem with the accelerated pace in the internationalization of production and other economic activities. In fact, the Philippines is now considered "the world's largest labour exporters."

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(The Economist, 1996:7). There are six million Filipino migrants all over the world, categorized as "documented contract workers" (2.45 million), "emigrants" (1.76 million), and "the undocumented" (1.79 million). (Filipino Women Migrants—A Statistical Factbook, 1996:1). The last category highlights the vulnerability of a large group of migrants, because to be "undocumented" in a foreign land is to be without rights, to be open to persecution and abuse. Yet, they leave just the same, for reasons connected with the impact of globalization on the Philippines, Asia, and elsewhere in the world.

Another trend is the increasing feminization of migration, and the deployment of Filipino women migrants in vulnerable occupations mainly within the service sector as domestic helpers and entertainers. In 1993, 54.9 percent of deployed overseas contract workers (OCWs) were women. The percentage of females climbed up to 60 percent in 1994. (Filipino Women—Issues and Trends, 1995:31). More than half the women in recent years (1992 and 1993) were young (20-29 years old), unmarried, and college-educated. (Filipino Women Migrants, 1996:3-5). What this means is that the globalizing trend in the world labor market is built on many givens, including the gender division of labor, as indicated by the niches occupied by specific categories of migrating people.

In terms of destination, women comprised the bulk of migrants to Asia (Japan, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Malaysia, and Singapore) and some countries in the Middle East (UAE, Qatar and Bahrain). (Filipino Women—Issues and Trends, 1995: 31). Even in Europe and the Americas, there were fewer deployed women workers compared to other regions but they were still in the majority vis-a-vis men. Although concentrated in a number of countries, Filipino women migrants can now be found all over the world. (Medel-Anonuevo, 1996:4). These trends underscore the increasing mobility of "international labor circulants," seeking opportunity wherever they may find it, but still tending to congregate in certain areas where local and regional developments within the broader ambit of globalization favor their presence.

Remittances of migrant workers increased fourfold in the last decade, and are now estimated at \$4.7 billion. (The Economist, 1996:7). Just to give a concrete idea of how much is sent home by the women particularly, an entertainer remitted P17,266 every six months on the average in 1993; a domestic helper, P9,885. Minimum wages for domestic workers ranged from US\$150 to US\$1000 a month; that for an entertainer was US\$1,500 for six months. (Filipino Women Migrants, 1996:11-12). These figures underscore the "pull factors" associated with overseas migration, as labor moves from low-wage to high-wage countries within the region and all over the world in conjunction with the megatrend.

Globalization as a Complex Phenomenon

But what exactly is this megatrend called globalization?

It is a multi-faceted process which seems to be engulfing much of the world, the Philippines included, at an ever accelerating pace. Although its motive force is primarily economic, it also penetrates the realms of politics, culture, environment, and other areas of human concern. It needs to be understood, and understood well, if its impact on migrants, especially on women, is to be assessed and addressed.

In its narrow sense, globalization refers to the increasing internationalization of production towards a closer integration of the world economy and the eventual creation of a borderless one. This is "reflective of increasing economic liberalization and falling tariff barriers, modern communications, freer flow of capital and technology integrated financial markets and corporate strategies of multinational companies that operate on the premise of a homogeneous world market." (ILO, 1996:1). Globalization has accelerated on the crest of fast-paced technological changes which have transformed the world economy:

...The last two decades have witnessed a technological revolution in microelectronics, computer science, telecommunications and biotechnology which have had profound impact on the world production system. Global

information networks have made it possible for different processes in the production chain to be linked worldwide and thus cut down transaction costs. This has made possible increasing decentralization of operations and subcontracting across national borders leading to a considerable dispersion of the production process. The widespread access of information technology has also increased competitive pressures and forced competitors to innovate continuously to maintain or increase their share of the market. (ILO,1996:2).

These developments have led to the evolution of the New International Division of Labor (NIDL). Under this framework, the role of less developed countries is to supply the advanced industrial countries with cheap labor not only for the low-technology and labor-intensive industries they have been phasing out at home and relocating, through overseas investments, in the labor-surplus underdeveloped countries. This cheap labor also takes the form of "international labor circulants" (Standing,1985:34) needed by home industry and service sector lines offering low-paying, labor-intensive, dirty, hazardous, low-technology and generally unattractive jobs. The "international labor circulants" are not permanent migrant workers, but highly mobile ones who can work in one country for a few months or years, repatriate themselves, and then work again in the same country or some other country where labor is scarce and wages are high.

The number of international migrants has approached staggering levels in contemporary times, reaching at least 125 million at the latest count. (World Bank, 1995:65). The migratory flows, however, are not simply from the underdeveloped South and East to the industrialized North and West. A large number of migrants are also moving from South to South, underscoring economic differentiation which has seen some Southern states evolve into Newly Industrializing Countries (NICs) and others plodding behind as aspiring NICs, or worse, as basket cases. Regional divisions of labor have also emerged, "tethered in different ways to global structures, each one engaged in unequal transactions with world centres of production and finance and distinctive development possibilities." These "sub-global

hierarchies" have their own "poles of economic growth, managerial and technological centres, and security systems." (Mittelman, 1995:279). One example is the "flying geese" formation in the Asia-Pacific region. In this formation, Japan leads the pack followed by the "four little tigers" (South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, and Hong Kong), and the emerging Newly Industrializing Countries (Thailand, Malaysia, and Indonesia). The Philippines, which is near the lower end of the geese formation, would get a preponderance of investments on labor-intensive, low-technology, and energy-consuming types of corporate undertakings.

