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**COMMUNICATING POVERTY:
The Philippine Experience**

**A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of**

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ABSTRACT

Poverty is a major problem in the Philippines. Different policies and programs have been instituted to address it. Each administration designs its own program according to its definition of poverty and this serve as historical footnotes to their administration.

Communication is used as a strategy to generate awareness and secure people's acceptance of poverty policies and programs. However, it has been used as a political tool to enhance an administration's image. More open forms of communication need to be developed to avoid political patronage.

The study examined the poverty alleviation policies and programs of the government and attempted to gain a deeper understanding of how these were implemented. Subsequently, it assessed the role communication plays in the delivery of these programs. The research yielded a wealth of data that links poverty, communication and programs. The study reveals that people's conditions affect their capacity to gather and receive information. In their dire conditions their information needs revolve around their wellbeing, livelihood and security. Likewise, the poor rely on handed-down information and search for other forms of communication such as mass media to confirm the information.

The nature of communication remains top-down despite the democratic setting, as barriers prevent unfavourable information to reach the top. The sifting of information takes place, filtering out failures of programs, which may in turn affect the image of the Presidency or the administration. The free flow of information has yet to truly manifest character. The study identified several strategies to implement this. Interpersonal communication is one of the best methods and tapping the local officials to serve as the conveyor of information, can be maximised.

Several trends regarding poverty as well as communication have surfaced in the last few years. It could be summarised that the poor people's participation in the crafting of programs that affect their lives is an important aspect. It is therefore paramount to establish linkages and open communication lines between them and the government.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Local Government Units¹

Region is a sub-national administrative unit comprising several provinces having more or less homogenous characteristics, such as ethnic origin of inhabitants, language or dialect spoken, agricultural produce, etc.

Province is a political unit of the Philippines. It consists of varying numbers of municipalities and, in some cases, of component cities. Its functions and duties in relation to its component cities and municipalities are generally coordinative and supervisory.

Municipality is a political corporate body which is endowed with the facilities of a municipal corporation, exercised by and through the municipal government in conformity with law. It is a subsidiary of the province which consists of a number of barangays within its territorial boundaries, one of which is the seat of government found at the town proper (poblacion).

Barangay is the smallest political unit into which cities and municipalities in the Philippines are divided. It is the basic unit of the Philippine political system. It consists of less than 1,000 inhabitants residing within the territorial limit of a city or municipality and administered by a set of elected officials, headed by a barangay chairman/captain (punong barangay).

Seven regular Sangguniang (Council) Barangay members or *kagawad* (councilmen) are also elected at large. The council is also made up of the Sangguniang Kabataan (Youth Council). A secretary and a treasurer are appointed by the council to assist them in their affairs. Each of the members of the Sangguniang Barangay chairs different committees as part of their duties and responsibilities and brings to the council the problems of their particular sector. These committees include finance and appropriation, infrastructure and public utilities, peace and order/disaster, health, environment, education, agriculture and youth and sports. The barangay council convenes every last Saturday of the month. The agenda is prepared by the barangay secretary as concerns are brought to the barangay either individually or as formalised groups.

Income Classification of Municipalities²

| Class | Average Annual Income (For the last 3 calendar years) |
|--------|---|
| First | P 35 M or more |
| Second | P 27 M or more but less than P 35 M |
| Third | P 21 M or more but less than P 27 M |
| Fourth | P 13 M or more but less than P 21 M |
| Fifth | P 7 M or more but less than P 13 M |
| Sixth | Below P 7 M |

¹ Terms defined in Ortiz, 2003.

² Based on Department of Finance Department Order No.32-01 effective November 20, 2001, in www.nscb.gov.ph.

Communication Terms³

Change Agent is an individual who influences clients' innovation-decisions in a direction deemed desirable by change agency.

Communication is a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding. An individual can reduce the degree of uncertainty by obtaining information.

Communication Channel is the means by which messages get from one individual to another.

Diffusion is the process which an innovation is communicated through certain channels overtime among the members of the social system. Diffusion is a special type of communication concerned with the spread of messages that are perceived as new ideas.

Innovation is an idea, practice or object perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption.

Poverty Terms⁴

Absolute poverty is the condition of the household below the food threshold level.

Food threshold refers to the minimum cost of food required to satisfy nutritional requirements for economically necessary and socially desirable physical activities.

Income Gap refers to the average income shortfall (expressed in proportion to the poverty line) of families with income below the poverty threshold (1997 Philippine Poverty Statistics, NSCB)

Poverty Gap is the total income shortfall (expressed in proportion to the poverty line) of families with income below the poverty threshold, divided by the total number of families (1997 Philippine Poverty Statistics, NSCB).

Poverty incidence refers to the proportion of families (or population) with per capita income less than the per capita poverty threshold to the total number of families (population).

Poverty threshold refers to the minimum income required to meet the food requirements and other non-food basic needs.

Relative poverty refers to the gap between the rich and the poor.

Severity of Poverty is the total of the squared income shortfall (expressed in proportion to the poverty line) of families with income below the poverty threshold, divided by the total number of families.

³ Terms defined in Rogers, n.d., in <http://mstm.gmu.edu/mstm720/Articles/DifussionOfInnovationsGlossary.html>

⁴ Terms defined by the National Statistical and Coordination Board in <http://www.nscb.gov.ph/glossary/default.asp>

Subsistence incidence refers to the proportion of families (or population) with per capita income less than the per capita food threshold to the total number of families (population).

The *poor* are individuals and families whose income fall below the poverty threshold as defined and/or cannot afford in a sustained manner provide for their minimum basic needs of food, health, education, housing and other essential amenities of life.

Poverty alleviation refers to the reduction of absolute and relative poverty.

Urban poor refers to individuals and families residing in urban centres and urbanising areas who cannot in any sustained manner provide their minimum basic needs and other essential amenities of life.

Poverty Alleviation Program Terms⁵

CIDSS Implementer implements the program, coordinates/links/networks with LGUs, GOs, NGOs, POs and other organisations in the delivery of social services; gives directions to the barangays as to the implementation of the program.

Convergence is the focusing and synchronisation of resources, services and interventions by SRA flagship programs and other agencies/entities on specific target families and communities, using the MBN approach as the strategy for convergence, and providing for multi-level, multi-sectoral and inter-agency coordination and consultation.

Flagship Program refers to projects in Agricultural Development; Fisheries and Aquatic Resource Conservation and Management; Protection of Ancestral domains; Workers Welfare and Protection; Socialised Housing; Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services; Institution Building and Effective Participation and Governance prioritised by the government.

Food for Work is the expansion of Credit and Livelihood projects supported in terms of cooperative spirit (*bayanihan*) which involves the provision of manpower/labour requirements for the construction of infrastructure that is responsive or relevant to unmet MBN and benefits at least 80% of the CIDSS target families in the community.

Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) refers to the needs of a Filipino family pertaining to survival (food and nutrition, health, water and sanitation, clothing); security (shelter, peace and order/public safety, income and livelihood); and, enabling (basic education and functional literacy, participation in community development and family and psychosocial needs).

Measurements of Poverty⁶

Human Development Index combines measures that seek to capture longevity, knowledge and standard of living as components of human development. Each of the three basic components sets a minimum and a maximum for each dimension and then shows where each country stands in relation to these scales.

⁵Terms defined by the CIDSS National Secretariat, 1991 and 2001

⁶ Terms defined by the UNDP in <http://www.undp.org/hdr2002/faq.html#1>

Human Poverty Index measures poverty by indicators of the most basic dimensions of deprivation: short life, lack of basic education, and lack of access to public and private resources.

Gender Empowerment Measure measures gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making.

LIST OF TERMS

| | |
|--------|--|
| ADMU | Ateneo de Manila University |
| APIS | Annual Poverty Indicators Survey |
| AuSAID | Australian Agency for International Development |
| ARCs | Agrarian Reform Communities |
| ARMM | Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao |
| ASEAN | Association of Southeast Asian Nations |
| BCS | Bureau of Communications Services |
| BIAC | Barangay Inter-Agency Development Council |
| 30 | |
| CAR | Cordillera Administrative Region |
| CCRM | Community Communication Resource Mobilisation |
| CIDSS | Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services |
| CORD | Cabinet Officer for Regional Development |
| DBM | Department of Budget and Management |
| DOF | Department of Finance |
| DSWD | Department of Social Welfare and Development |
| EDSA | Epifanio delos Santos Avenue |
| E.O. | Executive Order |
| FACE | Focused Accelerated Convergent and Expanded |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organisation |
| FIES | Family and Income Expenditure Survey |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GNP | Gross National product |
| HDI | Human Development Index |
| HDR | Human Development Report |

| | |
|-----------|--|
| HPI | Human Poverty Index |
| HUDCC | Housing and Urban Development Coordinating Council |
| JBIC | Japan Bank for International Cooperation |
| KALAHI | Kapit Bisig Laban sa Kahirapan |
| KALIMOSKA | Kamog Livelihood Mobilisation of SEA-K Association |
| KERA | Kamog Environmental and Re-greening Association |
| LGC | Local Government Code |
| LIMs | Low Income Municipalities |
| LBP | Land Bank of the Philippines |
| MBN | Minimum Basic Approach |
| MIAC | Municipal Inter-Agency Council |
| MIMAP | Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic and Adjustment Policies |
| M.O. | Memorandum Order |
| MTPDP | Medium Term Philippine Development Plan |
| NAAPA | National Action Agenda for Poverty Alleviation |
| NAPCC | National Anti-Poverty Commission |
| NCR | National Capital Region |
| NEDA | National Economic Development Authority |
| NGOs | Non-Governmental Organisations |
| NSCB | National Statistical and Coordination Board |
| NSO | National Statistics Office |
| OPS | Office of the Press Secretary |
| PAF | Poverty Alleviation Fund |
| PIA | Philippine Information Agency |
| PIAC | Provincial Inter-Agency Council |
| PIDS | Philippine Institute for Development Studies |

| | |
|-------|---|
| POs | People's Organisations |
| PSCC | Productivity and Skills Capability Center |
| POs | People's organisations |
| R.A. | Republic Act |
| RIAC | Regional Inter-Agency Council |
| SEA-K | Self-Employment Assistance <i>Kaunlaran</i> |
| SK | Sangguniang Kabataan |
| SRA | Social Reform Agenda |
| SRC | Social Reform Council |
| SRSC | Social Reform Council Secretariat |
| SWS | Social Weather Station |
| TESDA | Technology Education and Skills Development Authority |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNDP | United National Development Programme |
| WDR | World Development Report |
| WB | World Bank |

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Poverty is one of the major problems in the Philippines. It remains an unfinished aspect of Philippine development. Different policy approaches have been implemented to respond to the problem in the last sixteen years. Poverty may also be defined according to the social policy or action required by a present administration to address it. However, Alcock (1997) suggests that these same policies or actions made to address poverty may have “removed, restructured or even recreated the problem” (p.5).

Similarly, communicating information on poverty alleviation is constructed according to the social reality that has earlier been created or defined. Communication campaigns are so designed depending upon the policies used to get the message across to its intended audience. It has been observed that communicating information on poverty alleviation policies and projects plays an important role in ensuring the success of program implementation. It enhances awareness to and secures positive acceptance and support of planned activities. Development and implementation of communication campaigns are designed in order to effectively meet the people’s needs and expectations.

THE NEED FOR RESEARCH

Communication is posited in this thesis as a vital component in the fight against poverty. It may not be the primary means of reducing poverty but it is recognised as a part of any plan though, as a tool to assist in fulfilling its goals, its role has yet to be defined. It is recognised as a significant part of any government effort, however it is difficult to establish its relevance.

The literature regarding the role of communication in the alleviation of poverty in the Philippines is rare. Researches conducted are on an area or program basis and rarely on the impact of the government’s communication campaign. Remotely related to it are researches conducted to determine the effective usage of different media to convey messages and on the content of messages disseminated. Likewise research gathered has

been individualised and stylised with no consolidation to give a general view of each of the communication components' impact on the over-all poverty alleviation campaign of the government. Examples of previous research conducted include content analysis, medium usage, and readership or listenership surveys. These researches show no direct link to the way it has assisted in alleviating poverty among its target audience. Researches too on the other hand focus on the overall assessment of the poverty alleviation program itself giving very limited view on the impact of the communication to its totality making it a "passing relevance".

Government information officers may have for a long time wrestled with how best to communicate information on poverty alleviation. Information gathered in this research may serve the needs of policy makers to effectively deal with the problem. It can inform government communication planners and local government officials on the best approaches to communicate information catering to the needs of the people who most need the services government offers. With this a more conscientious and focused campaign can be developed to better address the concerns of the poor.

This research examines communication efforts of government in disseminating information on poverty alleviation in the last fifteen years concentrating on the major poverty alleviation strategy of the government, the Comprehensive Integrated Delivery of Social Services. Consequently, it will also explore ways in which information can be meaningfully disseminated and may contribute to the overall goal of the poverty alleviation program.

Consequently, the research will also critique past and present strategies and analyse the relationship between poverty, programs and communication.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research examines and assesses the role of communication and search for some of the best strategies used to disseminate information. It seeks to determine the content level of information specifically the sufficiency, value, usefulness, relevance, importance, frequency, and credibility of government information received by the people in the focused area.

Further, the study will provide a deeper understanding of poverty policies and programs implemented from 1986 to 2002. This is undertaken to determine if the messages developed by the communication program informs people of the poverty situation and if government communicates effectively its efforts to address the problem.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research attempts to answer some vital questions that can describe and illustrate the role of communication in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. As such it is significant to answer the following questions to aid the research.

- How are policies on poverty alleviation being communicated?
- How much information is there on poverty alleviation?
- What kinds of information materials are produced?
- How accurate is the information received by poor?
- How useful is the information received by the poor?"
- How available is this information to the poor?
- What media are used to relay the information?
- What are the best approaches in communicating information on poverty alleviation policies and programs?

Finally the thesis shall be summarised by the question "What is the role of communication in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs in the Philippines?"

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The thesis outlines the policies and describes the poverty alleviation programs of the Philippine government from 1986 to 2002. Likewise it includes the communication strategies employed to implement these programs.

It aims to give an understanding of the poverty programs in the Philippines defined according to the social policy or action instituted to address it in a sectoral or focused area. It also closely examines the Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Basic Services (CIDSS), a sectoral-based poverty alleviation strategy of the government from 1994 to 2000. Similarly, it shall examine the communication efforts made to inform the people of these projects under this flagship program.

The study focuses on Barangay Kamog, a CIDSS program target recipient from 1994 – 2000 in Sablan, Benguet in the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR).

Multiple methods are employed to gather information. These include a review of formal studies and other government evaluation reports and documents used to implement the different poverty alleviation policies and programs. The review of documents also includes an assessment of information materials produced to generate awareness to and secure positive acceptance of the program.

Aside from data collection and review, focused group discussions were conducted among the beneficiaries of the program and the residents of the community. This determined their awareness of and their perceptions of the programs. A survey was conducted when the information gathered in the earlier discussions were insufficient. Interviews were conducted among government information officers in the national, regional and local government units (LGUs). Interviews with the private media, if and when necessary, were also conducted. Discussions were geared towards answering the key questions of the research with the appropriate information materials gathered earlier to communicate information on poverty alleviation. Structured and non-structured questionnaires were also employed.

Observations also form part of the research. Being in the “natural setting” provided a deeper understanding of the people and the area. This employed casual data collection in which photographs of the community and some of the people (upon consent) were taken.

THESIS COMPONENTS

The thesis is an in-depth look into the components of poverty and communication. It illustrates the poverty situation, policies and programs on one hand and on the other the communication setting, mode, strategies and methods in disseminating information. Each component however links itself to one in searching for the ways with which to communicate information to the poor. The messages need to reach the target audience and have to be accurate, reliable, timely, available, useful, relevant, and use the appropriate medium.

Chapter Two is a literature review of the two components. One part of the review tracks down the definition of poverty from the poverty maps of Charles Booth to how the poor perceive themselves. Thus the definition has evolved from those who translate it to those who experience it. With this poverty has unmasked a myriad of faces each showing different indicators sometimes applicable only to a particular culture and lifestyle. It is widely acknowledged that poverty is a problem that needs to be addressed and addressed immediately both on global and local levels. However, the thesis posits that it is the definition of poverty that determines the manner in which it is addressed.

The second part of the review is an account of how communication has been used in development. It summarises different concepts such as development communication, communication for development and participatory communication. The section shall illustrate how these concepts are applied in different regions of the world. It is said that only when people participate in crafting development can it really be meaningful. Communication is seen as a tool and as a vital component to make it happen.

Chapter III introduces the Philippines. The section provides a socio-demographic profile of the country and its people. It also includes poverty statistics from government institutions and different research and private agencies. Studies and official statistics reveal more than 37% of the country's population live in poverty and this has been addressed in the last sixteen years in ways which are not too removed from one another but which have a certain identifying stamp of each administration.

Chapter IV illustrates the country's communication setting, mode, patterns and media infrastructure. It specifically looks into the kinds of information materials and the media in which they are disseminated. The section also provides data on the communication habits and trends of people in the urban and rural areas. It likewise looks into the government media infrastructure and how it is used by the administration to communicate its policies and programs.

Chapter V brings the research to the case study area in Barangay Kamog in the mountain slopes of the Cordillera Region. The region is one of the most beautiful places in the Philippines but poverty is also as real as the cool climate. The section provides demographic data and the recorded observations of the researcher. It also gives a glimpse of the way of life of the people and a picture of the village in words.

Chapter VI deals with the implementation of the Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS), a poverty alleviation program of the government implemented in the barangay from 1994 to 2000. The section translates data culled from interviews, surveys and observations of the “natural setting” of the research.

Chapter VII narrates the findings and discusses these data in full. It presents an analysis of various data gathered and relates it with the literature earlier provided. The discussion merges the poverty alleviation program and how it was communicated to the community.

The thesis deliberates its findings and attempts to recommend certain measures to be able to contribute to the work being done to alleviate people from poverty. It was posited above that definitions of poverty determines the social action required to address it. However the number of poor people will continue to increase unmasking more indicators if these policies fail to target the poor and if government is unable to communicate its policies and programs effectively. Resources are scarce and there are limits to people’s abilities to implement programs. Thus it is necessary to orchestrate and coordinate all components of the poverty alleviation program and it is posited that communication can weave the different strands together.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW: POVERTY CONCEPTS AND COMMUNICATION APPROACHES

This literature review is divided into two parts, poverty and communication. The first part tracks the different definitions of poverty and the various concepts that have evolved to characterise its definition. The second part is on the use of communication as a tool to inform people of social issues.

It has been argued that the policies and strategies used to fight the poverty problem are directed by its definition. Thus the first part tracks the different definitions of poverty as they evolved in the global setting. It includes concepts developed over the years to succinctly describe its condition, nature and characteristics. It then posits that, though there is not one precise definition of poverty, indicators have been added to clearly illustrate the problem.

The second part is the application of communication in the delivery of messages concerning social issues. This part shall initially describe the usage of communication in development and trace its relevance, function and treatment as a part of the process. It describes the evolution of its application providing accounts of its usage in various development projects in different countries. It can be gleaned that over the years several approaches has been developed to meaningfully incorporate communication as an integral part of the development process.

Communicating information on poverty policies and strategies is posited as an effective tool in reducing and finally eradicating poverty. One does not stop when it has provided information on these policies and strategies but that it has to gather information to inform policies. This course then develops an open highway where communication between and among the various stakeholders takes place thus making communication an integral part of the process. However, information has been used in different ways by government and it is the intention of this thesis to illustrate ways in which it need not be politicised.

TRACKING THE DEFINITION OF POVERTY

There is not one correct, precise, scientific definition of poverty. Poverty is characterised and defined in many different ways. History and culture have enriched the word to give it a thousand faces. It is clear, however, that poverty is a problem that needs to be immediately addressed. As such, it is from the definition of poverty that one derives the manner with which to address it.

Over the years poverty has unmasked a myriad of faces. Every time a face is unmasked each is distinct and diverse from the other. This developed because poverty is described from different viewpoints using different indicators and measurement. Studies and surveys on poverty were once translated for those who experience it. In recent years, it involved the interpretation of the poor people themselves. But despite this approach, the problem persisted. Maxwell (1999) suggests, “The complexity of measurement mirrors the complexity of definition, and the complexity increases where participatory methods are used and people define their own indicators of poverty.”

The above statement proves that poverty when described by persons who suffer it brings more revelations. Several indicators then have been added to illustrate and describe it more graphically. Narayan et al. (2000), revealed below five major findings to succinctly illustrate poverty.

First, many factors converge to make poverty a complex, multidimensional phenomenon. Second, as expected, poverty is routinely defined as the lack of what is necessary for material well-being – especially food but also housing, land, and other assets.... Third, poor people’s definitions reveal important psychological aspects of poverty. Poor people are acutely aware of their lack of voice, power, and independence, which subject them to exploitation..... Their inability to fully participate in community life leads to a breakdown of social relations. Fourth, the absence of basic infrastructure – particularly roads, transport, water, and health facilities – emerged as critical.... Finally, poor people focus on assets rather than income and link their lack of physical, human, social, and environmental assets to their vulnerability and exposure to risk (p. 29).

Maxwell (1999) sums up several terms “used to describe poverty” in recent years which include “income or consumption poverty; human (under) development; social exclusion; ill-being; (lack of) capability and functioning; vulnerability; livelihood unsustainability; lack of basic needs; and, relative deprivation.”

But before all these descriptions came about a number of studies over the years were conducted, one of the most notable examples of which started in the nineteenth century. In 1889 Charles Booth investigated why children were out of school and found out that their parents were unable to pay for their school fees (Desai, 2000). His studies provided the “entry point into poverty studies were exclusion and lack of access to the facilities for human capital.” Later Booth presented a detailed map of the East End of London depicting the social condition of the streets by area shading¹ (Shepherd, 2000 in www.mubs.mdx.ac.uk). A group of eight assisted Booth in gathering information among families with children and would at times live with some families for weeks to give credence to their inquiry. In one detailed account, Booth described children of the working class families as “happier provided they have decent parents” (ibid). But Booth’s study still “ended up defining the adequate standard of living in terms of private consumption goods” (Gillie, 1996 in Desai, 2000).

In 1901, Benjamin Seebohm Rowntree took off from the studies earlier conducted on poverty and gave a budget estimate of fifteen shillings weekly for a family of six to “obtain minimum necessities” (Kanbur and Squire, 1999) based on nutritional content of foods and other requirements. Rowntree’s studies of the City of York (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, n.d.) “argued that poverty is a direct result of low wages, contradicting a common view that poor people were responsible for their own situation.” His study included a wealth of statistical data on wages, hours of work, nutritional needs, food consumed, health and housing. Rowntree also differentiated primary from secondary poverty in that he argued that in the former “the family lacked the earnings sufficient to obtain even the minimum necessities, whereas families suffering from secondary poverty, had earnings that were sufficient, but were spending some of that money on other things” (ibid). He added that some purchases were “useful”, others, like spending on alcohol were “wasteful.” A hundred years hence, Rowntree and Booth’s use of a minimum standard of living is still very much employed as a poverty measurement.

Maxwell (1999) noted that the focus of poverty studies in the 1960s was on the level of income so much so that “those who viewed poverty as a lack of income or commodities

¹ Black shade (lowest class), red shade (middle class) and yellow shade (upper middle class to upper class) Shepherd, 2000, in www.mubs.mdx.ac.uk.

naturally turned their attention to the expansion of per capita income – economic growth – as a potential strategy to reduce poverty” (Kanbur and Squire, 1999, p. 7). However subsequent studies proved that even with growth inequality persisted leaving the poor behind. Growth models were developed but they were only appropriate to developed countries because they were based on “wages and profits” (Dagdeviren, et al., 2001). These models did not apply because conditions in the developing countries were very distinct “poverty was widespread and living standards were low” (Desai, 2000). It was also pointed out that the strategy for economic growth was a “sustained program of savings and investment” in which the Pearson Commission’s report confirmed in its publication of *Partners in Development* (WB, 2003). In the report, the Commission made clear that development assistance was needed to propel growth among the developing countries. It stated that “economic growth was feasible” and that “the role of aid has been critical in such areas as savings and imports, and has provided an essential risk-absorber for industrial and agricultural enterprise” (ibid.). Kanbur and Squire (1999) said later studies showed the “strong relationship between growth and the initial distribution of various types of assets” (p. 8). The authors stressed then the identification of “redistributive policies that increase growth and could therefore yield double benefit for the poor” (ibid.). Governments and aid agencies in the 1970s were looking for means to re-distribute resources “without hampering growth” (Dagdeviren, et al., 2001). The authors said that redistribution policies should be explicit as some studies prove that instead of being “poverty-reducing” they are “poverty generating”² as land reform without support mechanisms prove to generate “a class of poverty stricken” small landowners (ibid.).

Robert McNamara in his 1973 address before the World Bank Group of Governors in Nairobi called “for a new commitment to directly address poverty reduction in the quest for development” (McNamara in Rubzen and Hardaker, 2003). For the first time, absolute poverty was recognised in relation to relative poverty. Desai (2000) said the income of the absolute poor was lower than that of those in relative poverty. Jim Wolfensohn in his tribute to McNamara in the Worldbank in 2003 said, “It was Bob who proposed the term ‘absolute poverty’ which he defined ‘as a condition of deprivation that falls below any rational definition of human decency.’ Maxwell (1999) said Townsend “helped redefine poverty” to mean “not just as a failure to meet

² The radical land reform program in Peru proved to be more poverty-generating than poverty reducing (Thiesenhusen 1989 in Dagdeviren, et al., 2001).

minimum nutrition or subsistence levels, but rather as a failure to keep up with the standards prevalent in a given society” (p. 3).

Individuals, families, and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the type of diet, participate in the activities that have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or at least widely encouraged or approved, in the societies to which they belong. Their resources are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are, in effect, excluded from the ordinary living patterns, customs and activities” (Townsend, 1989, p. 31 in Duclos and Gregoire, 1999).

Maxwell (1999) noted that the poverty definition now went beyond the “income-poverty” category to a ‘wider ‘basic needs’ concept “including those provided socially” (p. 3). Food, shelter and clothing, which were considered primary basic needs, have expanded to include lack of access to basic government services such as health, nutrition, infrastructure, education and others. Rural development according to Maxwell (1999) was initiated by policies, which tried to include these services in their approach.

Towards the 1980s growth was still seen “as a vehicle” to address poverty (Dagdeviren, et al., 2001). The Washington Consensus³ outlined ten propositions to Latin American countries intended to propel growth in the centre that would trickle down into the periphery. But by then, poverty studies revealed that “new layers of complexity were added” including non-monetary aspects” (Maxwell, 1999). Kanbur and Squire (1999) said that at this point the “approach treats income as an input to the more fundamental goals” (p. 10). Thus the 1980 World Development Report (WDR) focused on absolute poverty which is “a condition of life so characterised by malnutrition, illiteracy, and disease” (ibid.). The WDR veered away from the usual poverty definition according to Kanbur and Squire (1999) in that income and expenditure were not mentioned. Well-being was now emphasised described by “nutritional status, educational attainment, and health status” (ibid).

Likewise in the 1970s and the 1980s inquiries into intra-household relationships became evident understanding women’s situation and the concept of deprivation. Several more revelations of poverty studies surfaced including the struggles against racism, ethnicity,

³ This was a term coined by John Williamson to refer to advice given by Washington-based institutions to Latin American countries in 1989 (Global Trade Negotiations Homepage, 2003)

and patriarchy to name a few, stating the fact that “well-being involved being treated equally in the social dimension” (Desai, 2000).

Robert Chambers’ work stirred poverty studies to accept the view of “powerlessness and isolation” and brought the term ‘participation’ into the wider arena of the 1980s. Aside from Chambers’ work, Maxwell (1999) noted several more emphases of poverty studies in the 1980s such as understanding vulnerability and security in the light of natural and man-made calamities and economic shocks. It was again reiterated that aside from human capital, the poor also need asset ownership to serve as their safeguards in case of drought, for example.

Bengali Nobel laureate, Amartya Kumar Sen, exposed the notion of capabilities and functionings. According to Sen, this definition of poverty allowed, “us to concentrate not on commodity bundles but on things people can do rather than what they can have” (Desai, 2000). Once a person acquires certain capabilities, this will provide him/her a set of functionings which may measure well-being.

The Brundtland Report in 1987 also contributed to the ever growing concept of poverty proposing sustainable livelihood as a means to end poverty without “undermining the resource base.” These refer to small and internally funded projects using participatory methods aimed at enhancing productivity-generating efforts at the local level, which could ably cope, withstand economic shocks and other natural phenomena.

The SL approach integrates environmental, social and economic issues into a holistic framework for analysis and programming from the beginning. This is especially true in identifying not only the types of assets which people use, but also how existing livelihoods can be strengthened with new and appropriate technologies and corresponding social and economic investments. This results in sustainability being brought into the fold and viewed simultaneously through environmental and socioeconomic lenses (Singh and Wanmali, 1998)

In the 1990 World Bank Development Report, “fundamental freedoms and choice” have been incorporated in the definition of poverty. However, Dagdeviren, H., et al. (2001) said that despite the stress on “human capital at par with ownership of physical assets” the former cannot serve as a “safety net” during economic shocks. Thus poverty studies took both statistical measurements and human development measures to describe the phenomena.

The United Nations foremost millennium development goal is still to measure poverty in terms of “reducing the number of people living on a \$1 a day” (in <http://www.developmentgoals.org/Poverty.htm>). The income perspective had drawn more studies to the poverty line. It is now accepted that the poverty line is designed on a per country basis resulting to studies that would show statistical figures such as the incidence, severity, and gap among others. Poverty lines are described by the Asian Development Bank (ADB) as “monetary cut-off points” established to “separate the poor from the non-poor.” The World Bank defines the poverty line as the “minimum level necessary to meet basic needs which vary in time and place, and each country uses lines which are appropriate to its level of development, societal norms and values” (in <http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/mission/up2.htm>).

This income based definition and measurement of poverty however falls short of describing the misery. The multidimensional approach has since evolved to include “deprivations that keep them from leading the kind of life that everyone” (World Bank Development Report, 2000, p. 1) aspects of poverty.

Social indicators of vulnerability to risks and of socio-political access have now been recognised. The UNDP launched the Human Development Report (HDR) in 1990 aimed at “putting people back at the centre” to assess “people’s long-term wellbeing beyond income.” The HDR developed four new composite indices to capture poverty, namely, the Human Development Index, Gender-related Development Index, Gender Empowerment Measure and the Human Poverty Index. About 120 countries generate their own national human development reports trying to incorporate the four indices.

The UNESCO in its “Statement for Action to Eradicate Poverty.” adopted by the Administrative Committee on Coordination on 20 May 1998, furthers this poverty definition.

A denial of choices and opportunities, as well as a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society.... It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence and it often implies living in marginal and fragile environments, not having access to clean water and sanitation (Press Release, ECOSOC/5759 1998, <http://www.unesco.org/most/acc4pov.htm>).

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) (1999) echoed that the definition of poverty should go beyond its traditional definition which focuses on income levels.

Poverty is a deprivation of essential assets and opportunities to which every human is entitled. Everyone should have access to basic education and primary health services. Poor households have the right to sustain themselves by their labour and be reasonably rewarded, as well as having some protection from external shocks. Beyond income and basic services, individuals and societies are also poor-and tend to remain so-if they are not empowered to participate in making the decisions that shape their lives. Poverty is thus better measured in terms of basic education; health care; nutrition; water and sanitation; as well as income, employment, and wages. Such measures must also serve as a proxy for other important intangibles such as feelings of powerlessness and lack of freedom to participate (http://www.adb.org/Documents/Policies/Poverty_Reduction/challenge.asp)

The World Bank focused its measures in “attacking poverty” on three main areas: “Promoting opportunity, facilitating empowerment, and enhancing security” (WDR, 2000/2001, p. 37).

Since 1993 the world has celebrated the 17th of October as “International Day for the Eradication of Poverty” as mandated by a resolution passed by the UN General Assembly in 1992 to firmly highlight the need to focus on policies to solve the problem. In 1995, the UN proclaimed the First United Nations Decade for the Eradication of Poverty (1997 – 2006) with the theme, “Eradicating poverty is an ethical, social, political and economic imperative of humankind” (<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/poverty/poverty.htm>). The resolution “urges” governments to “seriously pursue the objectives of eradicating poverty” by implementing the call for action of the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and the Programme of Action of the World Summit on Social Development” to undertake among others, to “develop a precise definition and assessment of absolute poverty” (<http://ods-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N96/762/67/PDF/N9676267.pdf?OpenElement>).

These broadened definitions of poverty ensure the total well-being of a person or family and is now being advocated by international institutions and adopted on a per country basis. Talk of a secure future is also encompassed in some of the definitions in that poverty steals away life opportunities and “takes away the tools to build the blocks for the future – your ‘life chances’” (Oppenheim and Harker, 1996, in Alcock, 1997, p. 3).

Chambers, in an interview⁴ (Karki and Chitrakar, 1998), said that measurements of poverty “mean very little.” He added, “I think we need to get away from being dominated by numbers and enable people much more to express their own realities, their own priorities, and try to see ways in which they can be enabled to be better off in their own terms” (in <http://www.panasia.org.sg/nepalnet/socio/robert.htm>).

Maxwell (1999) pointed out that with the incorporation of the “voices of the poor” the “complexity of measurement mirrors the complexity of definition, and the complexity increases where participatory methods are used and people define their own indicators of poverty” (p. 2).

Kanbur and Squire (1999) said, “The way in which poverty is defined drives the strategy for dealing with it” (p. 23).

When the focus was confined to income, the key interaction was between growth in the mean and changes in equality. As the definition expanded to include health status, literacy and so on, the key interaction became that between efforts to increase income and efforts to improve these other dimensions of wellbeing. And when the definition was further expanded to embrace risk, vulnerability, and voice, then safety nets, access to credit, and participation emerged as critical to the poor’s ability to take advantage of risky, poverty-reducing opportunities and to shape economic policy and programs to their benefit” (ibid.).

Poverty is also defined according to the action required to address it. In acknowledging poverty, as a problem a basis for action is prepared or even instituted as agreed upon. Alcock (1997) suggested, “If the way in which poverty is defined depends on the policies proponents are advancing to deal with, then it suggests that in a sense the policy determines the problem” (p. 5). The problem is then dealt with more in a prescriptive than in a descriptive manner. These policies made to address the problem may have “removed, restructured or even recreated the problem” (ibid., p. 5).

The World Bank suggests, “Poverty has to be defined, measured, and studied – and even lived” (In <http://worldbank.org/poverty/mission/up1.htm>.) Therefore there is no sense in simplifying the nature of poverty but agencies and governments should embrace its complex and multidimensional nature. In understanding its indicators there

⁴ Sameer Karki and Rabi Chitakar of NEPAN interviewed Chambers in Kathmandu in October 1998.

is a need to correlate and allow for more aspects to enhance its nature. To understand poverty therefore is to accept the social, cultural and political environment on which it exists and persists. It is also best to understand the social policies that have been instituted to address it.

DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNICATION APPROACHES

Communication is an important factor in the development process. It has been viewed by some as a catalyst for change and by some as a tool or method to achieve development goals. This section will define, describe and explore ways in which communication processes have been used significantly to bring about change in people but it is not sufficient to conclude that communication alone can bring about development *per se*.

The difference between approaches in the task of development can now be seen in two screens: development from above and development from below. Development from above is characterised by the top-down and linear approach very distinct in the economic growth paradigm. The basic concept was that the underdeveloped countries need to “catch up” with the Western world. The underdeveloped countries’ traditional ways are hindering development and the only path to development is to follow the pattern started out by the West. It became a moral obligation to “civilise” these traditional ways and open up new highways for them to “escape from undignified conditions” (Esteva in Sachs, 1992, p. 7). The solution was to provide financial and technological assistance, as economic development is the only way to achieve progress.

Communication models at this time reflected this existing paradigm intended to change behaviour from “backward” to “civilised” and encourage the adoption of Western practices and technology. Laswell’s model, for example, conveniently describes communication as a “who-says what-in which channel-to whom-with what effect” linear model (CCMS, n.d.). McQuail and Windahl (1993) say, “It is not surprising that Laswell’s interest at the time was political communication and propaganda thus his model reflects the general view of the time when it was formulated” (p. 14, 15). Carey (in Crowley and Mitchell, 1994, p. 194) noted the deeply political nature of the communication models. Models developed in this pattern are considered to be transmission models of communication with the sender having privilege and legitimate

authority, “originator of meaning and action, the centre from which both spatial and social/cultural integration is effectuated” (ibid., p. 195). The communication is successful if the intended recipients receive the packaged messages. It did not concern itself on how these messages are received.

In 1962 Everett Rogers published *The Diffusion of Innovation*, and pointed out “how new and development-oriented ideas could be diffused through a social system” (Moemeka, 2000, p. 2). The diffusion model considers “‘communication’ as a transfer of new ideas from willing experts to an assumed ignorant target social system” (ibid., p. 3). Moemeka points out that the main concern was for the underdeveloped countries to adopt these new ideas without consideration to its suitability to the underdeveloped countries’ socio-economic and political environment. “It said little or nothing about how to ensure that people felt comfortable with what they were being asked to do or about how to involve them in the decision-making process” (ibid.). Crowley and Mitchell noted that the model’s emphasis “was linearity of effect, reliance on hierarchy of status and expertise and on rational (and presumably benevolent) manipulation from above” (1994, p. 196).

This *transfer of knowledge and diffusion of innovation*, according to Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, became “underlying hypothesis of development work” (1998, p. 47). Mass communication was seen as the most effective medium to disseminate information. Simple audio-visual materials were used as channels to easily motivate or persuade people to become aware and try new health or agricultural techniques and were prepared by the people outside of the communities.

The communication pattern displayed in this communication strategy is that of allocation. Information is distributed from the centre to the periphery (McQuail and Windahl, 1992, p. 205-206) to several recipients at one given time. The centre determines the agenda of the communication process.

Wilbur Schramm’s famous book *Mass Media and National Development: The Role of Information in Developing Countries* published in 1964 focused on the role of mass media in bringing about progress. Moemeka (2000) noted that its main aim was to transfer information from the centre of leadership to its target constituents and that by providing relevant facts and figures it could stimulate change in people’s social

behaviour and act accordingly. Schramm's work guided planners in the use of information in the development field for a long while.

Kasongo (1998) noted that mass media was viewed by the West as a tool to better to bring about development. The McBride Commission final report revealed the mushrooming of media outlets, especially radio and television stations, in the Third World from 1960 to 1976 (*ibid.*, p.31). But even with the proliferation of media outlets people especially in the developing countries remain poor. Despite the flow of information the number of Least Developed Countries (LDCs) has increased from "28 in 1968 to 52 in 1996" (*ibid.*, p. 32).

Despite the huge amount of development assistance for more than four decades, poverty, disease, overpopulation, and hunger prevailed in the underdeveloped world. "Today, for two-thirds of the world, underdevelopment is a threat that has already been carried out; a life experience of subordination and of being led astray, of discrimination and subjugation" (Esteva in Sachs, 1992, p. 7). Numerous development projects started to fail as early as the 1960s. Landmarks of development ruins stand today as monuments of that development approach. Gegeo (1998) describes some of these development projects as "amusement parks instead of sources of learning for West Kwara'ae villagers; teenagers, especially, frequented them on weekends and other holidays for recreational purposes" (p.297).

Even early attempts to incorporate communication in development work reached an impasse (Kasongo, 1998, p. 32). A communication gap existed between development technical specialists and beneficiaries with the translation of the technical language to the local languages or dialects, which did not even, have its own equivalent meaning because these do not belong to its socio-cultural-economic environment.

Thus, the conventional top-down development approach using the linear model of communication did not achieve its desired results. Development projects still fail despite good and careful planning and management as well as sound monitoring. Worst, blame for failure has been attributed to the recipients branding them as ignorant, conservative, fatalistic, stubborn, and lazy. But recipients "did not see the project relevant to their needs; it appeared to be something that belonged to the government and some foreign organization, whose staff were busily running around promoting strange

ideas or building things for unknown purposes” (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1992, p. 40).

The change and growth that the development agents were promoting was not in the context of the socio-environment of the people. Moemeka (2000) said, “There is no attempt to ‘know the people’ and to understand their world view” (p. 6). No genuine consultations were made with the people, as Moemeka succinctly puts it

Meetings were held only to ‘tell the people’ about what was to be done and the part of which they were supposed to play. No opportunity was given them to discuss issues before decisions were made... (ibid., p. 6).

Grinig (1997 in Moemeka, 2000) pointed out that the top-down communication attempt was unable to make way into the local social structure and Rogers (1976 in Moemeka) agreed with the observation saying “this materialistic communication strategy was merely conveying informative and persuasive messages from a government to the public in a downward, hierarchical way” (p. 6). The communication strategy was classified as information-dumping. Both the beneficiary government and the donor agencies adopted this strategy. Moemeka states there was a lot of information being given, which he terms “talking to” but very little of the “talking with” (p. 5).

David Gegeo (1998) illustrated some fine examples of this lack of consultation by the government and donor agencies with the West Kwara'ae people in the Solomon Islands. The people in the village feel alienated with the development projects especially demonstration farms that were being set up. People in the village used terms such as ru aha ta kula, ‘a thing from somewhere else,’ or ru fi'i dao, ‘a newly arrived thing,’ or saunga'i'anga faolo ‘a new creation’ to describe demonstration farms set up supposedly to benefit the people” (p. 297). Other terms such as ru ana ta kula ‘culturally out of place’ or the more derogatory expression liakwaimausuli ‘imitate’ Westerners were used. Gegeo (1998) lamented

The comments also imply the powerlessness, helplessness, and alienation that Kwara'ae villagers felt every time the colonial government introduced some new change into Kwara'ae, supposedly to improve life in the villages, but, ironically, always excluding villagers from the decision making process (p. 296).

Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada (1998) also documented several development efforts that became dismal failures due to “lack of communication – or more precisely an attitude of

unwillingness to listen and learn” (p. 21) and to the development agents’ lack of respect to the values and beliefs of the local people (p. 20).

Van der Stichele (2000) recounted the experience of extension workers in the Central Region of Malawi when they introduced bee keeping among small holder farmers as an income-generating activity during off-farming season. The farmers were adamant that they did not want to be stung. Protective gear imported from the US was provided to the farmers by the extension workers. Demonstration for its use was conducted and the kits were distributed. Six months later not one single farmer in the village had gone into bee keeping. When the extension workers called the farmers for a meeting they were puzzled when the farmers kept on giggling when asked about the protective gear since no one was against the idea of bee keeping. It was after the meeting when extension workers started having informal talks with the people in the community when they learned that the protective gears resembled masks that were used in the village masquerades. In the masquerade the masks took the symbols of animals and display the mad or stupid behaviour of the animal. Certainly no one would want to look like a mad or stupid person on this protective gear. Dialogue with the people could have been instituted in the first place before the protective gear was introduced and imposed upon them.

Moemeka (2000) summarised the weaknesses of earlier models of communication:

- “linear and one-way rather than circular and two-way;
- laid heavy emphasis on the communicator as opposed to the receiver;
- ignored the context of which, in point of fact, provides us with the bulk of the meaning of communication;
- gave the pride of place to manipulation over mutuality and reciprocity;
- perceived individuals as atomistic entities as opposed to interacting elements in a collective or communalistic system; and
- treated communication in mechanical rather than organic terms” (pp. 41-42).

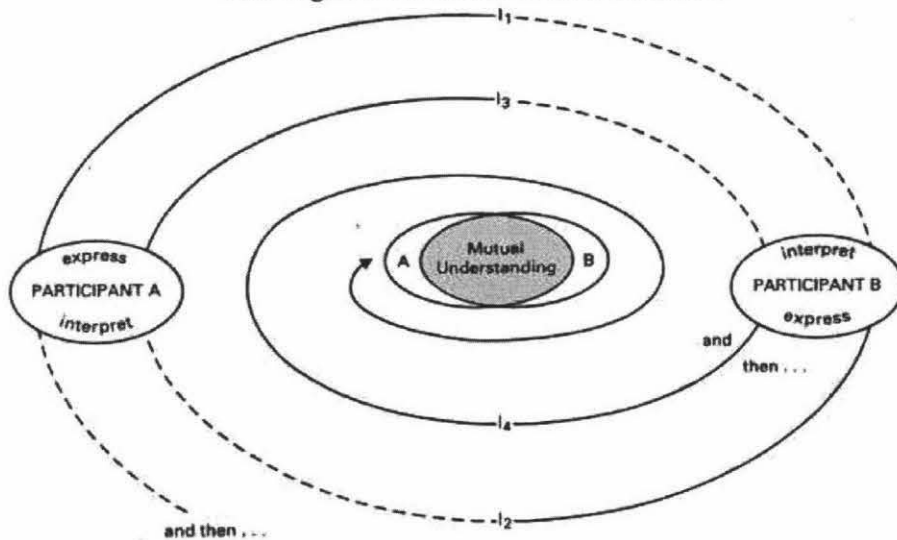
Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada (1998) said that communicators at this time “accepted their limited role as producers of information materials” (p. 47). For example, development workers would ask communication specialists to produce “how to” videos, such as “How to Build Latrines.” Kennedy (1984, p. 87 in Moemeka, p. 8) said, “In this situation, communication has not broken down; it has never begun.”

Since then development approaches have generally changed to meet and address the needs of the times. It has been acknowledged that without true consultation with the people real development cannot take place. Thus the development from below approach came into reality.

Only when people are fully involved in a project do they feel a sense of ownership, and therefore responsibility. If the project is theirs and they feel it will do them some good, they are much more likely to contribute fully to it. Whereas in a top-down project, they may feel alienated from the process, feel that it is not meeting their needs and they will not take part in it nor maintain the project once it has been established (Storey and Overton, 2002, p. 21).

Both development thinkers and the people from the underdeveloped countries cried, “There is no universal recipe for development”. Development dictated from outside will absolutely not work without participation of the local people. Communication then saw its vital role in the development process. Rogers (1986, p. 200 in McQuail and Windahl, 1992, p. 35) now defines communication as “a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding.”

Figure 2.1.
Convergence Model of Communication



Source: Rogers and Kincaid, 1981 in McQuail and Windahl, 1993, p. 36

Rogers’ convergence model emphasised “mutual understanding and consensus, on relationships within networks, which consist of interconnected individuals (or institutions) linked by patterned flows of information which provide continuous feedback” (McQuail and Windahl, p. 36). The most important element was the

employment of the feedback mechanism. This constituted listening to people and *talking with people*.

The (convergence) model is thought especially suitable for many situations in developing countries, where the culture and power gaps between senders and receivers have to be bridged and this can be achieved by gradual increases of trust and mutual awareness (ibid., p. 36)

Development practice in this mode encouraged participation, motivation and commitment. Listening to the people and learning from them became imperative in the practice. Ideally, development programs ensured the full participation and cooperation of the people. Talking with the people became a prerequisite for any development project. Servaes (1994 in Moemeka, 2000) said, "What is important is not to create a need for the information that one is disseminating, but rather disseminating the information for which there is a need" (p.9). There definitely is a two-way circular flow of information until a shared meaning is reached. The diffusion of information evolved from a disseminating information machine into a "process through which any new idea introduced into a social system is 'communicated' into the social system." The process then became careful, respectful and sensitive of the socio-cultural environment to which communication is targeted. The development agent is therefore seen as a part of the communication process and not a dictator of the process with his/her presence "felt through interaction with the people" (Moemeka, 2000, p. 12).

Development from below recognises diversity and respects the conditions of which development can take place. Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada (1998) outlines some basic criteria for this approach to proceed.

In addition to aiming to meet basic needs, development should be endogenous to a society, that is to say, it should originate from that society's values and its perceptions of its own future. It should be self-reliant as possible, in that each society should draw on its own resources and strengths to the maximum practical extent before using external resources. It should make optimum use of natural resources, taking into account the potential of the local ecosystem, as well as the present and future limitations imposed by global considerations... Last but certainly not least, it should be based on participatory and truly democratic processes of decision-making at all levels of society (p. 49).

Central concepts of this chapter evolved around *communication* and *information*. And to be clear about it, these terms need to be defined so as not to interchange one to the other. Communication may be defined as “a social interaction through messages” (Gerbner, 1967 in McQuail and Windahl, 1992, p. 4). It is a process by which two or more people, groups or institutions arrive at an understanding through certain symbolic messages, such as language, on a shared meaning. Shared meaning occurs when symbols are perceived in the same way and a similar meaning is attached to that symbol (Faules and Alexander, 1978).

In most general terms, communication implies a sender, a channel, a message, a relationship between sender and receiver, an effect, a context in which communication occurs and a range of things to which ‘messages’ refer. Communication can be any or all of the following: an *action on* others; an *interaction with* others; and a *reaction to* others (McQuail and Windahl, 1992, p. 5).

Faules and Alexander (1978) defined information as the content of communication (p. 159). They argued that uncertainty comes in the communication process if there is inadequacy in the content provided. Thus, in order to be able to fully communicate the amount, accuracy and validity of information supplied are vital. With enough information, interaction can freely take place between and among people, groups or institutions.

Crowley and Mitchell (1994) described communication as “a ‘flow’ concept, reflecting the process of transmission and exchange of knowledge and values, which itself created information influencing knowledge and values” while information is “interpreted as a ‘stock’ concept, a store of knowledge and values” (p. 205).

In development work, Moemeka pointed out that communication and information were synonymous terms in the first few decades. It was only in the later decades that communication was viewed as the “exchange of ideas and opinions” and information as the “provision of facts and figures” (Moemeka, p. 12). Greater emphasis was given to communication to create understanding on the presented facts and figures and to stir discussion, dialogue and finally to elicit participation.

Recently, the study of the communication processes and its several components has been taken into serious consideration. Emphasis was placed on the message, the symbolic shared meanings, the criteria needed for the sender to transmit information, relationships between and among and roles played by the sender, receiver, and even the medium, and ways in which to effectively generate feedback including the feed forward process of information.

Understanding Meanings and Roles in the Communication Process

Faules and Alexander (1978) argued, “Reality is a social product arising from communication” and adds

One’s view of reality will always be limited; communication can be used to limit or expand reality; one’s social reality is composed of symbol systems and values; to discover one’s reality it is necessary to understand the symbol system and what those symbols mean to the person using them (p. 17).

Thus an understanding of meanings and roles in communication are two of some important basic components of the process. It is important in any interaction to have a shared meaning to terms and conditions. “Shared meaning occurs when two people perceive a symbol in the same way and attach a similar meaning to that symbol (ibid., p. 6). It can also be said that meanings are acquired through social interaction. “Meaning is highly dependent on the norms and values of a society; meanings are correct only as insofar as there is a social agreement about what something means” (ibid., p. 8).

Another important factor in certain communication behaviours are roles or “parts” that one “plays” in society and these roles are socially defined and are maintained through communication. But these roles can be redefined in order to accommodate certain changes. Faules and Alexander stated that “People organise their perceptions of situations in terms of roles played by themselves and others; in this way individuals are able to initiate communication exchanges and accommodate one another” (ibid., p. 62).

Role redefinition can take place and its success determined by the ability of people, groups or institutions to change their perception of the defined role. A succinct example of this is the changing role women play in the development process. As society’s values change there is a need for roles to be redefined to meet people’s needs. The value of communication in role redefinition lies in the fact that

It allows the formation of human conduct and the negotiation of role relationships. The centrality of communication becomes apparent when one explores the various dimensions of role behaviour (ibid., p. 75).

Significance of Communication

The significance of communication is seen from the fact that it may be the basis for creating awareness, for consensus building, for generating participation in the processes of change and development, for making informed decisions, and for resolving conflicts (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1998, p. 4).

FAO published a document entitled “*Communication a Key to Human Development*” in 1994 emphasising that “a decisive role can be played by communication in promoting human development in today’s climate of social change.” In addition, several World conferences stated the important role of communication in achieving development goals. For example the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil had 38 chapters recognising the role of communication in successfully implementing sustainable development.

In most of the conferences the call was to enhance awareness, effectively disseminate and share information, promoting discussions and dialogues and the use of different mediums to which information may flow. In fact the United Nations through the UNESCO has sponsored inter-agency roundtable discussions on communication for development. At the 86th plenary session, the report revealed Resolution 50/130 of 20 December 1995

- “Recognises the importance of addressing the issue of communication for development;
- Encourages development actors to include communication for development, in an appropriate manner, as an integral component in the development of projects and programmes;
- Stresses the need to support two-way communication system that enable dialogue and that allow communities to speak out, express their aspirations and concerns and participate in the decisions that relate to their development; and
- Reaffirms the importance of resource mobilisation, including financial cooperation, the transfer of technology and capacity-building for communication in development programmes and projects, and calls upon the international community and organizations of the United Nations system to assist developing countries in introducing technologies and innovative methods for enhancing

Aside from UNESCO, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is also one of the forerunners in incorporating communication in the development work. FAO Director General Diouf (in Fraser and Villet 1994) said “communication for development has reached the stage where it can have a noticeable and rewarding effect on many development programmes” (p. 1).

COMMUNICATION IN PRACTICE

Concepts such as communication for development and development communication have been in the development arena as far back as the theories of development. But as the development paradigm shifted, so did the focus, central theme and the strategies of communication. Thus today, although the earlier concepts still exist, it has been added on to by key terms such as participatory communication, development support communication, media in development, strategic communication and many others. Most of these concepts overlap especially in the strategies they utilise (Moemeka, 2000). There is not much difference and that these terms just highlight the changing techniques development approaches have underwent. However, there is a need to discuss each concept as a communication strategy for they offer ideas and principles that can enhance our understanding of development with a communication perspective. In these approaches communication specialists can never be branded as “adding new wine into old wineskins.”

To formally integrate communication as a vital component in the development process the later strategies have been designed to incorporate the concepts of participation, understanding, and positive change. Moemeka (2000) argues “but few, if any, changes or development can occur and endure, unless development-boosting communication is built into the process as a necessary component” (p. 13). Moemeka suggests that these different concepts of communication in development

Is a pervasive discipline with differing definitions and approaches. However, the differences seen in these definitions and approaches are only in degree rather than in substance. The ultimate aim is to create an environment in which people are willing to participate in the discussions on, planning and execution of, development projects – an environment which ensures understanding of issues

related to the development initiative and of ways to achieve the expected outcome (ibid., pp. 12-13).

The basic assumption accepted within this thesis is that the overall direction of communication is top-down and that government always takes the initiative. This section discusses some of the basic communication approaches that have been developed over the last few years that specifically centralise the role of communication in the development process. Three of these concepts have been highlighted in this section emphasising positive change in the individual and the community using key communication strategies. Communication for development and development communication have been interchanged in a lot of literature. But in this section, communication for development will be discussed in a more holistic manner using both the urban and the rural setting. It is discussed here as a large-scale communication campaign targeting a large number of population, if not the whole. It is applied to develop positive attitudes towards the introduction of knowledge, skill or technique. Results could be measured through the Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices (KAP) Survey that could be conducted after launching the communication campaign. Mass communication plays a very important role in this approach as it can reach a wide group of people instantaneously.

On the other hand development communication emphasise the needs of the rural communities, especially the agricultural sector. Though not limited to it, concrete examples will be provided in this context. This approach can be both large and small-scale but usually starts from small-scale and upscaling results later with adjustments and redesigning seen as strengths and not a weakness of the strategy. Different media are used to introduce and reinforce the information that needs to be

Participatory communication was a little known approach that took bits and pieces of its material from both communication for development and development communication though limiting it to meet its objectives of being small-scale and localised to achieve maximum results.

Communication for Development

Balit (1998) said communication for development has evolved in the last 25 years adopting the changes of the present development paradigm. It had worked closely with

the development efforts at times as a defining factor but sometimes stay in the shadows. But methodology, use of technology, research on the processes itself have been focused towards the same objectives and goals of development, which are participation, empowerment and eventually positive change. Today it is defined more concretely as mentioned below.

Communication for development is the use of communication processes, techniques and media to help people towards a full awareness of their situation and their options for change, to resolve conflicts, to work towards consensus, to help people plan actions for change and sustainable development, to help people acquire the knowledge and skills they need to improve their conditions and that of society and to improve the effectiveness of institutions (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1998, p. 63)

The definition enabled people to take control of the situation using the various communication processes built in the effort. The approach advocated for communication to be a part of national development and change.

But before this definition evolved communication for development reflected the development approach of top down linear model with large-scale application usually on a nation-wide basis such as that of immunisation, family planning and introduction of nutritional benefits, e.g. vitamin supplements in diets.

In the 1950s and 1960s, Irishman Erskine Childers began studying communication in development processes in India, Tanzania and Egypt. Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada (1998) noted that in Egypt Childers wrote a “detailed tracing” of a parasite that breeds in water and can penetrate people’s skin and becomes fatal as it attacks the internal organs of the human body. His work “*Human Communication Aetiology of Bilharziasis*’ details “human behaviour and communication problems” involved in preventing infection.

About 47 percent of the people in the Nile Delta were affected by bilharziasis and prevention was the only known cure of the day. The Nile River was an important element in the life of the people. It was traditional to urinate and to defecate into the river and canals leading to the Nile so are washing clothes. The parasite is carried by snails and in the process people who are using the river and are affected by it returns the larvae to the water to be picked up by the host snail and renews the cycle (ibid., p. 43-44).

Childers admitted that “enormous communication efforts to change entrenched behaviour patterns” (ibid) added parallel to the practical solutions such as building latrines and wash areas. Encouraged by his colleagues in the United Nations, Childers produced a major policy paper that “organise some demonstrations of communication in development” (ibid.)

But just like the mood of the times, Childers earlier proposition centred on the theme of creating wider understanding of projects. He says “no innovation becomes development until it has been communicated” (ibid., p. 45). By communication he meant that its role was in explaining the decisions made from outside and try to enlist involvement of the people reflecting the modernisation approach. Mass media was seen as a tool in diffusing innovation to a large number of people “telescoping the time-span of change – into just a few years (ibid., p. 46). By 1969, Childers proposition submitted through a major policy paper giving communication inputs into the development work has earned an audience in the work being carried out by UNICEF, UNDP, FAO and UNFPA.

In later years, the concept of communication for development adopted some methods of social marketing owing to the “rather unstructured and piecemeal fashion (it started out) (to) gradually become more ordered and professional, and more strategic in its application” (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1998, p. 53). Richard Manoff, head of a successful marketing agency in the United States, applied his marketing skills “to promote changes in health practices, nutrition and family planning in a number of developing countries” (p. 54). With its success some social marketing principles and techniques were used in developing communication programmes. Some of these included: audience segmentation, qualitative research using focus group discussions, message design, pre-testing, monitoring, feedback and adjustment.

Those opposed to the use of social marketing techniques in communication argued that it employed ‘ethical manipulation’ especially with the use of mass communication, particularly radio and television and still adopted the top down approach. The main point they were driving was that it should “use refined social science skills and powerful mass media to try to change people’s behaviour patterns to conform to criteria established by outsiders with superior knowledge” (ibid., p. 57). However desirable changes in the areas of health and nutrition and safety quash down these dissenting

opinions. No one would therefore oppose mothers using oral dehydration salts for their young children or the safety benefits of using seat belts. It was summarised that the ethical problem of the manipulative ways in which people's behaviour is suggested to change does not guarantee "total certainty" that it "was in their interests and in the interests of society to do so" (ibid., p. 58).

The bottom up development approach and the direct link of participation saw its potential in the role of communication. To fully elicit participation, people should have been appropriately informed and "they must follow a communication process to reach a collective perception of the local situation and of the options of improvement" (ibid., p. 59).

However it would be noted that conceptualising and articulating views are some of the major problems of participation. Communication inputs such as videos, audio-visual materials, radio broadcasts among many other means are needed for people to be informed. "In reality, when communication processes are used to inform people, enable them to contribute their points of view, reach consensus, and carry out agreed change or development action together, it can be said that communication *is* participation" (ibid., p. 59).

The development from below approach has made significant impact in the way communication is now used in the development process. Mass media is now part of the people's lives and in some particular areas, they have gained control and at times ownership to it. Audience participation is now encouraged in programming and even in the conceptualisation of programs. Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada notes that today's "communication aims are to (1) stimulate debate and 'conscientization' for participatory decision-making and action; (2) help people acquire new skills and knowledge they need; (3) use communication to promote better teamwork, cooperation and coordination between and among governmental, non-governmental, organizations involved in multidisciplinary development programmes" (p. 60).

In application a report prepared by Francesco Mezzalama in 1994 for the United Nations, communication for development has been recognised as a specialised field. The effective use of communication has now been incorporated into the mandates of several UN agencies. The Mezzalama report articulates that the goal of communication

for development is to “integrate, within project designs, motivation and teaching skills to strengthen the processes that enable communities and people therein to acquire new knowledge, ideas and analyse decisions and actions” (<http://www.unsystem.org/jiu/new/reports/1994/en94-04.pdf>).

The UNESCO website (in www.unesco.org), on communication and development concisely involve the people in the communities to participate in decision-making. Its communication work involves (1) training in the use and maintenance of new technologies; (2) media management; (3) role of communication in the consolidation of democratic processes; and, (4) reporting on development issues.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) defined communication for development in 1984 in an Expert Consultation Meeting “as a social process, designed to seek a common understanding among all the participants of a development initiative, creating a basis for concerted action.” It called on the fact that communication can be used as a “mediation tool to reach a consensus for action.”

But way before there was any of these fashionable ideas, Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada (1998) narrated the story of Columbia’s harbinger of communication and development. Joaquin Salcedo was a Colombian village priest whose vision for development was way ahead of his time. He was assigned to a rusty town of Sutatenza nestled in the rugged terrain of the Colombian Andes in 1947. There he tried to explain “his ideas, telling people that they could improve their living conditions, that the old life or boredom and fatalism need not be, and that everyone could participate in his crusade for progress” (ibid., p. 148). He used an amateur transmitter radio built by his brother to transmit messages to people in the community. The first few messages of his broadcast were prepared to motivate people to participate in an educational exercise. Education by radio was a pioneering and novel idea. A few years later, Salcedo offered a partnership with the people in Sutatenza to fight poverty and backwardness by forming a foundation *Accion Cultural Popular* (ACPO) that would formally continue this work. Their work ethos was governed by the belief that “development is in the mind of mankind.” They believe that education provided by radio and a publication, *El Campesino*, would improve the lives of the people. In 1970, its estimated audience was 10 million people, almost half of the nation’s population and was a main mobilising force of peasants in the country. But ACPO folded in 1987 bowing to political pressured both from the

government and the Catholic Church and lost the support of its international donors.

Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada noted that

By the end of its life, ACPO had broadcast more than 1.5 million hours of radio programmes from its various stations; it had printed 76 million copies of its newspaper; it had distributed 6.5 million textbooks and 4.5 million copies of other books; and it had trained almost 25,000 peasant leaders and community development workers (1998, p. 160).

Its impact on the lives of peasants can be summarised by this testimony from a peasant whose life ACPO has touched:

What I learned in ACPO's training centres and from the radio schools over the years changed my life and helped me to change the life in this village. Today we have our schools, our own small church, electricity, telephone, health post, a social centre and many other things we didn't have 30 years ago. ACPO taught me the importance of these things, and how to mobilise our community to create them. It also gave me the confidence to deal with authorities to get things done that we could not do for ourselves (ibid., p. 161).

Development Communication

Development communication started to emerge in the 1950s as a tool to support rural development in developing countries. Its early definition says it is "organised efforts to use communication processes and the media to bring about social and economic improvements" (Paterson, n.d.). This early definition was designed to "win the hearts and minds" of the rural folks in the developing world to use the Western path of development. Paterson noted that communication experts such as Lerner suggested that the use of mass communication would create and stir "empathy" to Western values and encourage people in the developing countries to drop their traditional ways. Criticisms to the early strategies of development communication involve the inability to ask the audience if the message has been received; if the message was understood; if people will act or want to act upon the message. It was highly propaganda and was therefore distrusted by the people.

By the mid-1970s a new definition has been crafted and has taken into considerations of the people brought about by a shift in the development paradigm. It is now the employment of

Communication techniques, technology, principles and practices in the development process. It is communication with a conscience and is oriented towards human development (Moemeka, 2000, p. 12).

Its main defining point was that its emphasis is on rural development “uplifting lives of the rural inhabitants” though its application can also be applied in the urban setting. It emphasises agricultural innovation and techniques through the use of communication processes. Application was also large-scale, often nation-wide, and involved advocacy. This includes the introduction of new seed variety or agricultural tool or technique.

It highlighted the central and effective use of communication in human activities. Moemeka (2000) sees two broad roles that development communication play: transformation and socialisation. Transformation entails the social change and elimination of possible dysfunctions created by modernisation. Socialisation on the other hand maintains that the effective role of communication it shall maintain values that are consonant to development and discard those which are unwholesome in order to “create a social system in which the benefits of social and material change can be maximised and utilised in the interest of all its citizens” (ibid., p. 13).

The following matrix will show the difference in the role of communication in rural development as earlier envisioned (Rogers 1986, p. 49 in Moemeka, 2000, p. 13) and what is now being promoted by development communication (Moemeka, ibid.).

Table 2.1.
Communication in Development

| Flow of communication | | Desired effect | |
|--|---|---|---|
| Development from Above Approach | Development from Below Approach | Development from Above Approach | Development from Below Approach |
| Help transfer technological innovations from development agencies to their clients | To discuss with, inform and motivate people | Create an appetite for change through raising a climate for modernisation among the members of the public | Create an environment in which target social systems can feel the need for, and demonstrate their commitment to, development activities and thus raise their level of participation in development projects |

It is considered to be a multi-disciplinary endeavour with each specialising in his/her own field with the development communicator approaching the process in a holistic manner. Moemeka gives a succinct example:

To raise the vitamin content in the diet of the rural people, composts that would produce manure for fertilising vegetable is encouraged. However, the health officer may object to it since composts might breed germs and contaminate the environment. It is then the role of the development communicator to reconcile the views to the benefit of the rural people. This is why the development communicator is seen as the one who maintains the road through which development objectives and goals are met” (2000, p. 14).

Central to both communication for development and development communication is the creation of an environment conducive to the free exchange of ideas and opinions and creating space in which these ideas and opinions can be expressed. There is not much emphasis on the development goals but on the manner on how it can be achieved. Therefore, development agents are encouraged to respond instead of to persuade.

The Programme of Integrated Rural Development in the Tropical Wetlands (PRODERITH) supported by both FAO and the World Bank in Mexico was an example of a project using communication for participatory planning.

PRODERITH took a novel approach from the start of its fieldwork. Development agents were sent to live with the communities. They were trained and spoke the local language and their role was to get to know the people, win their confidence, and start to discuss possible development actions that PRODERITH could support.

The next step was the creation of Field Units in the project areas composed of specialists in the economic, technical and social aspects of rural development. The first task of the team was to explain in detail the project. They worked with the communities in a diagnosis of their situation, of their options for development, and of specific actions that could be taken by the community. Once the development work was in progress, the team was also responsible for orientation and training in the community. These processes were facilitated by intense use of video and supporting printed materials.

Methodology Groups that provide communication services supported the field unit teams by using primarily video recording and playback and printed materials. As emphasised in the beginning the participation of all concerned – peasants, technicians, and institutional staff – remained the basic tenet of the methodology and it was fostered through communication.

The Rural Communication System developed later to encompass the whole of the Mexican wetlands worked in three main areas: it promoted the objective of

generating 'informed and conscious participati0n of the peasants at all stages of the development process; it provided orientation and training of peasants and staff; and it improved institutional coordination and management (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1998 , pp. 104-105).

FAO prided itself in being a “pioneer in the use of communication processes and media to help rural people to exchange experiences, find common ground for collaboration and actively participate in and manage agricultural and rural development activities” (ibid.)

Balit (1999) noted that development communication begins by listening to the farmers concerns and noting the socio-economic and cultural environment on which they exist. Partnerships need to be forged between and among the various stakeholders in the process. The media or channels to be used, both traditional and modern, should be one that is available, applicable, interactive and participatory. The orchestrated manner in which to use these channels is also important. Dependence upon technologies should be avoided instead FAO suggested that the “communication media that are suited to the socio-cultural and economic conditions of the rural areas in the developing countries should be used” (FAO, n.d.).

Recently FAO has adopted the use of the electronic information systems “provided that they are adapted to local conditions with full participation of the users and they are complemented by other media in situations where rural communities are unable to access them directly” (ibid.).

In Chile and Mexico computer technology was applied to establish information networks for agricultural producers and farmer associations. Electronic equipment was set up and training was provided to farmer organizations and NGOs involve in this new rural information systems approach.

By 1996, the national agricultural extension service in Chile had established an electronic rural information system connected farmer organizations, rural municipalities, NGOs, local government extension workers to the World Wide Web. It was estimated that the cost of transmitting price and market information was less than 40 percent using the traditional manner. In addition, the information received was timely, relevant, and faster (Masias in Balit, 1999, p. 4). The information provided by

the Chilean information system was also useful to the other Spanish-speaking internet users in the region (Richardson in Balit, 1999, p. 4).

In Sonora, Mexico, a farmer's organization was able to sell its cotton crop for US\$82 per quintal as opposed to US\$72 which was the maximum local buying rate. This was made possible by market price information that was made available on line. With information on future market prices, farmers are able to plan ahead and avoid huge loss. Vegetable growers on the other hand "reported that information on meteorological conditions informed them of climactic conditions faced by the country and of their competitors worldwide" (Masias, in Balit, 1994, p. 4).

Way before there were coined phrases to highlight the fact that communication is a vital component to bring about positive change in people's lives, there are several precursors to what is being experienced today especially in developing countries. One of this is British broadcaster Godfrey Baseley. In the years after the WW II, Baseley started a BBC broadcast drama serial, *The Archers – an Everyday Story of Countryfolk*, incorporating education, information and entertainment to bring messages useful to farmers in the rural communities and to create awareness amongst urban Britain of rural concerns.

At one point, the Ministry of Agriculture would want people to know the symptoms of the food and mouth disease and the fact that all the cloven-hoofed animals on the farm had to be slaughtered in case of outbreak. Moreover, the Ministry also asked Baseley to help influence farmers to change from multi-purpose breeds of cattle to more specialised milk-producing breeds. Baseley and his scriptwriters came up with a moving emotional drama first by conversations saying that a cow in their farm seems to be ill. Suspense mounted until a veterinarian came to confirm the farm family's worst fears. The farm had been hit by foot and mouth disease. The audience were hooked on the drama as one by one the herd were led to the slaughter and the Archer family devastated by the fact that all their years of hard work brought to flames. The characters discussed the outbreak and formed their own conclusions on this and finally a new cattle stock had to be brought in. British radio listeners were emotional and it confirmed to the authorities the need to recognise the "potential of the series for improving agriculture and rural life" (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1998, p. 141).

In Tajikistan a farmer to farmer, *Az Dekhon ba Dekhon*, a radio series was developed and funded by FAO and the Swiss Agency for Development Co-operation. The series is transmitted throughout the country through three channels of the Tajik Radio and programming includes interviews with farmers and agricultural experts. Its lunchtime hour is geared toward rural listeners and repeated in the evening. It was a welcome development for farmers who have “no reliable sources of information, even on the most basic, uncontroversial, technical aspects of farming” (Wason, 2002). The program featured everyday experiences of farmers using their own voices and experiences. The project though could not be able to directly evaluate its effects on the lives of the farmers or on livestock or correlate listenership to progress in the private farms. There are small revelations, though, such as once spare parts and farm equipment were discussed and later about twenty farmers sought advice from the enterprise featured in the programme.

Figure 2.2
Farmers Being Interviewed on Radio



Radio producer interviewing farmers in the Kulyab province in Southern Tajikistan
Source: Wason, 2002.

Participatory Communication

This approach has only been in practice in the last two decades, as participation became a key word in development. As people participate in the development process it also leads to numerous disagreements. Some developing countries do not favour the participatory approach to development because of this confrontational approach. Chin

Saik Yoon (n.d.) identified three limitations arrived at an international conference of practitioners and researchers working in participatory communication.⁵

- Participatory communication processes is not a cure-all for development. A community whose crops have just been eroded by flood due to environmental problems cannot easily participate in decision-making. Short-term solutions are needed and participatory processes are long-term as it unearths “root causes” of development problems, e.g. poverty, oppression, helplessness.
- The ethical question of manipulation continues. A social communicator who emphasises that a woman should be an active agent of development since this is the reality or the world view she adheres to may not be easily accepted by the people or even the women themselves. Hoping to see their situation according to the reality of the social communicator may also be manipulative.
- The price people pay in participatory processes is often overlooked. Sometimes communities are left vulnerable after stirring people to act on certain sensitive issues. Likewise, for every hour people participate a corresponding opportunity cost is also lost, e.g. fetching water, gathering crops, tending animals.

This approach veered away from other communication approaches because it centred on interpersonal communication, traditional media, street theatre, folk-songs, and speech and group activities. “Large scale national communication activities were set aside in favour of small, localised and intimate programs.” Ignored was the use of mass communication as it was an impersonal media. Studios were located from the rural areas and the people’s access to these media was limited.

In many ways, the “techniques” of communication had not changed. What had changed profoundly were the ideologies and philosophies behind the practice and the techniques (Chin, n.d.).

Another distinguishing feature of this approach is that the communication specialists are the members of the community. Innovations on approaches were made on the field with and by the people. Community radio was one of its finest examples. It can trigger and pressure communities to action. Moreover, community radio stations double up as important communication tools, sending personal messages to far away areas. In many

⁵ Examples are provided by the author

developing countries community radio is used as a community watchdog against erring and corrupt government officials.

Kasongo (1998) said participatory communication is a “process whereby communities with common interests or problems jointly design messages aimed at improving their social and existential conditions” (p. 35). Other features of includes the following:

- “It resonates in the oral communication and dialogue;
- It allows the intended beneficiary communities to communicate vertically (from development ‘benefactors’ to the community) and horizontally (among themselves);
- permits reflection, and facilitates wider input from the intended beneficiaries;
- by sharing views, the communities identifies their own problems consensually, and open up collective strategies for confronting them” (ibid.)

Participatory communication can also meet the challenge of giving the poor access to government policies and programs nor input their responses to these policies. For women and the poor given their low literacy rate can be a big factor. By the establishment of dialogue and the enabling these discussions to reach government authorities can bring about changes.

The Communication Initiative (2002) detailed how a participatory video was developed by the Mtwara Media Centre in Lindi, south of Tanzania, to aid the local fishermen. The Ministry has banned traditional fishing practices and it has hampered the livelihood of the people. In the participatory video, the people in the fishing communities shared their experiences from one village to another. It became evident after the video sharing and playback mechanisms from village to village that there is a need to collectively challenge the ban. With the technical support of the Mtwara Media Centre, a video showing that traditional fishing practices in the communities have not harmed the coral reefs, fish beds and eggs in contrast to the dynamite fishing methods of big fishing vessels. Village representatives brought the video to Dar es Salaam and managed to get an audience with the Minister. Impressed and convinced by the video, the ban on traditional fishing was subsequently lifted.

However, this communication approach is not easy to replicate or scale-up because of the “people-based” nature of the process. The attributes of the communities remain “elusive and escape identification and replication through training.” Though its strength

also lies in the fact that “the theory of communication is the theory of community” emphasising the fact that “communication ought to relate to the sort of community in which it takes place” (ibid.). The following example taken from Kasongo outlines its success because of the “micro-zoning approach” keeping the activities within the relative confines of the community boundaries (p.37).

In rural Zambia voluntary participation of the people in community work is due to their moral sanction and obligation which each citizen has to the well-being of the community. A classroom project long neglected by the government and the community decided it was time they do it themselves. The village headman summoned the people for a meeting. The activity was carried out by word of mouth and through all the churches in the village. In another area, a local radio station, together with small posters and a mobile loudhailer were used to call people to a community meeting (ibid.).

The bigger problem is its ability to co-exist in the larger communication setting. Due to the huge resources of the private sector, radio and television can now cross boundaries, leap mountains and swim waters. Competition with other more entertaining, more appealing and more sensational programmes have penetrated smaller communities and has brought about the decline of small-scale communication approaches.

Communication practices run alongside the different development paradigm shifts and found its better fruits in development driven from below. However, despite the concrete examples showing that communication approaches and strategies are working in to bring about positive change it is still a neglected discipline. It still is considered publicity, image building and dissemination instead of being participatory and interactive. Policymakers have yet to recognise its need and significance. It becomes a challenge now for those working in development projects and for communities itself to be able to fully integrate communication in their work. The number of stakeholders’ and their cooperation and coordination in communication work may have probably hindered its full assimilation and cohesiveness into development work.

Communication is a vehicle for social change and Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada even suggests that it has to be converted into a steering wheel and not just a fifth luxury wheel to guide necessary changes (1998, p. 283). Its value may have been articulated in large-scale nationwide campaigns such as in health and nutrition whose messages and agents still come from the centre. Very little literature has documented success stories

highlighting people-driven communication processes. It may be due to the fact that there are few, small-scale and localise to warranty national significance.

Another point is the amount allocated for the communication component of development projects. A roundtable discussion in Copenhagen on Communication and Development suggested that increased budgetary support should be advocated for communication projects. Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada (1998) laments that only about one to two percent is allocated for communication in development projects. Communication is not the panacea of development. It may only serve as a vehicle that can be driven to achieve development goals and objectives. However when not effectively used and maximised can limit the effects of development.

Finally, to emphasise the need for communication in the process of alleviating people's lives, Fraser and Villet (1994) said, "For if development can be seen as a fabric woven out of the activities of millions of people, communication represents the essential thread that binds them together" (p. 4).

SUMMARY

The chapter has provided the concepts of poverty and how the indicators that have surfaced in the last few years have informed policymakers on how best to address the problem. In the last few years the "voices of the poor" has been clearly taken into consideration in crafting policies and programs.

Consequently, communication also approaches its course by trying to reverse the top-down concept and dominance in the last few years, more particularly of government and aid agencies. Several approaches have been attempted to provide greater transparency in development projects as well as encourage participation from below.

The following chapters will illustrate the above concepts in the Philippine setting. Poverty alleviation programs have been defined according to the priorities and thrusts of each administration. Subsequently, the communication programs developed to generate awareness to and secure positive acceptance of these policies and programs will demonstrate the usage of some of the approaches described in this chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

POVERTY IN THE PHILIPPINES

This chapter presents poverty as a persistent problem in the Philippines. In 1997, official statistics released by the National Statistics Office showed that 37% of the population are poor but the self-rated poverty surveys of the Social Weather Station (SWS) revealed that almost half of the population say they are poor.

Poverty has been defined through different classification and measured according to the indicators used in this classification. It has contributed to the wealth of data on poverty for which policymakers can utilise in the crafting of policies and in targeting the right beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programs.

It has been revealed that with the modest gains in the economy the poverty situation also improve. In the 1990s the Philippines was Asia's tiger cub in comparison to its neighbouring economic tigers whose economic growth has surpassed their targets. Potential can be seen from its political stability to the institution of socio-economic reforms as well as the management of its resources. However several factors have contributed to a recent economic slump. The country has since lost its momentum of growth. These developments continually leave the poor the most affected.

This chapter briefly introduces the Philippines using socio-economic and demographic data. Then it discusses the poverty situation in the Philippines from reports of government statistical institutions interspersed with reports from several international financial institutions that helped finance some poverty alleviation programs. It also includes studies and surveys conducted by independent research agencies in the Philippines, which may contradict or confirm statistical figures released on the poverty situation. This will give a view of poverty in the Philippines from those looking in and at the same time articulate the views of those who experience it most.

COUNTRY PROFILE

The Philippines is an archipelago located in the heart of Southeast Asia. Its 299,764 sq. km. land area is comprised of 7,107 islands with Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao as its three main island groups. Its 76.5 million⁶ people are of Malay descent but its rich cultural heritage is a mix blend of Asian, European, American and Arab influences.

The country is divided into seventeen political regions,⁷ which defines their geographical location and cultural identity. Each region has distinctive traits that describe the people, their way of life, and local language. The Philippines has more than 111 local languages with Filipino as the official language but English is widely used as a medium in government, education and business. Though there is no regional government, each region is composed of provinces and municipalities. Each municipality is further divided into barangays⁸. Manila is its capital and the seat of government, trade and commerce.

Small, coastal predominantly Islamic villages lined the archipelago before the Spanish conquistadores arrived in 1521. A colonial government was established in 1565 renaming the islands *Islas Filipinas* in honour of King Philip II of Spain and introduced the Roman Catholic faith. Resistance to 333 years of colonial rule brought about the first nationalist revolution in Asia in 1896. On 12 June 1898, Emilio Aguinaldo established the first republic in Asia. Spain ceded the Philippines to the United States (US) through the Treaty of Paris and the US ruled the Philippines for 48 years. In 1941, Manila was declared an open city and American forces left the country signalling the start of three years of Japanese military rule. The American forces liberated the country in 1945 finally granting its independence on 4 July 1946. A popular uprising in 1986 known as “people power” ousted the 14-year authoritarian rule of President Ferdinand Marcos reinstating democracy in the country.

Population growth was estimated at 2.36% in 2003 with 49% below 20 years old. About 46% of the population live in urban areas and 54% in rural areas with an average

⁶ All statistical figures in this chapter from NSO QuickStat Index in www.census.gov.ph unless otherwise stated

⁷ It is comprised of 17 regions, 79 provinces, 115 cities, 1,498 municipalities, and 41,955 barangays. (In www.gov.ph). Please refer to Appendix 1

⁸Barangay is the smallest political unit into which cities and municipalities in the Philippines are divided. It is the basic unit of the Philippine political system. It consists of less than 1,000 inhabitants residing within the territorial limit of a city or municipality and administered by a set of elective officials, headed by a barangay chairperson. (In www.gov.ph).

household size of 5. The people are predominantly Christian with a small Muslim population concentrated mainly in Southern Philippines. Life expectancy is higher among males (73 years old) than females (67 years). Infant mortality is at 42 per 1,000 live births.

Simple literacy is about 92.3%. Only about 9% of children aged 4 to 6 years old are enrolled in either public or private schools. About 60% of schoolchildren⁹ drop out of school before the second grade contributing to the increasing number of street children. Teacher student ratio in public elementary schools is at 1:36 and in public high schools at 1:40 for SY 2002- 2003. About 1,054 barangays do not have elementary schools and only six municipalities are without a high school.¹⁰

In 2000, the country's state of human development only improved minimally from the 1998 index. The country rank 75th in the UNDP's HDI¹¹ and is 22nd among 88 countries in the HPI¹² of 2000 (in <http://hrdc.undp.org.in/hds/HDFct/Phlpns.htm>). Labour statistics revealed that unemployment was at 10% and underemployment much higher at 15.7% (DOLE, 2003).

Since 1998, the economy has lost its momentum of growth partly due to internal and external factors such as the El Niño and La Niña phenomena, the after effects of the 1977 Asian economic crisis and the economic slowdown among the country's major trading partners. Modest gains prior to it were unsustainable and interrupted. In 2003, GNP was 5.5% and GDP at 4.5% propelled by a mixture of the agriculture, light industry and services sectors. Recently inflation was at 3.4%. The main export and also its chief import are electronic products. Other exports include articles of apparel, clothing accessories and coconut oil. Total exports almost balance total imports yielding a total trade of about PhP6.23M. The government has instituted several economic and social reforms to steer the country back on track.

⁹ The Child Protection in the Philippines Resource Network website maintained by the Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights Program (PST) of the Center for Integrative and Development Studies of the University of the Philippines (UP CIDS) estimates that there are 1.5 million street children and increasing by 6,365 annually according to the DSWD. Of this 1.5 million street children about 60,000 (ECPAT 1996) are prostituted making the country fourth in rank with the most number of prostituted children. (In <http://www.childprotection.org.ph/factsfigures>).

No data is provided by the Department of Education website on elementary and secondary drop out rates for SY 2000-2001.

¹⁰ All other statistical data on education from www.deped.gov.ph

¹¹ United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index

¹² Human Poverty Index

POVERTY IN THE PHILIPPINES

In the last few years, statistics reveal a downward trend in the poverty situation in the country. The Japan Bank for International Cooperation (2000 in www.jbic.go.ph) said, “Poverty declined when the Philippine economy grew” citing the high incidence of 41% in 1985 declining steadily in the 1990s. Even the World Bank said, “The Philippines has had more or less uneven success in reducing poverty” citing the decline between 1985 to 1995 “with much of the reduction accrued to the poorest of the poor” (in www.worldbank.org/eapsocial/countries/phil/pov.1.htm).

However, based on the 2000 Family Income and Expenditures Survey¹⁴ (FIES) about 4.3 million families or about 26.5 million Filipinos barely make both ends meet. This constitutes more than one-third of the country’s population. The poverty threshold has increased by 17.9% in 2000 whereby a family of five members should have at least a monthly income of PhP 4,835 to meet food and non-basic food essentials.

A poverty situationer (KALAHI-CIDSS Poverty Scenario) released by the DSWD’s anti-poverty program office stated that the modest economic growth is not enough to sustain the growing population. The situationer added, “It is expected that this trend will continue” owing to the slump in the world economies. Other facts illustrating the faces of poverty in the country include the following:

- Poverty incidence increased from 32% in 1997 to 34% in 2000 at the national level;
- Rural poverty incidence was at 47.4% while urban poverty was at 20.4%;
- Poverty is over 50% in eight of the 16 political regions of the country; (ibid.) and,
- Poverty gap stood at 8.4% and income gap at 29.6% (NSCB, n.d.).

The NSCB also revealed that the poverty threshold has increased from PhP 11,520 in 2000 to PhP 11,906 in 2002. The figure below demonstrates the most recent estimates on the annual per capita poverty threshold and annual per capital food threshold from 2000 to 2002. While these increases appear minimal, the effects on the people are significant.

¹⁴ Conducted by the National Statistics Office every two years and used as the basis of the latest poverty indicators

Table 3.1
Poverty Indicators

| Year | All Areas | | Urban | | Rural | |
|------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|
| | Poverty Threshold | Food Threshold | Poverty Threshold | Food Threshold | Poverty Threshold | Food Threshold |
| 2000 | 11,620 | 7,810 | 12,933 | 8,520 | 11,130 | 7,688 |
| 2001 | 11,786 | 7,936 | 13,235 | 8,610 | 11,255 | 7,800 |
| 2002 | 11,906 | 8,037 | 12,933 | 7,688 | 11,390 | 7,904 |

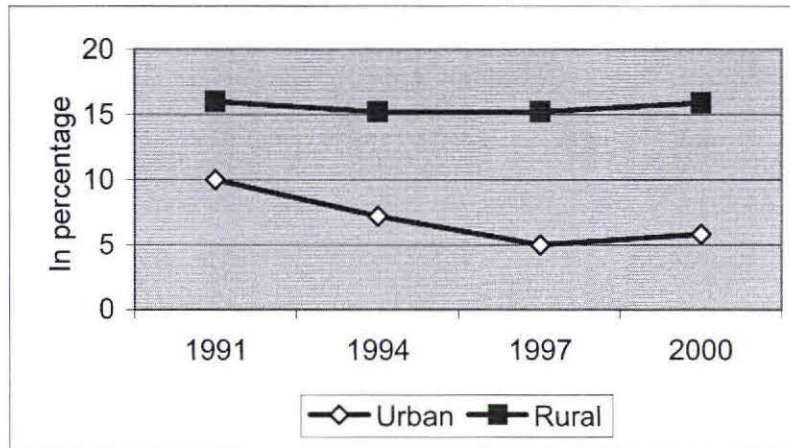
Source: NSCB, 2003

Government reports are themselves not glowing over trends. Other surveys and studies reveal even darker realities. An IBON Foundation study conducted in 1992 said realistically, 87.5% or about 13.4 million of “Filipino families do not earn enough to maintain a decent standard of living” (IBON Databank, 2002). The study compared the daily cost of living with government estimates from the FIES and surmised that it was not enough to sustain a decent standard of living. In 2002, people residing in Metro Manila, for example, had to earn a monthly net income of PhP 11,906 or about PhP 396.70 per day while the daily minimum wage is only placed at PhP 280.00¹⁵. This is a proof of how difficult it is to meet one’s daily needs.

Studies and recent reports revealed that poverty in the Philippines is also largely a rural phenomenon. About 74% have income partly or solely derived from agriculture (Reyes, 2002; p. 37, Balisacan, 2002, p. 4). The JBIC (2001) in its annual report in February 2001, observed that though poverty declined from 1991 to 1997, the rural areas hardly experienced the decline. More revealing is the fact that inequality, the same JBIC report concluded, “has not improved since 1960,” widening the gap between the rural and the urban areas. The wide margin of income disparity is also reflected region-wide and even within provinces in a region. The JBIC remarked, “Geographical conditions and access to markets are considered to be the main causes of these disparities.”