International migration also needs to be looked at not in terms of unrestrained mobility for migrant workers that easy access to travel facilities seems to suggest, but more in terms of the restrictions they face which often render them vulnerable to abuse. Restrictive immigration policies and unrealistic quotas for regular workers in Japan, in the NICs, and in many countries in Europe, "have created a large gap for needed workforce in vital areas of the economy that clandestine migration and illegal trafficking continues to fill up." (de Dios, 1994:12). Migrants do not enjoy the same rights and privileges as workers in their host countries, which can be considered a form of discrimination and racism. They are not covered by labor laws and are constrained by many conditions and restrictions. The undocumented are most at risk because they are easy prey to unscrupulous employers, traffickers and other criminal elements.

International migration within the changing global and regional divisions of labor also needs to be looked at from a gender perspective, given the trend towards the feminization of migration at least in the Philippine case. The existing gender division of labor is crucial in explaining why women occupy low-skilled, low-paying, and low-status jobs in a segregated labor market. They are disadvantaged in relation not only to workers in their host countries but also to men in both the receiving and sending countries. For example, the increasing demand for Filipina domestic helpers in Singapore, Malaysia, and Hongkong, is a function of better employment opportunities for the women in these countries, given the high rates of economic growth. (Anonuevo, 1996:9). But still, reproductive work which involves taking

care of the home is considered a strictly feminine occupation, which has to be passed on to other women of lower station. It is the same story in the Philippine setting, where the domestic sphere is reserved mainly for women who are obliged to serve men and other family members in their capacities as wives, mothers, or daughters.

Globalization as a political process reduces the role of the nation state "through privatization and deregulation measures covering foreign exchange, financial and capital markets." (ILO, 1996:1). Its ability to decide the direction of development through macro-economic policies is increasingly being eroded. For a lot of countries located in the South which experienced colonization, globalization worsens inequalities between nations. In the words of the South Commission:

A network of relationships has been built up among private entities — banks, investment houses, trans-national companies—in the leading developed countries. This has served to strengthen the influence of decisions made by private bodies on world economic activity and to that extent to limit the effectiveness of governmental policy decisions. For the South, the result is even further marginalization and greater powerlessness. (South Commission, 1990:5).

Increasing concentration of power at the apex of the world trade and financial system without public accountability is accompanied by contradictory political trends. There is a tendency towards more democracy at least in the formal sense, as evidenced by the collapse of the Stalinist regimes in Eastern Europe, more openness despite continuing control in the remaining socialist states, and the emergence of many countries from long years of dictatorship. Militarization, however, is not yet a thing of the past, as competing countries have not ceased to arm themselves more heavily, and as weapons of mass destruction continue to exist, to be tested, and to proliferate. At the same time, the notion of a dynamic civil society interacting with if not opposing the state has captured the imagination of many groups of people. Social movements, old and new, are inventing and reinventing themselves, and are building global bridges in the name of peace,

ecology, feminism, and other causes through international fora as well as the the Internet and other elements of the information highway But not all movements have a progressive and constructive agenda. Some are driven by ethnocentrism and religious fundamentalism, which are themselves reactions to the erosion of the secular nation state.

Globalization has also penetrated the sphere of culture and ideology. Cultural influences from the North "are transmitted through the media —whose impact has been intensified by the spread of television, through the advertising of consumer products associated with affluent lifestyles, through education patterned on Northern models and through tourism." (South Commission,1990:6-7). The process of cultural homogenization is ongoing, with ever more sophisticated, computerized channels. This has certainly affected consumer tastes as seen in the large demand for products with world-class brand names, or at least their imitations. The consumerist mindset has been adopted most obviously by a lot of migrants who spend much of their money on the status symbols of the moment. The desire for more and more material goods is also a factor in the drive to work abroad. The colonial mentality still lingers in the minds of many women and makes them imagine life in the industrialized North as the best it can ever be. This is also responsible for their readiness to marry foreign men in the continuing bride trade. In the Philippine case, 91.3 percent of 94,926 Filipino who got engaged or married to foreigners in the period 1989-94 were women. They are found mostly in the United States (41.5 percent), Japan (31.5 percent) and Australia (9.6 percent). Despite the ban on the mail-order bride business imposed by Republic Act No. 6955 in 1990, about one to two thousand Filipinas still go through it to find foreign husbands. (Filipino Women Migrants,1996:20).

The effects on the environment of maldevelopment associated with globalization have been an increasing cause for international concern. One is global warming or the "greenhouse effect" of too much carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. This results from the burning of fossil fuels and the alarming rate of deforestation, which leaves less and less trees to absorb the gas. The progressive loss of forests has resulted in disastrous floods, erosion and siltation. Silt deposits in turn suffocate coral reefs, the habitat and food source of fish. World-

wide deforestation has also been accompanied by the disappearance of many species of plants and animals that could have been used to improve crop varieties, to make medicines and industrial chemicals. Another danger comes from the depletion of the ozone layer as a result of the release of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) into the air. Desertification in the millions of hectares per year is another alarming trend. Air pollutants kill plants and lakes, and cause acid rain. Increased use of chemical fertilizers ruins and acidifies the soil, decreases its productivity, and makes it more prone to erosion. Gaseous and solid wastes from industries have become a serious threat. Still another source of danger is nuclear waste, which up to now has not been safely disposed and is more often than not dumped into Southern territory.

Globalizing the Philippine Economy

The Philippine economy has been progressively globalized since the lifting of exchange controls in the mid-1960s, and the shift towards export orientation laid down under martial law in the 1970s. In exchange for new loans which are extended partly to cover old debts, multilateral institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and various consultative groups of creditor banks and countries (mainly the Group of Seven), have been able to influence governments like that of the Philippines to implement policies favorable to them. These policies are known collectively as structural adjustment programs. Implemented since the 1980s, they have deepened and broadened globalization through trade and investment liberalization, cutbacks on government spending and subsidies, deregulation or removal of government interventions and price controls, privatization, and efforts to increase foreign-exchange earnings, in particular through the further expansion of exports. These are accompanied by unpopular "stabilization" measures such as new taxes, higher public utility rates, wage freezes, and credit squeezes. The underlying principle of all these policies is for the debtor country to spend less and earn more (in foreign exchange) so that it can pay what it owes. The overall objective is to transform the economy into an outward-looking one, and to open it up more widely to foreign investments, products, and technology.

SAPs favor transnational creditors in particular and transnational business in general in a number of ways. Deregulation and import liberalization leave domestic markets wide open for penetration and inundation by foreign products at the expense of locally produced ones. These go on while protection to local industry and agriculture is reduced through the phaseout of tariff protection, credit and other subsidies on one hand, and the fuller application of the brunt of taxation on local producers, on the other. Privatization drives government out of the scene, leaving the field to global concerns which are in the best position to take over even the most lucrative public corporations. Devaluation and wage freezes make domestic labor even cheaper than before, and render transnational exports more competitive in the global market.

But SAPs have always been unkind to women, who suffer most from the cutbacks in social services, and the high prices of basic commodities and public utilities. They are forced to make do with meager salaries as teachers, nurses, and other public sector employees. They are laid off when government corporations are privatized, or when local companies shut down due to stiff foreign competition. They are shunted to the informal sector, where they lack social protection and are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse by employers and orderers in search of the cheapest labor for maximum competitiveness in the local and more importantly, in the global market. Because of structural unemployment and underemployment that can be attributed to SAPs, as well as the low remuneration from jobs within the country, more and more women are migrating in search of foreign exchange to sustain their families. Many have fallen victim to prostitution and trafficking controlled by an increasingly transnationalized sex industry.

SAPs proceeding to the debt have harmed not only women but also the environment. Debtor countries like the Philippines have been forced to overuse their resource base and export their minerals, logs, and other forms of natural wealth to earn precious dollars for debt repayment. This has had negative consequences especially for women who are dependent on natural resources for their families' food, energy, water, and health needs.

The changes being instituted under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)-World Trade Organization (WTO) are essentially a continuation of the SAPs, and constitute a higher stage of globalization through an all out opening up of the economy. These mean more import liberalization (allowing the entry of agricultural products such as rice, corn, vegetables, livestock, and poultry to the detriment of local producers), and more export orientation (emphasizing asparagus, cutflowers, etc. at the expense of the people's food security as more land is devoted to producing things they cannot eat). These mean more insecurity for those employed in industries such as garments which are expected to lose in the global marketplace, given cheaper items from neighboring countries such as China and Vietnam, where the cost of labor is only one-third the Philippine level. These mean easier entry of foreign investors, and even of foreign workers with the liberalization of trade-related services such as banking, insurance, advertising, mass media, tourism, data processing, and accountancy. These also mean more thorough control by the North of advanced knowledge and technology through the guaranteeing of intellectual property rights.

Globalization and Migration: Tying Up the Push and Pull Factors

Although the foregoing discussions have already touched in some ways on the connections between globalization and migration, it is best to elaborate further on the "supply-side push forces" and the "demand-side pull factors" and how these interrelate in the light of international trends.

What are pushing Filipinos, particularly women, out of the country?

Clearly, the globalization of the Philippine economy pursued in the last two and a half decades under the aegis of the IMF, World Bank and other foreign financial and economic interests has failed to sustain the agro-industrial development of the country and meet the basic needs of the people, forcing many of them to seek greener pastures abroad.