¹⁵ Department of Labor and Employment, 2003.

Figure 3.2
Percentage of Urban and Rural Poverty Gap, 1991 – 2000



Source: Reyes, 2002, p. 5.

The figure above clearly expresses the disparity between urban and rural poverty. The gap was smaller in 1991 but has continued to widen in recent years. The biggest gap was 10.2% exhibited in 2000. Rural poverty was almost twice that of urban poverty in 1994 decreasing to almost three-fourths from 1997 to the present. While the poverty gap urban areas has continued to drop over the years but the decrease was very negligible in the rural areas.

In the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR), for example, five of its six provinces are included among the country’s 44 poorest provinces. One of its provinces, Ifugao has been ranked 4th among the list of ten poorest provinces since 1997. In the Bicol Region all of its provinces are in the list.

Thus, JBIC (2001) said, “Overall pattern of inequality in the Philippines is higher among the income groups above the poverty line in urban areas, and in rural areas, it is higher among the groups below the poverty line” (p.3). In Eastern Visayas growth was exhibited but “the poor failed to share adequately in the benefits due to an increase in inequalities” (JBIC, 2000, p. ii.).

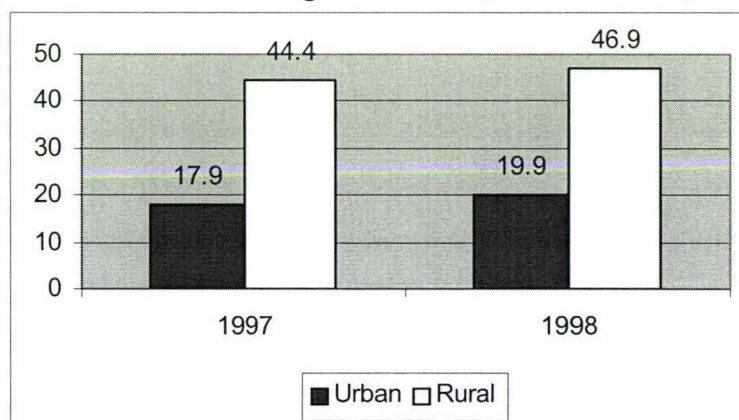
In 2000, Mt. Province in the CAR has the highest food threshold in the country at PhP 9,854.00 while in the National Capital Region (NCR) it was PhP 8,037.00 according to the latest statistics of the National Statistical and Coordination Board (NSCB). In the 2000 FIES, Mt. Province exhibited a high poverty incidence of 49% and according to the NSCB to eradicate poverty in the province it has to increase its income by 18.6%. The province is a major producer of vegetables grown by small farmers. It can be

presumed that the vegetables produced by small farmers in the province are sold in the local markets at the same price they are sold in Manila or elsewhere thus raising the food threshold. Small farmers may have gained more income from the produce but those who have not continue to fall short. However the intervention of middlemen or traders may also have increased prices of produce.

The NEDA Report (2000) indicated that 77% of the poor live in the countryside. The JBIC (2000) also noted that with the growth of the industry and services sectors, the “population has shifted out of agriculture” (p. ii). The lack of productive activities in the rural areas has contributed much to urban migration.

The Australian Agency for International Development (AusAid) (1999), said despite the implementation of reforms, “the record in improving living standards of the poorest segments of the population has been weak” (p. 4). The design document noted the trend in poverty in the Philippines. “Poverty incidence is generally significantly less in lowland areas but increases as one moves into upland areas, while poverty also increases southward from the southern Visayas to remote parts of Mindanao” (ibid., p. 6). AusAid identified five major groups facing severe poverty, namely, (1) rural landless workers and landless unemployed; (2) indigenous people mainly in upland and forest areas and some remoter coastal areas; (3) coastal artisanal fishing communities; (4) isolated upland areas; and, (5) urban poor (ibid., p. 8). The latter group is said to be fewer than the rural poor but “may present a more severe and intractable form of poverty unless there is very substantial economic growth” (ibid., p. 7) Rural poor, the report suggested, may have strong local support networks prevalent in the countryside and “have a greater capacity to feed themselves” (ibid.).

Figure 3.3
Poverty Incidences in Percentage of Families, Urban – Rural, 1997 - 1998



Source: NSO, 2000

Reyes (2002), in a MIMAP¹⁶ Project Paper, further confirmed that poverty incidence had been on a downward trend since 1985 but the Asian financial crises in 1997 and 1998 “reversed the trend.” She further observed that the number of the poor has actually increased due to the high population growth rate. It also confirmed that poverty¹⁷ in the rural areas declined very minimally from 56.4% in 1985 to 54.5% in 2000. This development further widened the disparity between the urban and the rural areas. In 2000, the poverty incidence in the NCR was a low 12.7% while in the CAR it was a high 43.9%. The NEDA Report (2000) commented, “Incomes of the poor have gone closer to the poverty line from 1985 figures but has become farther again in 2000.”

Henderson (2002) quoting Balisacan and Pernia’s study for the ADB noted, “Despite the more or less sustained economic growth from 1985 – 1997, the poorest 20% of the population only improved their income 0.5% for every 1% growth in average income then in 1997 the richest 10% of the population had an income 24 times that of the poorest 10%.”

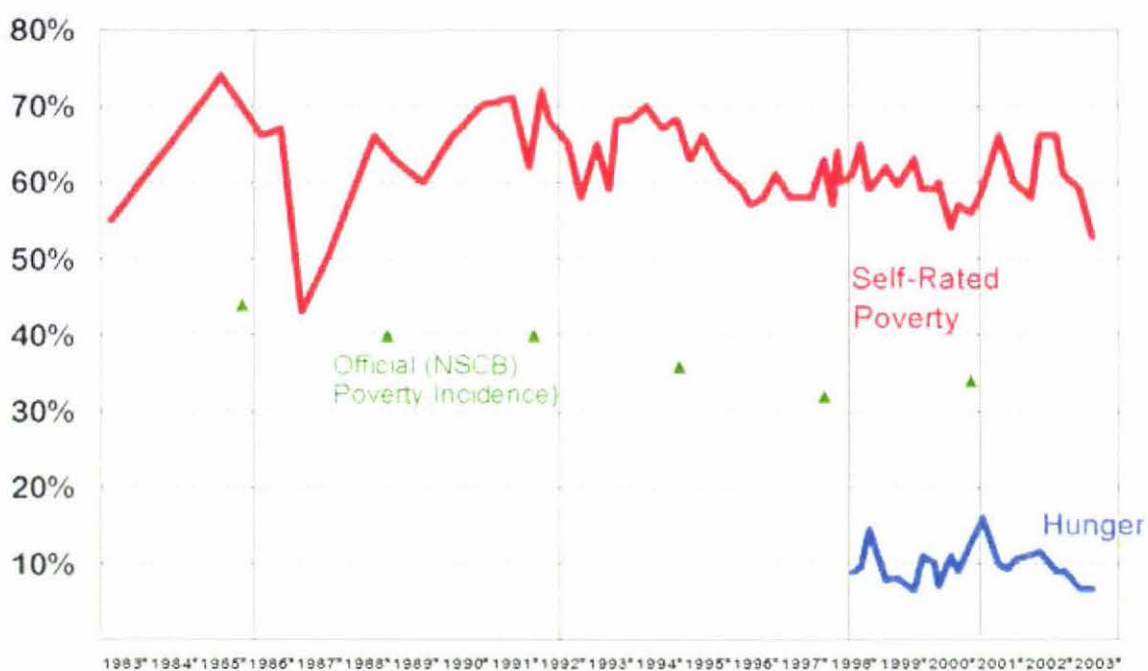
The SWS has attempted to regularly rate poverty¹⁸ in the eyes of those who experience it and results reveal a wide variation from government’s statistical reports. For example in July 1985 during the term of President Marcos, the official statistics claimed that 44% lived in poverty while a high 74% felt that they were poor. In 1994, the government disclosed that 36% of the population were poor but the self-rating survey interpreted 68%. In 2000, 56% of the population rated themselves poor but government only recognised a figure of 36%. But Mangahas (2002) cautioned that the SRP would always be higher than the government’s statistical figures because of the interpretation of the word “poor.” The SRP surveys people who are *mahirap* (poor) but the government statistics reveal only those who are *maralita* (destitute) thus the wide difference in the statistical figures. Thus the SWS (2000) rationalises “at any point in time, the magnitude of poverty is much higher when taken from the people’s perspective than when measured by the official poverty line.”

¹⁶ Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic and Adjustment Policies

¹⁷ Please refer to Appendix 2 and 3

¹⁸ Self-Rated Poverty (SRP)

Figure 3.4
Self-Rated Poverty Surveys



Source: SWS, n.d.

The Philippine economy is also vulnerable to external developments. This was exhibited by the country's apparent resiliency to the Asian crisis and but its effect reflected different picture. The World Bank in its report on the impact of the Asian financial crisis on the country said, "Social impacts are becoming more and more apparent" and this is translated to "price increases, reduced labour demand, reductions in government services, reduced access to capital, and ultimately, through increased crime, prostitution, and other pressures on social capital" (www.worldbank.org/eapsocial/countries/phil/pov2.htm). Further, the government announced, according to the same World Bank report, that there would be "budgetary freezes and cuts" which have resulted in the deliberate decrease in budgetary allocation for "important programs and services to the poor" resulting to "long-term effects on human capital" (ibid).

The SWS (2000) survey also revealed a seesaw movement in poverty trends in 1998 and 1999 right after the financial crisis. Reyes (2002) in a paper on the movement in and out of poverty¹⁹ revealed a dramatic change in status of some households due to the shock. She called those who remain poor from 1997 to 1998 as chronic poor (poor) and

¹⁹ Please refer to Appendix 4

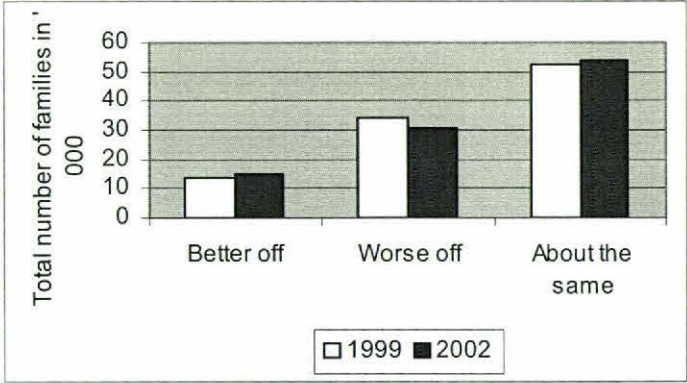
those who changed status as transient poor (non-poor). She observed that 21.7% have remained poor throughout the three-year period. Those who were poor in 1997 to 1998 and have changed their status to non-poor in 1999 account to only about 3.7% but those who were poor in 1997 and became non-poor in 1998 and changed their status to poor in 1998 account for 3.2%.

Of those who were registered from the non-poor group in 1997 and 1998 about 7.1% became poor. From the non-poor group in 1997 who became poor in 1998 but reversed their status to non-poor in 1999 account for about 6.4%. The following figure shows the movements in and out of poverty from 1997 to 1999.

From the non-poor group identified in 1997, 22.02% became poor in 1998 and dramatically increased to 57.34% in 1998. About 13.3% of those who were non-poor from 1997 to 1998 became poor in 1998. However, Reyes' basis for these figures came from government statistics.

The APIS²⁰ (2002) revealed that the situation has not improved according to the Filipino family's perception of their welfare. The figure below is a perception of the comparative statistics, 1999 and 2002, of the people's perception of their condition in the last 12 months. More people are positive that their lives will improve in the next 12 months. The APIS illustrated that 34.6% perceive their condition will improve which is a 5.6% increase from those who perceived it in 1999. These government statistical figures used the official MBN indicators in the survey.

Figure 3.5
Family's Perception of Welfare, 1999 and 2002



Source: NSO, 2003

²⁰ Annual Poverty Indicators Survey (APIS). All statistics enumerated from www.census.gov.ph/data/pressrelease/2003/apfs02ptx.html.

Other results of the survey revealed the following:

- Percentage of families with access to drinking water declined
- Families with sanitary toilets increased by 0.3%
- Families with electricity in their homes increased by 5.7%
- Houses with outer walls made of strong materials decreased by 6%
- Home ownership fell by 5%
- Families with head gainfully employed increased by 15% with improvement observed in both income strata of the lowest 40% and the highest 60%
- Families with employed member 18 years old and older decreased by 1.5%
- Enrolment in primary declined by 0.4%
- High school enrolment increased by 5.5%
- Membership of at least one family member in a legitimate people's organization increased by 7.8% with the participation rate higher in the highest 60% of the income strata
- Proportion of children working in the age bracket 5 – 17 was more than double among the lowest 40% of the income strata (NSO, 2003).

The World Bank commenting on the impact of the crisis in its Social Policy and Governance in East Asia and the Pacific webpage (in www.worldbank.org) agreed that poverty has declined “however income distribution inched up slightly and remained highly skewed.” The report added, “Recent data suggests that while incidence of poverty has declined further in 1997, inequality has risen quite sharply.” The Bank recorded the following household coping strategies.

Changes in diet were reported as a means of coping by both urban and rural households. One strategy for stretching scarce funds is to reduce meals from three to two – or even one – a day. In Davao, some families send their children to school for only half a day because they are unable to afford money for lunch. Often, women may suffer inordinately. It is customary for the woman to feed the man first, the children next and herself only after everyone else has eaten.

When the head of the household receives lower wages or is pushed out of a job, other members begin to work long hours. In Naga City, among urban squatters, children are increasingly being out to work to help bridge the financial gap. In rural households in Camarines Sur, the children often take greater responsibility for household chores, such as laundry, food preparation, house cleaning and the like as the parents devote additional time to outside income-generating activities. (The Socioeconomic Impact of the Financial Crisis in the Philippines, WB, 1998 in www.worldbank.org/eapsocial/countries/phil/pov.1.htm).

The poverty situation has deepened in the last few years despite initial gains. There have been increases in income levels of some households but the gap between those living above the poverty line and those below has widened dramatically. Economic growth has definitely not pulled the lower 30% of the population above the poverty threshold.

In fact, it has pulled them down further with external and internal problems the country has encountered. Government statistical figures serve as information base in assessing poverty. However these figures run contrary to other studies and reports. It is said that only when government statistical data are analysed and considered against all other data thus it crumble. Thus it can be surmised that the poverty problem can even be recreated by the wrong interpretation of statistical data.

POVERTY SITUATION

It was mentioned above that with modest economic gains the poverty situation improves. However, there are other factors that come into the fore which need to be examined and analysed away from the income perspective. In 1997, Congress passed the Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act or Republic Act (RA) 8425 which defined poverty and all other related terms. The poor are described as “individuals and families whose income fall below the poverty threshold as defined and/or cannot afford in a sustained manner provide for their minimum basic needs of food, health, education, housing and other essential amenities of life” (Sec. 3 (o)). Poverty alleviation refers to the reduction of absolute and relative poverty.

It is essential to differentiate poverty terms as this will lead to the effective targeting of poverty alleviation programs. It has been recognised that certain terms such as absolute, relative, urban and rural poverty need to be defined and categorised in order to determine their needs and address them effectively.

Classification

The Philippines acknowledges that there is a need for various indicators to truly capture the multi-dimensionality of the poverty problem (NAPC, 1998, p. 21). According to the NAPC the “poor in the Philippines are classified in four ways: (a) income; (b) capacity to meet basic needs; (c) by sector; (d) based on perception” (ibid).

Income. This classification computes income and subsistence or food thresholds. The present poverty threshold or poverty line is at PhP 11,620.00 and the annual per capita food threshold is at PhP 7,810.00. Thus those who are classified as poor are those whose income falls short of PhP 11,620 annually therefore unable to satisfy food and non-food basic needs. Subsistence poor are those whose income falls short of PhP

7,810.00 for basic food requirements. These poverty thresholds vary because food availability and prices are different among regions or even among provinces.

Capacity to Meet Basic Needs. RA 8425 also included the use of the Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) approach to capture the poverty situation of people and communities. The inability of individuals, families and communities to meet the basic needs describes their quality of life. The MBN is an approach used by the National Statistics Office (NSO) since 1995 to measure a Filipino's quality of life. It is based on indicators used to identify "basic needs for survival, security from physical harm and the enabling needs of the individual, family and community" (in www.nso.gov.ph). A family who does not meet the minimum basic needs in a sustained manner is considered poor and is considered a potential beneficiary of government-sponsored poverty alleviation programs. The NSO (n.d.) succinctly described the framework of the MBN stating:

In order to sustain life, the family needs to be healthy, to eat the right kind of food, to drink safe water and to have good sanitation.

To protect the family from any harm or danger, it needs to be sheltered in a peaceful and orderly environment and it should have livelihood that can support its family members to acquire their basic needs such as food, shelter, etc.

To be able to attain the survival and security needs of the family, its members should be educated and be functionally literate in order to participate actively in any community development and to take care of its psycho-social needs (italics by the author).

Sectoral Classification. Poverty "has many faces" (NAPC, 1998, p. 21). RA 8425 has identified six sectors that have distinct needs and characteristics. These sectors are: farmers and landless rural workers; fisher folks, indigenous peoples and communities; workers in the informal sector; urban poor; and other disadvantaged groups (Sec. 4 (4), (1) to (6)). The list has been expanded to include more disadvantaged groups such as victims of disasters and in conflict areas (*ibid.*, p. 25).

Self-Rated Poverty. A "subjective assessment" (Querijero, 2001, p. 8) the Social Weather Station (SWS) has developed time series since 1986 to depict poverty based on the perception of the people. The surveys have documented chronic and seasonal poverty in the country. Mangahas (1999) writing in his column Social Climate states the "purpose of this self-classification system is to be able to track the scale of poverty over time, rapidly and repeatedly."

On a scorecard, household heads were asked to point where they would locate their families given the question: “Where would you place your family in this card?” The choices were: *hindi mahirap* (not poor); *sa linya* (on the line); or *mahirap* (poor). In other parts of the country, the term *mahirap* is translated further.²¹ Aside from the scoreboard method, the SWS (1999) likewise asked, “How much is the least they would need for monthly home expenses in order not to feel poor” resulting in an estimate of the household’s own poverty threshold.

Aside from income, the SWS likewise added hunger and other indicators pertinent to poverty. For the experience on hunger the categories used are either *malimit* (*often*) or *palagi* (*always*) referring to the number of times they experience hunger.

Measurement

The NSCB and the NSO first estimated the poverty line in 1985 though academic researchers were using this as early as the 1970s. Thus the “precise, official meaning of *mahirap*” was defined to mean a family is poor if it has less capacity to spend than the official poverty line. Prior to 1985, Marcos’ New Society²² defined the poor as those families belonging to the lowest 30% (SWS, 2001; Reyes, 2001; 2002; Querijero, 2001; Javier, 2001).

Under this convenient official definition, the proportion of the poor could never increase, and so could never cause embarrassment. Neither could poverty proportion ever decrease, presumably to fulfil the biblical dictum that the poor will always be with us.

The New Society’s poor were not only made to stay, but were expected to grow in number. For every ten new families added to the growing Philippine population, three of them always appeared poor, viewed through the lenses of the New Society (Social Climate in SWS, 2001).

Today, absolute material deprivation is measured by the income-based approach of the Family Income and Expenditures Survey (FIES) conducted by the NSO every three years. Other measurements of poverty in this survey include the income gap, poverty gap, and severity of poverty. This data describes the “depth of poverty and the overall

²¹ *Pobre* (Cebuano, Waray, Bikol), *napanglaw* (Ilocano), *imol* (Ilonggo), *mairap* (Pangasinense), *miskinan* (Maguinadanao)

²² On 21 September 1972, Ferdinand Marcos proclaimed 1081 or Martial Law. He envisioned creating a “new society,” which was a good vision but unmatched by his deeds. The goals were to achieve economic stability through people’s self-reliance. Marcos emphasised the need for sacrifice for national welfare. He and his wife, Imelda, appeared to be charismatic and inspirational leaders who vowed to stamp out communist-led insurgency and criminality through military might. This however led to massive human rights abuses and corruption perpetuated by his cronies.

cost of eliminating poverty through additional income generation” (NSCB, 2003). The government statistical agencies have revised its computation of provincial poverty estimates in January 2003 using the definition stipulated in RA 8425 (in www.nscb.gov.ph/poverty/default.asp).

The government also conducts the Annual Poverty Indicators Survey (APIS) to develop poverty profiles using socio-economic indicators. APIS uses non-income indicators and provides information relevant to people’s living conditions.

NAPC (1998) also explained that the HDI captures outcome-based measures other than the lack of material means. The HDI measures the “performance of the country in terms of three outcomes: state of health, level of knowledge, skills and level of real income per capita (NAPC, 1998, p.21). Provincial level indices are now included in the survey.

The World Bank calculation is based on consumption expenditure, rather distinct from the government’s measurement, which uses the poverty line. But the former calculation is used to contrast the country with that of others in the region and the world and the Philippines uses it as a basis to which it can compare its poverty levels.

Another approach that the country uses to capture poverty in the local level is through the MBN – Community-Based Poverty Indicator and Monitoring System (CBPIMS). This is a barangay-based information-generated measure conducted by community volunteers through the supervision of the local government unit (LGU). As an indicator system, the MBN can assist the LGU to identify the poor and describe their conditions thereby accurately targeting and focusing priority action and attention. This system is collected and aggregated at the provincial level.

The MBN uses thirty-three (33) indicators²³ of which 24 are directly linked to poverty and which are closely associated with the delivery of the poverty alleviation programs under RA 8425. It is a pioneering effort of the government however refinements are definitely needed before it can be able to truthfully capture the poverty situation in the community. Moreover after its pilot implementation in recipient barangays, the MBN was discontinued. Thus the idea to collect and aggregate it did not materialise. The LGU too lack the personnel, resources and other statistical skills to undertake the activity. Thus its potential to capture poverty at the local level was nipped at the bud.

²³ Please refer to Appendix 5 for the sample MBN survey form

SUMMARY

External and internal problems have affected the country in recent years, which contributed to the widening gap between the rich, and the poor. It has been observed that the gap between urban and rural poverty continues. More so, the poor have been exposed to several vulnerable situations and have shown other needs indicators.

Poverty policies therefore need to be informed of these data in order to accurately target its recipients and to appropriately design poverty alleviation programs. The following chapter shall illustrate the different poverty policies implemented from 1986 to 2002 which may demonstrate if they have “removed, reduced or recreated” the problem.

CHAPTER FOUR

POVERTY POLICIES: FROM ARROYO TO AQUINO

The previous chapter has given a description of the poverty situation in the Philippines. This chapter shall then enumerate and briefly explain the different policies and approaches operationalised from the Aquino administration in 1986 to the Arroyo administration in 2002. Consequently, it also highlights the major accomplishments and challenges that confront each administration's poverty alleviation program.

Poverty alleviation has been an avowed priority of each administration. Since 1986, the poverty alleviation programs have highlighted the need for convergence among all sectors of society in the addressing the problem. Some of the programs are also not different from one administration to the other but it tried to imprint a distinct personality to each of the programs they implement. Likewise, some programs lack synergy between national policies and the local level priorities thereby recreating the problem. This lack of orchestration and coordination in the implementation of a national program to fight poverty has left the people unaware of policies and wanting for more information. It would seem then that the government's efforts to address the problem though notable are again, in the eyes of the people especially the poor, another item in the long list of its broken promises. It is true that the seeds of the poverty alleviation efforts of the government will take some time to bear real fruits but people are suffering and their numbers are growing each day, thus their needs have to be addressed immediately.

It has been stated that it is general policy for the state to promote the general welfare of the people. In Philippine history this tenet has evolved to effectively address the needs of the poor. The provision for social services was first articulated in the 1935 Constitution, where in the Declaration of Principles states that the State shall "promote social justice to insure the well-being and economic security of all the people." Under the Marcos regime, the "State shall establish, maintain, and ensure adequate social services in the field of education, health, housing, employment, welfare and social security to guarantee the enjoyment of the people of a decent standard of living" (1973

Constitution, Article II, Declaration of State Policies, Section 7). This section was enhanced in the 1987 Constitution stating,

The State shall promote a just and dynamic social order that will ensure the prosperity and independence of the nation and free the people from poverty through policies that provide adequate social services, promote full employment, a rising standard of living and an improved quality of life for all (Article III, Bill of Rights, Section 9).

In the same Constitution, the right to health services and education was enshrined.

The State shall protect and promote the right to health of the people and instill health consciousness among them (Article III – Bill of Rights, Section 15).

The State shall give priority to education, science and technology, arts, culture and sports to foster patriotism and nationalism, accelerate social progress, and promote total human liberation and development (Article III, Bill of Rights, Section 17).

Thus the laws firmly state the government's responsibility in ensuring that the problem of poverty is addressed. But poverty is also a political issue in the Philippines and thus its eradication has been a campaign platform of every "presidentiable" by enumerating different programs and policy approaches designed to effectively respond to the issue. A perennial problem of every administration, poverty, has been argued in this thesis, may be defined according to the social policy or action required by a present dispensation to address it. Alcock (1997) suggests that these same policies or actions made to address poverty may have "removed, restructured or even "recreated" the problem (p.5).

According to Javier (2001) said the country observed a three-pronged approach in the implementation of the country's poverty alleviation program. The national government implements its own national poverty alleviation program through its line agencies outlining its main sectoral concerns. Local government units (LGUs) likewise implement their own local anti-poverty programs and, the third is "the joint implementation of the poverty alleviation program where the LGUs are the key implementers while the national agencies act as lead facilitators" (ibid., p. 5).

The SWS (2001) in a survey conducted in March 2001 said it is correct to assume that the "public considers fighting poverty as primarily a task for government" as 75% of those polled "assigned the greater responsibility to fighting poverty to the government." Only 11% of those polled believe that the private sector has a greater role to play and

another 13% said that the two sectors are equally yoked to perform the role. No mention though was given to the role of civil society or the church in the fight against poverty.

This section shall discuss the different poverty eradication policies designed from 1986 to the present specifically outlining the poverty alleviation programs under four presidents from Mrs. Corazon Aquino to Mrs. Gloria Arroyo. The section shall illustrate how each administration perceived the problem and how they tried to address the problem. It shall also show the differences in the approach even if a law is already passed to serve as a framework in addressing poverty in the country. Each of these presidents has a defined vision of how it would handle the problem. This demonstrates the political nature reflected by the programs and projects they implement in eradicating poverty in the Philippines.

AQUINO ADMINISTRATION'S POLICY ENVIRONMENT

"I knew when I assumed office that poverty alleviation should be the primary concern of my administration. I must admit, however, that we didn't have a clear idea of how to go about it. I am not embarrassed to admit this because those who came before us had demonstrated only a remarkable capacity to aggravate mass poverty."
Pres. Corazon C. Aquino in Abueva and Roman, 1993, p. 8.

President Corazon Cojuangco-Aquino assumed power in 1986 toppling Ferdinand Marcos who had proclaimed martial rule in 1972. Her popularity and credibility stemmed from the death of her husband who was a staunch Marcos critic and she was propelled into leadership legitimised by "people power." She was given the gigantic task of rebuilding a nation, foremost of which is to return democratic principles and institutions. Specifically these were the restoration and the respect for independence of the executive, legislative and judicial powers of government creating a democratic system of checks and balances and the restoration of the freedom of the press. She is also credited with the peaceful transition of power in accordance with the Constitution.

However Mrs. Aquino inherited a plundered and devastated economy. The demands of the nation were great and the impatience of people to fully restore a working democracy was a very challenging task for a non-traditional politician. The first three years was a honeymoon period with some significant economic gains but destabilisation attempts to topple the presidency and incoherent economic policies plunged the nation back to disarray. Some critics have accused her of perpetuating some of the Marcos' economic

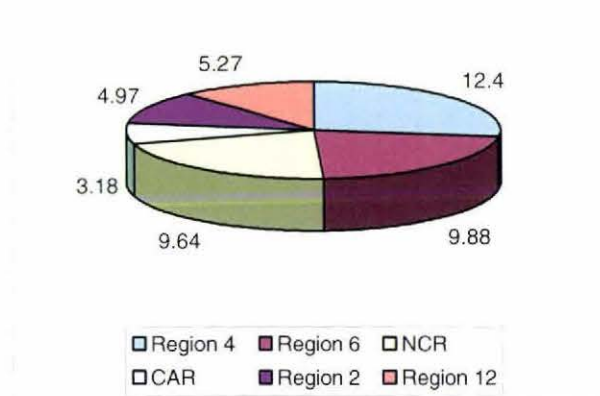
policies and her adherence to neo-liberal thinking. Aquino was also blamed by some sectors for legitimising all the foreign loans transacted by Marcos. But some agreed that with Aquino's move to honour the country's debts subsequently the country's credit standing in the international community increased.

In an essay, the Ateneo de Manila University (ADMU) (1993) described Aquino's presidency as the "democratisation project." Dismantling the "formal authoritarian apparatus" by establishing a democratic government and a free press were seen as "formal bases for democracy." Meanwhile the "dominant particularistic interests" reinstated the privilege of those who lost their lot during the Marcos era. Subsequently, the ADMU report concluded

The central government had no consistent and unifying socio-political vision. It has no clear sense of the role and responsibility of the State in charting such direction. These are major reasons why the government has not been able to free the country from debilitating structures of underdevelopment and why its approach has always been reactive amid short-term perspective. That is why it remains haunted by the same problems, which have chronically plagued the political economy (1992, p. 31).

The eradication of mass poverty was one of the six major concerns of Mrs. Aquino even when she was still campaigning for the presidency in 1986. But *Businessworld* Research head Ricardo Puig (1993) revealed, "The regions which suffer from higher poverty incidence have been getting the least allocation from government" (p. 143). The figure below shows the average budgetary allocation of each region vis-à-vis the concern for the eradication of mass poverty.

Figure 4.1
Average Annual Regional Budgetary Allocation (%)

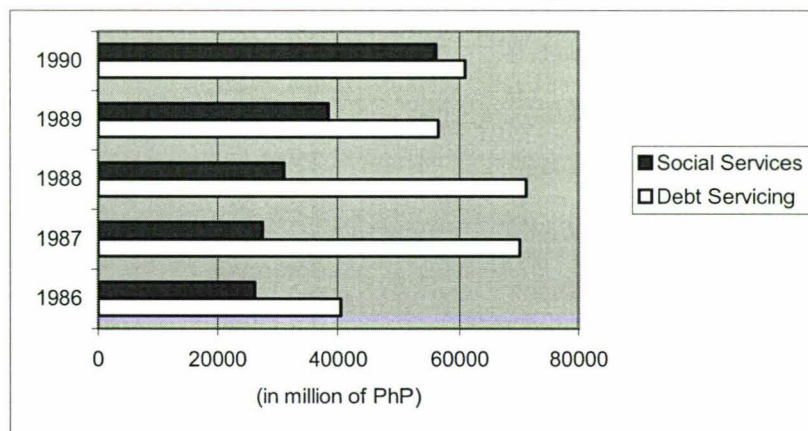


Source: Puig, 1993, p. 143.

The figure clearly exhibits the government's concern to pour more resources into more urbanised areas. Puig (1993) succinctly stressed that the NCR poverty incidence rate is 31.5% yet the provinces, which have higher poverty incidence rates of about 52 to 65%, get an average annual budget share of only 5 – 8%. In terms of investments, regions with the smaller budget share are less attractive to investors probably due to poor infrastructure facilities (ibid). For example, Puig illustrates that Regions 2 and 12 receive an annual average annual investment of about PhP 8 to 9 million compared to Southern Tagalog (Region 4), which draws total investments of PhP 186 million per year given a budget share of 12.4%. Therefore, he surmises, Region 4, given a higher budget share, would definitely yield greater outputs as opposed to the CAR, for example, which can only yield about PhP 12 billion annually with a budget share of 3.18%.

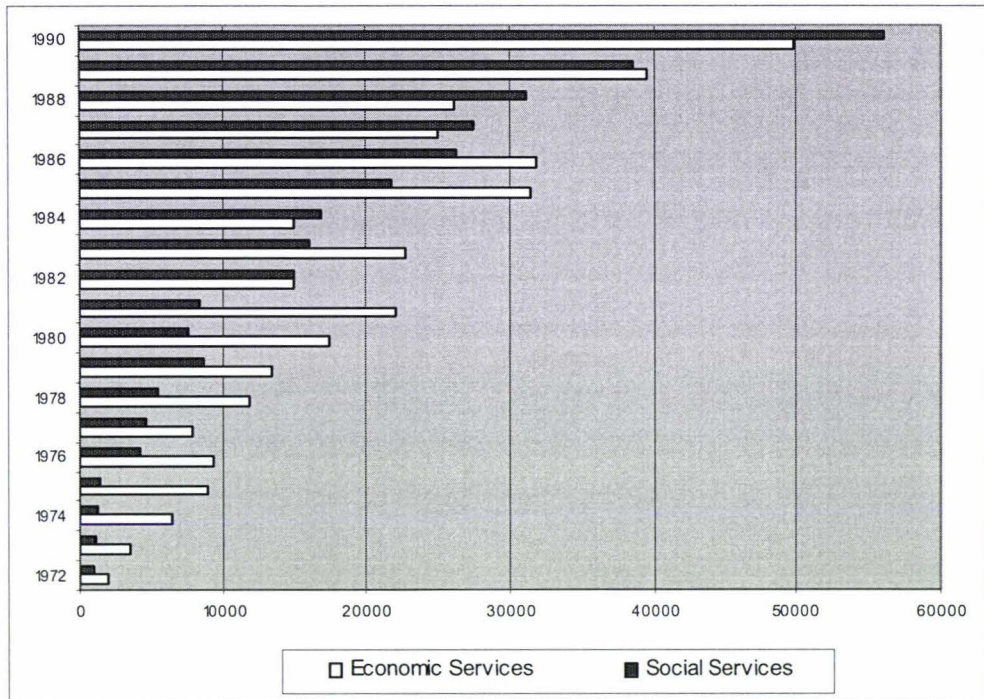
Leonor Briones (1993) looked into the expenditure pattern of the national government by major functions in the period 1960 – 1990. She revealed that the expenditure on social development and services decreased dramatically from 1971 and the shift tilted to economic services. Social services only received considerable attention after 1986 but by then the number of those who needed the services have tripled. While Marcos focused on economic services, Aquino's administration focused on debt servicing. It is significant to note that the amount allocated for debt servicing was almost double the amount allocated for social services.

Figure 4.2.
Expenditure Patterns of National Government in
Social Services and Debt Servicing, 1986 – 1990



Source: Briones, 1992, p. 133-134

Figure 4. 3
 Government Expenditure on Economic Services and Social Services, 1972 – 1990



Briones, 1992, p. 132-134.

The Aquino administration’s need to maintain and strengthen its credit standing in the international community was to the detriment of social services. As Briones’ figures revealed on average only about 22% of the national budget was allocated to social services and about 36% went to debt servicing. The destabilisation efforts to topple the presidency and other incoherent economic policies turned away most investors despite prompt debt payments. Even with the vast needs for social services, the administration never ignored debt servicing.

It might have been the administration’s aspiration that the growth of the centre would trickle down and propel economic growth in the periphery. But this was not the result as the infrastructure and other facilities in the periphery could not equal those in the centre. Thus even if the barangays are very near, only about 12 kilometres, to the urbanised areas, they remain remote, traditional and backward. Thus according to the ADMU’s (1993) report the administration “did not alleviate poverty.” Palabrica (1993) noted that despite the glowing statements of Aquino’s economic and financial team life has worsened characterised by double-digit inflation and long hours of black outs.

When the economic activity in the centre did not trickle down to the periphery rural industrialisation and countryside development was advocated by the Aquino

administration. Agriculture Secretary Senen Bacani (1993) said the objective was to increase farm–family monthly income from PhP 1,335.00 to PhP 2,000.00 in 1992. He noted that agriculture grew and was treated like a business “oriented towards the market” thus rice and corn production grew to sustainable levels and exports were proposed. Government withdrew its involvement in economic activities and allowed the market to prevail. For example, the National Food Authority cut its marketing activities to allow cooperatives to trade by themselves.

However despite structural reforms and policies to reform the agricultural sector the benefit was not significant to the small farmers and in the production of food crops (David in Roman, 1993). Some of the problems involved price controls and subsidies, inadequate support services to increase productivity, failure to develop a comprehensive land use and allocation plan, a shallow and narrow technical base, and the poor implementation of policies in the provincial and local levels. With these problems the agriculture-based, employment-centred development strategy of the administration failed despite the government’s provision of a good policy environment.

Roman (1993) quoted Agriculture Secretary Bacani saying the “Department of Agriculture involved the farmers and fishers directly in the development process as it sought to promote people empowerment” (p. 30). This was consistent to the “mainstream development of NGOs/POs which represent visions of a more equitable and sustainable development – rooted in non-traditional forms of political-economic organization” (ADMU, 1993, p.32).

The Lowest Income Municipalities Program

The Low Income Municipalities (LIMs) Program was the poverty alleviation strategy implemented by the Aquino administration to propel development in the countryside. This occurred via the provision of much-needed social services to LIMs in the country, notably, in the 20 poorest provinces. The programs instituted under this strategy include the “*Tulong sa Tao Program*” (Help for the People) which “were noted to have generated employment and increased levels of income, improved housing access among selected impoverished groups, and enhanced nutritional status among targeted groups” (Orbeta and Sanchez in Reyes, 2002, p. 13).

The Philippine Development Plan 1987 – 1992 according to Reyes’ paper²⁴ enunciates the following goals: “(a) poverty alleviation; (b) generation of more productive employment; (c) promotion of equity and social justice; and, (d) achievement of sustainable economic growth.” “For the first time, the government set a target for poverty reduction and activities for reaching the objective formed part of the Plan” (Reyes 2002, p. 39).

A rural-based development strategy was developed for the medium term towards “attainment of agricultural development and employment-generating industries” (ibid.). Concurrently “the short term strategy was to stimulate recovery by inducing demand through increased incomes.” The Community Employment and Development Program targeted rural communities and part of the activities were the “construction of small-scale, labour-intensive infrastructure projects” (ibid.).

A Philippine Development Plan Update 1990 – 1992 was released with the rural areas still the centre of the development strategy. “To attain rural development and equity objectives, planned activities include provision of physical infrastructure, enhancement of social services delivery, agrarian reform and decentralisation” with the policy emphases being on the following: economic stabilisation, countryside agro-industrialisation development, market liberalisation, human resource development, institutional reforms and decentralisation” (ibid.).

Social Welfare Services

Social welfare during the time of Marcos was synonymous with the distribution of relief good and *nutribuns*²⁵ (Dineros-Pineda, 1993, p. 265). Ferdinand Marcos’ wife led a campaign to “remove” the poor and totally eradicate poverty since they were inconsistent with their ideals of “the true, the good, and the beautiful” (ibid.). As a result of this shanties along the railroad tracks were covered with “galvanised iron painted pristine white” (ibid.). In some shanty areas walls were painted with murals of happy people and colourful figures. These painted colourful walls separated squatter houses along Manila Bay and some other residential and business areas from the view of the

²⁴ Discussion Paper No. 2002-20, part of the 25th anniversary celebration of the Philippine Institute of Development Studies

²⁵ In the 1970s the DSWD distributed nutrient-enhanced bread made from desiccated coconut to promote better nutrition among public school children

public. For the Marcos administration a picture of the impoverished showed a bad image for the country and “reflects the bad state of the economy” (Torrevillas, 1993, p. 270).

Dineros-Pineda (1993) suggested the poor loved Imelda for they were the “object” of her “love, hopes and dreams.” But treated as “objects” they were always at the mercy of a saviour, which Imelda played to the hilt. This mentality that the poor need the “magnanimity of the rich and the powerful” became deeply ingrained. Imelda personified the saviour incarnate in the eyes of the poor even in the rural areas. During the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption people were heard to exclaim, “*Kung nandito lang si Imelda, natulungan niya kami agad. Mahal kasi niya kami.*” (“If only Imelda were here she would have aided us, because she cares”) (ibid., p. 265). The dole-out mentality deeply ingrained in the consciousness of those they were serving, social welfare services during the time of President Aquino faced a monumental task.

Mrs. Aquino’s administration introduced the “development” component of social welfare to bring about equitable distribution of services. “Depersonifying” programs and projects to “focus on enabling rather than predisposing factors” (ibid, p. 266) became a vital duty for the social welfare officials. The department adopted a “multi-disciplinary approach, “which encouraged social workers to recognize the many causes of social problems and to adopt a broader outlook in analysing people's needs” (ibid.). Social welfare then has been redefined as

People working together to discover how they can make their lives better through an organised system. To what extent people participate in the process is defined by a level of analysis of human behaviour as operationalised in programs, projects and activities (ibid).

After six years the “Imelda-type” of assistance was being sorely “missed” and that the development initiatives of the social welfare department seemed to be unappreciated. It was observed that the “frantic act of junking personalities” and the “mechanical way of delivering services” were caused by the department’s dehumanising agenda. “The situation of nameless, faceless beneficiary being served by a nameless, faceless welfare officer is not able to create the context of a helping relationship between two human beings, a relationship that can be meaningful and satisfying regardless of what is given and to whom it is given” (ibid., p. 267).

Social welfare then focused more on “enabling and reinforcing” people and communities. The accomplishments of the department then centred on factors such as the number of livelihood projects started, day care centres and core shelters constructed, or number of beneficiaries served. It was also noted that these only opens opportunities for people which an “individual may or may not avail of” or “may not even recognise these opportunities.” A private organization recounted a story when they provided 50 pigs to an Aeta resettlement area for livelihood projects when “the next day they were all eating *lechon* (roasted pigs!)” (ibid., p. 267). It is then important to “help the individual make choices and maximizing options” is part of “changing one’s values, attitudes, and knowledge” (ibid). Again, the suggestion was for the social welfare office not just to remove the Imelda complex but to “address the basic values, attitudes and beliefs that allowed this system of helping to flourish in the first place, and to move from prescribing what must be done to including the people in the process of planning their own social welfare programs” (ibid., p. 268).

Manalili (1993) however lamented that the efforts being fostered by the social work department were not being complemented by other government agencies as they “sometimes contribute to pushing people toward greater dependency” (p. 269). For example, he noted the propensity of some government agencies to establish community associations/organizations “instead of developing their own initiative.” These organizations have mushroomed in the rural and squatter areas and “this procedure of organising will result in greater division/disunity among the people” (ibid.).

President Aquino was credited for reinstating democratic institutions and principles. Despite attempts to destabilise her administration, she stood firmly and fought for these principles. However, the lack of cohesive and innovative economic and financial policies weakened the economy further. Economic and social problems she had inherited from previous authoritarian rule together with destabilisation efforts from right wing military and the communist block exacerbated it. She admitted that her administration had no clear vision of fighting poverty. Social welfare services tried to put on a new costume but ended up wearing the same due to the need to respond to numerous disasters and the difficulty of changing people’s attitudes. As such, poverty alleviation programs were reactive, short-term, piecemeal and unfocused. It was believed that addressing the economic concerns would adequately reduce poverty but

the formula failed to work. The administration had instead recreated the problem and deepened the severity of poverty in the country.

PRESIDENT FIDEL RAMOS AND THE SOCIAL REFORM AGENDA

“Through the SRA, we made the eradication of poverty and the narrowing of the gap between the ‘haves’ and the ‘have-nots’ as the centrepiece of our development efforts.” President Fidel V. Ramos, 1998, p. 8.

With a functioning democracy in place, Joker Arroyo (1992) said, “Cory cleared the way for President-elect Ramos to improve the economy and services in a way that would benefit poor Filipinos” (p. 90). Further the challenge for the next administration was to catch up with the Asian neighbours whose authoritarian regimes have economically become vibrant. The ADMU (1992) essay said, “The democratic legacy of February 1986 cannot be sustained and deepened with a continuation of the policies of the programs of the present administration. But neither can genuine and sustainable development be attained by retrogression to the monopolistic and authoritarian practices of the Marcos dictatorship” (p. 31). Other developments that were noted were the emergence of well organised NGOs and POs whose presence cannot be discounted as well as the “rise of more socially conscious and politically active Church.” The engine of growth in the countryside was in motion and new economic alliances are gradually being formed.

Thus President Fidel V. Ramos’ administration’s urgent task was to put the economy on track through *Philippines 2000*. This blueprint of growth was anchored on political stability and economic growth in the first two years and addressing social reforms on the second phase. It was envisioned that economic growth would improve average incomes and thereby alleviate poverty and enhance human development. His administration reiterated the need for “democratic political authority to undertake reforms” showing the world that “democracy and development are not incompatible” (Ramos, 1998, p. 22).

The Social Reform Agenda (SRA) was the centrepiece poverty alleviation vehicle intended to address the inequalities experienced by the people. Ramos said of his centrepiece program, “through the SRA, we made the eradication of poverty and the

narrowing of the gap between the ‘haves’ and the ‘have-nots’ as the centrepiece of our development efforts” (ibid., p. 8). The SRA was an integrated approach to “win the war against poverty” to assure that the economic growth which Ramos calls “bibingka”²⁶ is equitably shared. Ramos further said, “the development interventions integrate the various dimensions of poverty, foremost among which is the promotion of social equity and democratised governance” (ibid., p.22).

Reyes (2002, p. 40) noted that the “idea was that the government should not anchor development on its own actions” but “rather development should proceed primarily from the economic initiatives of communities, household firms, cooperatives, NGOs, as expressed in well-functioning markets.” Ramos (1998) believed that the problem should be solved on a sectoral basis thus the different marginalised groups were identified and targeted to be the primary recipients of the program. Thus small-scale and focused interventions were put in place instead of the wide-scale, high impact projects.

Launched on 25 July 1995, the SRA is composed of a set of social reform packages providing programs and services for marginalised sectors in the country’s 20 poorest provinces. It used the Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) approach as its “core strategy to manage anti-poverty efforts and ensure the matching of anti-poverty programs and services with actual needs” (ibid., p. 22).

The SRA envisions that it will enable citizens to “(a) meet their basic and human needs and live decent lives; (b) widen their share of resources from which they can earn a living or increase the fruits of their labour; and, (c) enable them to effectively participate in the decision-making process that affects their rights, interests and welfare” (Agenda 21, in www.un.org.esa/agenda21/).

Aside from the identified 20 poorest provinces four target groups were identified: (1) small and landless farmers; (2) fisher folks and indigenous peoples groups; (3) urban poor; and, (4) disadvantaged groups. Two National Anti-Poverty Summits were called in 1995 and 1996 enjoining all the sectors to draw up a comprehensive plan. This became known as the National Action Agenda on Poverty Alleviation (NAAPA) with the primary goal of reducing poverty by “about 20% in 2004” according to UNDP Philippines.

²⁶ Rice cake referring to the economic pie

The Presidential Management Staff (1998) in its accomplishment report of the Ramos Administration said PhP 8.6 billion had been invested in the SRA under the Poverty Alleviation Fund and Local Government Empowerment Fund. This was in addition to the regular budget of several government agencies undertaking SRA-related programs and projects.

The “Ramos administration’s thrust for poverty alleviation programs was seriously demonstrated through the mapping of poverty areas and forging initiatives to formulate a master list of the depressed, deprived, undeserved provinces, families and individuals” (Bautista in Javier, 2001, p. 10).

Republic Act 8425 - Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act

President Ramos worked vigorously for the institutionalisation of the SRA. In July 1997, Congress passed into law the Republic Act (RA) 8425 known as the Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act. The law stipulates that an “area-based, sectoral and focused intervention” shall be put in place to fight poverty. It also calls for “asset reform or the redistribution of productive economic resources to basic sectors” including the “adoption of a system of public spending which is targeted towards the poor.” It also enumerated several measures that would constitute the “national framework (for) integrating various structural reforms and anti-poverty initiatives.”

RA 8425 provided the concepts and definitions of poverty. Thus the poor refer to “individuals and families whose income fall below the poverty threshold as defined by the NEDA and/or cannot afford in a sustained manner to provide their minimum basic needs of food, health, education, housing and other essential amenities of life” (Sec. 3, (o)). Definitions of absolute and relative poverty are given including those who are classified as urban poor. However, no mention is given for those residing in rural areas, which as mentioned above constitute more than half of the total poor.

The law also recognised the national poverty summits earlier conducted by the administration. It highlights that the law shall adopt and integrate the SRA and incorporate a “multi-dimensional approach to poverty” and addresses some identified reforms.

Two more sectors were added to the four earlier identified by the SRA to widen the scope of the “sector-specific flagship programs.” These are the “workers in the informal sector and members of other disadvantaged groups such as women, children, youth, and persons with disabilities, the elderly, and victims of natural and man-made calamities” (Sec. 4, No. (4) and (6)).

Section 4 of the law also enumerates four “cross-sectoral flagship” programs which are: (1) institution-building and effective participation in governance; (2) livelihood programs; (3) expansion of micro-credit/microfinance services and capacity-building; and (4) infrastructure build up and development.” Several sections are also devoted to funding sources such as the establishment of the People’s Development Trust Fund (Sec.10 and 11) and the operationalisation of micro financing projects to be implemented by the People’s Credit and Finance Corporation, “the vehicle for the delivery of microfinance services exclusively for the poor” (Title II, Sec. 14, - 17)

To implement the tenets of the law, the National Anti-Poverty Commission (NAPC) was created as an “advisory and coordinating body” under the Office of the President. The created body absorbed most of the functions of three offices earlier created to address poverty alleviation. The President sits as the chairperson of the NAPC and appoints a lead convenor that shall serve as head of the Anti-Poverty Commission Secretariat.

Funding sources and appropriations were also clearly stipulated in the law to ensure its smooth implementation. PhP 100,000,000 was initially appropriated aside from the funds of the collapsed agencies. It also outlined the sourcing of funds for the succeeding years assuring the continuity of the program (Title III, Sec. 18).

The role of LGUs was also delineated in the law. It is the duty of the LGU to: (a) identify the poor in their areas based on the results of the MBN, the human development index report, location, occupation, nature of employment, primary resource base; formulate a anti-poverty action agenda; (b) identify and source funding for specific social reform and poverty alleviation projects; (c) coordinate, monitor and evaluate the efforts of the LGU with the private sector on planning and implementation of the local

action program; and, (d) coordinate and submit progress reports to the NAPC regarding their local action programs (Sec. 12).

Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS)

The Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS) was one of the nine flagship programs under the Social Reform Agenda. The five-year program bottom-top approach was designed to fight poverty by building capacities of Filipino families and their communities to address their unmet minimum basic needs using various approaches that are suitable to their environment. Del Rosario (2003) suggested, “What sets the CIDSS program apart from most other government-initiated programs is the direct and active involvement of the communities themselves” (p. 4). The Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) was the main proponent agency and it directed it consolidated all of the department’s projects to poverty alleviation.

CIDSS was considered to be the first line of intervention. It was believed that the minimum basic needs of the community have to be met through a concerted effort. It was an important exercise and a vital feature of the program that needs of the community have to be assessed before other structural reforms such as land ownership or infrastructure development can be implemented.

Due to budgetary constraints, about 200 to 250 families in three barangays in 5th and 6th class municipalities and 100 urban communities were identified as beneficiaries. Criteria for the selection of beneficiaries were drawn up from the Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) survey conducted. Over the years the number of beneficiaries and localities has increased.

Table 4.1
Number of Beneficiaries and Coverage of the CIDSS, 1994 - 2000

| YEAR | BARANGAYS | MUNICIPALITIES | PROVINCES |
|------|-----------|----------------|-----------|
| 1994 | 150 | 75 | 33 |
| 1995 | 625 | 275 | 49 |
| 1996 | 855 | 290 | 51 |
| 1997 | 1154 | 432 | 77 |
| 1998 | 2042 | 960 | 77 |
| 2000 | 3893 | 1084 | 79 |

Sources: DSWD, CIDSS; MIMAP, 1997; AusAid, 1999.

However the identification of beneficiaries was not based on poverty level but on the description of the municipalities. The classification of a 5th or 6th class municipality set in 1993 by the Department of Finance (DOF) depended on their need for Internal Revenue Allotment (IRA), population and size. It was only at the local level where the MBN surveys have been conducted that the criteria become suitable to the needs of the community. Priority was given to “barangays with limited access to basic services as indicated in the MBN survey; high incidence of dysfunctional families; low level of community participation; and stable peace and order situation” (Caluen, n.d., p. 2).

Several projects²⁷ were implemented under the CIDSS which include, (1) capacity-building; (2) supplemental feeding; (3) self-employment assistance; (4) emergency shelter assistance; (5) day care services; (6) core shelter assistance program; (7) educational assistance; (8) innovative projects.

To implement projects, the program used four main strategies which included the following: (1) convergence; (2) focused targeting; (3) community organising; and, (4) total family approach. The convergence approach orchestrated the activities major stakeholders in the delivery of basic services thereby pooling resources. It called for partnerships with NGOs and the private sector and the synchronisation of the different government agencies’ programs and projects. Projects were focused and targeted on individuals and families in their respective communities. Likewise, people in the community were encouraged to identify their unmet minimum basic needs, prioritise these unmet needs and implement projects. Then they organise themselves to group/associations or committees. Instead of targeting identified disadvantaged sectors such as women, children, disabled or the elderly, the family became the focus of the program. It anchored the program on addressing the family’s needs as whole, which can generate positive results for the disadvantaged members.

Program Phases²⁸. The program is divided into three phases. The first phase of the program includes the preparation stage. The second phase is the implementation stage and the third is the localisation or the transfer of responsibility to the local government unit. The first and second phases will be covered within a period of five years and will regularly receive funding support. The third phase is envisioned to be a continuing

²⁷ Please refer to Appendix 6 for CIDSS Programs and Projects

²⁸ Please refer to Appendix 7 and 8 for CIDSS Program Phases and Implementation Flow

process that could have established the main framework for the delivery of social services in the community.

Preparation Phase. The first phase involves the selection of the beneficiaries, setting the criteria for selection and the establishment of the convergence approach. The convergence approach inter-phases the activities of local government units and synchronises the activities of the line agencies to form the development action plan. A regional inter-agency committee assists the DSWD-CAR in the supervision of the regional plan. At the local level, the Municipal Inter-Agency committee manages the CIDSS implementation.

Selection of the CIDSS Implementer. It is in the first phase that the CIDSS implementer was designated. The DSWD appoints on a contractual basis an implementer who is pre-selected by the CIDSS Municipal Inter-Agency Committee and will work among the beneficiaries. The implementer is primarily chosen for their willingness to be immersed in the communities and their familiarity with the coverage areas. DSWD Secretary Lina Laigo (2001) in an ASEAN workshop said the “skill and adaptability of the workers are important qualities as these allow them to adapt the service to the requirements of the beneficiary” in (www.aseansec.org). She added that the service provider also “has to make decisions on appropriateness of intervention and whether it is helpful to the target beneficiary. The skilled worker is able to retool the interventions and to make it more responsive to clients.”

The selection of the CIDSS implementer in this case may also be made into a political issue. Whoever is chosen may be burdened by a debt of gratitude (*utang na loob*) to the local government official as has been ingrained into the Filipino cultural mentality. As such, local government officials may push for their own personal interests in the coverage areas to further their political gains. The program does not safeguard this kind of relationship. Likewise, the monitoring of the implementer’s performance is endorsed by the local government and is based upon quantitative measures such as the number of infrastructure projects. Laigo (2001) suggested a more qualitative approach in the evaluation of the performance of the CIDSS implementer.

In the social preparation stage the CIDSS implementer is said to be the “nexus” between all the stakeholders involved. Described also as a “shepherd” of the program, the

implementer balances the interests and the values of these stakeholders and provides an open line for interaction and communication. Below is a story of a CIDSS implementer on how she was able to “break through” the community.

Lorna Villaseñor and works as the community CIDSS implementer in San Jose. How the people perceived the (waterworks) project would have been difficult had it not been for two factors: familiarity and sincerity. Her years of residency in the municipality made her known to almost everybody.

Her efforts in visiting and assisting the barangay leaders prepare their plan and proposal and her continuous monitoring showed the people that she was sincere. After sometime, projects started to materialise and with pride, she and the rest of the community members accepted the challenge to sustain these projects.

“Ako mismo alam ko kung anong kailangan nila. Pero kung makikita nilang pursigido tayong mag-assist, iba ang dating nito sa kanila. Mas mararamdaman nilang kasali sila.” (I, myself, know what their needs are. But if they will see that we are persistent to assist only, this seems a different approach to them. All the more will they feel they are a part of it.” (Arceo, 1999, pp. 94 – 95).

In this case, the CIDSS implementer, having resided in the community for some time, could have identified the needs for the beneficiaries. Instead, she painstakingly assisted the community until they came up with their own plan and proposal. She was persistent to inform the community that her task was only to assist. This gave the community a sense of participation and to be able to take direct action to meet their unmet needs. It may have been a very gratifying experience to these people.

But this cannot always be the case. Success stories have been documented but to present a working program, the unsuccessful stories will remain unheard of therefore no lessons are learned from the experience. For instance, it would be easy for the CIDSS implementer to identify the projects and to prepare the plan and the proposal her/himself to facilitate and expedite the process and for the project to materialise sooner than go through the slow process of community identification, prioritisation and planning.

Marietta D. Dayata is a 23-year old college graduate, sprightly and friendly. She was not from the mountain town of Barrio Bobong in Kitaotao, Bukidnon nor was she related to anyone from there. But she was able to bring change to the community life of the area. But it was not without suspicion, fear or indifference.

Dayata went on an immersion program of her own. She lived in Bobong. “I needed to get to know the people,” she said. She quietly observed the community and took notes of potential leaders. She gave a theatre workshop for people to act

out their needs and problems and sat down with them. She filed her reports and waited.

When the novelty of her presence receded, folks began to be suspicious of her. Some thought she was a communist spy or why would she bother to ask these questions. Some had to check her out in the *municipio* (town hall). Verified and confirmed, her task of community organising did not progress smoothly. People's sentiments were that, "It was all talk" or "If it's government support, just give it to us, quick."

Barrio Bobong's main problem was the lack of a footbridge over the Muleta River that would link the barrio to the nearby Kauyonan. Some primary students would shed their clothes and swim across to get to the elementary school each day. Flash floods were common and one story went that a person to be brought to the hospital was swept down by the river's strong current.

Dayata felt it was the time to build a bridge – both real and symbolic. What the community needed was results. She worked hard to make the project a reality. For two months from September to October 1996, men, women and children laboured no end to carry fifty sacks of cement, dozens of sand and gravel and other construction materials to prepare for the construction of the footbridge. An engineer from the town was commissioned for the actual construction but his workers all came from Bobong. The footbridge was inaugurated in March 1997. This bridge epitomises what the CIDSS program is about – to provide access to marginal communities and bring them hope and progress. (Pastrano, 1999, pp 12–19).

Rahnema (1992) may have termed the CIDSS implementer as the change-agent "genuinely seeking to learn from the people how *they* defined and perceive change, and how they thought to bring it about" (p. 231). Rahnema however cautioned that there is a tendency for these change-agents to identify these needs according to their own conception and in some cases ideological leanings.

Implementation Phase. It has been recognised that the social preparation phase sets the stage for the formal implementation of the program. It readies the community for the program's entry. In an ASEAN workshop on the delivery of social services (2001), it was noted, "Social preparation must be approached seriously and, most important, sufficient time and technical and financial resources must be allocated for the process. The time issue was seen as particularly critical. Efforts should be continuous and not just limited to short-term training or briefing exercises. There were also general needs for (a) emphasising complementarity of available skills including those of NGOs and private sector and (b) providing adequate resources to build effective IEC (information, education and communication) systems in support of social preparation activities and to

further strengthen the available pool of human resources available to carry out these types of activities.” (ASEAN Secretariat, 2001).

Community leaders and volunteers are chosen at this stage. The volunteers who will assist the CIDSS implementer should be prepared and committed to their tasks. They will form a team that mobilises the community to work for the success of the program and the specific projects they have identified. Mostly, these volunteers are those who have earlier been identified as leaders in the community. Likewise, cultural values are ingrained in the community in its choice of leaders. A person’s community-wide reputation takes on “leadership capital” as with the other cultural factors that the community adheres to. No doubt the Filipino’s value for close friendly relations or *pakikisama* (group loyalty) stretches far too wide and other status symbol in the community such as age, wealth, and education are also major factors in the choice of leaders. At times, factors such as a person’s compassionate nature and/or approachable ways are given more emphasis than wealth, education or age. Thus the representativeness of the leaders and volunteers cannot be guaranteed.

After the program orientation, the MBN survey is conducted. Prior to this those who are conducting the survey undertake training on the administration of the questionnaire, processing and analysing of data, and ways in which to present the data gathered to the community. In the survey, the community members are asked to identify their unmet basic needs out of 33 given indicators.

The MBN survey aims to capture the poverty situation in an area due to the unavailability of statistical data. The CIDSS implementer, trained volunteers and the LGU jointly conduct the survey. Results of the MBN are submitted to the DSWD-CAR, provincial office and municipal office to form part of the official data and incorporated into the development plans, which may be the basis for future interventions. Ideally the MBN is a bi-annual exercise to document the changes in the unmet basic needs of the community.

The MBN survey results are presented to the community. Neither the CIDSS implementer nor anyone who conducted the survey has control over the results of the MBN survey. Del Rosario (2003) said the “process of conducting the survey, as well as the results that emerge from this participatory exercise, is to a large extent, an act of

faith on the part of the CIDSS worker that its outcome truly reflects the sentiments of the community” (p.6).

The top ten unmet needs of the community are identified from the list gathered. The community will then prioritise these needs and plan and propose projects to address these needs. The volunteers and the CIDSS implementer assist this participatory exercise. The unmet needs arise from the 33 indicators ticked by the community members from the questionnaire. The questionnaire looks like a menu where the community chooses from it. It would have been more participatory if the community were to truly identify their own needs. However, there are also those who argue that the community may not be able to identify their own needs. Thus the list was prepared.

CIDSS veers away from mobilising the community merely to facilitate the delivery of a package of social services imparted by technical people but of ensuring that the people’s organisation (POs) leaders have a role to play in selecting the services applicable to them from a menu of projects. The people are given the opportunity to make decisions rather than to serve as mere recipients of “impact programs” defined or designed by key policymakers (Bautista, n.d.).

There are cases where the volunteers conducting the survey are also the beneficiaries themselves. In this case a clear conflict of interest arises. The identified needs may be those considered by the interviewer as a priority and not of those of being interviewed. Identified needs in the community too are sometimes interrelated as illustrated by this story below.

Talalang is a barangay in the Municipality of Balbalan. The people in the area are very organised. They once opposed the National Power Corporation’s proposed construction of a mini-hydroelectric power plant in 1990. Most of the locals still remember opposing the construction of the controversial Chico Dam in the 1970s, which resulted to the death of tribal leader, Macliing Dulag.

Talalang residents identified their low income as their most pressing problem. Farming was their main livelihood but the inefficient irrigation system often resulted in low income crop yields. Other problems such as milling services and hauling have brought down the price of their produce.

Surprisingly, the community proposed to have a mini-hydroelectric power plant in the area that would be connected to the tributaries of the Saltan River. The plant will have two purposes: properly direct the water flow to the rice fields, and provide enough electricity that will help people do extra work like pottery-making to augment their income.

The DSWD CAR released the amount of PhP 92,000. The municipal government added PhP 40,000 and some money from the Food for Work was saved to add on the project cost. People in the barangay even undertook

fundraising activities to for gasoline expenses. Today the residents can now see their way at night without the smell and inconvenience of gas lamps or *saleng* (torches) (Lorenzo and Balinong, 1999, pp. 22 – 27).

Storey and Overton (2002) said, “People may not be able to identify their immediate problems and thus attempt to solve them without seeing the underlying causes of their situation. What results will merely treat their symptom rather than attack the cause. Knowledge of the wider world and a sense of critical awareness is needed” (p.29). This is typical of some of the identified projects such as construction of day care centres, which in the end are under utilised because children are better kept inside the house.

Capacity Building and Training. Capacity building and training is a tedious and expensive exercise however, changes in values, attitudes and practices brought about by these trainings can help ensure the sustainability of projects and activities formulated by the community.

Nida B. Diaz or *Aling Nida* is from Mapulang Lupa, Valenzuela City, Metro Manila. She is a perfect example of a heroine for the people in her community. For three years she served as president of the *Samahang Pangkabuhayan sa Purok 6* (Livelihood Association of Neighbourhood 6. But before this, Aling Nida was the neighbourhood “*tong-its*” (popular card game) queen. Her husband had the reputation of being the neighbourhood bully and drunkard. Their combination was the perfect formula for a dysfunctional family.

In 1996, CIDSS was introduced to this urban poor community. Volunteers were asked for and Aling Nida without even knowing what she was getting into, enlisted herself as one of the volunteers. Her initial thoughts were, “*May magiging puhunan na ako* (Finally, I’ll have the seed money.)” But it was not for a serious livelihood project but for her favourite pastime: *tong-its*. She did not believe in any government program. For her and her friends, it was only the politicians who benefited from these projects and were merely using other people to attain their political ambitions.

So she was a reluctant volunteer. No one was more surprised than herself when she found herself actively taking part in the implementation of the program. She would tirelessly go from one barangay to another talking about CIDSS and encouraging people to cooperate and join the program. She was later elected president of one of the associations, SAPPSEA-K, formed to create livelihood projects. The association was formed so that housewives could earn additional income for their families.

She also stayed away from gambling and stayed at home most of the time. She obtained a loan for PhP6,000 and started a small *sari-sari*²⁹ store and successfully paid her interest-free loan after a year. When she had enough savings she joined the others in setting up a stuffed toy making venture. They

²⁹ A small convenience store selling basic essentials and commodities

applied the skills learned from the training conducted by the DSWD's Productivity and Skills Capability Centre. Her group is now producing and selling a variety of stuffed toys. They distribute to schools and malls.

Aling Nida also has plans for the barangay. She is an example of how anyone can change. She wants to be remembered as a person who used to be indifferent to a person who now makes life better for other people. She is a small woman who made it big enough to be a woman of substance. (Reyes, 2001, pp. 80 – 84).

However, Caluen (n.d.) noted, "While community leaders gained basic skills in project management and community organising, they still lack the competence to sustain organisational development among their ranks" (in www.apo-tokyo.org). She also called for the strengthening of networks and for the formalisation of linkages together with the expansion of membership and focusing on common targets (ibid). As these leaders gain and develop these organisational skills, the DSWD or the LGUs assist them in expanding their membership. They can also be trained for leadership in the basic sectors³⁰ within the area. The potential should be recognised and harnessed in order for the community to be able to access more resources and services in future. In this capacity building stage, the community was asked to identify their own resources and capabilities that resulted to teamwork and community work.

In Barangay Mabaus in Carmen, Davao del Norte, visiting World Bank consultants once marvelled at the ability of poor farmer folks to draft comprehensive and detailed accounting of government funds channelled to the village. Attached with the ledgers were receipts and other financial documents recording down to the very last centavo the cash flowed in the construction of various government-assisted infrastructure projects and the community-led implementation of health and other social services delivery projects in the village. The consultants commented that for a poor community to have such a capability is a sign of an empowered people. (Canuday, 2001, pp. 66-67).

The Australian Agency for International Development (1999) recognised the informal or formal support mechanisms within a community, which assists the socio-economic and even spiritual aspects of a community's development. "In many poor areas these organizations have much more impact on people's lives" and it also noted that the Philippines are the only country in Asia with "so many local development organizations" (ibid., p. 5).

³⁰ The 14 basic sectors according to RA 8425 include women, children, indigenous cultural communities/indigenous peoples, persons with disabilities, urban poor, youth and students, farmers and landless rural workers, workers in the informal sector, senior citizens, artisanal fisherfolk, workers in the formal sector and migrant workers, victims of disasters and calamities, NGOs, and cooperatives

The ability of all the community members to join in the participatory exercise may also be railroaded by the leaders. The implemented projects may be the priority of the leaders or in some cases the CIDSS worker. Further, high-impact projects were also most likely to be identified in order to look good on accomplishment reports.

The story below illustrates the inability of the people to decide on the project. Their participation was limited by the choices provided for them by the community leaders. Lorenzo and Balinong (1999) documented the story of CIDSS worker Edna Padio, assigned in the villages of Talalang and Sese-an in Balbalan in the Cordillera Administrative Region. She relished the idea of replicating the *Kimkimit* firefly project in Banaue, Ifugao, an inspiring story of how a community lit up their small village. She thought of replicating the project in Balbalan, a non-energised village. It may have been due to her pushing that the project was identified even if the most pressing identified unmet need was low income.

Inspired by the community's enthusiasm, Edna shared her long-cherished thoughts. She led the barangay leaders to explore the concept of the Kimkimit, particularly how it could be adapted to Talalang. As a result, they found themselves boarding the bus bound for Carambulo, Banaue in Ifugao to see the Firefly Dynamo Project and were all the more inspired to replicate the idea (ibid., p. 24).

In the end they had to look for other models since the firefly dynamo project was very expensive and they did not have the batteries needed to operate the plant. Likewise, in the documentation, the barangay officials rather than the volunteers or community leaders were the main driving force behind the projects chosen. The community were only informed of developments but the extent of their participation was probably very limited. The decision had been made and any objections from the community may have fallen on deaf ears because the barangay had pursued the project relentlessly.

Without wasting time the CIDSS worker and the barangay leaders informed the people of the good news. They eagerly discussed with the community the possibility of constructing the project in Talalang (one of the villages) and how it could succeed. Immediately after the meeting, the local people agreed to help carry out the project. (ibid., p. 25)

Another controversial issue was the use of CIDSS funds to augment the cost of the mini hydroelectric plant. The Food for Work (FFW) was intended to be given to the

volunteer workers who were to work on the installation and other projects in the community.

Again, the leaders explored the FFW project scheme and explained its concept thoroughly to the community to avoid any objections during the construction phase. The residents agreed to use the FFW money to purchase construction materials. (ibid.)

While the community members were included in the discussions, any objections would not been listened to since the project had been earlier decided upon.

Mobilisation Phase. Mobilisation is the full implementation of the projects. The CIDSS worker assists the community in drafting their project proposals and outlines their implementation plan. This plan is submitted to the Municipal Inter-Agency Committee (MIAC) chaired by the municipal mayor and includes members of the different regional government line agencies. In this inter-agency committee no mention is given on the role of the private sector or the NGOs in the area. The mayor then approves and recommends the project to the DSWD regional office for funding. This looks more like a regular government project. The project is reviewed by the MIAC and can just be a political exercise. The community in this sense does not have the assurance that the project it has proposed is likely to be approved since if it is not congruent with the personal interests of the municipal mayor or the priorities of the MIAC it does not get endorsed. No mechanism has been instituted to safeguard the community's choice of projects or the ability of the LGUs to take their hands off in the choice of projects

An example is given in the case of Talalang residents who have sought the assistance of the municipal government for additional funding for the construction of a mini-hydroelectric plant powered by batteries. The barangay leaders drafted a proposal to seek the council's resolution for additional funding. Lorenzo and Balinong (1999) recounted the following story.

A natural course of political debate, members of the council first scoffed at the project claiming that to construct and operate were beyond the capacity of the people. Barangay officials who attended the deliberation received terse and cruel remarks.

But steadfast in a gracious tome, the barangay leaders accepted the challenge and convinced the council. The resolution was finally approved though the earmarked amount was reduced (p.26).

Forming or organising the community structures is also crucial to the program. For each identified project a committee, group or association is formed to execute its implementation. The community chooses and elect officers and members of this committee/group/association. It will have its own set of officers and the responsibilities and functions of each position are outlined and defined. As such, the secretary is to record the proceedings of each meeting. The treasurer is to keep a record of all financial transactions of the group. This includes being the disbursement officer and the bookkeeper. A training beforehand has been conducted for them to be able to imbue most of the functions of their respective positions.

In Bagong Silang, Kalookan City, Metro Manila, Package 2 in Phase 9 was identified as an urban poor community and was identified as a CIDSS coverage area. Among the 33 indicators of the MBN survey, family income below the subsistence threshold level was identified as one of the unmet needs. To address this, a group of 25 low-income earning families were identified.

They were asked to organise themselves into a Self-Employment Assistance-*Kaunlaran* Association. In July 1998, after a series of postponements, the first organisational meeting was held. Elections of officers were conducted and sub-groups were formed. The name "ACHIEVERS *Kaunlaran* 2000" was conceived. The name became the driving stimulus of the members in the years to come. As part of the social preparation stage, a formal Basic Business Management and orientation were conducted. While awaiting release of their funds for capital assistance, the group underwent several livelihood training programs on food processing and stuff toy making under the DSWD's PSCB.

Aside from relying on the seed capital to be given by the DSWD, the group also conducted other fund raising activities such as the "raffle bonanza." The money generated from the fund raising activities went into the Association's fund while a certain amount was donated to the Purok office. Monoblock chairs were donated as the Purok office was being used for meetings and for other purposes in the community.

The group used their loan to put up individual or collective small-scale businesses such as peanut butter making, cooked foods, livestock raising, design and manufacturing of stuffed toys and sewing rugs distributed to factories and stores.

Some positive intangible effects resulting from the participation in an organization such as the ACHIEVERS could be seen in the improved personality and attitude towards life of its members. The group too has also been involved in other projects such as the coordination for the construction of infrastructure projects such as the facilitation for the connection of their community's waterline to the city government's main water pipe.

A chain reaction of sorts was generated among their community. Two years ago the members hardly knew each other. This they said was disturbing since they all

belonged to the same community. Today, everyone in the community is involved. The camaraderie has been kept alive among the members by giving annual recognition awards such as “Most Industrious,” “Most Helpful,” “Good Payer” and undergo team building exercises in the form of recreational activities (Ruiz, 2001, pp. 36 – 40).

It will be noted that most of the projects under the SEA-K are menu-based. This means that there seems to be limited choices for livelihood projects. The DSWD’s PSCB offers very limited livelihood training programs and may be swayed by what seems to be the “in’ or fashionable business at the moment. For example, when the stuffed toy business was booming, neighbourhoods were all producing stuffed toys probably as recommended by the CIDSS implementer or the DSWD office as success stories on this business abound. There was a time when the rag business was the “in” thing so most of the livelihood programs funded sewing machines. There should be more choices so as not to seem reduplicating. It might be possible that once one of the business establishments or outlets hits a snag, the sudden closing of markets, for example, will trigger a domino-like effect affecting the rest of these small-scale businesses leaving people with debts, unusable equipment and unused raw materials. It would be important to link these organizations with other NGOs, church-based development groups or other training institutions of the government such as the TESDA,³¹ the Department of Trade and Industry’s (DTI) training arm, or the Department of Agriculture (DA).

Likewise, since the DSWD PSCB is located in the NCR, those in the rural areas will not be able to avail of these services. Thus, those in the rural areas are often left with livelihood projects that lack creativity, innovativeness, and remain traditional.

Communities might also fall prey to “committee overload” (Del Rosario, 2003). It also is possible that one individual can be an officer of two or more organizations as there is no provision or regulating rules that prevent an individual to having multiple memberships or being elected to any position in the different organisations. As such, the same people get to decide for the whole of the community.

Del Rosario (2003) was more concerned about the substance of these committees. It has happened that in several barangays there are as many as 11 committees, most of them really just a listing of structures. Sometimes, their membership overlap and

³¹ Technology Education and Skills Development Authority

possibly some community members sit in as many as 6 – 7 committees. The issue is whether these committees function at all, or whether they are organised as matter of form over the more important concern of substance (ibid., p. 9).

The countryside too has been teeming with people's organizations for every other purpose, e.g. waterworks, gardening, livelihood, credit, etc. This contention is shared by Manalili (1993).

Government agencies are engrossed with establishing associations/organizations for the accomplishment of their programs. Numerous organizations have sprouted in communities. If this persists, the time may come when there will be more organisations than people in the communities. In sum, this procedure in community organising will result in greater division/disunity among the people" (ibid., p. 269).

Fund Utilisation and Management. Each barangay was allocated PhP 150,000 to 200,000 (approximately US\$ 2,000 - 3,000) to cover the costs of the projects identified. Unused funds from the identified projects can be allocated for other projects as identified in the MBN survey and agreed upon in the assembly.

A CIDSS recipient barangay was eligible for three rounds of funding assistance. New barangays are awarded PhP 200,000 (approximately US\$ 4,000) whereas "maintenance barangays" - those who have had previous projects implemented under the CIDSS program - are awarded PhP 150,000 (approximately US\$ 3,000). At the end of the three years, the CIDSS barangay is "localised," meaning the local government takes over the CIDSS thus making it responsible for funding and for the continuation and sustainability of the projects.

The organization, formed to implement a specific CIDSS-funded project, opens a bank account with the local Land Bank of the Philippines. The representatives of the organisation are elected by the community and they manage the fund rather than the barangay council. However, the barangay captain and/or the members of the barangay council are informed of the project's progress. The members of the community then get hands-on training on financial management with the project funds. Informing the barangay, Del Rosario (2003), added the "accountability structures that preserve the integrity of the project and the community organisation" (p. 12).

The CIDSS worker follows-up the process at the DSWD regional office. H/she advises the organisation in the barangay on the release of the check. The cheque is then issued to the head of the organisation that shall implement the project. The CIDSS worker sees to it that the check is issued within a period of one month from the time of request for funding.

To facilitate fund release, the Land Bank of the Philippines (LBP) and the DSWD signed an agreement that waives some of the bank requirements for the organisations in the barangay in the opening of an account. The minimum requirement is a membership in the Securities and Exchange Commission.

Convergence means that different government agencies, private organizations, NGOs and the local government unit orchestrate their activities to the benefit of the community. This includes fund sourcing as funding for projects should not all be generated from the CIDSS. With this initiative the community will learn to source for their own funding support. In the case of the construction of the footbridge mentioned above in Barrio Bobong, Kitaotao, Bukidnon, funding was shared by the barangay in the amount of PhP 18,000, the nearby town of Kauyonan which also benefited from the footbridge provided PhP 10,000 and the Municipality of Kitaotao shelved PhP30,000. Aside from this the DSWD released PhP15,000 as food subsidy for the worker-volunteers.

Here is another success story on the convergence of groups to bring about a worthwhile community project.

The *Tagakaulo* tribe live in a remote village on Barangay San Pedro, Sta. Maria, Davao del Sur. The Countryside Development Foundation Inc., an NGO providing livelihood opportunities to several depressed communities, installed a hydro-driven turbine designed originally to power abaca stripping as well as corn shelter machines. The folks realised that this installation can energise the tribal village.

With the assistance of CIDSS implementer Reynaldo Martinez, the people organised themselves and embarked on a collective strategy to undertake the most ambitious project of the community – a sustainable power supply. A consensus manner was reached with respect to tribal laws. The villagers formed the Barangay San Pedro Electrification Association (BASAPELA), which drafted the proposal for a community hydro-electrification project.

The CIDSS provided the power generator dynamo and mainline electrical cable wires. The Countryside Development Foundation Inc., the NGO, and local government shelved a total of PhP370,000.

BASAPELA now runs one of the cheapest electric utilities in the world. Each household pays PhP 1 a night regardless of the number of appliances. The *Tagakaulo* tribe use to merely imagine the bright lights in their houses at night time, now the constant power supply has brought radios and entertainment on TV. (Montenegro, 1999, pp.38 - 43).

Convergence according to Javier (2001) is an “approach that can be seen as an important development tool to provide a common framework for confluence toward a similar goal” (p. 7). In the delivery of poverty alleviation programs convergence is illustrated in the fact that the implementing agencies go beyond its boundaries and search for partners in the field. “It calls for the synchronisation and coordination of all interventions of the government (national and local) and the private sector in one geographical area to ensure that reforms in terms of poverty alleviation, agro-industrial growth and increased people’s participation is achieved” (ibid., p.8).

Localisation Phase. The third and last phase of CIDSS is the LGU take over or the localisation phase. Under RA 8425, the LGUs are the key implementers of the program. After three years of implementation under the DSWD, the LGU takes over the responsibility. By 1998, the CIDSS had been fully localised in 275 municipalities and replicated in 126 barangays using purely LGU funds (In www.dswd.gov.ph/cidss). In its five-year implementation, the CIDSS has grown rapidly. A mid-year evaluation report of the program covering 1994 – 1996 produced early success stories. The DSWD (2001) claimed in its website on the CIDSS the following:

Unmet minimum basic needs in 856 barangays in 289 municipalities of 55 provinces were reduced by an average of 57%, approximately 240,000 families who have graduated from survival and security level to the enabling level. Reductions were on families with income below subsistence threshold, no access to potable water, no sanitary toilets, and unemployed heads and members of families.

By the end of 1997, CIDSS has gone beyond its target of 20% reduction for a period of one year on unmet basic needs when it registered an average of 52% reduction on top of five unmet needs.

This track record was sustained as the recent five-year evaluation conducted by various stakeholders from the community level to the regional showed. The report revealed that after five years of implementation, CIDSS has reduced the unmet basic needs of the initial 856 barangays by 72%. It is also fully localised in 275 municipalities and replicated in 126 barangays using LGU funds.

MIMAP Project Updates (1997) reported that in the last quarter of 1996, all the 33 MBN indicators exhibited reductions “with the highest reduction manifested in food and nutrition where the number of newborns with birth weight less than 2.5 kilograms was reduced by 69%, from 12,884 to 4,038”(p.3). In its verdict, the MIMAP said, “The program has done much in its three years of implementation reducing the unmet needs by 57% in areas covered by the program” and attributes the success to the following factors: (1) strong support by the government; (2) availability of sufficient resources; and, (3) inherent facility in mobilising the LGU” (p. 4). The project updates also observed that the CIDSS facilitated the capability building of volunteers; representation in the BIACs; and, organization of community structures as avenues for participatory decision-making.

Caluen (n.d.) that the assessments have pronounced the success of the CIDSS. She enumerates some of the positive areas of the program as follows: (1) establishment of strong and responsive community structures; (2) institutionalisation of efficient systems; (3) mobilisation of internal and external resources; and, (4) behavioural and normative changes among community leaders (p. 6).

The Australian Aid for International Development (AusAid, 1999) favourably summarised the CIDSS in its Vulnerable Facility Group Design Document. Six areas, namely poverty, equity, focus, governance, participation and sustainability, were enumerated that brought considerable success in meeting the program’s objectives.

Poverty. The program is highly and effectively focused on the poorest communities within the poorest two groups of municipalities in the Philippines.

Equity. In focusing on the poorest within the poor areas, the equity impact of the program is considerable. While the program does not have specific gender criteria in its rules, the *Field Manual* demonstrates the level of gender awareness within the program by its gender neutrality in language, examples and drawings. There is continual reference to the family as the focus of assistance, empowerment and participation.

Focus. CIDSS focuses on those with few resources, either assets or income and sustainable improvements in their capacity to increase their tangible and intangible resources. The local identification of beneficiaries enhances accurate targeting. This focused assistance to the poorest will be substantial equity impact.

The program also has geographic focus on most needy areas such as indigenous people, remote communities and assistance to long term disaster recovery.

Governance. The program is well designed to provide good governance at all levels. It also has an important focus on community, MGU and local sectoral agency governance.

Participation. This is highly participative program, with forms of participation developed specifically among each group of barangays. Further, it develops participative processes within other agencies such as LGUs and implementing agencies such as health, agriculture, etc.

Sustainability. This is built strongly into the design and concept of the CIDSS, with a sunset clause requiring total handover to the communities themselves and the LGU within five years. (DSWD-CIDSS Flyer).

The World Bank in its Rapid Assessment of Pro-poor Programs in July 1999 commented favourably on the governance aspect of the program.

The CIDSS program effectively contributed to the strengthening of the role and capacity of the barangay, municipal and provincial units and their officials in the implementation of the various community projects. Under CIDSS, the barangay captains were provided various capability building support. This helped them spearhead the planning, implementation and monitoring of initiatives of the disadvantaged families of the community (DSWD-CIDSS Flyer, italics by the author)

However, despite the glowing reports on its successes, no full documentation of the CIDSS has been on record at the DSWD. Del Rosario (2003) said, “Nobody seems to have kept systematic records of the projects, let alone, undertaken an impact study of the program. She commented, “After eight years, this is truly worrisome” (p. 18). Three barangays were chosen for evaluation at the start of CIDSS but due to budgetary constraints the ability of the LGUs to replicate this has not been wholly documented. Nor were there any concrete studies on this next phase of program implementation. The capability of the LGUs to undertake poverty alleviation programs with the CIDSS orientation has yet to be determined. The development orientation of the program may be new to some especially traditional politicians in the regions. Community empowerment may to some politicians seem like a threat to their leadership. Perpetuating dependency seem to be a skill politicians are good at exercising.

Dichter (in Del Rosario, 2003) said that the localisation approach is “far from satisfactory.” He added, “The real financial and human constraints facing LGUs inhibit them from taking on additional programs.” Del Rosario lamented, “It is unclear whether there has been a conscious exit strategy by the DSWD to transition out of the barangays and for the LGUs to take over the program: (ibid., p. 13).

Communities too are very heterogeneous. A successful project here may not effectively elsewhere. Thus the idea of replication can be problematic. But there are some success stories to counter this observation. Carmen, Davao del Norte Mayor Jesus Gaviola was very impressed with the CIDSS projects in Barangay Mabaus that he wanted the gains made by the community to be replicated in other villages in Carmen and incorporated the CIDSS strategy in the town's comprehensive ten-year development plan (Canuday, 2001, p. 73). Lessons on its implementation are learned from the communities itself and it is what should be taken into account and not the projects themselves because it might not have answered their needs at all.

Javier (2001) lamented that the local government initiatives in poverty alleviation are also "waylaid by national aspirations" (p. 12). Governed by the tenets of the Local Government Code, the decentralisation spirit of finding local solutions to local problems are inherent in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. The impact on the people in the area of projects they themselves own would be "dramatic and instant" (ibid, p. 13)

Local government officials, especially those in the barangay, are considered to be the "final links in the chain" (De Guzman, et al., in Javier, 2001, p. 13) with regards to the delivery of government programs from the national to the local level. Thus the strengthening of the managerial and organisational capabilities of the local officials are needed. The ability of the local government to optimise the "interplay of government, business sector and civil society" to meet the demands of the poor requires skill, leadership, and attitude and will take time to develop.

Javier (2001) likewise said, "Poverty alleviation funds are not under the managerial authority and discretion of the LGUs" (p. 16). The funds are directly disbursed by the DBM to the main proponent agency, in the case of CIDSS, the DSWD. The DSWD releases the fund allocations to the LGUs only upon submission of their proposed work plans. RA 8425 did not specifically include this item when it heralded the role of the LGU as key implementer.

Javier demonstrated this in a case study based in the province of Oriental Mindoro in Luzon. The Poverty Alleviation Funds (PAF) - 2 for fiscal year 1997 were released "three years after the work plans for the poverty alleviation programs were submitted"

(p. 18). Thus some of the LGU recommendations include information on fund release or availability so as not to delay the implementation of programs.

The Ramos administration attempted to address the social injustices by instituting reforms as a way of addressing poverty. However it took some time for the reforms to be executed while the poor could not wait services to be delivered to them. Targeting of poor families was also ineffective since the use of the DOF classification of municipality was according to the municipality income and not on the incidence of poverty in the area. Convergence has not been completely maximised, as the institutional mechanisms need to be developed over a long period of time. The capabilities of the people in the community should also be continually harnessed and should not stop with the conduct of a six-week course.

There are lot of success stories of the CIDSS but there are more lessons to be learned from the process. It should be succinct that national aspirations should be synchronised with the goals at the local level and that in between them the other pillars of society are willing and able to help in the program. The Ramos administration has displayed the government's determination to develop a framework but the execution of the programs at the local level needs to be evaluated and monitored more carefully. Otherwise the program can very well be a political tool of local executives to further their political careers or other personal vested interests.

ERAP PARA SA MAHIHIRAP BY PRESIDENT JOSEPH ESTRADA

"Let me make this clear, my vision is not just the alleviation of poverty but its ultimate eradication. Alleviation is temporary. Eradication is permanent. Alleviation is limited. Eradication is total. The proper response to the problem of poverty is not superficial treatment but total structural change.

I realize that "eradication" is unattainable in real life. But getting as close to it as possible is worth the effort. It is true that Jesus Christ said: 'he poor you will always have with you,' but He did not say they had to be the majority. My vision is to drive poverty away from the centre and into the periphery of our concerns, to make it a marginal rather than a mainstream problem." President Joseph Estrada, State of the Nation Address, 1992 in BCS.

Joseph "Erap"³² Estrada fashioned himself as the champion of the masses. Elected as the 13th president of the Philippines, he won by the largest margin in Philippine history, which he attributed to the votes of the poor. His campaign banner and battle cry was "*Erap Para sa Mahihirap*" (Erap is for the Poor) and was translated through the *Lingap Para sa Mahihirap* (Care for the Poor) Program. This was the equivalent of Ramos' Social Reform Agenda. A popular movie star, he was depicted as the defender of the powerless thus champion of the poor who he fondly called "the *masa*" (the ordinary poor people).