The total external debt was estimated at \$40.8 billion in the first quarter of 1996, while domestic debt was reckoned at P633 billion. In the period 1988 to 1995, the national government allotted \$12.7 billion for foreign debt service and P550 billion (\$22 billion) for domestic payments. (Freedom from Debt Coalition, 6th National Congress papers, April, 1996). Ironically, the people shoulder much of the debt burden through the dollars they remit from overseas employment, into which they have been forced by debt-connected structural unemployment and underemployment. These remittances, sent through the formal banking system, amounted to US \$4.7 billion in 1995. But the real figure could easily reach \$6 billion if dollars sent home through other means are considered in the estimate. (The Economist, 1996:7). Actual debt service from 1986-91 averaged 52.8 percent of the national budget. Today, about a third of the budget is allocated for this, severely constraining government's ability to provide for economic development, basic utilities, social services, and structural reforms, much less to win the war against poverty which the Ramos administration declared as its priority as soon as it assumed power

Obviously, continuing poverty is one big factor pushing Filipino women out. According to the **Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995-2025**, "the underlying motivation is poverty alleviation" on the part of Filipinas who emigrate as overseas contract workers or as fiancées and wives. In 1991, 55 percent of the population were officially classified as poor. Later, this estimate decreased to 41 percent, mainly because the government eliminated expenditures on recreation, personal care, cigarettes and spirits from the basket of goods used in measuring the minimum family requirements and in establishing the poverty line. Contrary data, however, were released by the Social Weather Station (SWS) which used the self-rated approach in estimating poverty. Respondents who said they were not poor went down from an already low 19 percent in 1992 to a dismal nine percent in 1994. (Ofreneo, 1995:14).

Despite the growth in GNP in 1993-94, unemployment and underemployment rates remained pegged at 9.3-9.5 percent, and 21.4-21.7 percent, respectively, compared to 9.8 percent and 20.5 percent in 1992. (Ofreneo, 1995:12). This means that jobs did not grow com-

mensurately, perhaps because investments were being channeled to speculative activities and enclave undertakings. Huge numbers of unemployed and underemployed can only mean that a large chunk of the population remain poor and comprise an abundant supply of potential migrants. Deployment of overseas contract workers has therefore served as a primary employment strategy for government, and the export of labor, which started as a "temporary measure" during the Marcos administration, has not only become a permanent one but also the country's leading export industry. Migration for employment has been increasingly supervised, monitored, or coordinated by the state: "passports have to be secured, contracts have to be authenticated and approved by the corresponding government agencies, the proper documents have to be presented to customs and immigration officials for travel clearance as well as duties and tax exemptions, etc." (Tigno, 1990).

Poverty can also be inferred from the continuing expansion of the informal sector or the underground economy which according to a 1992 unpublished study of the DOLE, accounted for 51 percent of the employed labor force in 1991. This indicates that the unemployed, underemployed, minimum wage earners and the harassed middle class have sought "informal" ways and means of augmenting limited or falling incomes. Majority of those in this unprotected and unregulated sector are women — home-based workers, vendors, micro-entrepreneurs, seasonal farm labor, domestic helpers, laundrywomen, beauticians, etc.

The general weakness of the economy can be seen in the increasing number of workers, most of them women, who are casually employed. Subcontracting of jobs to small shops and homebased workers (estimated to number between six to seven million) is now an established pattern in industries making garments, toys, shoes, leatherware, and furniture, especially those oriented to the export market. With no overhead costs, no workers' benefits or social security contributions, foreign principals at the top of the subcontracting ladder rake in huge profits. The degree of exploitation is indicated in the fact that a village woman who sews and embroiders a baby dress

is paid the equivalent of 20 US cents while the same baby dress is sold abroad for 15 US dollars.

Women's participation in the labor force, although increasing from 33 percent in 1973 to 47 percent in 1994, was still way below the 80 percent recorded for men. (Filipino Women — Issues and Trends, 1995:22). This means that more than half were still not considered economically active. This half is too large to ignore just because they are classified as housewives who are by NSO definition "non-working". Thus, when women in the labor force are actually counted, they comprise only 37 percent of the total. And when employment and underemployment are considered, women are still generally at a disadvantage compared to men. These can only mean that more women than men in the labor force are in need of jobs at any point in time; and if the housewives are considered as part of the labor force and not existing outside of it, the ranks of the unemployed within the labor force will surely swell.

Gender segregation still exists in the labor market, with women filling up occupations which are generally less valued and therefore less paid. They are still considered secondary and supplemental earners which justifies their getting a fraction of what the primary and male breadwinners receive. Women's earnings comprised 40 percent of men's earnings in 1988, and 47 percent in 1992. (Filipino Women — Issues and Trends, 1995:29). The wage gap is more pronounced in top executive and managerial positions, as well as in agriculture, production-related work, and services.

Women who cannot find remunerative work are often driven to sell their sexual services. Most of these women are young and come from depressed rural areas where jobs are scarce, or are former agricultural, factory or domestic workers in desperate need of more cash. According to a recent study, prostitution in the Philippines is now a full-blown industry, which may be employing directly between 300,000 to about half a million "hospitality" women, not to mention the male and child prostitutes as well as "entertainers" working abroad. Although the sex industry has a large predominantly male local clientele cutting across classes, its growth must also be linked to the increasing em-

phasis on tourism as part of the overall maldevelopment strategy designed to earn ever more dollars for the country. Consequently, Philippine tourism became part of a global industry "a multi-billion dollar network of airlines, hotel chains, credit card companies, advertising agencies, travel agencies, restaurant and entertainment chains [which] serve the consumer societies of North America, Western Europe, Japan and Australasia." (Shoemith, 1980). The multinational hold became quite evident in the management of local hotels by transnational hotel chains, as well as the connection of these hotels with international airlines and travel agencies. With the advent of the "package-deal" sex tours, the integration went further down, as bars and clubs to which tourists are taken, many of which also have foreign capital, get their share of a thriving global business built on the sale of women's sexual services.