His administration redefined poverty and incorporated the concept of social exclusion (Querijero, 2001).

Poverty can also result from the exclusion of some people from society. People are marginalised when they are somehow bound to be less capable than the rest, because they have attributes and engage in activities outside the current norms of what the rest have and do (NAPCC, 1998, p. 20).

Hence the administration's definition of poverty encompassed this area where the poor are being excluded from the mainstream of the community's socio-economic, cultural and political life. However, the definition of poverty was still well within the context of the institutionalised RA 8425 but clarified the poor to be active participants in the community.

Poverty is defined as not simply the lack of material resources, but also the absence of capabilities, opportunities and power that will allow an individual to fully assume his/her role as a member of the community (NAPC, 1998, p. 21).

The Estrada administration, as characterised more by the Aquino administration, tried to disassociate or distance itself from any programs and projects of the Ramos administration. This is despite the on-going need for continuity and success of programs and projects on poverty alleviation. Thus, despite the success of CIDSS, the President ignored its potential and chose instead to focus on other priorities. In an interview with Rose Pagnamitan, one of CIDSS pioneer information officer, Estrada is said to have increased the budget of the CIDSS but seldom, if ever, mentioned it in his speeches or in any of his priorities (Interview, 2 June 2003). So Lingap replaced the SRA as a poverty alleviation program but the CIDSS was not one of the priority vehicles used to

³² The President has been popularly known as "Erap." It is a reversal of the Tagalog word "pare," meaning male buddy.

implement the *Lingap*. During the time of Estrada, the CIDSS took a comfortable back seat, which allowed most of its implementers to run its course without much attention.

Angat Pinoy (Step up, Filipino) was the blueprint for growth as articulated in the Medium Term Philippine Development Plan. In his second State of the Nation Address in 1999, he challenged the nation to share his vision of a poverty-free Philippines. In the same address, he articulated that his aim was not to eradicate poverty in the short term but to reduce it from over 31.8% to 25 – 28% % in 2004 (NAPC, 1998). Estrada (1999) added, “We also hope to lay the foundations and launch the initiatives that will make the process irreversible, even beyond my term.” The UNDP poverty report, however, said the administration failed to “specify operational links with the poverty programme” (In www.undp.org/povertyreport) and did not take into account the effects of the Asian financial crisis.

Poverty eradication is a result of socio-economic reforms whereas poverty alleviation delivers the immediate needs of the poor. Poverty eradication programs include: (1) food security; (2) modernisation of agriculture and fisheries in the context of sustainable development; (3) low cost mass housing; (4) protection of the poor against crime and violence; and, (5) active LGU participation in the program (PMS, 2001).

The Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) was renamed *Lingap Para sa Mahihirap* Fund (LPMPF) and allocated PhP 2.5 billion in 1999 (NAPC, 2000) to fund alleviation programs. However, it was reported that the amount allocated fell short of the call of the World Summit for Social Development (Querijero 2001). Project funds were directly allocated to budgets of the national government agencies such that: (1) food, nutrition and medical assistance went to the Department of Health; (2) livelihood development to the Cooperative Development Authority; (3) the National Housing Authority took care of socialised housing; (4) rural waterworks to the Local Waterworks and Utilities Authority; (5) protective services for children and youth to the Department of Agriculture; and, (6) price support for rice and corn to the National Food Authority (Reyes, 2002, WB 2001). But some of the funds were also distributed to the Countryside Development Fund (CDF) which was managed by members of Congress “bringing poverty reduction projects into a political patronage scheme” (WB, 2001, p.2). The UNDP contended, “Congress participation” means “political negotiation” and adds that the fund is not even “1% of the total budget of the government” (in www.undp.org/povertyreport). According to the World Bank report (2001) the

legislators were members of the Advisory Program Board of each line agency implementing the Lingap Program.

The table below presents funding distribution to government national line agencies. And among these, legislators are allowed a lion's share of the budget for socialised housing and livelihood projects. About PhP 326 million is allocated to legislators for socialised housing and PhP 269 million for livelihood programs which constitutes more than 20% of the entire budget. This means that the legislators have an upper hand in the identification and approval of projects proposed or they themselves propose the projects. Likewise, legislators can select and nominate beneficiaries to the programs. "In fact," according to the World Bank (2001) "funds under the control of each of the legislators can be released to the beneficiaries only upon the certification of the legislator that the beneficiary is a constituent in the district" (2001).

Table 4.2
Lingap Para sa Mahihirap Fund Allocation for Projects

| Department of Health | |
|---|-------|
| Food, Nutrition and Medical Assistance | PhP M |
| 1. Medical Insurance Fund | 10 |
| 2. Sustansiya para sa Masa (nutritional sentiments) | 143 |
| 3. Garantisadong Pambata (Early childhood care) | 70 |
| 4. Medical Assistance Fund | 133.5 |
| 5. Assistance to RHUs and BHSs | 133.5 |
| 6. Administrative Cost | 10 |
| Subtotal | 500 |
| National Food Authority | |
| Price Support for Rice and Corn | 90 |
| 1. Erap Sari-Sari Store | |
| 2. Emergency Relief Operations | 80 |
| 3. Rice/Corn Subsidy Program | 90 |
| 4. Farmers' Alleviation Program | 120 |
| 5. Administrative Cost | 20 |
| Subtotal | 400 |
| Department of Social Welfare and Development | |
| 1. Protective Services for Children and Youth | 285 |
| 2. Administrative Cost | 15 |
| Subtotal | 300 |
| Local Water Utilities Authority | |
| Rural Waterworks Systems | |
| 1. Shallow or deep well/communal faucet | 288 |
| 2. Administrative cost | 12 |
| Subtotal | 300 |
| National Housing Authority | |
| Socialised Housing | |
| 1. Housing to be identified by LGUs | 149 |
| 2. Housing to be identified by Legislators | 326 |
| Administrative cost | 25 |
| Subtotal | 500 |
| Cooperative Development Authority | |
| Livelihood Development | |
| 1. Livelihood programs through Legislators | 269 |

| | |
|---|-------|
| 2. Livelihood programs through Cooperatives | 206 |
| Administrative cost | 25 |
| Subtotal | 500 |
| GRAND TOTAL | 2,500 |

Source: WB, 2001

The Lingap Para sa Mahihirap poverty reduction strategy was to initially target 100 poorest families at the province and city level. This targeting would identify about 16,100 families nationwide in 78 provinces, 83 cities and 644 barangays. To implement it at the local level, LGUs are expected to strengthen their capabilities and reform institutions of local governance.

Querijero (2001) noted the political aspect of the approach especially in the selection of poor families. To qualify for assistance, one must be identified as poorest of the poor in the MBN survey conducted by volunteers from the community or the LGU. The veracity of the 100 poorest list is doubtful given the political nature of the selection (ibid.). This sentiment was shared by the UNDP in its poverty assessment report. The report said that despite the program being well-focused it is still politically vulnerability because of the lack of civil society input in the selection of beneficiaries. UNDP further suggests that the program had “inevitably become politicised.”

In 2000, the World Bank conducted a survey among Filipino households called “Filipino Report Card on Pro-Poor Services.”³³ The report card revealed the dissatisfaction of poor clients of the pro-poor services of government in particular the Lingap Para sa Mahihirap Program. The report bared the prominent role legislators and local officials play in the delivery of social services. The report singled out the role of the barangay captain in the process. Though the role of the barangay has never been pronounced in any of the implementing rules and regulations, it is understandable that the position carries greater responsibility in order for the programs to reach the people. The barangay official is the ‘final link to the chain’ in the government hierarchy.

It is also important to recognise the key role of the barangay captain in the economic, social, and political life at the grassroots level. The barangay captain is an elected official that is the closest to the people in the ground. Often, the legislators depend on the barangay captains for the same political support at the

³³ The World Bank undertook the Report Card on Pro-Poor Services up on the 2000 Philippine Poverty Assessment Report conducted in collaboration with the Social Weather Station. The survey provided an avenue for the people to “voice their opinion and demand improvement in services.” The report card has significantly informed government of the state of the people’s satisfaction on its delivery of poverty alleviation programs. About 1,200 respondents were selected and were divided into three categories according to expenditure pattern. The lowest 30% was considered “poor,” “middle” occupied the 4-6th deciles and the rich the upper 40% of the decile. (www.worldbank.org/participation/philsocial.htm).

grassroots. In turn, the Barangay Captain could solicit and obtain resources for (the) barangay. Thus, the barangay captain often plays an important role in the identification of the target households and in channelling the program benefits (World Bank, 2001).

The barangay council with the guidance of the barangay captain would most likely have prepared the list of 100 families and submitted it to the municipal government. Some revisions may occur depending on personal relationships with families of some council members and in some instances the congressional representative may also have an input in the list. The pro-poor card revealed 61% of the respondents replied that they were sure to be recommended by the barangay captain even without bribe. Asked whether their families would be recommended for inclusion in the program by the barangay captain more rural households responded positively than the urban counterparts. It is suggested that this results because of the closer personal relations of rural communities compared to urban neighbourhoods.

Further the survey report revealed the mistargeting of program recipients as more households in the non-poor and better off groups had higher awareness of their barangay's inclusion in the program. The poor are in a state of double misery as their knowledge and awareness of political leaders and poverty alleviation programs in their area are limited which leads to their non-inclusion in the program. Feedback from a stakeholder workshop in 2000 for the World Bank report noted the following, "As a result of the Lingap Program, a new class of poor is emerging – the political poor – those are chosen by the establishment"(World Bank, 2001).

National Anti-Poverty Commission

The Estrada administration though seriously considered the role of the National Anti-Poverty Commission (NAPC) as the main implementer of the poverty alleviation program of the government. The Commission served as the link between the national and the local government in the implementation of programs; it coordinated with the private sector; it ensured the participation of the basic sectors identified; it formulated, oversaw, evaluated and recommended policy guidelines in the design of programs; and advocate for the mobilisation of funds (RA 8425, Sec. 7, Numbers 1-8). Despite establishment of coordinative and orchestrated action in the implementation of the program, there were a lot of poor linkages on the relations of the national and the local governments. Consequently, the NAPC could not synchronise activities due to the differences in personal political interests and priorities at the local level and the

aspirations at the national level. Thus, Javier (2001) noted, “Under the leadership of Estrada, inconsistencies were demonstrated between the management of poverty alleviation programs and the institutional strategies and inter-agency coordination outlined by the poverty alleviation law”(p.12). The NAPC’s main responsibility was policy formulation and monitoring however these functions were very minimal and in some respect were already one of the functions of the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA).

Moreover, NAPC had no control or supervision in the delivery of social services thus it was dependent on the submission of reports from line agencies. It had no direct hand in the actual execution of programs. Policy directions may have emanated from the NAPC but the manner in which they are interpreted in the field cannot be determined by the agency. NAPC was like a supra body without arms or limbs. The intervention of the President was needed at all times to enable the NAPC to be involved with line agency projects on poverty alleviation (Bennagen, 2000).

Regarding the functions of NAPC, as stated above, mention was given on the role of NGOs, funding agencies or other private interest groups who may be willing to join in the program. Thus, “the execution of poverty alleviation programs has been to a great extent through inter-governmental agency coordination and implementation” (ibid., p. 15). The private sector’s involvement was non-existent and the involvement of NGOs and people’s organizations (POs) were made through initiatives of the local governments. In his paper, Javier (2001) said, “The government’s dominance to take the lead is valid however optimising delivery to meet the demands of the public call for the interplay of the government, the business and civil society” (p. 16).

NAPC spearheaded the formation and development of the National Anti-Poverty Action Agenda (NAAA).

The National Poverty Action Agenda envisions a Philippine society where everyone possesses capabilities, opportunities, power, and sufficient resources that will enable them to participate in democratic governance, work in harmony with their ecosystems, enjoy the fruits of sustained and equitable development, and live peacefully in their community (NAPC, 1998, p. 38).

The NAPC said that the vision is consistent with the goals and objectives of the Estrada Administration as enunciated in the MTPDP and was according to the tenets of RA 8425. The strategy still calls for people’s involvement via the basic sectors in nation-

building and the strengthening of the partnership between and among government, business and civil society. The basic sectors had their first taste of genuine representation in this stage, which was coordinated by NAPC. Bennagen (2000) said the impact of their participation was limited due to the inability of some sectors organised themselves, politicking and lack of organisational skills. Likewise, she observes the reluctance of government agencies to involve the basic sectors in the programs. Despite the matching of the basic sectors with line agencies, the working partnership still needs to be established.

The Canadian Catholic Organisation for Development and Peace (n.d.) however alleged that Estrada failed to give life to this mandate.

Comprehensive mechanisms for genuine people's participation are still not in place. The basic sectors lost their chance to be represented in the NAPC after the government released a series of guidelines that allowed the Office of the President to directly appoint the council members (In www.devop.org/spd/pay_a/philippines).

Poverty continued to increase from 31.8% in 1997 to 33.7% in 2000 and even the entertainment-driven *masa* were no longer amused. "After two years, the rural masses, like their urban-dwelling brethren, are becoming painfully aware of this presidential neglect" (Go, 1999). Estrada's popularity also continued to drop as issues of corruption, cronyism, and inept leadership plagued his administration. Moreover, his non-appearance on caravan trips, which he promised to embark on the countryside, left the *masa* disillusioned. In January 2001, an elitist group of people, led by the business sector, trooped once again to the historic EDSA to stage another people's power. Estrada was forced to step down from the presidency when members of his cabinet, military and police force resigned en masse. In a controversial ruling the Supreme Court declared his seat vacant. This forced Estrada to move out of Malacañang³⁴ and to declare his vice president Gloria M. Arroyo as the 14th president of the Philippines.

Joseph Estrada's administration had the vision of eradicating poverty and had the popular support of the people, especially the poor. However his promises remained unfulfilled for the masses whose lives continued to deteriorate due to the inability of the administration to synchronise its policies and programs. Its beautifully crafted vision for development failed to address inequality and deal with the social ills afflicting the nation. Moreover, his pronouncements were incongruent with his priorities and actions.

³⁴ The presidential seat of power

This led to the further exclusion of the poor and the recognition of the fact that most were also politically poor due to their inability to participate in most political exercises.

**GLORIA MACAPAGAL-ARROYO'S *KAPIT BISIG LABAN SA KAHIRAPAN*³⁵
(KALAHI)**

No nation will indefinitely ensure the yawning gap between rich and poor – a gap that is only growing bigger not just within but across the countries of the world. It is this growing disparity between the ever fewer richer and ever more poor that has given terrorism the freedom of movement and impunity from accountability that it has enjoyed. President Gloria M. Arroyo, at the 56th Session of the UN General Assembly, 2001 in www.ops.gov.ph.

Gloria Arroyo is the daughter of former Philippine President Diosdado Macapagal. An economist by profession, she perfectly suited the “pangulo³⁶ image” that is expected of every president by the elite. In her speech a few hours after Estrada left Malacañang Palace, she swore among the people she would eradicate poverty within the decade.

In her first 100 days report she said that her administration “revitalised” RA 8425 and made it “more effective.” Aside from the NAPC, other offices were created under the Office of the President to better address the concerns of the marginalised groups.

To give more flesh to the law, the 14 basic sectors “have been institutionalised and their meaningful participation have been ensured by the NAPC” (NAPC, 2002, p. 4). In 2002, the President appointed the members of each sector in compliance with the provisions of RA 8425. A memorandum of agreement was forged between government agencies and each of the 14 sectoral councils to “define their areas of collaboration and mechanisms for joint undertakings to support the sector needs and agenda” (ibid). The sectors were enjoined to formulate their own Sectoral Policy Agenda that embody their programs and their issues. Likewise, basic sector representatives were linked to the four leagues of local governments³⁷ through BaSeLINK. In a memorandum the DILG secretary introduced the representatives of the sectors to the LGUS to enable them to sit in the local government council “and include their sector concerns in local poverty reduction policies and programs” (ibid).

³⁵ Linking arms to fight poverty

³⁶ Presidency

³⁷ League of Provinces, League of Cities, League of Municipalities and Liga ng mga Barangay (League of Barangays)

Mrs. Arroyo's Medium Term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP, 2000) spelled the following priorities: (a) macroeconomic stability and equitable growth; (b) agricultural modernisation with social equity; (c) comprehensive human development and protecting the vulnerable; and (d) good and effective governance. The aim of the MTPDP for 2001 – 2004 was to “lift some 2 million Filipinos out of destitution and reduce poverty incidence by 28% by 2004” (ibid.).

The administration gave a personality to its poverty alleviation program for identification and classified programs and projects of poverty alleviation into one umbrella. Thus the *Kapit Bisig Laban sa Kahirapan (KALAHÍ)* was set in motion. In her 100 days report, Arroyo said that due to its “extremely limited impact and misplaced targeting” the *Lingap Para sa Mahihirap* Program was discontinued. Her administration was the only one that offered any reason for the discontinuance of a poverty alleviation program. The other administrations did not find any reason other than it was a new administration thus “the old has gone and the new has come” programs simply seem appropriate.

KALAHÍ was instituted by the Arroyo administration as the government's poverty reduction program in Memorandum Order No. 33. The policy statement indicated that the program would have a “focused, accelerated, convergent, and expanded (FACE)” strategy to reduce poverty. There are five identified ways to achieve the program goals: (1) accelerated asset reform; (2) improved access to human development services; (c) provision of employment and livelihood opportunities; (d) security from violence and social protection including safety nets for vulnerable sectors; and, (e) institutionalised and strengthened participation of the basic sectors in governance (Sec. 3). The table below displays some of the projects and activities to be undertaken under each program component.

Table 4.3
Table of KALAHI Projects

| Program Component | Program Areas | Projects |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| Asset reform | Agrarian reform communities | Awarding of land ownership (CLOA ^{38s}) |
| | Ancestral domain areas | Recognition/awarding of CADCs/CALTs |
| | Upland and coastal areas | Awarding of tenurial security; access to and management of natural resource base |
| Human Development Services | Basic Human Services | Potable water and sanitation; access to health services, electricity |
| | Rural infrastructure services | Accessibility systems – hanging bridges, trails, farm-to-market roads, school buildings |
| Employment and Livelihood Services | Employment facilitation | Rural/agricultural employment generation |
| | Livelihood financing | Access to micro finance services |

Source: NAPC, 2003

It is emphasised that the participation of the basic sectors, civil society organizations and the business sector is crucial for KALAHI's success. KALAHI, however, formed a separate and independent basic sector representation from that of the NAPC sectoral representatives. Twelve representatives per sector formed the KALAHI Consultative Council. Bautista (2001) noted the issues rose on the relationship between the KALAHI sectoral representatives and the NAPC commissioners was problematic. One observation was that it might “reinforce the conflict and factionalisms within the sectors” (NAPCb, in Bautista, 2001, p. 4). This issue needs to be dealt with by the NAPC, which is the main policy body, which can resolve this.

All programs and projects of government agencies related to poverty reduction were consolidated and clustered to concentrate all its efforts on KALAHI.

Multi-stakeholder and inter-agency convergence shall be observed and institutionalised in all poverty reduction activities. All government agencies shall therefore institutionalise KALAHI in their respective systems and processes and participate actively in the implementation of KALAHI in the national and sub-national levels. (M.O. 33, Sec. 4).

Government projects were then labelled with the KALAHI logo and other identifying marks. For example, the agrarian reform program for its beneficiary communities was called KALAHI-ARCs and DSWD'S CIDSS was now known as KALAHI-CIDSS. Rural electrification and water works projects have big KALAHI signs on their billboards. It signified that these projects have been identified as part of the poverty alleviation programs therefore were priority projects of the government. All government

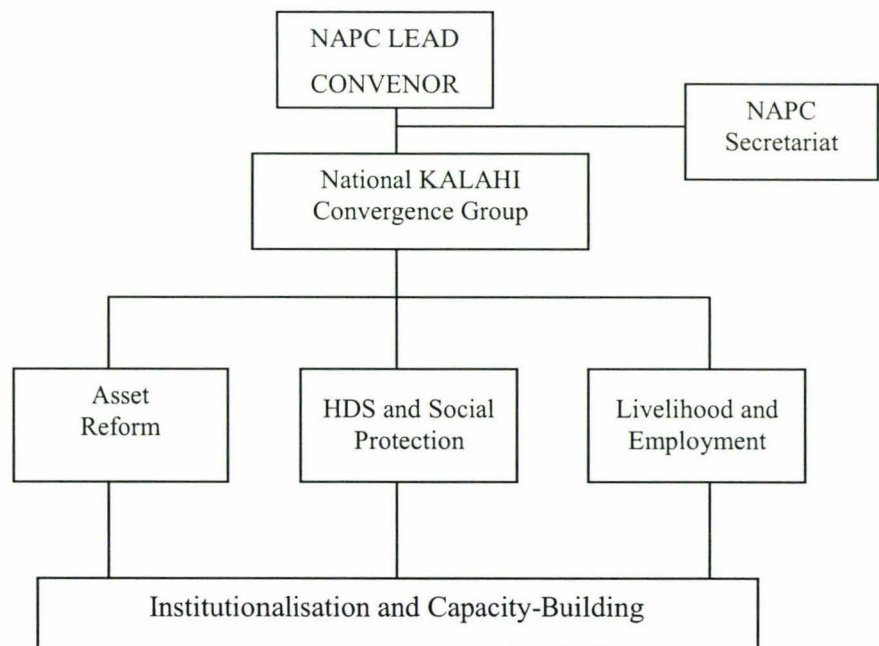
³⁸ Certificate of Land Ownership Award

agencies were also enjoined to inform their respective offices and units down to the regional and local levels of the program. An example of this is a strict compliance memorandum sent by the Environment Secretary to all offices, regional directors and staff directing them to:

Participate actively in the implementation of KALAH I at the regional level. Further, you are directed to designate the names of your principal and alternate focal persons to the Regional KALAH I convergence Group (RKCG). The RKCG is chaired either by the Presidential Assistant (PA), Regional Development Officer (RDO) or Deputy Presidential Assistant (DPA). The NEDA Regional Office takes charge as the RKCG secretariat. Submit the names of your focal person and alternate to this Office at the soonest time possible for information and monitoring purposes (Memorandum signed by DENR Sec. Elisea Gozun, 6 January 2004 in www.dnr.gov.ph).

Convergence groups among government agencies were formed and clustered into four according to the identified key concerns of the program. Government agencies were placed in a cluster depending on its mandate and its capacity to address any of the four concerns of the program. A government agency could be a member of one or more clusters (MO. 33, Sec.5a) such as the government budget department and the statistical offices.

Figure 4.4
National KALAH I Convergence Structure



Source: NAPC, 1998

To ensure the smooth transition of policies in the regional level, a regional KALAHI convergence team was formed headed by a cabinet secretary or his/her representative to oversee the activities in the regions together with a Presidential Assistant for Regional Development. National agencies are also likewise directed to coordinate with their regional offices to ensure coordination in the local level. As an example, in a separate memorandum to its regional executive directors, the DENR Secretary wrote:

As a follow-up of the NISP Workshop held on 12-13 January 2004, the Convergence Conference (CC) in your respective regions has been activated to serve as a facility for coordination, integration and acceleration of government programs at the regional and local levels.

The Chair of the KALAHI Regional Convergence Group is co-chair of CC. Community Development Teams (CODE Teams) will be organized of which the DENR is a member.

In this connection, you are hereby instructed to coordinate with the CC Chair and/or the Secretariat to ensure our active involvement in the collective efforts to bring basic services to our stakeholders. Submit progress reports to this Office on developments regarding the CC (Memorandum of DENR Secretary Elisea Gozun to regional executive directors of Regions 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, and CARAG, 17 February 2004 in www.denr.gov.ph).

This is an improvement over the programs of the two previous administrations, which relied on the regional government agencies to converge. Previously initiative and the momentum was at times not generated especially if there were certain department targets that needed to be prioritised. Arroyo's approach allows for the creation of a secretariat that shall disseminate information and act as a conduit from the national to the local level and hopefully provide feedback to the national level. Focal agencies are identified and given specific roles in the articulation of policies, coordination of the program as well as in the orchestration of activities. To add further improvements the administration designated a Cabinet Secretary as a Coordination Officer for Regional Development (CORD) in charge of a particular region. This move was probably made to ensure that the regional convergence groups' concerns were not only heard at the halls of Malacañang but can be discussed in Cabinet meetings or personally with the President herself. This displayed the President's commitment to the program itself.

The NAPC retained its role as the main convenor of the program. The Arroyo administration assured that the NAPC would be made more "representative." In the first 100 days report, Arroyo said she had reorganised, reconstituted and pushed for an

autonomous process of sector representation in the commission (PMS, 2001). She also enumerated that “(1) anti-poverty programs were reviewed; (2) poverty monitoring tools were assessed; and, (3) better ways to get gather data at the national and local levels were identified” (ibid.).

NAPC emphasised that its role would be the “planning, monitoring, evaluation and assessment and integration of tools and mechanisms that will be used under the KALAHI program (M.O. 33, Sec. 6). The supra body however remained in its ivory tower as its mandate does not require it to immerse itself into the program Its function to “exercise oversight functions over any government agency’s capacity-building programs or projects for poverty reduction” is a nail-clipped claw. It sits and waits for accomplishment reports and updates from agencies and from there react, revise or modify policies based on these reports submitted from the filed.

Funding sources are taken from the allocation of funds to the government agencies, congressional allocations and allocation to local government units. Other sources include special funds from government-owned and controlled corporations such as the Philippine Gaming Corporation, Philippine Charity Sweepstakes Office; the President’s Social Fund; People’s Development Fund; and, donor institutions, both foreign and local (ibid., Sec. 7).

It was emphasised by the above provision that each national line agency shall “ensure a KALAHI budget in their respective budget starting FY 2004” (ibid.). Again NAPC has no control over the budget spending of each identified KALAHI project. This should not run head on with the department’s priorities if synchronisation efforts are undertaken.

KALAHI expanded its strategy and parameters in identifying priority areas. The following are its criteria for identifying beneficiary areas: (1) high poverty incidence; (2) presence of asset reform, problems or large gap in asset reform programs; (3) presence of vulnerable sector – landless, upland; coconut farmers; indigenous people’s groups, fisher folks, displaced sector; (4) communities in or recovering from situations of crisis or armed conflict such as ecologically threatened areas and armed conflict areas (with national applications); and, (5) inadequacy of financial resources or are not included in major financial assistance groups (NAPC, 2003). Further KALAHI adopts a mode of targeting to ensure it is adequately distributed among marginalised groups,

which most need assistance. Thus urban communities are tagged as KALAHI-Urban and rural communities as KALAHI-Rural. The KALAHI program is also expanded to include conflict areas and resettlement areas. Other modes include KALAHI local initiative projects, which are described to be “demand-driven”, and are identified by those working in the communities or the community members themselves. But there are requirements to availment of funds for this mode such as the “high readiness to initiate and manage poverty reduction strategies. Thus as of 2002, the following is a summary of its beneficiaries by region and mode:

Table 4.4
Summary of KALAHI Beneficiary Barangays by
Geographical Area Coverage and Mode

| Geographical Area Coverage | Number |
|---|--------|
| Number of provinces | 59 |
| Number of cities | 17 |
| Number of municipalities | 123 |
| Number of barangays | 363 |
| KALAHI Mode | |
| Number of KALAHI-NCR | 40 |
| Number of KALAHI Karaban | 185 |
| Number of KALAHI-Rural Barangays | 90 |
| Number of KALAHI Urban Barangays | 2 |
| Number of Convergence Barangays | 21 |
| Number of KALAHI Local Initiatives Barangay | 25 |
| Number of KALAHI Areas with ARCs | 37 |
| TOTAL | 400 |

Source: NAPC, 2002

One of KALAHI’s goals is to reach conflict areas and help people rebuild their lives. This is another feature of the program, which immediately responds to the needs of vulnerable groups. Some of the target areas are in Mindanao, in the southern most part of the Philippines, a hotbed of Muslim insurgency. Pilot areas were chosen and NAPC formed an inter-agency body composed of government line agencies, private groups and NGOs.

Pilot areas were initially identified for the first phase of KALAHI’s implementation. In the National Capital Region 30 urban poor barangays in seven cities and three municipalities were selected as per recommendation of the Presidential Commission for the Urban Poor (PCUP). However, Bautista (2001) noted the unsystematic manner in which the program was implemented. During the public forums a *kahilingan* (wish) list was distributed to identify the problems in the community. However, unlike previous experiences in the conduct of the MBN, only those who were available were included in

the survey. Thus targeting the poorest can be a problem. For example, in the urban areas where residency is not well-defined as in the rural areas, those who may have completed the sheets may not be actual residents but transients in the community. Unlike the previous experience on the CIDSS, the whole community processes the MBN survey and proposes projects from the list generated.

A KALAHI community day signals the start of the program in a community. Prior to this, the community is informed and oriented on the program by a support staff of the Regional KALAHI Convergence Group (RKCG) known as KALAHI workers. Again Bautista (2001) noted that the “participatory process has not yet been fully installed” (ibid.. This is unlike previous experiences of CIDSS where social preparation was maximised before any activities are implemented.

The NAPC (2002) outlined the activities when setting up the program in a community. A caravan or KALAHI-Karaban of service vehicles clothed with KALAHI banners lined up the streets of the regional centre and a host of RKCG members motor to the target barangay. At the launching venue of the KALAHI, RKCG members and some community volunteers make inspirational speeches. A briefing on the KALAHI is always an important part of the ceremony. After the messages, the pledges were made by RKCG members in accordance to the earlier wish list prepared by the community. The distribution of cheques, kits or basket of goods to target beneficiaries fulfills earlier commitments. A host of other government services are also conducted. The following table is an example of the services offered by RHCG members for beneficiaries during the KALAHI launching day in a community:

Table 4.5
Table of Services Offered to the Community on KALAHI Launching Day

| AGENCY | SERVICES |
|--|--|
| Department of Health (DOH) | Free medicines, medical and dental services, minor surgeries, circumcision |
| Department of Social Welfare and Development | Day care materials, day care centre construction materials |
| Technical Education and Skills Development Authority | Livelihood, entrepreneurship sessions, career guidance sessions, training seminars |
| Technology and Livelihood Resource Centre | In house training seminars, onsite barangay training sessions |
| Department of Agriculture | Farm inputs (seedlings, brochures, etc.) |
| National Youth Commission | Sports equipment, government internship program |
| Department of Public Works and Highways | Minor tools (rakes, shovel, broomsticks) |
| Philippine Coconut Authority | Coconut seedlings |
| Department of Science and Technology | Information materials, onsite demonstration |
| Housing and Urban Development Coordinating Council | Housing guidebooks |

| AGENCY | SERVICES |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Philippine Information Agency | Information materials |
| Department of Trade and Industry | Training on product development, financial support |

Source: NAPC, 2002

Figure 4.5
National Officials Grace KALAH! Community Day in a
Community in Sulu Province in Mindanao



Photo courtesy of NAPC

Figure 46.
Residents Avail of Services on KALAH! Community Day



Photo courtesy of NAPC

This is a government road show, a showcase of services. These services offered seem like once in a lifetime for a community. For KALAH!, it is important to inform the community that these are the kinds of services that can be availed of once they get to

their regional or provincial centres. However, the services are piecemeal and may at times raise the expectations of the community too much. It is more like a media event than a community day.

But the laudable feature of the KALAHI program is the convergence of all the flagship programs in one locality. While the program is addressing land reform it is at the same time dealing with peace and order. Or the program may be providing social services as well as distributing land titles for houses at the

Table 4.6
KALAHI Convergence Clusters

| National KALAHI Convergence | Asset Reform Cluster | HDS & Social Protection Cluster | Livelihood and Employment Cluster | Institutionalisation and Capacity-Building Cluster |
|---|--|---|---|---|
| Composition | National Agencies | | | |
| Heads/focal persons of agencies ED/focal persons of LGU Leagues NAPC Sectoral Representatives Chair: NAPC Lead Convenor Secretariat: NAPC | Urban <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HUDCC • NHMPC • NHA • MMDA • PCUP Rural <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DAR • DA • DENR • NCIP • NIA | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DOH • PhilHealth • DSWD • DepEd • CHED • HUDCC • DA • NEA • LWUA • DOPJ – PAO • DILG • AFP • PNP • DND | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DTI - TLRC • TESDA • DOLE-PESO • DILG • PCFC • DA- BFAR • NIA • DOST • CDA • Quedancor | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DILG • NEDA • DBM • OPAPP • PIA • NYC • NSCB • NSO • PopCom |

Source: NAPC, 1998

Bautista (2001) though said there is a need to clarify and review the program components. For example, the delivery of human development services includes waste management, electrification and anti-flooding, which could have been classified under infrastructure. Bautista (ibid.) noted that this does not address the poor household's needs directly but reflect the need of the entire community. The component was supposed to address the immediate needs of the poor members of the households directly. Likewise Bautista (ibid.) contends that the program components did not differentiate the rural from the urban needs. Urban areas may identify housing as a foremost need but in the rural areas this may not be a need at all. Bautista (ibid.) suggested a need for the "bifurcation" of the concerns raised between the urban and the rural areas. Thus projects implemented in the urban areas, such as the National Capital Region, for example, can be replicated in other urban centres in the country.

Finally, since most of the KALAH I components have taken bits and pieces of their implementation from the CIDSS experience and that of other agencies' success methods, Bautista notes there is a need to "delineate how KALAH I relates with other programs on poverty, such as the CIDSS which is legally mandated to operate in the poorest fifth and sixth class municipalities, and other programs on agrarian reform and housing as part of RA 8425" (p. 7).

SUMMARY

The poverty alleviation policies instituted from 1986 to the present had manifested very minimal impact on the lives of the poor people in the country as exhibited by the yawning gap of rural and urban poverty. This may have been the result of the bias of the government's policies to pump more resources into the urban centres hoping that it will spiral and bring growth to the countryside. However not even a reflection of the growth in the centre was experienced by the periphery. Urban centres continue to grow while rural areas remain traditional and backward. Other problems arise affecting the poor in the urban areas while the problems of the poor in the rural areas remain unanswered.

The Aquino administration may have reinstalled democratic principles but its economic policies hardly changed. The administration tried to reinvent itself by "deMarcosifying" all its programs. The Ramos administration worked for the institutionalisation of the Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Program that laid the groundwork for future efforts. Though it carefully crafted its strategies and processes, it missed its target. The majority of the masses voted for Joseph Estrada because he was personified as their champion. But his vision remained a dream for the poor. His economic agenda did not parallel his personal priorities. Dogged by corruption, his Cabinet resigned and his office was declared vacant. Arroyo declared a war on poverty early in her term of office. She designed her own hybrid program, which included the marginalised sectors such as conflict-areas where she said the seeds of terror are take root.

Each president has a vision of eradicating poverty but the operational means to do it has not been clearly evident. Notable though were the methods used to institutionalise the efforts to alleviate poverty but this was overshadowed by the propensity of each administration to add on to what is mandated. This has clearly complicated the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. Likewise, despite the clear policies and provisions of the law and the efforts to institutionalise programs, different measures have been used

in the hope that the accomplishments would perpetuate on the minds of the people that they were started and implemented during that certain administration and by that particular president. The idea of a program being carried beyond the administration's term was an effort to use as a historical footnote in reference to the presidential term. But the proclivity of each administration to detach and completely ignore previous efforts made is evident in the four presidencies presented above. Each administration labelled its own poverty alleviation programs but they were just pouring new wine to old wineskins. This described the political nature of the poverty alleviation programs.

The orchestration between the national policies and the local government units' priorities remain unbridged. Despite the changes made in the national level, extension workers in the local levels are oblivious of the changes. A CIDSS worker, for example, would not bother that the program is under the SRA, Lingap Para sa Mahihirap or KALAHÍ. This only exhibits that it takes time for programs and projects to be absorbed wholly in the local level and for it to be assimilated in existing projects. Each of the projects are implemented on its own merits and stands on its own program features therefore any add ons to this will only complicate its execution. What has been a proven method in the field will then be the ones implemented by extension workers. It takes a guiding hand and a firm resolve of the department to be able to have their staff, offices and extension workers internalise national programs such as Lingap or KALAHÍ.

It was noted that missing the target is one of the major problems of the poverty alleviation programs. The LGU income classification used to identify the areas did not actually target the poor. Other ways have been identified to actually target the beneficiaries but have either failed or provided very minimal impact. The piloting of areas, which is the new strategy of the KALAHÍ, will provide lessons and hopefully be used to replicate projects among barangays with more or less the same features.

Encouraging participation through convergence and consultation are the main features of the poverty reduction policies that have been instituted. This might have been recognised and encouraged by the prevalent political situation and should have been fully maximised. It is a significant feature, as it would bring to the consultation table a wide array of voices. But its mechanisms need to be tested and proven for it to work effectively for the poor. Representativeness has been one step in the process. The poverty alleviation strategy seems to appear consultative but talks, though meaningful

and significant in the process, failed to immediately provide food on the table. The situation cannot wait thus the poor would result to other more immediate means than to wait for the process to run its course. Convergence allows the different sectors of society, particularly civil society, the business sector and media, to play significant roles in alleviating poverty in the country. The concerted effort of the different key players will lend the expertise of each to effectively enhance the program's features. Government is the only key player at the moment with the other sectors only lending a hand when needed or as requested. Its potential as a major part of the process has yet to surface despite repeated government pronouncements of the convergent feature of the program.

Moreover the MBN has not been institutionalised as a method of collecting data about poverty. Statistical data remain to be within the provincial level as barangays have yet to systematise its recording. The municipal level too has yet to consolidate the data and give an accurate picture of the poverty situation in their area. The MBN should have been institutionalised in the barangay level thereby aggregating the data to the provincial level. However, the MBN is only conducted in areas where the poverty alleviation program is being conducted. The lack of trained personnel and resources constraints local government from regularly conducting the MBN survey.

The government's delivery of poverty alleviation program lack orchestration, coordination and continuity have left the people unaware of policies and wanting for more information. It has been reflected earlier on that effectively communicating anti-poverty policies and programs may contribute significantly to the success of the programs. Communicating this information encourages participation among all the sectors involved and set the convergence in motion. It could provide the valuable link to draw together the key players of the program. Likewise, it could be the thread that could weave to crystallise the different views and opinions on the program and eventually make it work effectively.

CHAPTER FIVE

COMMUNICATING POVERTY: THE PHILIPPINE EXPERIENCE

Communication plays a pivotal role in Philippine society. It creates awareness and develops people's understanding of issues and events. It enables the population to take informed decisions on what critically affects their life. This is information they share and pass on to their family and friends in the community and thereby stirring them into making a collective choice on issues presented to them.

Since the people power revolution of 1986, the impact of mass media has never been discounted. It played a significant role in informing the people of events in an instantaneous, spontaneous and sustained manner. Thus investments have helped develop and improve the mass communication infrastructure as evidenced by the increasing number of mass media instruments and channels in the last few years. Democratic principles have allowed the media to flourish and chart its own course with little intervention from the government.

The government recognises the critical role communication plays in communicating its thrusts and priorities. It has maintained media infrastructure facilities while providing the same space for private media to have access to government information. It has respected the need of people to be informed of government's decisions and would call upon the media to communicate these. In creating its own media infrastructure, the government believes that it can cater to the people that could not be reached by the private media, which are concentrated in the urban areas.

This chapter gives an overview of the communication setting in the country from 1986 to 2002. It incorporates the manner in which government communicates its policies and programs from the national level to every level of society. The chapter describes the selection of media channels people are exposed to and the manner in which they access information. It likewise outlines the significant features of some of the communication strategies used to inform the people of the merits of poverty alleviation program. It pays particular attention to the way the government has made use of the media in creating awareness on its poverty alleviation program.

It is also significant to note that in rural communities, the media diminishes its role as kin and friends take a more important role in the communication process. More importantly, its local officials are its main sources of information and media only reinforces or strengthens the knowledge earlier gained. Thus this section highlights the role of community leaders in the communication process.

COMMUNICATION SETTING

Mrs. Corazon Aquino is credited much for the restoration of democratic principles and institutions among which are the “freedom of the press and its function of transparency” (Gonzales, 1993, p. 24). In his report on the accomplishments of the Aquino administration at the UP Public Lecture Series, Press Secretary Horacio Paredes (1993) said, “The government enshrines that legacy” citing “openness and transparency in government information; freedom of media from censorship; and the privatisations of media facilities” as its main characteristics (p. 159). He points out the difference of the situation during the martial rule and emphasises the fact that, “No longer is government in control of media” but “a mere participant, another entity, in the free competition and spirited discourse in the market of ideas” (ibid.). Free of government censorship, Philippine press “once again earned its reputation as the freest press in Southeast Asia” (Nemenzo, 1993, p. 160, and Paredes, 1993, ibid).

The authoritarian rule of Mr. Marcos placed into government control all print and broadcast media facilities. Newspapers and broadcast institutions heralded the New Society and highlighted the accomplishments of the regime, which may have been classified as propaganda. Newspaper stories remained tame and broadcasts were purely of entertainment value skirting the real issues such as rising poverty, growing unrest in the countryside, and corruption in government or the worsening economy. It was argued that the security of the State was of paramount importance thus the necessity to curtail press freedom to ensure stability.

The liberty of the press never has been absolute. It has always yielded to higher considerations. It has always balanced against other community interests such as the security of the State, the right and duty of the State to provide for the well-being of its citizens, the maintenance of decency and public order, the protection of reputation, and the need for fair trial proceedings, among others (Tatad, 1978 in Medija, 2002).

The 1987 Constitution enshrined this democratic tenet and spelled it clearly emphasising openness and transparency as well as in dealings with government:

The right of the people to information on matters of public concern shall be recognised. Access to official records, and to documents, and papers pertaining to official acts, transactions, or decisions, as well as to government research data used as basis for policy development, shall be afforded the citizen, subject to such limitations as may be provided by law (Article 3, Sec. 7).

Medija (2002) however said that Philippine media is of a “hybrid of Libertarian and Authoritarian stock.” The Constitution guarantees its libertarian character but the demands of national security authorises its regulated state. This has been evident during coup attempts during the Aquino administration when radio stations were banned from airing the coup leaders’ remarks. During the height of the Abu Sayyaf kidnapping of foreigners in Southern Philippines, President Arroyo ordered a halt to broadcasts of warnings of the terrorist group. However to promote social issues such as those pertaining to health, the government has not exercised its authoritarian character. It remained to be libertarian seeking the goodwill of the media instead to promote social development.

But it is most note worthy to say that Philippine media too has displayed a progressive stand (Teodoro, 2001) especially during crisis situations. The people have learned to depend on the media to deliver to them the “truth.”

During periods of upheaval, first during the reformist and revolutionary period which gave it birth, the early years of American occupation, the Japanese conquest, and the martial law period – the progressive tradition has always been there to provide the people with the information they need to understand what is happening and to help arm them with the consciousness that has enabled them to defeat tyrants (ibid.).

Alternative media gained ground during the latter years of the Marcos regime publishing newspapers that denounce and expose the ills of government. Readership of these alternative newspapers soared especially in the urban areas but people in the countryside remain ignorant of these news. Circulation was limited as censorship was still in place. With the February 1986 People’s Power revolution, some of this alternative media found themselves in the mainstream and proliferated.

Teodoro (1992) suggested the Aquino administration allowed media to develop on its own resulting to the unregulated entry into the country of foreign news and entertainment (also see Medija, 2002). The number of newspapers and magazines as well as radio and television stations increased during the Aquino administration restoring the same structure of the pre-Marcos years. Teodoro (1992) adds that this lack of clear policies on media ownership has perpetuated, for one, the elites' hold of the media. But on the other hand, if Mrs. Aquino did try to reign in the media that would not be congruent with the principles she has vowed to reinstate.

The table below shows some media facts and profiles that describe the wide array of media forms available to the country's population, which continue to increase over the years.

Table 5.1
Media Fast Facts and Profile

| Fast Facts | Number |
|--|--|
| Number of broadcast stations | 108 (2000) |
| Number of television sets | 3.7 million (1997) |
| Number of radio broadcast stations | 270 (AM band) 329 (FM band) 2000 |
| Number of radios | 11.5 million (1997) |
| Number of newspapers | 475 (2000) |
| Number of magazines | 45 (2000) |
| Number of cinema houses | 936 (2000) |
| Telephones – good international radio and submarine cable services; domestic and inter-island service adequate | 1.9 million lines in use 1,959 mobile cellular |
| Intercity | 11 domestic satellite links |
| International | Submarine cables extended to Hongkong, Guam, Singapore, Taiwan and Japan |
| | 3 INTELSTAT (1 Indian Ocean and 2 Pacific Ocean) earth stations |
| Internet service providers | 93 (1999) |

Source: www.SEAMedia.org. (n.d.)

Mass media was and still is concentrated in urban areas, most particularly in the NCR which hosts all the mother station of broadcast networks and in the regional urban centres. Very few radio stations can penetrate the rural mountainous areas, for example. However the number of regional, local and community newspapers has increased.

Medija (2002) recognised the twin role media plays in Philippine society namely, its political and social role. He characterises the political role of the media as “information disseminators, creator and reflector of public opinion and as a watchdog of government” (p. 2) while its social role is that of entertainment as well as the ability and willingness

help unify the nation (p. 5). As information disseminator the mass media has both assumed the political and social role. Teodoro (2001) says that a community of journalists have focused on issues that would educate the public on the Visiting Forces Agreement³⁹ and other “issues of national import but which were most crucially felt at the local level such as agrarian reform, and community issues like local despotism and others.”

Teodoro (1992) also said that democratisation should have hastened the provision of adequate information for decision-making” in the country (p. 162) with media as its instrument or channel. He added the “culture of non-participation” in communication, for example, needs to be eradicated. The private media has significantly lifted to this level though at times for very selfish reasons.

The government lacks a coherent communication policy, as it remains reactive to issues and ad hoc in the implementation of communication programs and strategies. (ibid.). The following steps that the government could have taken which include: “(1) access to media to assure broad participation considering the background of monopolisation during the past regime; (2) preservation of desired values such as involvement and participation in public affairs and issues; and, (3) guarantees for the protection of the right to receive as well as impart information” (ibid., p 162). Government, Teodoro (ibid) added that foreign news and entertainment, which now dominates Philippine television, for example, encouraged the formation of values, ideas, and opinions contrary to the country’s needs and interests. Moreover the hands-off attitude of the government on the growing number of mass media instruments have emphasised the entertainment value of media than its “potential” tool for “mass empowerment” (ibid).

The environment and setting of the state of mass media vis-à-vis its relation to government has not changed much since the Aquino administration. The libertarian character at most times had been more accentuated calling only upon the authoritarian nature when the administration feels that the stability and security of the nation is at threat. But the hands off media policy of the government, meaning the private media, is a lesson learned from the Marcos regime and would likely stay that way.

³⁹ An agreement that allows joint military exercises between the Philippine and United States in Philippine soil.

It is true that government's inability to develop a comprehensive and clear communication policy has left the government in a state of disarray at most times. There is a need for a pro-active stand on issues especially concerning health and peace and order. Its inability to deliver its promises undermines the credibility of the government therefore future pronouncements of government even of the President are regarded as half truths. Government has allowed the private media to take over some of the communication roles it needs to have asserted and initiated. Its inability to engage a competitive stand with the private media using its own infrastructure facilities has broadened the gap between the government and the people.

Government Media Infrastructure

The challenge to people in the public information sector during the Aquino administration was greater as they stay clear of the tainted image of the Marcos rule. The Aquino administration felt the need to "deMarcosify" or to get rid of what can be classified as belonging to or remotely related to the Marcos regime, which include all the existing media infrastructure and policies. There was a need to reinvent the whole public information sector for people to see the difference between an authoritarian setting and a working democracy.

The reinstatement of democratic institutions and principles in 1986 created a wide array of media institutions. A number of radio and television networks were given franchises and an unprecedented number of newspapers, tabloids and magazines in a national and local level were published. The government at first considered abolishing all existing media offices and privatise government-owned radio and television stations. It tried to maintain only a small media bureau in within the Office of the President to take care of the needs of the presidency. The administration left the task of disseminating information on the new government's policies and thrusts to the alternative media it was friendly with which have now been mainstreamed.

However, government assumed a gigantic task of communicating its policy thrusts and vision especially to the countryside. Communicating the administration's goals was imperative as most the political activities were only very evident in the urban centres, more particularly in Metro Manila. People in the countryside were not too aware of what was happening, as there were not enough radio stations or television programs to

broadcast what was the real situation. This displays what Temu (1989) says that some villages remain ignorant of changes in the socio-political-cultural life which happens in places far from their locality more so of foreign relations and changes in Western world settings.

Thus from a small media bureau the administration realised the need for an information office that shall communicate these policies and thrusts. The information department established by President Ferdinand Marcos was reorganised and restructured in 1986 to redirect and reorient the government information systems. The Office of the Press Secretary (OPS) under the Office of the President was created to “ensure that the government’s point of view is communicated to the public especially on issues affecting the nation’s welfare” (EO 92, December 17, 1986). The OPS incorporated and absorbed all the government information offices under its wing, which include among others the Bureau of National and Foreign Information, Philippine News Agency, Maharlika Broadcasting Corporation (Television 4), Bureau of Broadcast Services. The OPS was given control and supervision over these offices. The OPS also placed under its control and supervision the National Printing Office which produces official ballots and other government documents and the Philippine Information Agency (PIA) to consolidate all government information offices. The Press Secretary then aside from addressing the daily information needs of the Presidency had to exercise control and supervision over these offices to a certain extent.

In Executive Order No. 297 signed in 25 July 1987 which reorganises the offices under its control and supervision, enunciated that the OPS mandate shall be “the formulation and implementation of an integrated program of information and developmental communication that will present the work of the Presidency, develop public understanding of activities, policies and enhance public trust and support at the national, regional, barrio and barangay level” (Sec. 4).

In its functions, it was apparent that the OPS shall “rationalise a viable and manageable government-owned information structure that will provide government and the national leadership with instantaneous access to the people; and develop and manage a feedback mechanism that shall provide the people a venue to contribute to the creation of policies affecting them” (Sec. 4, Nos. 5, 6).

Thus it is clear that the OPS shall continue to maintain its offices and create mechanisms where government can have access to the people and where people can have access to government. It is an ideal setting which the OPS has yet to fully operationalise among its media infrastructures.

The Maharlika Broadcasting Corporation (Television 4), the government-owned television network was renamed People's Television Network and though attached to the OPS operates as a quasi-government body. Its own charter, RA 7306, signed into law in March 1992, the station is mandated to provide "broadcast support to the government through a balanced programming of high quality news, public affairs, entertainment, educational, cultural and sports programming, and by responding to information needs utilizing its modern broadcast technology." A board of directors governs over the television network appointed by the President. Funds of the network were at first provided by the government until it was able to sustain its own operations.

Radio Philippines Network (Channel 9) and the Intercontinental Broadcasting Corporation (Channel 13), two Marcos crony broadcast networks, were sequestered by the government and were allowed to operate independently of the OPS though there was a provision stating that they were supposed to be under its supervision. The President as recommended by the Press Secretary appointed a board of directors for both television stations. Moves to privatise the networks are under way. The Philippine Journal Group of Companies, a print media company operating the largest selling tabloid in the country, was also sequestered by the government but was allowed likewise to operate on its own.

The character of the administration with regards to these corporations is congruent to the democratic principles it tries to uphold though government says in "has seen not seen fit to abdicate its share of voice in the formulation of public opinion" (E.O. 297, 1987). Thus it chose to maintain these government infrastructure facilities. The Press Secretary, acting as the Presidential Spokesperson and attending to the daily information needs of the President (E.O. 297, Sec. 8), laid much of the work of the supervision of these offices to his deputies and the directors of the offices. They at times work independently since they lack direction and management. Thus the offices execute their own programs and priorities as dictated by their mandates and took its cue from

policy pronouncements and priorities of the President rather than from an integrated communication and information program developed by the OPS.

In maintaining each of these information offices the OPS then has not maximised their mandate or its resources. Each of administrations would like to think that the government media infrastructure could compete with the private media in the delivery of public information. However, it is not always the case. For example, the government-owned Channel 4 has only a slice of the viewership of two major television networks in the country. Moreover, the two sequestered radio stations have never taken a niche in the market since 1986 except for sports events and other special programs. The lack of resources and the inability of the government to build more facilities make for its inadequacy to serve the purposes of government. However, government information officials say, "They are not in the business to compete." Government officials further added that these media facilities are there to serve the areas, which are not reached by the private media. Thus, for example, the Bureau of Broadcast Services has set up a radio stations in remote provinces such as Batanes and in Kalinga, Apayao enjoying wide listenership because we are the only radio station in the area. Executive Order No. 297. articulating the mandate of the Bureau of Broadcast, cites that it is 'to provide broadcast services to all regions of the country with particular focus on area not adequately serves by private networks' (Sec. 15, No. 2). However, it maintains urban based radio stations that have to compete with private radio stations, in this respect, lags behind because private media has more resources and tend to sensationalise and personalise news.

Moreover, news reports that emanate from government is not wholly and exclusively disseminated or channelled from government media structures. Thus any pronouncements of the President are available to both the government and the private media at the same time earning the private media more audience share than government media.

Most communication programs developed are piece meal and reactive to issues. The OPS, for example, has not as a government information department successfully sustained, orchestrate or synchronise communication campaigns to address issues or to drum up information on particular policies of the government. The administration is always wary of using its information offices less it be accused of propagating the image

of the presidency. Thus each agency coordinates and links up with other government agencies with regards to the dissemination of information on issues affecting the country on an unsystematic manner and on needs basis only. No institutionalised system has been established to address this area.

For example, in disseminating information on poverty alleviation programs, the Philippine Information Agency, and not the Office of the Press Secretary, was identified as one of the line agencies in the clusters in Memorandum Order No. 33, Sec. 5. The other agencies of the OPS such as the Bureau of Broadcast Services takes it cue then from the PIA and not from the Press Secretary in developing broadcast materials on poverty alleviation programs, even if it had earlier been identified as a flagship program of the president.

Aside from the official government information network, each of the line departments of the government executing poverty information programs, for example, also have public information offices each with their own communication and information programs in accordance with its priorities and departmental targets. Efforts to synchronise communication and information efforts have been initiated though its operational success has yet to be studied and evaluated. Even the relations of the Office of the Press Secretary and the line departments have not been clearly established with regards to the dissemination of government policies and programs. Each agency charts its own course thus duplication and overlap in communication programs and strategies were common.

For example the conceptualisation and development of the communication and information campaign of the Lingap Para sa Mahihirap Program of President Estrada was commissioned by the administration to a private media advertising company. The different line agencies had their own communication program in line with the concepts and themes developed by the private advertising agency. PIA was only the link to distribute the information materials in the information centres at the local level at the same time that the different agencies too distribute the same materials to their own regional, provincial and municipal offices nationwide. The Department of Agriculture, for example, which was asserting the food security issue in the country was developing and producing its own communication campaign independent of the communication plan of the PIA. The PIA was only called upon to disseminate the information to the tri-

media both at the national and the local levels. The campaign uses both the resources of DA and PIA. One clearly sees the duplication and overlap in the functions these agencies perform and the redundancy on the activities of its information officers. The government's communication arm is only one among the main distributors of information in the country.

Thus it has been succinctly argued that "the lack of effective communication strategies and methods" (Singh in Otsyina and Rosenberg 1999, p. 45) poses as a problem in communicating government policies. Likewise, "studies over the past three decades have revealed that in many parts of Africa, most development programmes meet with little success because ineffective communication strategies are used (Mchombu in Otsyina and Rosenberg 1999, p. 45).

Philippine Information Agency. The administration also created the Philippine Information Agency (PIA) by virtue of Executive Order No. 100 dated 24 December 1986. The PIA was formed out of the defunct Office of Media Affairs and the National Media Production Centre. The PIA mission were "(1) To provide for free flow of accurate, timely and relevant information; (2) To assist people in decision-making and identification of opportunities to improve quality of life; (3) To enable citizens to participate meaningfully in the democratic processes" (E.O. 100, Section 2).

The efforts of the newly reorganised information arm were focused on development communication goals rather than image building for the administration.

WHEREAS, before little distinction was made between political and development-oriented public information, hence resources for public information were often used for political purposes. In most cases, political information and/or political propaganda crowded out development oriented public information (ibid).

It was important to create this office, as it would provide the government with the following:

- (1) Means to communicate with the people, and in turn for the people to vigorously express their opinions, views and beliefs to the President; and in the same manner, a need for efficient flow of public information required by the people to assist them in decision-making to improve overall quality of life;
- (2) Agency should ensure that they have access to information;
- (3) Regular nationwide outlets, where citizens could obtain government publications and materials, i.e., brochures, pamphlets; b) intermediary coordination of public information efforts was not effective due to lack of

appropriate mechanisms; c) people's participation in the planning and conduct of information programs was not encouraged (ibid).

Its functions include among others the maintenance of 15 regional information centres, 48 provincial information centres and 27 extension centres; provide technical assistance to information programs of national scope; assess the information needs of the people (ibid. Sec. 3).

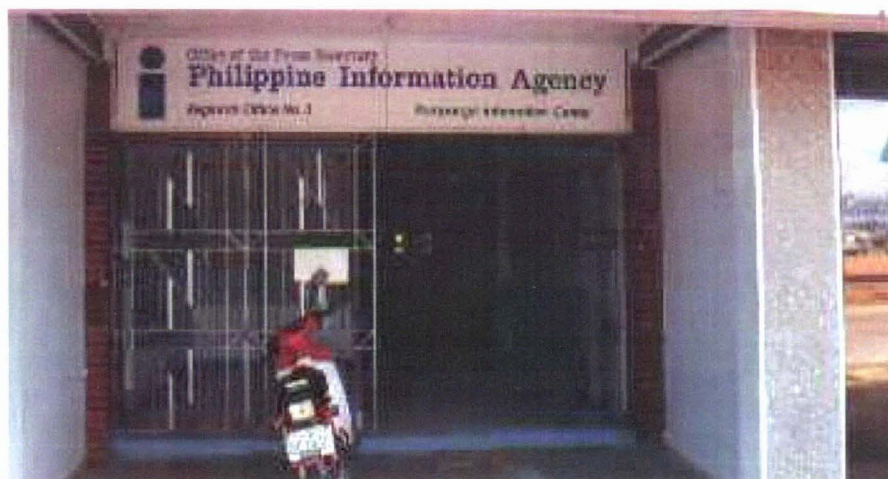
The information centres are scattered all over the country usually “located in the capital town of the province and make up the dissemination and distribution network of the PIA” (PIA website). The Information Centre also serves as venue for conferences, dialogues, fora, trainings, and seminars of government and NGOs.

Each information centre manages the operations of the Community Development Information Centres (CDIC) in their area. At present, there are 500 CDICs nationwide under the supervision of the provincial information centre in the area.

The CDIC is designed for social mobilization and development through information, education, and communication. The CDIC Council composed of multisectoral local representatives serves as the policy-making and advisory body of the CDIC.

The PIA provides audio-visual equipment and software to CDICs and trains them to operate and maintain AV equipment and software. CDICs serve as a common network for information feedforward, research and feedback mechanism (PIA website, n.d.).

Figure 5.1.
PIA Information Centre in Region 3



Source: PIA website

The PIA was later absorbed by the OPS to consolidate all information offices of the government. The operational relationship between the two agencies has not been clearly defined hence the PIA would more often chart its own course as dictated by its mandate. Given its mandate to develop and formulate information campaigns, the PIA has been the most visible government information agency. The PIA and not the OPS is always called upon to conduct communication campaigns as the OPS is viewed as a political office and the PIA a development communication-oriented agency.

For example, in the implementation of the measles elimination campaign of the Department of Health, the PIA is expected to assist in the conceptualisation, production and distribution of information materials; coordinate the interviews of key officials in major radio and television public affairs programs; set-up forums and coffee shop-type of talks termed "*kapihan*" in the regional, provincial and municipal levels. The information centres of the PIA coordinate such activities.

Supervision of the Press Secretary in this respect is hardly needed as the agency can very well perform its mandated functions. The agency does not take its cue from the Press Secretary but from the line agency to which it is conducting a campaign. Does in a given month, the agency may be involved in more than one communication campaign of the government. Developing and coordinating national communication campaigns for the programs of the different line agencies was one function that the PIA has effectively and efficiently undertaken.

GOVERNMENT COMMUNICATION SETTING

The flow of development information in the Philippines is highly centralised. Figure 5.2 illustrates the flow of communication in a top-down manner. The flow of directives is from the national down to the provincial, municipal and then the barangay level. Information may also include the regional level when programs of national agencies are involved. This represents a vertical, one-way communication line. It is expected that at the level of the LGU a two-way communication process can be established. Below is a schematic diagram of this line of communication.

Communication from the national government comes in the form of directives. These are then transmitted to the provincial government, specifically to the Office of the Governor. The Office of the Governor is mandated to direct the Human Resource

Office to relay the message to the Municipal Mayor whose Human Resource Office distributes to each of the barangay captain through different means. Modern communication technology such as the fax machine and Internet may aid the distribution. But the courier system remains the main distribution method. In this kind of centralised communication setting, it is difficult for information to go at a faster rate.

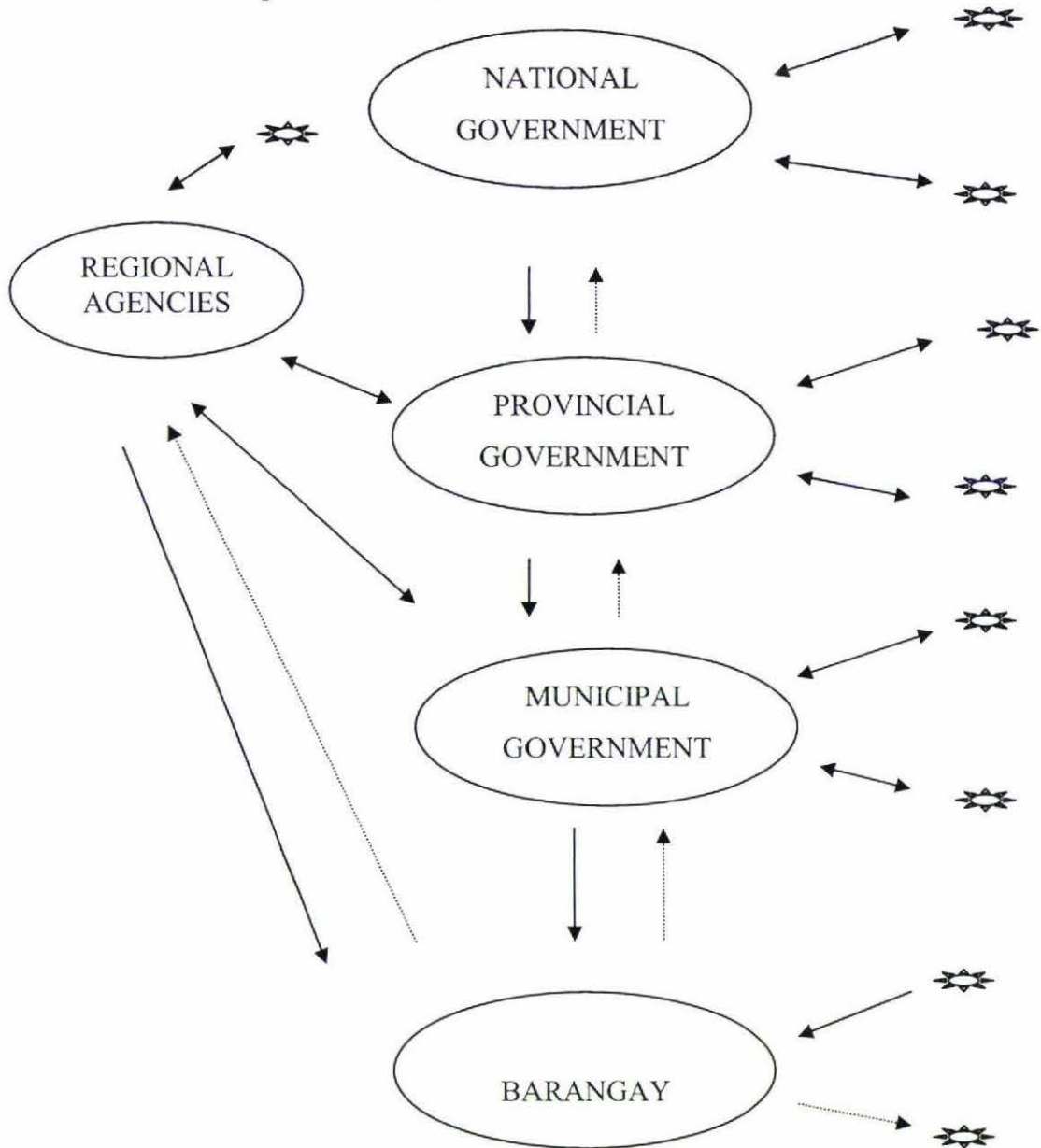
The designated information officer of the province whose appointment is dependent on the Governor distributes information directly emanating from the Office of the Provincial Governor. Otherwise, information is relayed by the office, which may have sponsored the measure or the initiator of the information. For example information on training on organic farming may emanate from the Provincial Agricultural Office after the approval of the Governor. The Provincial Board secretary distributes ordinances passed by the Provincial Board.

At the municipal level, the Municipal Secretary more often distributes information to the barangay captains through the barangay secretary. The barangay secretary is most likely authorised by the barangay captain to retrieve information from the municipal government. The Municipal Board secretary distributes ordinances passed by the Municipal Council.




At the barangay level, ordinances and other directives from the national level to the municipal are posted on the barangay bulletin board and for those of extreme importance, e.g. notice for the filing of registration of voters, notices are posted in other strategic areas in the barangay. These strategic places include electric posts, big trees, houses, waiting sheds, jeepney stops and at times even in public utility vehicles.

Though there is no regional government, national agencies have regional offices that covers services to a group of geographically close provinces. Some major government services have been devolved in order for the local government to have more supervision and control over their activities such as the DSWD.

Figure 5.2
Conceptual Scheme of the Pattern of Communication Flow



LEGEND

-  Groups
-  Weak lines
-  Direct lines

Source: Adapted from Belen , 1982

The regional office of any national line agency receives directives straight from the national government. Regional offices may directly link with the provincial office on its programs and projects. The provincial office then conveys it to the municipal government and then the municipal government relates it to the barangay. But the relay of information is selective and can be influenced by partisan politics and personal interests. Lobbying can also hasten or impede the process. Lobbying may come from

individuals, groups formally or informally formed who may have prior knowledge of the program or policy.

At the local government unit, the communication flow is expected to explore a two-way process. Local government officials then become both the conveyor of information and information seeker. The provincial government may ask the municipal government for feedback on certain policies. This may be in the form of a directive, letter or through informal talks with the municipal mayors. The municipal government may then convene a meeting among all barangay captains on this request. The barangay officials then would call for a meeting in the barangay or can devise other ways such as informal visits to people in the sitios. As the barangay gathers the information needed, the barangay will then report it to the mayor in another meeting he would call. The mayor submits a report or directly conveys the information to the governor on this matter. In this manner, a two-way flow of communication is firmly established.

The lines from the national level are direct exhibiting that information from the national level has a captive recipient. However, the lines from the local level upward to the different tiers of government appears weak thus demonstrated by the dotted line in the diagram above. Moreover, it cannot be even assured that there is a real need for the input in the local level, as policies have not actually demonstrated its usage in the development of policies and programs.

This communication flow is ideal in nature and respects the tiers of government as established by law. But there are varying links in the pattern, which can be influenced by partisan politics, nepotism, or shared interests. Thus, provincial officials can go directly to the barangay captain bypassing the municipal mayor and vice versa. This is very common if the mayor and the provincial governor come from opposing parties. Another example is that of a municipal board member who can boast of direct access to the provincial government because of political affiliation with most members of the provincial government. At times, priority and essential services are channelled to areas where incumbent leadership has earned most of its votes in the last elections. Non-partisan politics though should be practiced in the barangay level. But in highly urbanised and some politicised areas this cannot be helped. Politics definitely affect the flow of communication.

Influential people, informal or formal groups within and/or outside each of the tier of government can also influence the pattern of communication. The Catholic Church can widely oppose family planning practices or environmental groups can oppose garbage disposal methods in both the national and the local levels.

Likewise it was observed that information from below especially if negative are sifted in the next higher level. It is gleaned as a failure of the people executing the programs to have negative reports reaching the next higher level. Thus even by using unnecessary methods such as coercion or exclusion, some officials would not document or record negative responses on projects executed. As such, issues sometimes are not addressed by policy but by actions undermined at the local level.

In this kind of information, the flow is abruptly stopped in the guise that negative information is perceived as a weakening or failure. It is not seen as challenges and its need have to be documented in order to effectively get to the root of the problem. Most of this negative information is stuck at the regional offices. What is articulated to the national and central level are glowing reports and accomplishments.

The opinions of media also play a pivotal role in shaping the communication process as enunciated earlier by Medija (2002) on the political role of the media. It can affect any tier of government and even if consultations have already been conducted from the barangay level, media can still influence the outcome in the national level. Media can justify that it has on its own accord took the view of the people though its coverage and manner of feedback is selective and sampled. Media can say it has paralleled the process of consultation that the government has conducted but could not disclose its methods. At times, it also is personal and biased.

But there are concerted efforts of both the media and the government in shaping the communication flow. At times like this the government and the media share responsibilities in disseminating information. The government largely initiates this and media only responds to the call if it deems it interesting or would serve the general welfare of the public. This is accentuated in what Medija (2002) refers to as the social role of media. Examples of joint campaigns by the government and private media include the campaign against smoking, ban on firecrackers on New Year's Eve, health issues or the enhancing public awareness on domestic violence.

Conveying and seeking information in government may both be on an informal or formal basis. Despite the informality of the manner of conveying the information, it nevertheless starts a two-way communication process. For example, during the time of President Estrada the legalisation of the locally popular numbers game or *jueteng* has been proposed. Since it is a very controversial topic, opposition was strong especially from the religious sector and other conservative institutions in the area. Consultations conducted on both an informal and formal basis in the local level reveal the negative impact of the numbers game. Hence, the government aborted the project.

It is crucial to development that that information is passed on to the people. Failure or success of development programs depends on people's awareness and knowledge of development. It is significant in the process to share knowledge and be informed on a two-way process. In this case, there is a need to tap the local leadership to initiate and guide the communication process from the tiers of government until it reaches the hierarchy. Colin Fraser writing for FAO (n.d.) emphasised that in the communication process the exchange has to be between equals to ensure it effectively. The local leaders should then be aware that they represent the community and it is important for them to realise the need to communicate these sentiments.

Interviews with national government officials and regional information officers revealed that there really is difficulty also in synchronising the information activities due to the different priorities. Some of the communication strategies of the national government do not apply to the local level. Rural areas are highly interpersonal while urban areas could be maximised through media channels, for example. Moreover, local level officials' input to information materials produced on a nationwide-scale is hardly valued.

There is no effort even to convene information officers from different areas on a nationwide basis to share experiences. Lessons learned in the field among information officers are not documented thus the succeeding program fall in the same trap. Though the exercise is being regularly practised in the regional level, efforts to even elevate concerns to the national level are hardly documented. Thus what innovations some regional offices may have done to mediate a particular problem can be applied in another, had the other known about it. Communication strategies and methods are documented in statistical purposes such as number of press releases produced, number of interviews made or coordinated, and number of posters, flyers and brochures

produced. Scarcely are there narrative accounts of how people perceive the posters or how the people used the information. Though there are independent studies made on particular information materials, such as those conducted by the PIA, the information is barely used to enhance future endeavours worst, if the results are negative they are not released at all. With this, the wealth of knowledge of information officers especially in the local level dealing with issues and concerns in the field remain with them undocumented and unlearned of.

It is evident also that information gathered from the people, especially negative reactions, are dealt with in the lowest possible office or are construed to be a failure of the program, the local level office and the local level official. This has never been seen in the light of a learning experience or that the failure was not in the implementation but was of the system itself. Attempts to cover this had been the usual practice. Negative information which may at times be crucial in the formation of policies is not allowed to find its way up but is subdued easily. Likewise information from the top when inappropriate to the local level are stopped or sifted. This therefore does not allow a free-flow of information from top to bottom or from bottom to top with information officers only acting as facilitators. What is evident is that information officers act as mediators or hatchet men of information. This then hinders the people from truly being participatory in the communication process.

For the people in the local level, this is not all lost because the media's social role assured them of a channel to which they voice their concerns. For example, President Arroyo, in her first State of the Nation Address (SONA), brought to the attention of the public three young boys whose dreams of finding a job for their fathers, education for themselves, house for their families and food on their table were highlighted as the major concerns of the administration. A year later, interviews with the young boys revealed that not all the promises were fulfilled.

Government's inability to match its policies with its messages has been problematic. The lack of ability of government to communicate effectively its policies and failing to document the negative reactions of the people drowning it instead in praiseworthy accomplishment reports is like digging its own grave.

Communication Role of Barangay Officials

The barangay officials are intended according to Belen (1982) to be the “mobilizer for development” and the “conveyor of information” at the village level. The people in the barangay are the ultimate recipients of information and at the same time the feedback on the information emanates from them. Belen’s study (1982) quotes Havelock (1971) which recognised the barangay as an “effective link between the most remote consumer of knowledge and the remote sources of expert knowledge.” Belen (1982) acknowledged that the barangay is the “administrator” and the “communicator of rural development.”

Specifically, it is the barangay captain who is the giver of information to the people and the seeker of information from the people, the conveyor of the needs of the people. This role has not changed since Feliciano’s research in 1966 revealed that the barangay captain is one of the most common sources of information together with the extension worker.

Several studies on communication patters in the Philippine countryside showed that at the grassroots level, personal influence by family, friends and neighbours takes over mass media after awareness have been created on policy issues. This is so because members of the community interact relatively more frequently with their neighbours and communicating largely on matters affecting their livelihood. The influence of other people, particularly those close to them, tends to be more effective factor for information diffusion than media.

Interpersonal communication according to Belen’s study (1982) was the most effective in creating awareness among clientele about programs/projects by conducting meetings or house-to-house information campaign. Distributing printed materials was the method most used in disseminating information especially on technical information in a study cited by Escalada (1981) of the communication profile and training needs in communication of development agents in Baybay, Leyte. Other findings in several studies (Belen, 1982; Escalada, 1981; Feliciano, 1966) reveal that that knowledge of existing communication flows in the barangay, specifically the retrieval and delivery of information, may be addressed by adopting better communication strategies at their level. Further, the information seeking behaviour is enhanced by the existence of

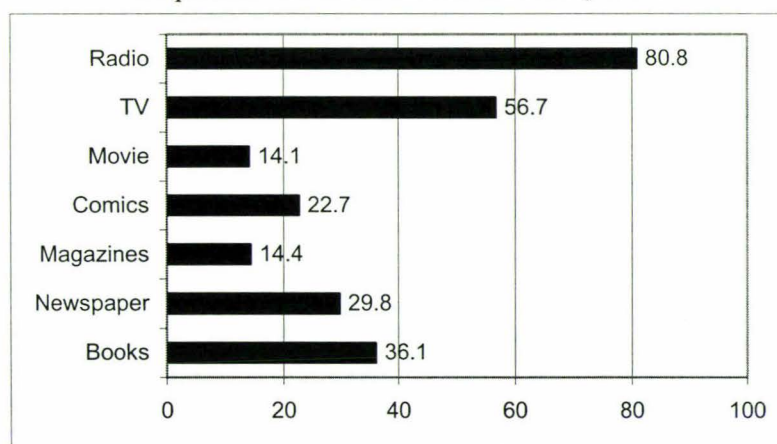
mediated channels of information such as radio, television, and newspapers. However, only when these media are supported by personal contacts will they be effective.

Likewise, exposure of the people in the barangay to different media forms determines to a large extent their readiness to receive and/or pass on information to others. People's awareness of the existence of development information leads them to seek information and thereby act on it. This useful sharing of information informs both the barangay officials and the people of the community on what are the best methods that could be adapted in the village. Once conveyed, they would be able to implement an acceptable program.

Modes of Communication

“Radio and television broadcasting are considered the most widely used means of communicating to the public because of the ease by which these two facilities are obtained” (in www.SEAMedia.org). In the 1994 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey, 81.22% of the population owned radios while only 44.93% owned television sets. More than half of the population is exposed to radio than television making it the most accessible media form in the country. In the rural areas, people are also more exposed to radio than any other media forms such as television, video tapes, movies, comics, magazines, newspapers and books.

Figure 5.3⁴⁰
Exposure to Forms of Mass Media, 1994



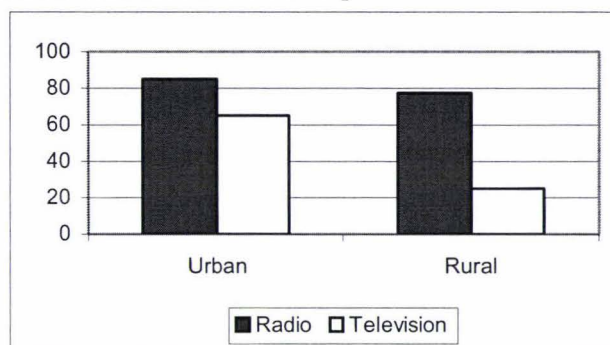
Source: NSO, 1994 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey

However, with regards to ownership, more people own both radio and television in the urban areas than in the rural areas as exhibited by the figure below. According to the

⁴⁰ Figures in percentages

survey, 40.7 million Filipinos aged 10 years and older or “approximately 8 out of 10” are exposed to radio.

Figure 5.4⁴¹
Radio and Television Ownership in Urban and Rural Areas



Source: NSO, 1994 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey

Print media exposure continues a “decelerating” trend except for books, which have slightly increased its readership. Despite the increasing number of broadsheets, tabloids and magazines, readership have exhibited a downward trend. This is probably because due to the rise in prices of these print materials and its availability only in the urban centres. Newspaper readership has gone down to 3.2% from 33% in 1989 to 29.8% in 1994. The decrease was more evident in the urban areas than in the rural areas. Access to more media forms may have probably encouraged the urban audience to shift to the more convenient and economical media form. Newspaper readership is still highest in the National Capital Region. In Metro Manila 8 out of 10 people read newspapers but only about 1 in every 10 persons in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao. Magazine readership has also decreased its readership by a 6.8 slowdown from the 1989 survey.

Among all the media forms, comics suffered the most setbacks plunging into 15.6% from 38.3% in 1989 to 22.7% in 1994. The survey revealed that the reduction was evident in both the urban and the rural areas. Only the Bicol Region exhibited a strong preference to the medium with 1 in every 10 Bicolanos⁴² read comics than any other print medium.

From the 1989 survey, television has taken the upper seat from movies. A 4.6% slowdown was registered in the proportion of the population with the urban audience exhibiting the plunge more than those in the rural areas. Television viewership has registered an 8.7% expansion from the 1989 survey.

⁴¹ Figures in percentages

⁴² People from the Bicol Region

Another rising medium is the usage of videotapes which has exhibited an increasing trend over the last few years. The proportion of households exposed to videotapes rose by 2.4% from 11.7% in 1989 to 14.1% in 1994. Videotapes have also taken an upper seat from the movies. Likewise, the rural dwellers have caught up with the urban dwellers in the usage of the medium. Video piracy has been rampant in the country in the last few years making movies, foreign and local, more accessible to the people at very low rates despite its poor quality.

The 1994 government survey revealed that comics, magazines, movies, newspapers and radio have declined in terms of usage of the population. Exposure to mass media has increased in both the urban and rural areas by 0.8% on the average. In the NCR only “one for every 50 persons aged 10 years old are not exposed to any mass media form” (ibid.). However, in the ARMM, 20.5% are not exposed to any medium.

In 1998 the SWS released its survey on mass media and revealed that the television-viewing has continued to rise (Mangahas, 1998). The survey showed that the media hierarchy has shifted from radio to television with newspapers as the third medium the population is most exposed to. Dividing the population into classes⁴⁶ radio is an “egalitarian medium.” The figure below exhibits the percentage of adults obtaining news reports daily, by medium in the 1998.

Table 5.2
Exposure of Population to Daily News Reports

| | Television | Radio | Newspapers |
|-------------------|------------|-------|------------|
| PHILIPPINES | 44 | 29 | 17 |
| Metro Manila | 65 | 27 | 39 |
| North Luzon | 51 | 28 | 17 |
| South Luzon | 43 | 31 | 17 |
| Visayas | 42 | 32 | 14 |
| Mindanao | 27 | 28 | 4 |
| Class ABC | 68 | 29 | 4 |
| Class D | 45 | 30 | 15 |
| Class E | 28 | 25 | 8 |
| Men | 46 | 33 | 22 |
| Women | 42 | 25 | 11 |
| Age group 18 – 24 | 46 | 17 | 12 |
| 25 – 34 | 40 | 26 | 18 |
| 35 – 44 | 43 | 30 | 15 |
| 45 + | 48 | 38 | 20 |

Source: SWS, 1998

⁴⁶ “...the most common system for defining classes is that of Philippine business research, using the categories A (rich), B (upper), C (middle), D (*masa*), and E (very poor). Letter-combinations like AB, ABC, or DE simply refer to the sum of the corresponding groups.

The categorization of a family into A, B, C, D or E is based on simple rules as to the appearance of the family dwelling, supplemented where possible by information as to material possessions, occupation of the household head, etc. Every consumer survey uses this system as SOP” (Mangahas, 2001).

Television has conquered more than half of the media exposure of people especially in the urban areas except very slightly in Mindanao where there are more radio stations.⁴⁸ This means that news reports that appear on television is most likely to be captured by 44% of the population and only 29% by radio and 17% by newspapers. Usage of radio seems to continue to decline in all areas in the country, across social classes, gender and age groups. Metro Manila's television viewership is the highest across all areas in the country. Metro Manila is home to about 13 major television stations and some UHF stations.

Metro Manila still tops television viewership with Mindanao exhibiting the least viewership. Radio listenership is highest in the Visayas than anywhere else in the country. Newspaper readership is highest in Metro Manila and lowest in Mindanao. These are the same trends exhibited in the 1994 government survey.

Television viewership is highest among the upper to middle class but the *masa* came a few points close to the upper and middle class. But radio displays an egalitarian trend as listenership seems to be close among the highest income class earners and the lowest income class earners. However the combined ABC class exhibited a higher percentage of newspaper readership than only 8% of the lowest income earners.

News media captured more men audience than females. "The gender gap is much smaller in the case of broadcast media" (Mangahas, 1998). However, women registered only half of the newspaper reading male population.

"What appeals to people of all ages is news on television" according to the SWS survey (1998). However, on all media forms, the older generation have more interest in the news. Newspaper readership and radio listenership are lowest among the 18-24 age group. In the older generation "one out of five reads a newspaper daily" (ibid.) compared to "one out of eight" among the younger generation.

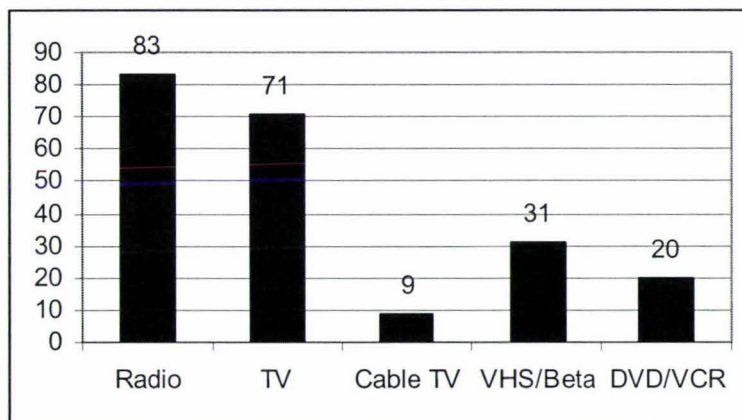
Repetition of message, according to the SWS (1998) survey can "maximize and influence" the audience. "A message repeated daily" will capture a wider range of audience much more if it uses all kinds of media. However, the survey cautions that if

⁴⁸ Southern Mindanao has 26 AM stations and 34 FM stations, the most number of radio stations in any region in the country (www.SEMedia.org).

only one media, one newspaper, for example, carries the message “will reasonably suspect that the message is mere propaganda” (ibid.).

A further survey⁴³ was conducted on media use by the SWS (Mangahas 2001). Though more people own radio sets, television viewership was greater and newspaper readership minimal.

Figure 5.5
Media Ownership, 2001



Source: Mangahas, 2001

Television viewership has increased significantly as the survey reveals about 43% devote at least one-eighth of their daily life watching television in the country while radio listenership was only 33%. As displayed in the previous surveys of the SWS radio continues to appeal to all social classes as divided by the consumer establishment making it a class-less medium. For example of ‘those who listen at least one hour per day are 52% of the ABCs, 50% of the Ds and 44% of the Es’ (ibid.).

Newspaper readership on the other hand was only 15% on a daily basis. In the survey, “only one out of every six or seven adult Filipinos reads the newspaper every day” (Mangahas, 2001). The same survey quotes that “one out of every three people in the NCR read the newspaper as oppose to only one out of 12 in Mindanao” (ibid.).

Thus, though it is more expensive to lodge an advertisement on television, it is more cost effective than any other media because of its wide viewership. Moreover, television is a shared medium. From the 1994 government statistical survey on the mass media to the SWS surveys conducted on a regular basis, it was clearly evident that television has captured a far wider audience than any other medium in the country more significantly in the viewership of news programs. Radio though continues to be popular in the rural

⁴³ Please refer to Appendix 9

areas but the advent of other forms of media such as videotapes has been popular in the last few years. Print media has lost its appeal though there is still an increase in the number of newspapers and tabloids even in the regional areas.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

The last few years each of the administrations have launched poverty alleviation programs and parallel to this is the implementation of communication programs and strategies were executed. However, no widely published nationwide surveys or studies have been conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of these campaigns. This section shall look into the awareness level and certain strategies implemented by the government on major poverty alleviation programs of the government.

Social Reform Agenda

The SRA used the social marketing strategy to communicate its themes and messages. In the Sourcebook on the Social Reform Agenda consolidated by the Secretariat of the Social Reform Council, “communicating the SRA (was) among the nine key strategic actions... but like poverty it tackles the same problem” everybody knows it, *but who’s responsible for doing what?*” (SRCS, 1998, p. 1).

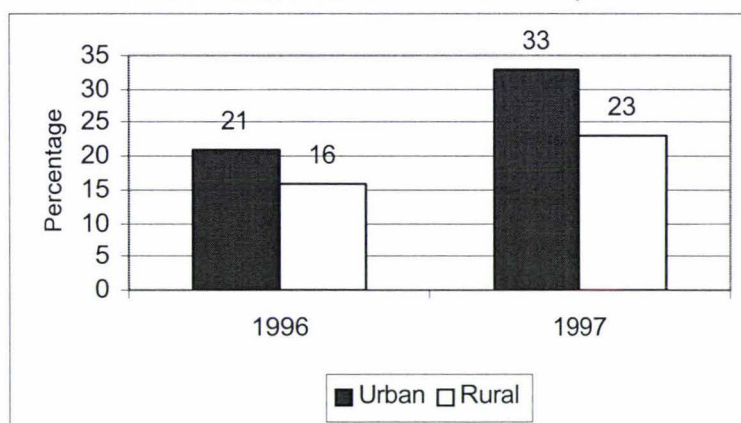
Social marketing as an approach has been very popular among developing countries since the 1970s (Waisbord, 2001). The focus of the campaign is on influencing behaviour and making use of models to promote “socially beneficial practices” (ibid.).

Like the program itself, the communication aspect is “multi-sectoral and multi-level.” It acknowledges earlier communication strategies that mass media captures a wider audience but the SRA bracketed them into groups “by certain dimensions and locations” (ibid.).

The sourcebook identified three key problems in communicating the SRA, namely: (1) general lack of awareness of and basic knowledge of the program; (2) inadequate delivery or amplification of key messages; and, scepticism on the its effectiveness in addressing poverty” (ibid., p. 3).

The SWS survey⁴⁴ conducted in 1996 and 1997 a few years after the implementation of the SRA reveal an increasing trend in awareness on the SRA. The survey revealed that rural areas have far less awareness of the program than those in the urban areas in 1996 and 1997.

Figure 5.6
Urban Versus Rural Awareness on the SRA, 1996 - 1997



Source: Sourcebook on the SRA, 1998

In 1994 when the program started “virtually no one knew about it, less understood what it was all about” (ibid., p. 2). “Incremental” gains were achieved in the last perception survey in 1997. People in Luzon have more knowledge of the SRA than in any other major island group in the country. In the period covered, Mindanao exhibited the least awareness of the program slightly increasing only in 1997 by 8%. The highest increase in awareness was registered by Luzon with an increase of 18%. The rural areas only displayed a 7% increase in awareness on the program than its urban counterparts whose knowledge of the program increased by 12%. Even in the National Capital Region, awareness on the program is very limited registering only about 19% in 1996 and 28% in 1997.