It may be recalled in this connection that migration of Filipino women entertainers to Japan grew by leaps and bounds after massive protests staged by religious and women's groups had stopped the sex tours which had allowed hordes of Japanese men to have sex while on tour. Today, Japanese men do not need to go to Manila to enjoy the sexual services of Filipino women. "Cultural entertainers" (meaning hostesses, bar and massage girls and strip tease dancers) from the Philippines are already in Japan to provide entertainment plus. Filipino "mail-order brides" are performing the same functions, plus domestic service, for Japanese farmers in the farflung countryside.

But aside from the economic and political factors behind migration, the cultural and ideological dimensions of the problem cannot be discounted. Already discussed earlier are the materialistic and consumerist tendencies stemming from the aggressive global marketing of brand-name products, which also happen to be what migrants bring home or what their families buy in duty-free shops. Addiction or attraction to such goods can drive migrants to continue exporting themselves and non-migrants to try and find work abroad. Colonial mentality is also quite evident especially in the mail-order bride phenomenon, as mentioned before. Gender ideology is a decisive element, especially when it comes to family-oriented reasons cited by dutiful

mothers and daughters who leave the country. These cultural and ideological factors acquire added significance in the light of findings that "overseas migrants are largely drawn from the richer regions, and then within these, not from the poorer sections of the population." (ILO/UNDP, 1996:35). Thus, it may not really be stark and grinding poverty which pushes them out of the country but more a desire for greater material advancement.

As regards the "demand-side pull factors" used to explain migration in the light of globalization, certain trends may be highlighted using the case of Japan.

Japan has achieved a steady and sustained success in restructuring its economy towards industries which are capital-, knowledge-, and skills-intensive. It has relocated many of its labor-intensive and low-technology industries to less developed, low-wage countries, mainly in the Asian region. It has also set up production facilities in North America and Europe to skirt trade barriers and to have direct access to the huge markets in these continents.

With the growing sophistication of her industry and with a very low rate of unemployment, Japan has been experiencing labor shortages in certain industry and service sector lines, specifically those employing low technology and intensive forms of labor utilization. Because of such developments, Japan, which has a highly protected labor market, has been forced, gradually and grudgingly to admit more and more foreign workers needed to occupy the labor-intensive and 3-D (demanding, dirty, and dangerous) jobs which cannot be transferred overseas, including those in the domestic entertainment industry and the construction industry. Such workers are attracted by the relatively high wage levels enhanced by the appreciation of the yen vis-a-vis other currencies in recent years. The presence of syndicates, brokers, promoters, operators, and fixers, best exemplified by the Yakuza, who facilitate labor recruitment, is likewise considered a pull factor. Japan's relative geographical proximity also makes it a more convenient destination.

In the case of the NICs of the Asian region, the restructuring of their economies towards higher technology and increased productivity has opened up employment opportunities for local women, leading to the transfer of their domestic burden to migrant women from the Philippines. Some of these countries are also experiencing labor shortages in certain industries which are filled up by a clandestine pool of workers. (De Dios,1994:8).

In Europe, an estimated 85 percent or 400,000 of the 500,000 Filipino migrants are women. In Italy, Spain, Greece and other countries within the continent, even school teachers settle for jobs as chambermaids and hospital cleaners, doing chores often shunned by European workers. There are some 55,000 domestic helpers in Spain, not only because of the relatively higher pay (US \$750-900 a month), but also because of the 300-year colonial relationship the Philippines had with the country. (Anonuevo,1996:12).

Colonial ties also figure in the influx of Filipino nurses into the United States. But the more important reason perhaps is the high monthly salary ranging from US2000-3000 (Anonuevo,1996:11).

But there are factors that go beyond relations between two countries. Trafficking in women for prostitution or for clandestine work as domestics involves an intricate web which stretches across borders and continents. Cases of Filipinas being victimized have been reported not only in Europe but also in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Macao, and Nigeria. (De Dios,1994:7). Marketing of Filipino women as commodities has become more sophisticated, invading even the Internet which is extremely difficult to regulate.

Some Policy Implications

The migration of Filipino women will remain a trend for the next few years, given the complex interaction of push and pull factors in the context of globalization. It will stop only when the Philippine economy has been sufficiently reorganized to serve the needs of its people first, specifically the need for remunerative employment, which can only be fulfilled by solid institutional reforms and accelerated but

sustainable agro-industrial development. In this light, an outright ban would only be counter-productive, hurting the very people it purports to protect. (ILO/UNDP,1996:35). Domestic helpers and entertainers would still leave the country, but this time on an underground basis. Those who exploit and abuse them would no longer be constrained by the thought that their victims could seek official protection. And migrants prevented from leaving would most likely find themselves without decent jobs, given the high rates of unemployment, underemployment, and informalization of the labor market.