Among the socio-economic class, the lowest income earners (E) displayed the lowest awareness levels in the period covered. The ABC manifested 25% awareness in 1996 increasing by 49% in 1997. The masa registered only a 7% increase from 20% in 1996 to 27% in 1997. More male than female are aware of the SRA in the period covered. The gap slightly decreased in 1997 from 10% to 8%.

Among all age groups, those who are 45 years old and older have more knowledge on the SRA in 1996 but in 1997 the 18-24 and the 25 to 34 age groups registered a higher

⁴⁴ Please refer to Appendix 10

awareness level by 3%. The highest increase in awareness was exhibited by the 18 – 24 age group from 12% in 1996 to 29% in 1997.

In 1996, PIA Regional Director for Region 6, Janet Mesa, commented that the low awareness on the SRA was “due to the oversight of the government agencies themselves” who failed to inform their recipients that the projects being implemented are under the SRA (Visayan Post, in SRCS, 1998, p. 38). She suggests that the least implementing agencies can do is to “affix the initials SRA in the billboards or streamers which give some data on the project” (ibid.).

President Ramos was the SRA’s number one salesman. The communication campaign “refers to the need for using the President’s strong appeal and command of media attention to build its currency” (ibid., p. 3). The communication plan envisions that “a consistent public message across the leadership spectrum of the country would inevitably convince the general public and the target beneficiaries, the basic sectors, that government is serious about implementing social reforms” (ibid.). This displays the political will of the administration to implement the program.

Operationalising the communication plan calls for each national line agency undertaking a SRA flagship program to carry out its own communication plan or com-plan. This allows each of the agencies to “run with the ball” as the communication plan parallels the efforts made on programs and projects. In December 1995, the President signed Memorandum Order No. 327 creating the inter-agency communication task force on poverty alleviation and social reforms to “set up clear lines of collaboration among agencies, NGOs, Pos, and basic sectors, in communicating breakthroughs on government development efforts” (ibid., p. 32).

The agency com-plan “should highlight SRA as the integrating framework of the flagship in the anti-poverty thrust of the government” (ibid., p. 4). Thus each program or project on the ground prominently displays the SRA logo and the standard slogan: Support the SRA: *Tugon sa Kahirapan, Tulay sa Kasaganahan* (Answer to Poverty, Bridge to Prosperity). The logo and the slogan were picked up for national advertising on radio and television (ibid., Part 3, p. 33). This tagline was the “tie that binds all the media activities of the different flagship agencies under the SRA” (ibid., Part One, p. 10). The PIA recorded that total plugging recorded totalled 69 times on television and 47 times on radio from September to December 1997 (Sourcebook of the SRA, 1998).

The SRC Secretariat served as the “coordinative hub for the communication plan” (ibid., p. 4). “Initiatives directed by the lead convenor, Secretary-General and/or the Flagship Champions, or as dictated by circumstances, were coordinated with the agencies concerned for information resource sharing and maximizing effectiveness and efficiency” (ibid.). Because it was factitious, the general public could not grasp the whole concept of the SRA relating it to individual flagship programs instead of a whole. This also mirrored the communication efforts of the program. Each line agency runs its own course highlighting the agency’s thrusts and priorities running parallel to the SRA theme and message.

Moreover, it was noted that the lack of tangible accomplishments that could relate the program to its message was very evident. “Without solid accomplishments to back it up, the SRA became thought of as more of a promise rather than the continuing and cumulative realisation of reforms” (ibid.).

With solid accomplishments the media “can not resist” not to report the gains of the SRA. The factor of “transactional relationship” which involves funding for radio and TV spots and other advertisements has to be addressed. In the latter half of 1997 “media exposure on the SRA has been effective” (ibid., p. 10). To counter misinformation in media reports, the SRC would provide “columnists with the sector’s validated report” (ibid.). Negative reports were countered by press releases and publication of SRA gains and accomplishments were emphasised in succeeding press releases both on a national and local levels. The communication and information units of each of the line agencies that conduct SRA projects are delegated to immediately address and correct facts in negative articles published on print or aired on broadcasts. This early monitoring system was instituted in all departments implementing the SRA.

For example, the Sourcebook (1998, p. 11) said that in 1997 positive articles account for 117 per month as against 50 negative articles in the media monitoring system devised. About 44 reports were of a neutral nature. Total exposure of the SRA was recorded at an average 211 articles per month.

The factitious nature of the communication efforts of the government was addressed by Administrative Order No. 194 which adopts the convergence policy and in Section 3, it mandates the Office of the Press Secretary through the Philippine Information Agency “to formulate a National Communication and Advocacy Program” in coordination with

the SRC and the other line agencies. The PIA was given the mandate to orchestrate and coordinate all communication efforts from the national to the local levels. Thus all other line agencies “shall plan, implement and periodically review and refine, if necessary, their respective information programs in accordance with this National Communication and Advocacy Program” (p. 13).

A Regional Communications Task Force was also created in 29 November 1996 composed of regional line agency offices conducting SRA projects and the Philippine Information Agency. This envisioned more “government personnel visible in the barangays conducting consultations, meetings, disseminating information and implementing their agency’s programs and projects” (ibid.). The task force mandate was “to provide communication support through the production of IEC materials; formulate regional communication plans to localise the SRA; monitor issues raised by the public regarding SRA implementation; and ensure information dissemination through the local mass media and interpersonal channels” (ibid.).

For example in a press release in 1996, the Regional Development Council of Region 2 headed by La Union Gov. Justo Orros, Jr. approved a resolution implementing the SRA communication plan in the region and provided financial support to the communication task force headed by PIA in the amount of PhP54,800 (Ilocandia Express, 1996 in SRCS, 1998, p. 35).

This was the only manifestation of an integrated and orchestrated communication plan from the national to the local levels. Other strategies of the program include regular TV and radio forums and plugs on SRA goals and specific plans. Tri-media releases including press conferences carried success stories, testimonials, advertising editorials (advertorials) on the flagship programs. These releases came in the form of press statements, feature articles, photo releases, institutional advertising, newspaper fillers, brochures, leaflets and special publications, and direct mails. Radio shows were encouraged and one radio station, the Catholic-owned Veritas 846 devoted one hour to a program “*Serbisyo Bilis*” (Fast Service) from September to December 1997 to enhance public awareness on the SRA. Three flagship agencies, however, invested air time on the radio station drumming up support to their flagship programs, the DA’s “*Anihan*,” (Harvest time) DOH’s “*Sagot Kita*” (I will answer for you) on health issues and the Housing and Urban Development Coordinating Council’s “*Bayanihan*” (cooperation) addressing housing concerns.

Other innovative information materials developed include a pin-up newspaper an alternative to billboards and posters” distributed to barangays. The program also held information bazaars and exhibits during local festivals and events such as the anniversary of the EDSA⁴⁵ People Power Revolution. Photo exhibits were held in various parts of the country to highlight the accomplishments of the SRA. Interpersonal communication include information caravans, press conferences or coffeeshop-style forums called “*kapihan*” and the barangay forum.

The communication plan of the SRA had ideally displayed an integrated effort from the national to the local level to deliver a message to the people. However, the feedback mechanism of the program despite its efforts to localise the information services was not clearly evident. There were strategies such as coffee-like sessions or barangay forums but the documentation of people’s views remain unaccounted. It still displays the one-way communication system of asking the people to believe the efforts of government in addressing poverty alleviation.

Moreover, the setting up of an early monitoring system to counteract “perceived” negative reports on the programs being implemented by the SRA sets a dangerous precedent in communication planning. In its eagerness to thwart the negative reports, it may raise people’s expectations and hopes by outlining what it intend to do instead of what it has actually done. The ability of the government not to allow negative reports in the implementation of its program opens up the government to promises it may not be able to fulfil or sustain.

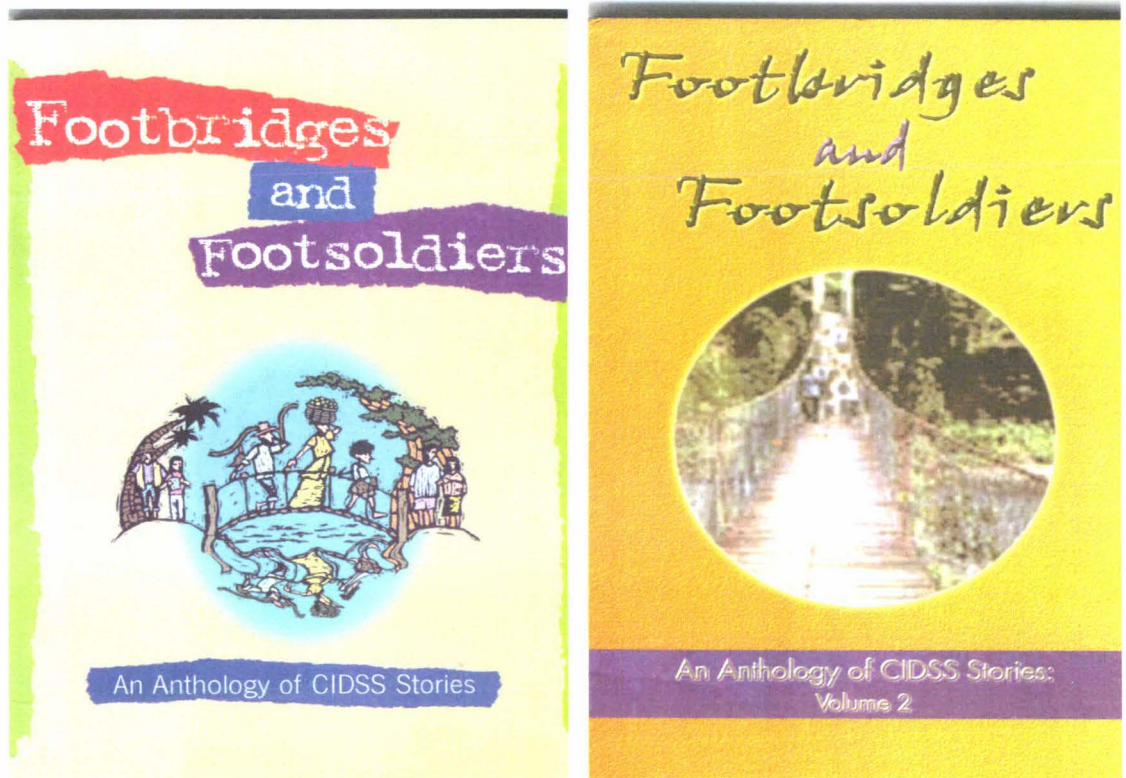
Each of the line agencies undertaking a project is linked by a communication plan developed by the PIA. In the local levels, the PIA was the point man in delivering information to the grassroots through its information centres. However, each of these line agencies likewise has extension workers and other field officers who may conduct the same kind of information services. Duplication and overlap is clearly evident despite the issuance of orders by the President due to the mandates that each of the agencies performs.

Information materials produced to document the accomplishments of the CIDSS have been distributed to several target audiences. The two-part book series “Footbridges and Foot Soldiers” is an anthology produced by the NAPC highlighting the CIDSS

⁴⁵EDSA is a long thoroughfare in the NCR named after a Filipino patriot, Epifanio delos Santos, which served as a historic stage for the people power in 1986 and 2000.

implementers' experiences and of people whose lives have changed and been affected by the program. PIA personnel wrote some of the articles on these two books. The NAPC produced some of the information materials from other institutions. The PIA assisted the NAPC in developing materials and coordinating the printing of these information materials.

Figure 5.7.
Two-volume Anthology of CIDSS Stories



Moreover, taking the case of the CIDSS implementation, there was no sharing of experiences among information officers. There was a lot of documentation of the CIDSS implementers' experiences hardly were there efforts to share and learn from unfavourable experiences of the information officers in the implementation of the program. Lessons learned from the sad experiences of CIDSS implementers.

From 26 March – 17 April 2000, the World Bank and the Social Weather Station jointly conducted a survey that sought to determine the awareness and access of Filipino households to the Lingap Para sa Mahihirap Program. The survey was analysed by region, urban and rural residency and by household expenditure determining the income classes in three categories – the poor covering the lowest of the three expenditure deciles or bottom 30%, the middle-income in the fourth to the sixth decile (or middle 30%) and the top four expenditure deciles (or top 40%) for the rich (WB, 2001).

The survey revealed that “two in three respondents indicated their awareness of the program.” The table below shows the awareness level of the respondents in different areas of the country where the survey was conducted.

Table 5.3
Awareness on the Lingap Program by Area

| Region/Area | Awareness (know before) ⁴⁶ | | Total Number of Households |
|---------------|---------------------------------------|----|----------------------------|
| Philippines | 761 | 63 | 1200 |
| NCR | 118 | 68 | 174 |
| Balance Luzon | 337 | 67 | 505 |
| Visayas | 150 | 62 | 243 |
| Mindanao | 156 | 56 | 278 |
| Urban | 504 | 70 | 719 |
| Rural | 257 | 53 | 481 |

Source: WB, 2001, p. 4

It is also glaring to note that the awareness level was concentrated in Luzon which demonstrated a higher awareness level than the combined figures of the Visayas and Mindanao. This demonstrated that most of the communication and information campaign was concentrated in the urban areas where most of the media facilities were also located and in particular the National Capital Region. It may have been probably noted that the local media can eventually capturing the messages sent at the national level however the method failed. The trickle down of information may have been abated by other priorities. As such the audience share of the urban population remains far greater than that of the rural audience.

In another category of the survey, it was depicted that the bottom 30% of the income earners has the lowest awareness on the program. The table below shall demonstrate the awareness level by poverty group as identified earlier.

⁴⁶ Respondents knew of the Program before the interviewer mentioned it.

Table 5.4⁴⁷
Awareness on the Lingap Program by Poverty Group

| | Awareness (know before) | | Total Number of Households |
|------------|----------------------------|----|-------------------------------|
| | | | |
| Bottom 30% | 204 | 57 | 360 |
| Middle 30% | 226 | 63 | 360 |
| Top 40% | 331 | 69 | 480 |

Source: WB, 2001

The lower 30% of the population received far less information than the top 40% who can very well access the information through different kinds of media. Due to their income, the media access and availability of the bottom 30% is limited and may at times be shared. The information this poverty level may receive may not be first-hand information while the top 40% can very well verify information received from any means.

It was noted that the Lingap funds are also dispersed through congressional allocations and that the list of the beneficiaries are culled from the list prepared by the barangay and may have at some level approved by officials outside of the barangay. For example, it was revealed earlier that in order to avail of certain services such as housing the congressional representative or other local government official had to certify to their residency. Thus, in some instances, the people's awareness of their elective officials and local government leaders was crucial in the access to the services of the program. The Report Card survey then included the awareness of the people on their elective officials.

Table 5.5
Knowledge of Local Elective Officials

| Region/Area Poverty Group | Know Member of Congress/Senator | Know Barangay Captain | Total Number of Households |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| RP | 278 | 817 | 1200 |
| NCR | 44 | 89 | 174 |
| Balance Luzon | 102 | 360 | 505 |
| Visayas | 44 | 154 | 243 |
| Mindanao | 78 | 214 | 278 |
| Urban | 172 | 455 | 719 |
| Rural | 106 | 362 | 481 |
| Bottom 30% | 67 | 261 | 360 |
| Middle 30% | 81 | 245 | 360 |
| Top 40% | 130 | 311 | 480 |

Source: WB, 2001, p. 7

People were more familiar of their barangay captains than their congressional representatives as only 23% was aware of congressional leaders while 68% was aware of their most local representative. Mindanao displayed a greater recognition of their

⁴⁷ Respondents knew of the Program before the interviewer mentioned it.

political leaders than those hailing from the Visayas. However, Luzon registered more awareness of elective officials among the three major island groups. About 87% of the urban dwellers know their elective officials as oppose to 97% of the rural population.

The NCR had the same number of respondents who have recognition of their congressional leaders as the whole of the Visayas which comprised three regions. More respondents in Luzon know their congressional leaders than the combined number of those living in the Visayas and Mindanao. Both the urban and rural population exhibited very slight difference in the knowledge of congressional leaders but as expected the urban population displayed more awareness on this. But the low number of rural area awareness according to the survey “may further disadvantage the potential of the (rural) to be included in the program” (ibid., No. 26).

In national and local elections held every three years, on the average, a voter has to choose about 30 elective positions⁴⁸. Thus, it was very difficult to remember who you actually vote for. Officials then who get featured more often in the media more often were the most remembered. It was then not surprising that only about 23% of the total population can identify senators or even their congressional district representatives according to the WB report card.

Among the poverty groups, all income classes exhibited more familiarity with their barangay captains than of their congressional representatives. The top 40% have greater recognition of their elective officials than the other two poverty groups. However, the lowest 30% know their barangay captains more than the middle 30%. It was a positive sign therefore that the communication lines have been established and maintained between the barangay and the poorest people in the barangay.

The World Bank-commissioned survey included the item on bribery with regards to recommendation by elective officials to access certain programs. The survey quantified the issue of bribery to include “giving money, gifts, services, future political support and other means of returning the favour” (ibid., Item 9 No. 25).

⁴⁸ 12 senators, one congressional representative, one provincial governor and vice-governor, one municipal mayor and vice-mayor and a number of provincial and municipal councillors.

Table 5.6
Comparative Knowledge of Members of Congress and Barangay Captains

| Area/ Poverty Group | Know Member of Congress/Senate Who Will Recommend With | | Know Barangay Captain Who Will Recommend With | | Total Number of Households |
|------------------------|--|-------|---|-------|----------------------------------|
| | No Bribe | Bribe | No Bribe | Bribe | |
| Region/Area | | | | | |
| RP | 221 | 55 | 732 | 84 | 1200 |
| NCR | 29 | 14 | 74 | 15 | 174 |
| Balance Luzon | 92 | 19 | 331 | 28 | 505 |
| Visayas | 40 | 4 | 139 | 15 | 243 |
| Mindanao | 60 | 18 | 188 | 26 | 278 |
| Urban | 136 | 35 | 405 | 51 | 719 |
| Rural | 85 | 20 | 329 | 33 | 481 |
| Poverty Group | | | | | |
| Bottom 30% | 55 | 11 | 233 | 28 | 360 |
| Middle 30% | 68 | 13 | 224 | 21 | 360 |
| Top 40% | 98 | 31 | 275 | 35 | 480 |

Source: WB, 2001

It is a welcome development that the issue of bribery was regarded as not a significant factor in the access to poverty alleviation programs. About 61% of those who know their barangay captains were aware that they can be recommended with no bribe at all while 23% of those who know their congressional leaders said there was no bribery involved. People in the urban areas were more convinced that there was no bribery involved in the access to pro-poor programs than the rural dwellers. Among the poverty groups, the top 40% were certain that no bribery is experienced in recommending beneficiaries for poverty alleviation programs.

The survey said, “Awareness of the Lingap program is impressive given its short history” (ibid., 10, No. 34). However, awareness of the program was lowest among the poor and rural residents also exhibited less knowledge of the program than their urban counterparts. The poor also demonstrated that they have the lowest connections to legislators but their knowledge of their most local elective officials should be noted.

Kapit Bisig Laban sa Kahirapan (KALAH)

The Arroyo administration’s KALAH anti-poverty alleviation program is still in its pilot stage. But it has developed a communication mobilisation plan to enhance awareness on the program at an early stage. An interview with a KALAH communication plan consultant, Girlie Brillantes, confirmed that the communication plan incorporated the lessons learned from the two past administrations specifically that of the SRA. However the communication plan prepared gave no reference to RA 8425 as the guiding principle in the execution of poverty alleviation programs.

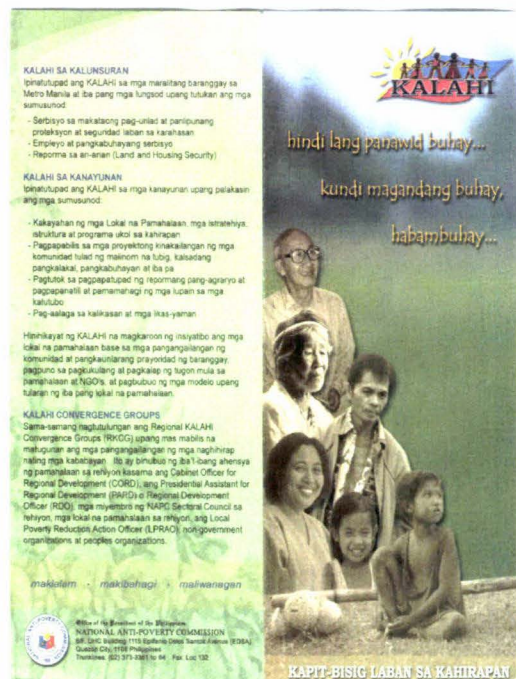
The communication planners used the social marketing strategy, which treats the poverty alleviation program as a product to be sold to the people. Thus it calls the government personnel involved in the implementation of the program as its “nationwide sales force” (NAPC, 2002). The production of information materials was called “fabrication” and the term “branding” to probably mean that all government projects of the agencies involved be named KALAH! Thus repetition or recall of the word “KALAH!” was intended to imprint its consciousness among the people or the target audience.

To appeal to its “sales force” and to its target audience, the communication plan displayed its capability to successfully implement the program, namely “(1) that it is the biggest poverty alleviation program being implemented; (2) involvement of 38 government agencies with regional and local government offices; (3) assurance of private sector support; (4) hundreds of million pesos funds available” (ibid.).

Figure 5.8
KALAH! Fan Flyer



Figure 5.9
KALAH! Three-fold Flyer



Several types of information materials were produced for the KALAH!. These information materials are provided for several sets of audiences with the intention of widening the program reach, multiplying its audience thereby magnifying awareness. The KALAH! flyers shown above were designed for the poor recipients but the information was much cluttered unmindful of the extra breathing space needed by the

reader to be able to digest the information presented. The figures above were designed for mass distribution thus Figure 5.6. is designed as a fan that recipients can find handy in the humid climate. Both information materials are written in Filipino and when necessary in English such as names of government offices and contact details.

For the implementation of the reinvigorated and refocused CIDSS, the KALAHI produced a number of information materials. Below is a KALAHI-CIDSS poster designed by an advertising firm. Interviews with information officers in the CAR said that the message contained misleading statements. They said that these KALAHI-CIDSS poster promises too many things to people in the barangays. The message implies that people in barangays anywhere might think they are automatic recipients of the program. The poster did not even have any persons on it despite the “family approach” of the program which has been the core message of the CIDSS ever since.

Another crucial point is the promise of the program that funds are available. The poster did not say which are the barangays or the criteria of the barangay to avail of such services or funds. The poster gave the impression that it is intended for all poor people in all indigent areas and not in identified areas only. Moreover, the poster was distributed even to LGUs where no barangays are recipients of the KALAHI.

In an interview, a government information officer said, this is giving false hopes to the people since not all barangays are covered and yet the posters will be distributed to almost all provinces in the region and posted in local government offices. All barangays will then expect to be part of this program and only when they are made aware of the program’s details will they be informed. The message then misleads the people to hope for projects in which they will never be a part of. Most of the information materials produced by government indeed raise expectations and hopes of people however its promises cannot be easily matched by its services.

Figure 5.10
KALAHI -CIDSS Poster⁴⁹



Makipag-ugnayan sa:

- Area Coordinator _____
- Community Facilitator _____
- DSWD-Field Office _____

⁴⁹ Sa KALAHI-CIDSS may pondong inilaan para sa proyektong pang-barangay. Ito ang pag-sikat ng bagong umaga. (There are available funds intended for projects in the barangay. This is the rise of a new day).

There were other information materials produced by the KALAH I. These include songs in an audio-cassette recorder and CDs. These were distributed to media outlets and other groups in LGUs to be played in events and other undertakings. The communication plan composed a theme song and a jingle in the hope that the “catchy” song will be a byword of the people. This strategy is called entertainment-education which is “the process of purposely designing and implementing a media message to both entertain and educate in order to increase audience knowledge... create favourable attitudes, and change overt behaviour.” (Singhal and Rogers, in Waisbord, 2001, p. 13). But this type of message is geared more to “capture the audience’s interest” more than to inform them of the issue. This type of strategy has been widely used in developing countries but information officers need to consider if this is changing attitudes as well as entertaining.

Consistent with its entertainment strategy, the KALAH I communication plan used other popular entertainment approaches that can generate awareness and expand its reach to bring the message to the grassroots level. One of these is the insertion of stories, sometimes true accounts inside pages of popular Filipino or other local language comics. The figure below shows popular Filipino language comics whereby a success story was narrated of the triumph of the entrepreneurial spirit. Another information material was targeted for policy makers. The desk calendars were distributed to members of Congress, the media and private organizations to gain support to the program.

The NAPC coordinated the communication plan implementation as was the case of the SRA. In its components, it was stated that each of the 38 government agencies involved in the implementation of the KALAH I shall coordinate “media operations to include KALAH I segments in their communication outputs” (NAPC, 2002). Each of the agencies provided the regional offices and local government units, NGOs and the private sector with “printed, fabricated, produced collateral materials” (ibid.) from their own agency funds.

The KALAH I was also “mainstreamed as a brand name” selling it in national and local media outlets consistent with its social marketing strategy. Thus, all government projects such as building roads and bridges became a part of the KALAH I program as it addresses poverty alleviation. With 38 government agencies involved, most likely that even those government programs and projects that are not directly related to poverty

Figure 5.11

KALAH! Audio Cassette Cover

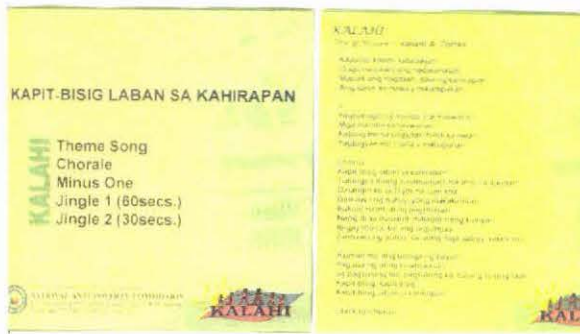


Figure 5.12

KALAH! CD Cover



Figure 5.13
KALAH! Comics Insertion



Figure 5.14
KALAH!-CIDSS Desk Calendar

alleviation such as the registration vehicles may carry the KALAH I logo. With the KALAH I being branded in every government program that is being implemented it really appear like a product being sold in the market as it uses a sales strategy, a hard core selling method in advertising.

The core messages of the KALAH I include the following “(1) is the poverty alleviation strategy of the Arroyo administration; (2) the only nationwide poverty alleviation program based on the convergence strategy; (3) it is a multi-sectoral partnership” (ibid). These messages are not new as all the other administrations have said the same thing. Messages do not even link with the provisions set by RA 8425 which is the main law that addresses poverty alleviation. The core message embarks on the thought that this is a new strategy of the government when in fact it has been implemented in the same manner in the past.

Even the strategies mentioned to drum up support in the media are similar to the other communication campaign strategies launched in the past. But to be able to reach a wider audience, the information materials produced were channelled. “Triggering” events such as press conferences, forums, sectoral assemblies or even presidential visits were used to highlight the program. The media bureau operations include tri-media news generation, tri-media opinion making and tri-media advertisement placements and sortie management.

In order to generate awareness and get the attention of radio, television and print media, the media bureau shall provide news releases, press statements, feature stories, success stories, and testimonials on the KALAH I. It shall enunciate the pro-poor strategies of the program and its major tenets. Materials may come from pronouncements of the Presidency, NAPC en-banc meetings, KALAH I events such as the KALAH I community day, caravans, press conferences, or speeches. This constitutes news generation.

A similar strategy to the SRA is the tri media opinion making wherein negative news stories are countered through written letters to columnists or the “Dear Editor” pages of the national, regional, local or community newspaper. Letter writing to editors is prepared to give accounts of what the KALAH I is and what it can be done by people in the regional and local levels as documented by the regional or the local sales force. Credibility of these letters from beneficiaries is questionable. It may be that letters were

asked to be written or worst were written by the sales force personnel themselves. This gives us shades of the Marcos-type of information generation since some of the people in the public information sector have served during Martial law.

Sortie management refers to the orchestrated manner in which KALAHI's main personalities are asked to grace social events such as *fiestas*⁵⁰ or anniversary celebrations in the local government units. It also refers to the radio and television guest appearances of KALAHI personalities in news and public affairs and even entertainment programs. Given the penchant of the Filipinos for entertainment, the program capitalises on this and encourages both media and the entertainment industry's popular personalities to endorse the program.

Another way to be able to assure technical capacity of the program is the pre- and post-testing of information materials, baseline surveys and focus group discussions (ibid). However, how and why some of these activities need to take place is not mentioned. Likewise, the mechanics and operationalisation of these activities were not discussed thoroughly. Responsibilities of these activities were also not pointed out. If the idea is to generate feedback information on the program this may be a noteworthy endeavour but again the mechanisms to retrieve and relay the information from the beneficiary to the people concerned has not been clearly addressed.

Similar to the strategy of the SRA, the KALAHI as coordinated by the NAPC private communication strategists and consultants, had instituted a Regional KALAHI Convergence Group which in turn formulated the

To promote KALAHI and to create an increased awareness on the government's initiatives to win the war against poverty" (ibid.). Its general objective is "to establish a network of communication sources among communication managers of the KALAHI agencies, civil society, and the private sector in all the regions of the country, to facilitate a proactive awareness campaign on the KALAHI program and to help develop a strategic communication plan owned and implemented by the KALAHI convergence groups" (ibid.)

So instead of a national level communication plan, the regional and local government units were asked to develop their own communication strategies to be aided by the Philippine Information Agency and the KALAHI convergence group earlier formed in

⁵⁰ Celebration of a feast day of the patron saint of the locality

the regional centres. CCRM regional information mapping workshops were conducted nationwide to “(1) identify different communication activities of the regional line agencies, partner organizations and media agencies; (2) identify effective communication channels in broadcast, print, interpersonal and traditional/alternative media in the region; (3) formalise commitment of participants to support Regional KALAH I Convergence Group Communication Plan; (4) support the development of the RKCG Communication Plan in mainstreaming the KALAH I program” (ibid.). The output of the workshop shall be an integral part of the communication plan. The localisation of the communication plan may be effective in the long run rather than conducting it in the national level when information materials are produced in English or in Tagalog than in the local languages.

The communication plan also emphasised the need to transform the activities from media relations to advocacy machinery from the national to the local levels. It does not see the ultimate goal of media providing access to the KALAH I but on transforming the media into an advocacy machinery that in its own initiative and volition will lend its services to the program. For example, media visits are encouraged to barangay beneficiaries of the program in this manner it can derive stories and other information materials from beneficiary barangays who have achieved well using the program’s methodology.

Other communication activities include “school on the air, documentation of indigenous and cultural resources, folk theatre, community audio tower system, puppet theatre, wall newspaper, church homily, orientation modules for community organizations, film showing and roving cinema, participation in town *fiestas*, comics, insertion in widely read newspapers, tabloids, magazines and comics, billboards and bumper stickers” (ibid.).

Most of the available information materials in the national level were produced to influence policy makers and the media. This was intentional on the part of the program’s communication planners in order for the limited information material to reach a wider audience and to influence those who have the power to create opinion such as policy makers and other big private company managers. Thus information materials for distribution to media were CDs and cassettes which contained the theme song and the two KALAH I jingles, a ditty and catchy song composed by popular and

sang by popular entertainment artists which could easily get the attention of the people. For policy makers and local leaders desk calendars and posters were produced. However, some information materials such as flyers and brochures were also produced in Filipino outlining the program's goals and objectives. One of the flyers was produced in fan form to serve dual purposes and distributed during KALAH! launching days in the different regions and during the caravans and media visits.

In the accomplishment of the NAPC, there were no mention of an evaluation or a narrative account of the communication program presented despite the evaluation given to all areas concerning the implementation of the program. Therefore, the communication component of the program was again just an add on to the program and was not considered to be a major budgetary component. If a sizeable amount of funds were poured into the program, it would have merited an evaluation. But production of information materials does not come out cheap. Because information materials are expensive to produce they are printed in limited number and disseminated to target audiences who can multiply or magnify its effects such as local government units and offices, policymakers and the media. This targeting approach of audiences clearly follows the social marketing principle used by the program.

The KALAH! communication program rehashed some strategies from the past and developed more strategies to localise the information. The national campaign was abandoned in order to cater more effectively to the barangays and for the people to be able to fully understand the program. Its method too of going beyond media relations and into advocacy can sustain people's awareness on the program. As part of the localisation, the communication plan also recognised and may eventually develop indigenous and folk media instead of the usual communication strategies used.

SUMMARY

Communicating poverty alleviation programs in the Philippines has not exhibited much success. Lack of feedback mechanism, poor documentation, the political nature of the communication process and the inability of the program to develop other communication strategies especially at the local level failed to enhance and sustain the people's awareness on the program.

Crucial to the delivery of communication are the role of the government media infrastructure, the private media and the local officials. Government has failed to coordinate and orchestrate its communication efforts choosing instead to rely on the localisation efforts of the regional offices. It may have been a noteworthy effort to localise communication activities but fruits of that effort have yet to surface. The sales force in the regional and local areas need to have more skills training in the development and production of indigenous and folk media. Success stories in this field have yet to be documented. It is still clearly evident that resources for communication activities are still geared towards the development and production of tri-media materials.

Interpersonal communication though such as barangays forums and *kapihans* have been instituted but if the outputs of these forums and discussion are actually used in the feedback and feedforward mechanism of the program has yet to be established. The number of forums or *kapihans* conducted may just form the statistical report of the program. The issues raised especially if they are negative are ventilated but never addressed. These interpersonal communication strategies have huge potential in effecting an upward flow of communication. In the past, the PIA has used this strategy to link the barangays to the national level but this need to be sustained. It seems that the negative information gathered from below does not have to reach the officials in the national level. The role of the information officers is to diffuse it before it becomes a full blown issue. However, information offices should allow this to happen in order for the program to improve and accept its flaws and thereby improve from it. What happens is that negative information is immediately addressed, remedied and stopped. This does not allow for the free flow of information to reach its intended recipients who can effect certain revisions to the program. However, the law can still address this through consultations with the NAPC sectoral representatives who have in this manner achieved a certain equality status in the communication process. Thus it shall enable to articulate the views of the sector.

The government's libertarian stock shows too in its inability to encourage and push the private media to be more supportive of government programs. It has chosen to maintain its media infrastructure facilities but failed to recognise its needs in terms of expansion and funding or even the maximisation of its resources. Local officials are identified too as crucial to the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. Their established links with the different agencies of government and with other higher officials give them access to

more information and services. However, their involvement in the program may be laced with personal interests and links may be encouraged or marred by partisan politics.

In all, the communication planning efforts of government to undertake a massive communication campaign to parallel its poverty alleviation efforts may seem grand to some with the publications of colourful posters, billboards and the grand pronouncements of government officials but in the end they remain empty. Success stories were documented but they are too small to make an impact to the whole nation. Information materials produced were intended to certain target publics, which hopefully will use these materials to generate greater awareness. For example, flyers, brochures, pamphlets and other documents are prepared for media to broadcast. Policymakers too are the main targets of information campaigns. Desk calendars, stickers and other accessories are produced to win their sympathy to the program.

Finally, the role of communication in the delivery poverty alleviation programs has been neglected in the process. Despite a very vibrant communication setting and the continued improvement of mass media, communicating information on government's policies and programs on poverty alleviation remain dismal. This is due to the inability of government to maximise its resources and orchestrate its action. It just clearly reflects the problem of poverty itself.

CHAPTER SIX

FIELDWORK EXPERIENCE

My fieldwork was conducted for six interesting and challenging weeks in the Philippines examining the role of communication in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. Conducting this research was a learning experience, which gave me a wider perspective and deeper understanding of my country and our people. Working with the government information office developing communication plans for the last 16 years gave me knowledge of public information work. However, it was emphasised in my fieldwork that the research is an academic endeavour and not part of the work I do for the government. This placed me on the other side of the fence.

It was the intention of my research to produce a wealth of data that would provide a descriptive analysis of the poverty policies of the Philippines and key points on the role of communication. Thus, this thesis contains with small details of people's experiences, quotes and description of situations, events and interactions among and between the facilitators and beneficiaries of the program. I dealt each description of situations carefully and with sensitivity.

This chapter will give an account of how I conducted my research and the lessons and challenges I have learned on the field. It combines both the quantitative and qualitative measures employed to gather information. This research tried to be descriptive in that it graphically and vividly gave a picture of the poverty situation, and the communication setting. It also explained the processes involved in the implementation of poverty alleviation programs. Observations were also conducted to be able to understand conditions and situations. Initial data gathered formed certain themes and patterns that had to be further explored. Concepts and frameworks established were investigated and its usage confirmed.

Before fieldwork I did not have any grand theory to test but I had a set of hypotheses to work with. I also had a set of expectations and a willing heart to learn more and expected to be challenged. Previous experience in information work, guidance from supervisors and an understanding of certain concepts and frameworks made me ready to do fieldwork.

READYING YOURSELF FOR FIELDWORK

At the start of my research I was looking into models and designs that I would pattern or at least to which I could frame my research. I found out that one could not actually model or pattern his/her own research faithfully with one but instead develop a combination of several elements resulting to a hybrid research design. Thus, I tried to enhance the develop more from the hybrid design that had emerged from my work.

Before any fieldwork can be conducted concepts have to be clear as well as several definitions and frameworks have to be established. At the onset, I explored global definitions of poverty and the ways these definitions have evolved over the years to encompass several other concepts enhancing its definition. These definitions were made more graphic by indicators and experiences especially of the poor people. My research did not seek to define poverty but to describe it. Likewise, several frameworks on how communication was used in development projects alleviating the life of the people especially the poor were made clear to me by several case studies in different countries. Thus, these concepts, definitions and frameworks were part of my stock knowledge as I started my fieldwork.

My research started with questions and as each one of the “what” were answered I tried to explore more to answer the “why” and the “how.” I never realised the far arching powers of modern technology such as the Internet and the mobile communications than when I started doing preliminary research. The Internet gave me access to statistical data and other studies on poverty and communication in different regions of the world. The abundance, variety and profusion of these data continue to overwhelm and excite me. Mobile communication enabled me to communicate instantaneously with people from the Philippines even in remotest location. Through various sources I was able to draft a proposal that would enable me to gather as much information as possible on the subject and formalise the proposal.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Maykut and Morehouse (1994) suggest qualitative research is designed to “discover what can be learned about a social phenomena” and the “outcome” of this “is not a generalisation of results but a deeper understanding of experience from the perspectives

of participants selected for the study” (p. 43-44). I find this appropriate for what I intended to pursue. Babbie (2004) then described the kind of research I would want to undertake as qualitative field research in which it “offers the advantage of probing social life in its natural habitat” emphasising that certain methods such as questionnaires cannot capture or be measured” (p. 285). This kind of research may focus on small units or cases (Labuschagne 2003) limiting the research to a descriptive study. In describing, my methods could “rebuild or improve” than “reject or approve” (Buroway et al., 1991, p. 9 in Babbie, 2004, p. 293) certain features of the program being assessed.

The research design started with a main question that explored the topic, clarify previous concepts, identify strategies, develop methods and enumerate activities on how to answer it. Thus my main question, “*What is the role of communication in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs in the Philippines?*” provided me with a dozen other sub-sets of issues to explore. There are two main categories: poverty and communication and below them are groups of categories. On poverty, for example, there are definitions, measurements, policies, programs, and beneficiaries. In communication, there are questions on mode, settings, patterns, strategies or actors in the process. The question then compelled me to examine and investigate not confirm or prove hypotheses and certain posited beliefs.

The thesis took on a case study method as an approach. It was focused on a single case study but “the analysis might include outcomes from individual projects within the program (Yin, 1994, p. 41) and Yin classified this kind as the embedded case study design.

I reviewed the poverty policies of the Philippines from 1986 to 2002. The Philippines emerged from an authoritarian rule in 1986 and there were more poverty studies since then. It could not be discounted though that there were also some studies undertaken during the authoritarian rule of the Marcos administration but it could not be discounted that these studies were done to enhance the image of the administration or was too exaggerated to paint a negative image of the administration as was prevalent at that time.

At the start I aimed at doing a comparative study of two areas in the Philippines who were recipients of the program. I would look into one area, which is close to the urban

centre, and one remote area. I would like to look into the implementation of the program, how the people perceive the program and how communication was used to generate awareness and to secure positive acceptance of the program. The areas of the research are called *barangays* or village, which is the smallest political unit in the country. However when I went back home I found it more appropriate to look into one single area to confine my study and be able to focus my research thus make it more specific and detailed.

The research hoped to illustrate how information on poverty policies was communicated in the implementation of the program. Likewise, it aimed to evaluate the amount of information received, identify kinds of materials or media channels used to send the messages, assess the reliability, accuracy and usefulness of the information received, and enumerate the best approaches in disseminating information.

Yin (1994) however warned that “if too much attention is given to these sub-units, and if the larger, holistic aspects of the case begin to be ignored, the case study itself will have shifted its orientation and changed its nature” (p. 44). Even with this in mind, I thought I have accumulated more information than I needed as I tried to cull reports and information on several subunits in the fear that I might need that later. It proved to be more rubbish than was necessary.

Before being able to do the activities mentioned above, research needs background information. Babbie (2004) suggests that this kind of case study is termed “extended case study method” in that it is “a must to know the literature beforehand” (p. 293). “In-depth study” of the program and the area “yield explanatory insights” (ibid.).

It was pointed out that the definition of poverty determines the manner the problem is addressed. Thus policies and actions implemented were derived from how poverty was defined. For example, during the Marcos administration, poverty was considered “ugly” such that squatter areas were hidden from the public especially from foreigners by erecting walls painted with murals. There was a need therefore to include in the research a background of the poverty policies that have evolved and how the programs were implemented from 1986 to 2002.

Likewise, the literature review provided the communication mode, setting and media infrastructure available to communicate information on poverty alleviation. As such it explored the different strategies and methods used by each administration to communicate its message that it will “stamp out poverty” or “win the war against poverty within the decade.”

My research design was clear that I would do a single case study that would look into the implementation of the Comprehensive Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS) in Barangay Kamog, Sablan, Benguet in the Cordillera Administrative Region. The CIDSS was implemented in the area from 1994 to 2000. Though it has almost been three years since its implementation, most of the people involved in it were still in the village.

My schedule was compressed into six weeks from the 18th of June to the last week of July 2003. I prepared a schedule of my daily activities and have asked for appointments for interviews from most of the government officials earlier through emails and personal letters. Two weeks were arranged for interviews and collecting, reviewing and evaluating documents in Manila. The next three weeks was allotted for research in the case study area. The last week was the tidying up of the research.

CHOICE OF CASE STUDY AREA

Earlier, I have decided to do a comparative study of two recipient barangays of the government’s poverty alleviation program. I chose a lowland barangay close to Metro Manila, which is the country’s premier metropolis and seat of government, commerce and trade, and one rural barangay. I aimed to find out how the implementation of policies differs in these two areas and how communication was used effectively in delivering the poverty alleviation messages.

However when I reached the field, the area I wanted to visit was not a recipient of the program despite it being a fifth class municipality and the province was one of the identified poorest in recent statistics. I chose another municipality in which one of its barangays was a new recipient but observations and initial documents prove that the area was, in the term used by my supervisor an “incubator case.” As a pilot area of the revised program, government has pulled its resources to make it the program’s

showcase. Thus most private media practitioners were encouraged to visit and write about the “good” things happening in the barangay.

I decided to do a single case study in a rural area in the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR), one of the poorest regions in the country. In the CAR, Benguet Province had graduated from the list of poorest provinces however a number of its municipalities were still classified as low income. Sablan, one of its municipalities, was a recipient of the CIDSS program from 1994 to 2000 thus the social work officers assured me there was enough information on this area. I would have wanted to look into how the present poverty alleviation program was being implemented but the regional social work officers said that there was not much to see as it was just in its pilot stage. Differentiating it with the pilot barangay they suggested that the three areas where the CIDSS.