Meanwhile, protection of migrants, especially women in vulnerable occupations, is an urgent necessity, but can the state be relied upon to do this, given the weakening of its powers in the light of globalization? Certainly, the Philippine government should improve the efficiency and effectiveness of its pre-departure, on-site, and post-employment programs and services for overseas workers, which, needless to say, should be gender-responsive and culture-sensitive. But then it has to face budgetary limitations connected with SAPs and stabilization programs. Nevertheless, it cannot follow the path of least resistance by heeding the call for SAP-like progressive deregulation, as indicated in the DOLE White Paper of 1995. Instead, it can explore "a strategy of selective interventions" as recommended by the ILO/UNDP, which includes stopping migration to countries with bad records, organizing OCW communities abroad, making the most of remittances, "anticipating external labour demand patterns," and of course, over the long term, "structural reforms and macro-economic reorientation." (ILO/UNDP,1996:36-45).

But there are migration issues and concerns which go beyond the pale of individual nation states. For example,trafficking in women has become an "issue without borders," which "can no longer be solved through piecemeal solutions by a few concerned governments." (De Dios,1994:14).Restrictive immigration policies and unrealistic quotas for regular workers imposed by receiving countries have to be addressed internationally, especially since they lead to the persecution and abuse of illegal or undocumented migrants. Internationally recognized labor and human rights standards, as contained in the UN Migrant Workers' Convention, need to be adhered to by all countries accepting migrant labor, but this is far from the case.

Unfortunately, governments generally respond only to pressures from below, specifically on issues related to workers' rights, violence against women, and the social protection of migrants both as workers and as women. This is where civil society, through non-governmental and people's organizations, can play a crucial role both nationally and internationally, proving that globalization has an under-side which embodies both resistance and critical engagement in the interest of the most vulnerable sections of humanity

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PEOPLE-ORIENTED DEVELOPMENT AND AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMS

Historically, growth-oriented development efforts in poor countries, particularly Asia, have failed to address the issues of unemployment, poverty and malnutrition (UN-ESCAP, 1990). The combined strategies of modernizing agriculture as basis for industrialization and provision of off-farm and non-farm employment in the rural areas are inadequate in terms of improving the conditions of the majority. The poor remain disadvantaged in relation to access to resources and distribution of benefits.

Conceptual Framework for Developing Impact Indicators for Agricultural Programs

Arlen Barrameda
Elmer M. Ferrer
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In a country whose economy is predominantly agrarian like the Philippines, rural poverty alleviation strategies are called for. Often, national development is almost equated with agrarian development. Agrarian reform is in fact a core component of any serious effort which seeks to address the equity issue. Any genuine reform program must not, however, stop at land redistribution, but must include support programs to assist peasants to form cooperatives and gain access to agricultural credit, inputs and markets.

Basic Features

Putzel and Cunningham (1989) outline some of the major outcomes of such an agrarian reform program:

- By increasing the production of food crops, communities can address malnutrition and attain food security
- By increasing peasant incomes and security on land, and by breaking down rural monopolies, agrarian reform could increase agricultural production and expand the market for domestic manufacturing.
- By ensuring that a greater portion of the wealth generated in agricultural production remains within the village, peasant communities can make improvements in housing, education and health services, and stimulate rural construction and service activities.
- By strengthening peasant organizations and building cooperatives, peasants can challenge the vested interests of landowners and agribusiness firms.

Agricultural programs are not confined to productivity and access to agricultural resources. Current development concerns on appropriate technology, ecology and women's programs point to a more complex context for agricultural development.

Gonzales (1985) underscored the value of pro-people and nationalist orientation of the country's science and technology as a necessary element of genuine agrarian reform. The range of needed agricultural technology includes farm management, soil conservation, cropping systems, harvest and post-harvest technology and marketing.

Technology is also significantly linked with sustainable agriculture. The continued depletion of the country's prime resources demands concerted action toward resource conservation and reha-

bilitation. Productivity has to be defined within ecological limits and a concern for sustaining the next generation.

Half of the rural population are women. Thus, development efforts need to be gender-sensitive. This means that the male bias of many agricultural programs must be re-oriented. Part of this is the adequate valuation of the growing contribution of rural women to agriculture. This is the starting point of recognizing the changing roles and opportunities of women as peasants and agricultural workers.

Agricultural development mainly involves improvements in technology, resources and institutions in the short-term perspective. In the long-term, however, agricultural development deals with alternative agrarian systems, restructuring power relations, and building organizational capabilities for management and governance.

Definitely, short-term agricultural programs with limited coverage cannot produce substantial impact on its own. Such programs have to be complemented by other support activities. The nature and the phase with which tasks are achieved is dependent on situational characteristics.

Guiding Principles for People-Oriented Agricultural Programs

The following guiding principles differentiate people-oriented agricultural programs from productivity-oriented programs:

1. Balancing growth and equity

Productivity is usually associated with increased capacity per unit of labor and land. But such results need to be further examined with regard to who eventually benefits from increased farm yields and what distribution mechanisms are institutionalized.

2. Sustainable development

Productivity should not be pursued at the expense of damaging the ecological balance. There should be shared responsibility for providing for adequate resource base for future generations. Sustainable agriculture is not limited for the promotion of environment-friendly technology and farm practices. Community-based resource management provides opportunities for local groups to take initiative for resource conservation and rehabilitation

3. Priority on food production

Agriculture needs to respond to the basic food requirements of the population. The current priority given to export and non-food production has placed the rural economy at the mercy of foreign and urban commodity markets. This, however, does not mean a halt in the production of commercially profitable products intended for outside markets.

4. Strengthening organizational capabilities

The organizing component of many agricultural programs aims to build local capabilities for managing and sustaining farm production results. Conversely, the active participation of peasant groups in agricultural programs tend to contribute to organizational consolidation. The presence of strong peasant organizations has long-term implications for advancing more comprehensive peasant issues even after particular program goals are attained.

5. Promotion of gender-sensitive development programs

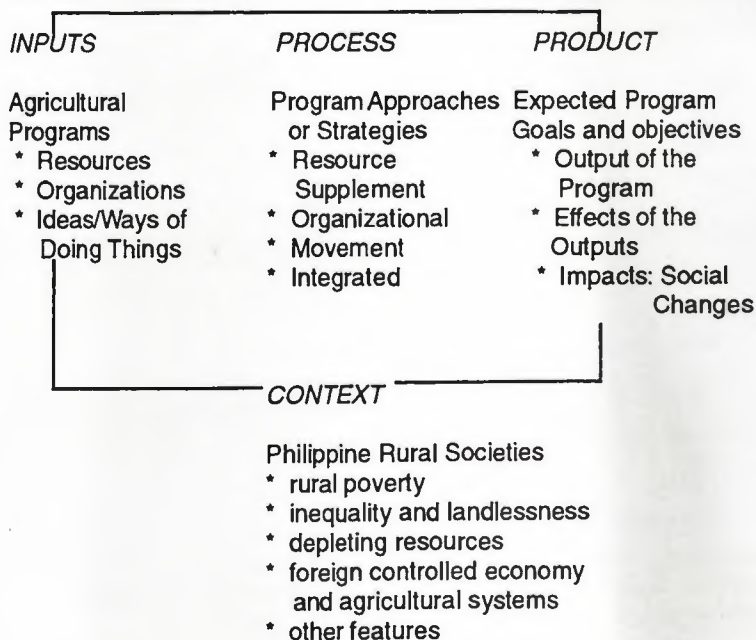
Women should not be merely integrated into the mainstream agricultural program. The basic premises of agricultural production have to be re-examined in the context of the complex role of women as mothers, wives, peasant and community leaders. This assessment has to be translated into concrete programs which seeks to provide equal access to agricultural technology and opportunities for both men and women.

6. Promoting self-determination among cultural communities

The introduction of more appropriate farm practices to cultural communities must be tempered with respect for indigenous culture and knowledge. Expert knowledge need not always be right. Indigenous technology has survived through time because of its continued functional use for particular groups. Technological innovation can be pursued through a process of shared learning and experimentation.

Agricultural Programs as Input to the Social System

Considering society as a system, agricultural programs are introduced to achieve desired social changes or development goals. Using the four system parameters — Inputs, Process, Context and Product, agricultural programs can then be placed within the social context:



INPUTS

Agricultural programs to be meaningful *INPUTS* to society must address the questions of equity and sustainability. To address this, the three basic elements, namely the resources, organization and ideas/ways of doing things must be applied and mobilized to achieve the desired social development goals. (Yogo, 1992) Yogo (1992) defines these elements in the following manner:

Resources - are the primary materials for improving the people's livelihood and production activities. Resources may be generally classified into land, capital/technology and labor.

Organizations - are the mechanisms for mobilizing the resources and in re-organizing them into an appropriate utilization pattern that will meet the needs of people for their daily activities. The organization is also responsible in creating the ideas or norms by which people would acquire, and regulate resources for their production and consumption activities.

Ideas - refer to the manner or ways of doing things as in organizing resources (e.g. labor-intensive, capital intensive); it also refers to traditional ways of generating and/or utilizing technology (e.g. paluwagan, traditional labor arrangements, etc.)

PROCESS

Generally, in assisting people to improve their livelihood and standard of living, agricultural programs employ/mobilize one or more or combination of these elements. Thus, the resource supplement approach provides or supplements the means of livelihood needed by a household or community in order to attain development. For example, a family or a community is provided with capital either in kind or cash to start of an income-generating activity.

In the case of the organizational approach, organizing activities are undertaken to establish, improve and strengthen the mechanism for mobilizing resources. The formation of neighborhood associations, worker's unions, and farmer's organizations are good examples of the approach.

On the other hand, activities toward raising consciousness among the people to enable them to appreciate their resources towards harnessing these to improve their living condition have been referred to as movement approach. Rediscovering and strengthening traditional knowledge and institutions in agriculture are examples of this approach.

A combination of two or more approaches will result in an integrated approach.

How each of these approaches is operationalized using specific methods of delivery systems is one of the concerns that has to be looked into in evaluating agricultural programs. For resource supplement approach for example, one has to see how development agencies deliver the material goods (farming inputs, animals, etc.) to the program beneficiaries/recipients. What mechanisms are installed? If participatory, how participatory?

PRODUCT AND CONTENT

The product of agricultural programs in terms of output, effects and impacts must be responsive to the social context on an immediate and long term basis. It is through relating the products and the social context that one can ascertain the relevance or irrelevance of agricultural programs.

KEY VARIABLES IN IDENTIFYING INDICATORS FOR AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMS

Since indicators should be determined by the nature of the agricultural programs, their objectives and intended effects and impacts, (UN-ACCTFRD, 1984) only the variables that can facilitate the identification of the indicators are presented in this section. Changes in these variables, which can be determined qualitatively and quantitatively, directly or through indicators, will show 1) how the agricultural program resources have been utilized to achieve the desired goals and objectives; and 2) the actual effects and impacts of the program to the people, community or larger societal context.

The following matrix presents a framework for identifying the key indicators in determining the output, effects and impacts of agricultural programs adopting the resource supplement, organizational and ideas/movement approach.

Examples of variables for identifying indicators for agricultural programs

INPUT	PROCESS	OUTPUT	EFFECTS	IMPACT
A. RESOURCES				
1. Land/Natural Resources	• Land acquisition/distribution	• Land acquired by the peasants (including women)	• Income	• Standard of living
• Quantity	- Land occupation		• Production	• Market
• Existing Access/Tenure	- Government land reform		• Socio-psychological aspects	• Employment labor relations
• Physical Quality	- Direct purchase			• Environment Impact
• Existing Land/Resources Used	• Other means			• (Gender relations)
	• Means of access to other resources			
	• Utilization in the production process			

INPUT	PROCESS	PRODUCT		
		OUTPUT	EFFECTS	IMPACT
2. Capital * Amount * Sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Mode of transfer <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - freely given - credit - exchange - other arrangements * Mechanisms <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - individual/family - cooperatives - government banks - private banks - others * Utilization in the production process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Recipients (by strata and gender) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Production * Income 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Usury practice * Standard of living
3. Technology * Quality * Quantity * Sources * Cost	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Mode of transfer * Utilization in the production process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Production * Resources utilized (by women and men) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Income * Labor time allocation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Standard of living * Environment Impact * Social/Labor relations * Gender relations

INPUT		PROCESS	PRODUCT	
			OUTPUT	EFFECTS
				IMPACT
4. Labor				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantity of labor Sources of labor/ means of access 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mode of mobilization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> People (women and men) mobilized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Income
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Individual 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mutual aid teams organized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technology used 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Standard of living
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Farm AA 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social/Labor relations
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mutual aid teams Production coops Participation (of women and men) in the agricultural process 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Resources utilized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender relations
B. ORGANIZATION				
1. Structure				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Membership Types of structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Methods of organizing for agricultural processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Structures organized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social/Labor/ Political relations
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Levels of participation (by men and women) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> People (women and men) mobilized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (ex. ability to challenge landlords and businessmen) Income Gender relations

INPUT		PROCESS	PRODUCT		
			OUTPUT	EFFECTS	IMPACT
2. Leadership		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Methods of selecting leaders (women and men)• Methods of mobilizing leaders for agricultural process	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Leaders mobilized	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Production• Technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Income• Social/Labor/Political relations• Gender relations
C. IDEAS/WAYS OF DOING THINGS					
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• New ideas/norms/values propagated• Indigenous methods/values/norms identified and utilized		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Methods of identifying the ideas/norms/values• Methods of propagation• Extent of propagation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Quantity and quality of capability/value formation mechanisms completed• No. of people (women and men)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Production• Technology• KAS of the people (women and men)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Income• Consciousness• Organization• Gender relations

(Note: Those in parentheses were provided by the editor.)

The identification of impact indicators for agricultural products has to consider the orientation of a people-oriented agricultural program. This means that these indicators depending on the program objectives, must be able to point out:

- the improvements in the people's socio-economic conditions (income, health and nutrition, education, clothing, housing and other social needs) broken down by strata, gender, ethnic group, etc.
- the perception of benefits from the project by the participants to ascertain certain socio-psychological impacts on various groups — women, men leaders, small owner-cultivators, etc.
- the changes in the economy and market for domestic manufacturing that provides greater benefits for the people, both women and men.
- the development in the capability of women and men individually and organizationally in terms of knowledge, attitude and skills which are necessary, not only in agricultural production, but in the total functioning in the community/society
- the levels of participation of the various social grouping in the various activities of agricultural development.
- the appropriateness and sustainability of the technology and the agricultural process as a whole.
- the breakdown of certain oppressive practices in the short-term and the restructuring of the power relations in the long-term, including both socio-economic, political and gender relations.

Furthermore, the role of the people or the beneficiaries in the task of determining which is favorable/beneficial to them cannot be ignored. Ultimately, it is still them who can really say that the agricultural programs implemented were really people-oriented. This poses a challenge to us in the conduct of the exercise in monitoring and evaluating the agricultural programs.

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