The three recipient barangays of the CIDSS in the Municipality of Sablan in Benguet Province were Banangan, Kamog and Pappa. Banangan was a roadside barangay accessible by any kind of transportation plying the southwestern route of the national highway linking Baguio City, the premier city in the CAR and a lowland province, La Union. As such, the barangay was always used as a showcase area during the CIDSS implementation. A review of documents also revealed that formal studies have been conducted in Barangay Pappa. Among the three barangays, only Kamog’s CIDSS implementation had not been fully documented. Though its statistical data did not show any difference from the two recipient barangays, the CIDSS was not studied in this manner from the literature I have earlier evaluated.

Upon entering the village, the vehicle would traverse unpaved roads littered with footpaths, tirepaths that only extend a couple of kilometres and muddy areas where vehicles find it difficult to cross. From any vantage point, I could not imagine the whole village despite a geographic map given to me by the municipal office. I was informed that of the sixteen sitios only twelve were inhabited and that there are only about a hundred households. Only about seven of the barangays are densely populated and nine were energised.

SOURCES OF DATA

Working for the government information office was a plus factor in my research. The importance of my personal knowledge of the public information infrastructure and its intricate system cannot be discounted. It was valuable as I could identify people I need to speak with and where I can source some background information. I used different sources to obtain various kinds of data. Likewise, a combination of methods was employed to gather these data. “Do not hide yourself in surveys,” was a challenged posted to me when I was reviewing some of my methods before the fieldwork. And this has challenged me to develop different methods to collect data in the field.

Documentation

Yin (1994) said documents “can take many forms” (p. 81). Documentation is one of the three most important sources of information in my research. Other forms of documents I have gathered as part of Yin’s classification of documentary information include: “letters, memoranda and other communiqués; agenda, announcements, minutes of the meetings and other written reports; administrative documents such as project proposals, progress reports, and other internal documents; newspaper clippings and other articles appearing in the mass media” (ibid.). Being a government project, the data gathered included numerous reports and other administrative documents. These documents however needed to be traced. For example, in the search for the over-all accomplishment of the CIDSS in the barangay, I had to do a paper chase. I finally found a handwritten report in the dusty files of the Municipal Social Welfare and Development Office (MWSDO) in Sablan.

I also looked into formal studies conducted on communication at the barangay level including the issues of development communication in the Philippines. It was very evident that there were not much formal studies made linking communication and the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. However, there is a wealth of data on development communication in the Philippines in the last thirty years.

I also found out that over the years there were a number of poverty studies on policies used by various administrations to alleviate the people from poverty. These documents served as evidences to confirm statements made in interviews and were very helpful in

verifying facts such as names, dates and places; corroborate previous evidences or facts collected; and, initial conclusions were drawn from the documents gathered as Yin (1994) had enumerated.

The documents I also studied were information materials produced during the implementation of the various programs of each of the administrations. I included the perceptions of people on these materials and the reactions of some of the government information officers in the national and the local level on these materials.

Archival Records

Aside from documentary information, archival records were also significant. Yin (1994) classified these documents into (1) service records; (2) organisational records; (3) maps and charts; (4) list of names; (5) survey data; and, (6) personal records. The value of archival data is not a “passing relevance” to my research. Service records included the statistical data on the beneficiaries of the program as provided by the MWSDO. Organisational records contained structures of committees formed at different levels of government, papers on funding and budgetary allocations. Maps and charts especially of the case study area and different charts, graphs and tables provided facts to gauge the success or failure of the CIDSS program. The list of names of beneficiaries of the program and the projects implemented was a valuable document. Earlier surveys were conducted on the barangay socio-economic data, which I found very useful. Diaries and personal accounts were also a vital source of information on the people’s involvement in the program.

Statistical data were only provincial estimates. Data I have gathered in the Internet were not updated and I was lucky that socio-economic profiles and other documents were available from the local government units. Official data were available at regional and provincial offices. Socio-economic profiles were also available from the Municipal Planning and Development Office (MPDO). However, it is important to note that data on poverty and other indicators were not readily available. To date I still have not come across the incidence of poverty in the barangay or even in the municipality. The MBN (Minimum Basic Needs) survey stopped after the CIDSS implementation and the National Statistics Office (NSO) only gather population data on a regular basis.

However, the municipality maintained that it gathers important demographic data to update its profile.

Interviews

Babbie (2004) suggested that it would be best to discuss the research with someone familiar with the program and said “it is likely to be more effective if your relationship with the informant extends beyond your research role” (p. 298). It was then vital that I re-introduce myself to people I know working in the public information sector, especially those in the regional office, that this was an academic exercise and not an evaluation of their work. Babbie also suggested that information received should always be treated with caution as “what they ‘know’ is probably a mixture of fact and point of view” (ibid).

It was not difficult to establish contact since as I have earlier said my work easily facilitated this. However, I did not realise that interviewing government officials would not always be easy and was a frustrating exercise in some instances. They could not keep up with appointments and if an appointment is made, I am not assured that it would run through the hour I have earlier suggested. Some would not want to give their personal comments or their reactions and it was typical of them to shove me accomplishment reports, which I have already read. They insisted that everything that they were going to say have been said in the reports and they could not add anything more vital. I had hoped that my personal relationship with them would smoothen the process. I discovered that away from the workplace, these people are more cautious of their comments less they affect their positions or their agencies.

However the same key informants in government offices facilitated my entry into the village. The regional DSWD office introduced me to the Municipal Social Welfare Development Office (MWSDO) and in turn the MWSDO facilitated my entry into the village through a social work intern doing her training in the barangay.

Interviews with the CIDSS implementer and the social work officers gave me a wealth of data including a deeper understanding of the program’s implementation. The CIDSS implementer travelled in time to recount her stories and to give insights as well as share to me her frustrations and personal feelings about her work. The social work

information officers gave me an insight of how they communicate information on government policies and programs with meagre resources, without direct supervision from the national office.

Introducing yourself and stating the purpose of your research was a necessity, as it would establish your role in the process. People were happy that they were the objects of your research as other barangays have been

There were different kinds of interviews I conducted in the barangay. With the assistance of the barangay captain I arranged for initial interviews with people concerned with the CIDSS implementation. Focus group discussions were then conducted with the barangay health workers (BHWs) who actively worked with the CIDSS implementer. Likewise, the barangay captain arranged for a meeting with the barangay council and three former barangay captains two of whom were in office when the program was implemented.

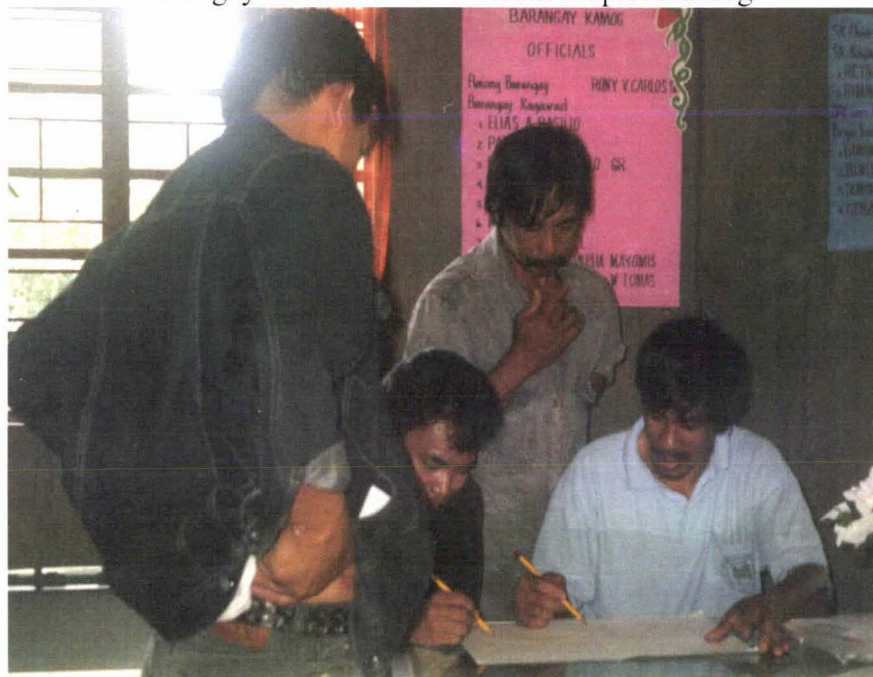
The people in the barangay are mostly Ibalois but can speak or understand English, Filipino Ilocano, Kankana-ey and some other native Igorot languages familiar only to the mountain region. Though they could converse in English it was important that they express themselves in the language they are comfortable with. I have knowledge of Ilocano and can grasp some key words and understand some of their meanings, it was still important that someone could readily translate it to me. I have voiced this concern to the MWSDO officer Sablan and she asked the social work intern if she could work with me. This all the more facilitated my fieldwork.

The interviews produced a wealth of data on the program, revealing, insightful and personal. Though I have a structured questionnaire, which I have shown to them and which was followed to some extent, overall it turned out to be conversational, and pursued topics which both of us had wanted explored further. These people were not wary of their answers as opposed to the other government officials I have interviewed. They were more open, straightforward and baring more information than I had hoped to gather.

During one interview I asked the barangay council to draw a map of the village. A participatory exercise, I was given a detailed account of how far one sitio was from the

other. For example it gave me an idea of how far was places were. With the information, I realised that I could walk for an hour to get to the national highway or from the central barangay, I could walk for about 30 minutes to get to Sitio Banao where the barangay captain lives. They also showed in the map how to get to placed by various ways such as by footpath, tirepath, footbridge, concrete gravel or with no footpaths at all but bushes. This also gave me an idea of who among them very well know the barangay.

Figure 6.1
Barangay Council Draws Dream Map of Kamog



Each member of the council tried to give his input to the dream map in which they identified infrastructure facilities they want to have for the sitios

Drawing further with the map, I asked them to make it into a dream map. They would build footbridges for example linking this sitio with that sitio from the other barangay. Waterworks facilities were drawn giving access to water to some of the sitios where they have built greenhouses. Most of those that were identified were infrastructure projects that they have proposed to the municipal government. This provided me an insight of how they see their barangay in a couple of years. Some are optimistic and some are not.

The barangay captain arranged for the focus group discussion among women since it was revealed that their association was one of those that are still in existence since the implementation of the CIDSS. I have also asked some of the BHWs to encourage the women to come. We posted information in strategic places but only a handful came. Of

those who came for the focus group discussion were women who were members of the RIKNAK. I did not realise that there were more than one women's group and that the former was broke away from the other for reasons they only know. It was difficult to put the two groups together and one declined to be interviewed as a group probably because I have interviewed the former first.

Figure 6.2
Women Observing the Focus group discussion



Most of those who came for the focused group discussions were mere observers. They would not comment despite it being conducted in their native language.

Figure 6.3
Focused group discussion among Women



This is the table the women in the figure above were watching. One of the local officials was also watching but did not give any comments. The women however were unmindful of his presence.

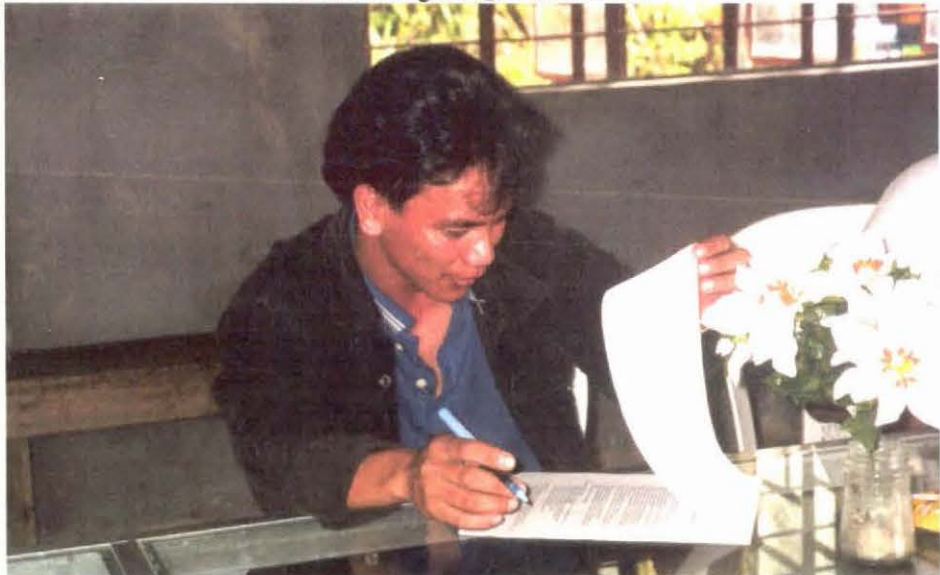
Figure 6.4
Interviews with Barangay Health Workers (BHWs)



Surveys

The barangay was big and despite my attempts to visit some of the sitios, it was difficult to walk in the intricate footpaths interviewing beneficiaries and residents. Most of the beneficiaries of the program live in the sitios. And there was so much more information I needed to know and verify.

Figure 6.5
Answering A Questionnaire



*Questionnaires even if administered in English were easily understood but tedious.
The interviewer has to be patient and not imposing*

People live far apart and interviewing recipients would take days as they were mostly working in the day and it was difficult to walk to the sitios at night. Thus it was easier to gather information if I employ a survey questionnaire.

I developed my survey questionnaire in Manila aided by previous studies conducted on the barangay level. But these studies were conducted two decades ago and it was difficult to assess and it was a challenge to determine if the situation in the barangay remains the same. This gave me ideas on what type of questions needed to be asked. I was able to pattern some of the questionnaires to previous studies conducted to be able to trace and develop further from what was evaluated before.

There were two types of surveys conducted, one for the beneficiaries of the program and the other among the residents of the community. The beneficiaries' list was drawn from the list provided by the DSWD-CAR. I chose some of the BHWs to conduct the surveys since they are very knowledgeable in conducting it having been trained to conduct the MBN earlier. I found them efficient and knowledgeable. I went with a couple of them during the pilot testing of the questionnaire to see if they understood the questions. The beneficiaries were never adamant to answer the questions. Some were even vocal enough to add more information on the questionnaire. Sixty people served as respondents to the residents' survey covering about seven sitios and 30 respondents were chosen at random from the list provided. Both the residents and the beneficiaries were asked initially if they were willing to respond to the questionnaire. Not one declined to be interviewed. Those who were available from the seven sitios divided evenly according to the population in each of the sitios were chosen as respondents.

I would want to establish a comparative analysis of the poverty program as implemented in the barangay. The residents' would provide with the answers for the "after CIDSS implementation" and the beneficiaries would provide me information of "during CIDSS implementation" data. Data on the prior implementation was gathered from interviews with the former barangay captains.

The conduct of the survey gave me the flexibility to interview people when they are available with the aid of the facilitators who were nevertheless trained to do this kind of work and was familiar with both the terrain and the people.

Observations

Social science researchers also emphasised that it was important to observe in the natural setting. Staying in the village, taking pictures, eating with the people, sharing experiences and stories of life and love, were important aspects of my research.

Babbie (2004) quoting Yoggi Berra said, “You can see a lot just by observing” – provided that you’re paying attention” (p. 299). Thus, in observations, one had to be careful and sensitive with details. I would take notes of people’s movements and their reactions to certain projects mentioned or to events in the past. For example, I observed that the women in the barangay are very vocal. They were the prime movers in events and were called upon by the barangay to assist in major undertakings. However, not one of them would want to be elected as local official. In talks with them, I asked what prevents them from running for office and their main concern was family and their responsibilities towards the home. They said they would just support the role of their husbands.

It was also important to note that in villages or community such as these, everybody knows everyone and one’s business seems to be the business of all. Thus it was common to give comments on a particular lifestyle as oppose to another. Another particular trait was that they seem not to mind these because these people are related one way or another. Affinity and consanguinity links almost everyone with anyone. My presence for example was not a new anymore when the people came to the central part of the barangay during the foundation day. In fact, the Anglican priest asked how long I have stayed in the village because people seem familiar with me already.

In the following weeks I was in the country, two important events happened, one was a typhoon, and the other was a failed military “adventurism” in Makati, the business district of the country. These two events proved to be very important to my research. I was able to directly conclude from the observations I have gathered on their communication habits and the role of certain types of information in their lives.

Data Collection

The use of multiple sources of evidence enriched my research. Data was examined through documents, directly observed to confirm it and collaborated through the surveys

and interviews. Formal studies too conducted earlier provided more literature to my research.

Each method thus reveals slightly different facets of the same symbolic reality. Every method is a different line of sight as directed toward the same point, observing social and symbolic reality. By combining several lines of sight, researchers obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality; a richer, more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements. The use of multiple ones of sight is frequently called *triangulation* (Berg, 1995, p. 4-5).

At one point the data of my research converge at some points they do not. Yin (1994) suggested “any finding or conclusion in a case study is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several sources of information, following a corroboratory mode” (p. 92).

It might have been a concern that in some aspects there were multiple answers from different sources on one given question. This did not limit or create confusion in my findings; nevertheless it succinctly described the different facets or features as understood at one point of view. Yin (1994) further warned, “If any of these techniques is used improperly, the opportunity to address the broader array of issues, or to establish converging lines of inquiry, may be lost” (p.94).

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Social science research studies emphasised that individuals or groups who are targeted for interviews have to participate in a voluntary manner. Thus I would allow a day or two before I would follow-up my request. This would allow them time to think if they were willing to be interviewed.

The people in the barangay were happy to welcome me at first. On the first day I shared pictures of my family’s stay here in New Zealand to establish my identity and to personalise my relationship with some people, the BHWs, the social work intern and the barangay officials.

On the first weekend the barangay celebrated their first founding anniversary in 32 years. It was an important occasion for the village. I volunteered to take pictures of the event to form part of their report. As such, I was not treated as a guest but as a part of

the community. During the lunch, I chose to eat with the people than with the municipal mayor and other municipal officials.

Doing the interviews, I would always ask people if they consent to it. Further, I asked if it would be appropriate to take pictures or to record their responses. They did not see anything wrong with the requests. I concluded that since the program had already run its course, what they say have no effect at all to their lives or to the implementation of the program. It was easier for them to give their reactions and its termination gave them the freedom to express their opinions and views on all aspects of the program. I would end up giving the pictures away.

However, I did not realise the value of keeping the information I have earlier gathered safe in my belongings. As the interviews progressed, there were more information revealed that seems that I only know. At this point I recognised that I was a gatekeeper of sorts of information, which were unknown to a few, and known to some. A lot of the information I have gathered were sensitive issues to all sides. The CIDSS implementer revealed some information about the community, which I have tried to confirm or elaborate. However, in one or more instances the people in the village deny, object or were suspicious of why I was asking those questions. As such, most of the data I have gathered from handwritten reports of the CIDSS implementer or the beneficiaries of the program were photocopied and locked in my bag. After staying for a few days in the village, I felt it was safer for me to come each day to the village instead of boarding there as I could secure my data better.

After more than a week in the village, I realised that there were so much in my previous research design that could not be answered. I remember posting this question to my supervisors before I left: *"If I could not find the information I am looking for, does that defeat the purpose of my fieldwork?"* Those were prophetic words as I realised when I went to the barangay that all the concepts and framework of using media, for example, were lacking in the village. I was looking into the effective use of radio, for example, in influencing the lives of people, how television can change their choices or how they react to newspaper reports. The village was so poor that ownership of media instruments was for those who can readily afford it and that information gathered from these media channels were second-hand information, and more particularly; it was just

relayed to them. Thus it was important to me to change my questions and to look further for studies that would succinctly picture this type of barangay.

In interviewing groups, one had to have prior knowledge of these associations. I asked the barangay official if I can conduct a focus group discussion among women. Not many came and the ones who came were articulate enough to include the others. So the others who came just nodded in agreement or if they disagree did not comment at all. They were mere observers.

However, the women who came to the focus group discussion were from one women's group, who were not on good terms with another women's group. I did not realise it then and only during the course of the discussion did I realise that there was one group aside from this group. I approached the other but since I probably interviewed the other group earlier, they declined the invitation.

Monday was a rest day for most of the people since Sunday is market day where they would trek to Baguio City to sell their produce and do business. However, no one was happy enough to walk for a couple of kilometres to the central barangay if there is no urgent business especially when it is raining. Further, if the focused group discussions were held in the sitios, people were working in the garden plots and would still be unable to take time out.

Later into my fieldwork a typhoon swept the village. I became reluctant to continue my survey because I felt it was inappropriate to be asking about poverty alleviation programs of the government at a time like this. Further, the BHWs aided the local officials gathering information for their calamity reports. I volunteered to take pictures of broken greenhouses; uprooted plants ready for harvest, clogged and muddy canals and landslides that prevented vehicles from passing through the tirepaths. But people in the village are resilient. Probably due to the numerous typhoons and other calamities that find their way into the village each year, they have learned to cope with it. Thus the surveys were conducted with minimal problems.

SUMMARY

Fieldwork was not easy especially if you come unprepared and with a ready set of expectations. One lesson I have learned was to always be ready for the unexpected. Despite my knowledge of the government media infrastructure, the review of literature I conducted and the materials I have read, there was still so much more that I do not know. I was asking myself, if with the wealth of information I already have gathered from books and internet sources, was it possible for me to arrive at the same conclusion. It might have but then again it would not have been described as graphically, as clearly as illustratively as I could have now.

The value of fieldwork is not on the amount of data one was able to collect but on the experiences gained in the manner of collecting the data. Most of the information I have gathered was rubbish but the experience I have gained and the knowledge that I would not be able to capture in books, are very valuable and significant to me. Going back to what I have earlier said, I saw poverty and communication from the other side of the fence. Bringing this to the place where I am will be a challenge enough. My research will then serve as my point of reference in crafting and designing future communication programs for poverty alleviation programs.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CASE STUDY AREA: BARANGAY KAMOG, SABLAN, BENGUET

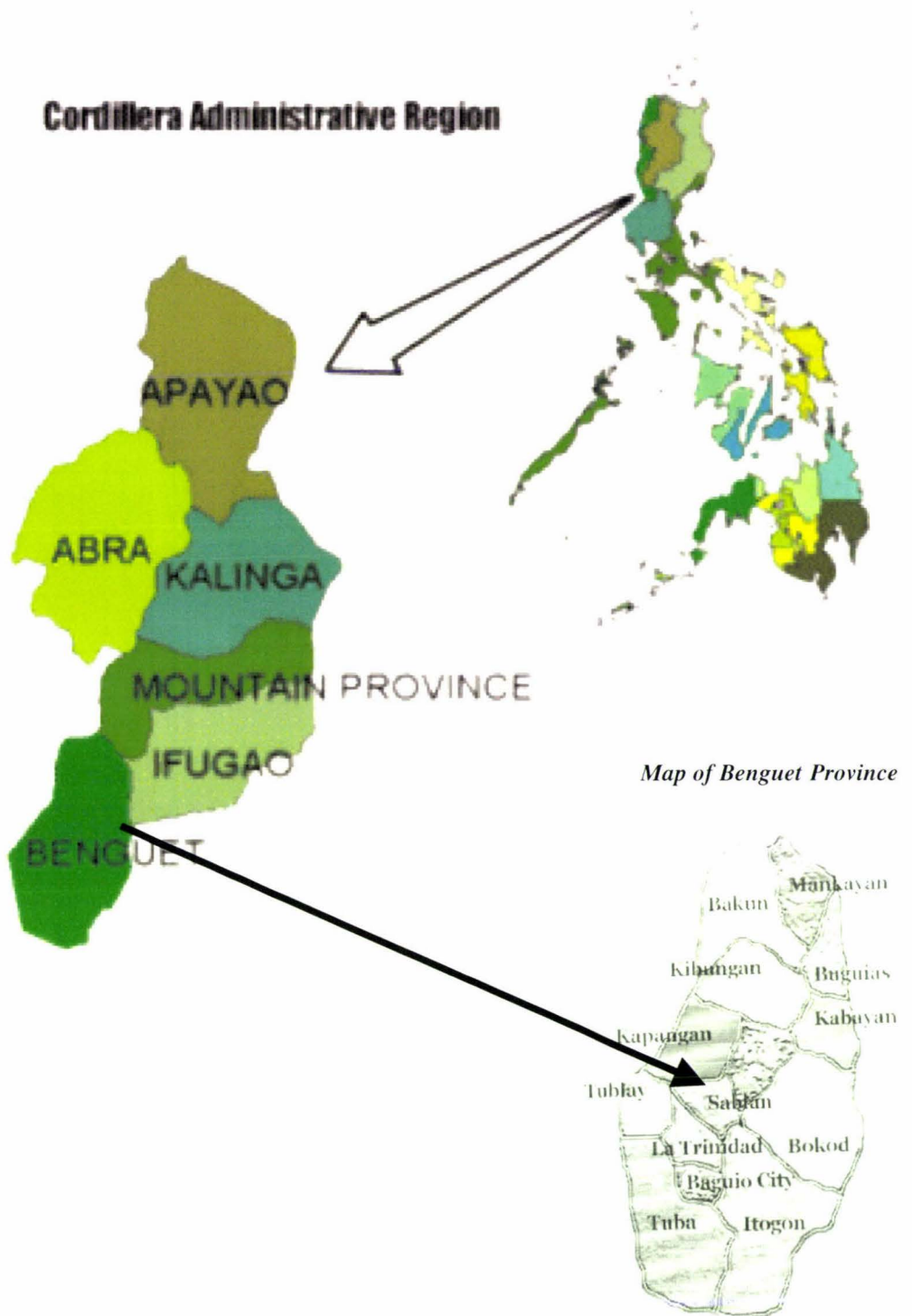
This chapter introduces the case study area located in the country's mountainous region. It first describes its geographical setting and illustrates the different socio-economic, cultural, educational and political set-up. That description will try to depict the living conditions of the people and ways that influence and affect their lives. The ethnic divisions of the country dictated by its geographical location have in a way preserved its own cultural heritage, which is true among the people of the Cordilleras. Proud of their own cultural heritage, the people cling to their own set of beliefs and traditions mindful of progress in the lowlands.

Most of the official statistical data gathered in the chapter are provincial and regional estimates. An innovative measure of capturing the poverty situation in the villages was introduced with the implementation of the poverty alleviation programs. But its aggregation has yet to materialise. Municipal data still fall short, as the barangays have yet to systematise the recording of most of their demographic data. Statistics also showed that poverty is prevalent in the region. The chapter above explained that the failure of the national government to pump investments and much needed resources to the countryside have added to the worsening of situation of the people. The trickle down effect did not even cause a ripple to the people in the countryside.

Barangay Kamog in this chapter is portrayed as a recipient of the Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS), the government's anti-poverty flagship program from 1984 to 2000. From President Ramos to President Estrada, the program ran its course in the barangay with the aim of identifying the residents' main problems and identifying solutions to it. This chapter examines the various modes and patterns of communication and the ways in which they are effectively gathered, disseminated and acted upon. It also identifies various institutions, organizations, individuals and media that affect their communication pattern. It will be shown that the role of the national government diminishes as the role of the local government magnifies requiring local officials to take on different roles in the plight to alleviate people of poverty.

Map of the Case Study Area⁵¹
Figure 7.1

Map of the Philippines



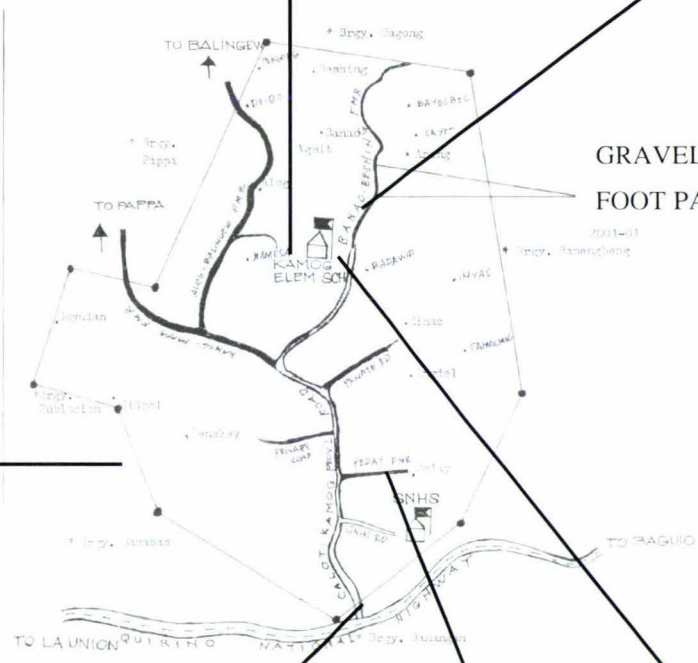
⁵¹ Philippine and CAR maps in www.neda.gov.ph and Benguet map in www.benguet.gov.ph

Figure 7.2.
Road Networks and Major Places in the Barangay⁵²



BARANGAY HEALTH CENTRE

SITIO CENTRAL. This is the central part of the village where the cooperative store is the place where people in the village converge and the serves as the waiting place or the jeepney stop



GRAVEL/CONCRETE ROAD AND FOOT PATH UP THE SLOPE



ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

TIRE PATH



FARM TO MARKET ROAD

FOOT TRAIL



⁵² Kamog map drawn by Barangay Captain Rony Carlos

CORDILLERA ADMINISTRATIVE REGION

Barangay Kamog is located in the Municipality of Sablan in the Province of Benguet. Benguet is one of the six provinces under the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR) situated in the northern central part of Luzon Island. The region was created in 1987 by virtue of Executive Order No. 220 which comprise 76 towns and 1,172 barangays composed of the provinces of Abra, Apayao, Benguet, Ifugao, Kalinga, and Mt. Province, where Baguio, its most urban, and popular tourist city, is located. Baguio City is the regional hub of education, commerce and trade. It is the location of all regional offices of government agencies and private corporations. NGOs and other people's organizations also have established charters in the city.

Most of the areas in the Cordillera were left unexplored during the Spanish occupation. In the 1900s the Americans found the cooler climate of the area preferable to the tropical heat of the lowlands. They built major infrastructure and constructed Kennon Road to make the highlands more accessible to the people. In the 1960s Episcopal missionaries fleeing China settled and introduced the Anglican faith to the people. The result of which is a compromise of native beliefs and traditional practices into a Christianised system.

The least populous region in the country, its estimated population as of 2000 was 1,245,838 with a population growth rate of 1.83%. Its literacy rate of 88.9% remains one of the highest in the country with an annual school participation of 88.38% in the elementary level and 46.48% in the secondary level.

Poverty is not new to the people in the area. Due to the rugged terrain, villages remain remote and inaccessible. Vegetable growing is the main occupation of the people but production is still very much at the level of subsistence. Poor market facilities, lack of credit assistance and agricultural inputs, unstable prices of vegetables and fruits and poor infrastructure are some of the problems besetting the agricultural sector. In 2000, three of the six provinces in the region are among the 44 poorest provinces in the country. Ifugao remains the 4th among the country's 10 poorest provinces in both the 1997 and the 2000 statistical reports.

The table below shows that even if the poverty incidence in the region is on the downward trend, life in the rural areas is still very difficult. Urban areas such as Benguet and Baguio in the Mt. Province statistically pull the other poorer areas to demonstrate an upward trend demonstrating statistical lapses.

Table 7.1
Provincial Poverty Estimates, 1997 and 2000

| Areas | Annual Per Capita Poverty Thresholds (in PhP) | | | Incidence of Families (in Percent) | | | Incidence of Population (in Percent) | | | Coefficient Of Variation |
|--------------|---|--------|---------|------------------------------------|------|---------|--------------------------------------|------|---------|--------------------------|
| | 1997 | 2000 | Inc/Dec | 1997 | 2000 | Inc/Dec | 1997 | 2000 | Inc/Dec | |
| Philippines | 9,843 | 11,605 | 17.9 | 28.1 | 28.4 | 0.3 | 33.0 | 34.0 | 1.0 | 1.4 |
| CAR | 11,178 | 13,176 | 17.9 | 35.9 | 31.1 | (4.9) | 42.8 | 38.0 | (4.8) | 5.6 |
| Abra | 10,280 | 13,693 | 33.2 | 55.7 | 48.8 | (6.9) | 58.9 | 58.6 | (0.4) | 5.8 |
| Benguet | 11,788 | 14,185 | 20.3 | 18.9 | 14.1 | (4.8) | 26.2 | 19.2 | (7.0) | 15.4 |
| Ifugao | 11,225 | 11,852 | 5.6 | 57.7 | 55.6 | (2.1) | 66.0 | 64.0 | (2.1) | 7.9 |
| Kalinga | 10,307 | 11,439 | 11.0 | 38.7 | 38.8 | 0.1 | 44.3 | 45.1 | 0.7 | 13.3 |
| Mt. Province | 13,048 | 15,285 | 17.1 | 59.6 | 49.0 | (7.6) | 64.7 | 57.6 | (7.1) | 11.5 |
| Apayao | 9,563 | 11,278 | 17.9 | 27.5 | 26.1 | (1.4) | 34.1 | 33.8 | (0.4) | 10.0 |

Source: Social Sectors B Division, NSCB

Agriculture is the main industry in the region employing about 60% of the total working population (NEDA-CAR). Unemployment is an urban problem but underemployment remains to be a rural problem. The region only contributed 2% to the national GDP (ibid.) despite the vibrant industry sector led by the Philippine Economic Zone (PEZA) undertaking manufacturing activities (ibid.).

According to the 1997 Family Income and Expenditure Survey, 45% of families in the region earn their income from entrepreneurial activities while 35% rely on wages and salaries. The region's socio-economic profile prepared by the NEDA revealed that family income has improved increasing by almost 15% annually between 1994 and 1997 but the yawning gap between the rich and poor persists. Statistics reveal "the average income of families belonging to the richest group was 20 times higher than the average income of families in the poorest group" (NEDA-CAR). Further, income distribution has worsened. "The average income of richest families in the urban areas was 17 times that of the average income of the poorest families" (ibid.) while in the rural areas, the richest families' income was 13 times higher than the average income of the poorest families. Mt. Province and Benguet are ranked among the top ten provinces with the highest poverty threshold for the year 2000. The NSCB estimates that an individual in Benguet has to have an annual income of about PhP 14,185.00 to meet food and non-food requirements.

In its Five Year Development Plan (1999 – 2004), the region envisions to be a “paragon of poverty alleviation program.” To serve this objective, some of its provinces have been recipients of various poverty alleviation programs, particularly the Comprehensive Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS) from 1994 to 2000 and lately the more improved KALAHI-CIDSS. Development projects implemented under these poverty alleviation programs include the strengthening of the provision of basic services, capability building and the improvement of the productive resources to serve as venues for economic opportunities. In the Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) survey conducted in 1997, the three top identified unmet needs of the region include income and employment, basic education and literacy and water and sanitation (NEDA-CAR). In mid-year evaluation of the program, the CAR was ranked 10th in the regions with the highest MBN reduction rate at 45.1% (however not one of its provinces were ranked in the top ten (MIMAP, 1997).

Communication Mode

The government’s responsibility as an efficient provider of information geared towards the alleviation of poverty has never been greater. However there are several factors that impede the communication of information on government policies such as inaccessibility due to geographical location, strong sense of cultural identity, language use and unequal social and educational development, lack of literature in the vernacular and lack of professionally trained personnel in the field to undertake the activities.

Government and private media organizations, institutions and corporations have increased over the years. In the Cordillera, the media infrastructure is well structured, developed and maintained, especially by the private media corporations. The government’s media offices likewise also maintain their regional media offices in the area. Baguio City is the main urban centre of the region, the home of the region’s broadcasting trail. There are three major telecommunications services in the region. Provision of services to mobile phones is highly competitive to the benefit at times of the consumers. There are three cable television stations and three Internet service providers. Major television broadcasting networks have home bases in Baguio City, relaying both public affairs and entertainment shows from the Manila studios. News of national significance is aired but emphasis is given to local activities.

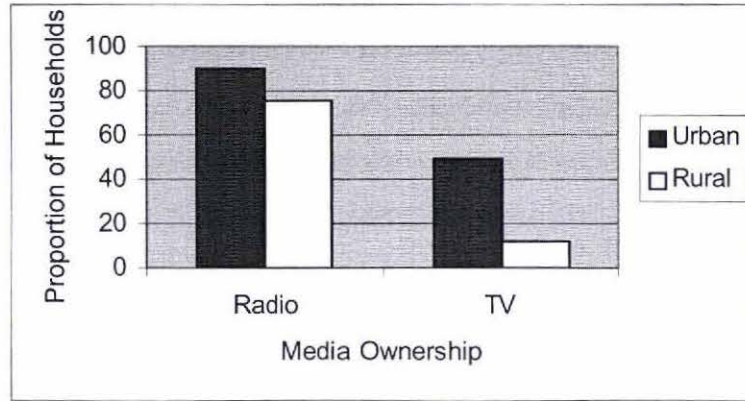
A number of radio stations have found a listenership niche and regional newspapers have been in circulation for a long time. The government media infrastructure is also well developed in the area. It is host to three government radio stations are DZRK in Tabuk, Kalinga, DWFR in Bontoc, Mt. Province and DZEQ in Baguio City. The government's Bureau of Broadcast Services enjoys a wide listenership in Kalinga and Bontoc because they are the only radio stations in the area. In Baguio City, however, the government radio station had to compete with a number of radio stations. Very few radio stations have wide coverage due to the mountainous terrain. Only the Catholic Church owned station, DZWT, and DZWX Bombo Radio of the Consolidated Broadcasting System, Inc. enjoys wide coverage due to their well-built infrastructure facilities.

In rural Cordillera 75.26% among 166,000 households own radios making the medium the main source of information according to the 1994 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS). As expected the urban areas even with a minority of the region's population, have greater access to their own radio or television sets than people in the rural areas. About 9% of the urban households are without radio, television, video cassette recorders or personal computers. In the rural areas an even greater percentage or about 24.74% of total households do not own any of these appliances.

Statistics⁵³ from the 1994 FLEMMS also revealed that the region posted a 30.8 newspaper readership owing to the high literacy rate in the region, a 5.5% registered improvement from the 1989 survey. About 43.1% of the region's population are book readers, which is a notable increase from 33% in 1989. This may have been due to the increase in the number of enrollees in the collegiate level as Baguio City has by now been recognised as a learning centre in northern Luzon. However, comics have lost their popularity in the region as a source of information. This is because most of the comics are produced in Filipino, which is not a common language in the area. Movies too have lost their appeal but not dramatically among the people showing a decline of 0.8%.

⁵³ All statistical data gathered from the 1994 FLEMMS in <http://www.census.gov.ph/data/sectordata/fl9402mm.tbl>

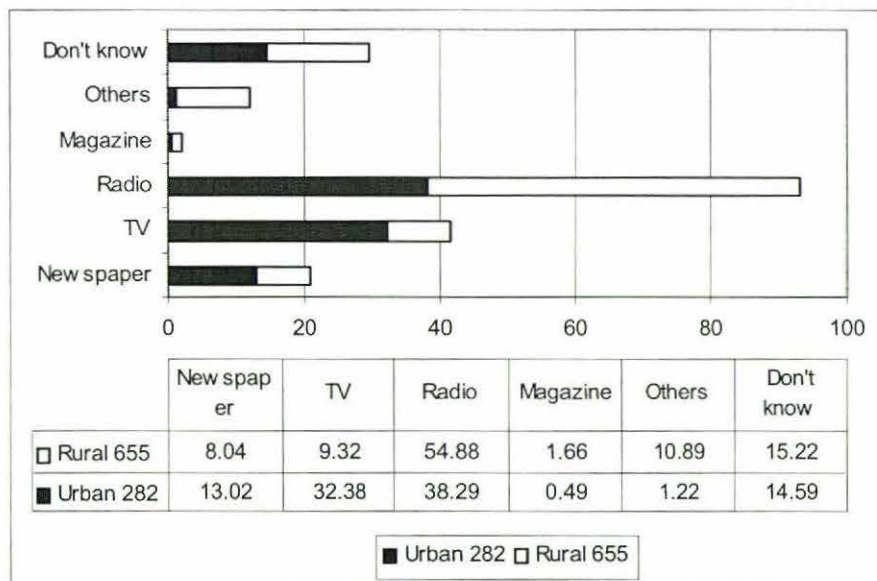
Figure 7.3
Proportion of Households by Radio/TV Ownership in the CAR



Source: NSO, 1994 FLEMSS

Radio and television remain to be the most reliable and main sources information in both the urban and the rural areas. It however cannot be discounted that a majority of the population has also poor total exposure to mass media. Only 1.66% of the rural population are exposed to magazines. Other mass media instruments include comics, books, videos, personal computers and movies. Significantly, a large number do not know where to get their information.

Figure 7.4
Most Relied Upon Medium for Information on Current Events/Issues



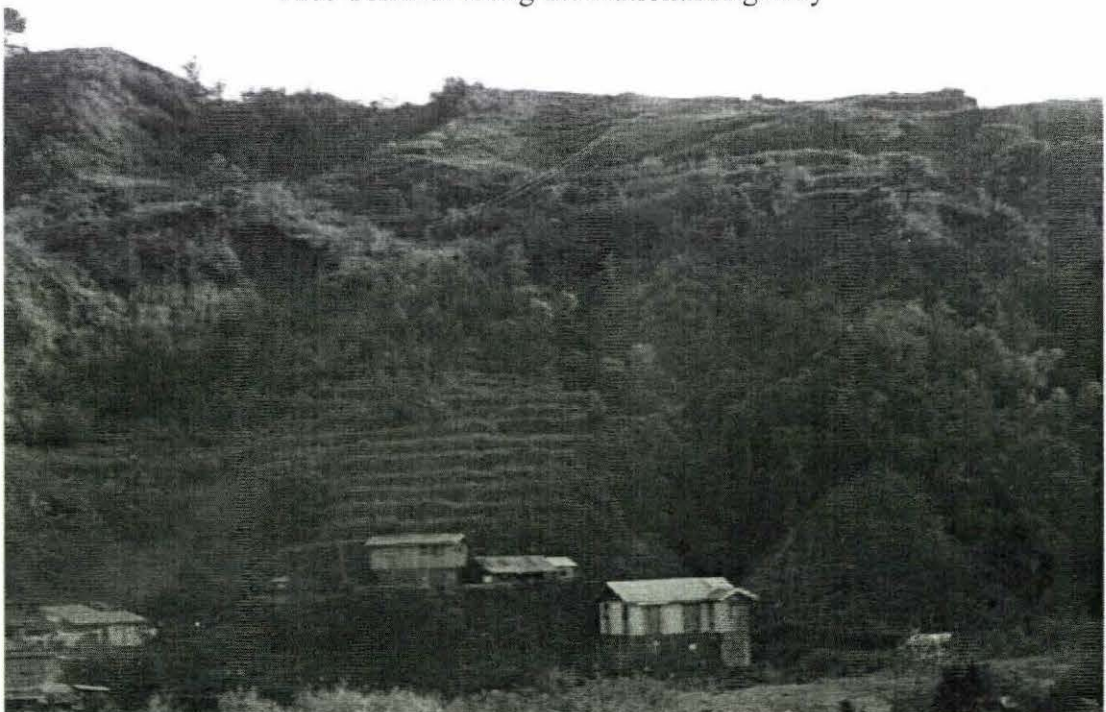
Source: NSO, 1994 FLEMSS

MUNICIPALITY OF SABLAN

Sablan is one of the 13 municipalities of Benguet Province which has been classified as a 5th class⁵⁴ municipality, meaning its average annual income is between P17 to P13 million much of this income is derived from its Internal Revenue Allotment (IRA) from the national government. The municipality has eight barangays whose early settlers are from the Ibaloi tribe looking for an opportunity to own property outside of the patriarchal authority of the *baknang* (rich people) in the hope that they will be lifted from being *ibiteg* (poor people).

Established in the 1900 as a township, it is generally mountainous. Its valleys has been transformed into rice fields and the steeper sides of the mountain sides used for grazing lands and upland farming for the production of fruits, rootcrops, vegetables and tiger grass used for broom making.

Figure 7.5
Rice Terraces along the National Highway



Sablan was chosen as a recipient of the CIDSS program from FY 1995 to 2000. Its classification as a fifth class municipality made it a priority recipient of the program.

⁵⁴ Based on Department of Finance Department Order No.32-01, effective November 20, 2001, in www.nscb.gov.ph

The municipality identified three barangays, namely Banangan, Kamog and Pappa, based on the set criteria of the program as its target areas.

The DSWD installed a community-based monitoring system in these three barangays covering a total of 570 families. The CIDSS implementer and trained barangay health workers (BHWs) in each of the barangays conducted an initial MBN survey in 1994 which served as its baseline data. Initial results of the survey revealed that income and livelihood were the foremost needs of the three barangays. Other problems include access to basic services such as potable water and toilet facility. People's participation in community activities were also very limited according to the initial survey since very few were members if at least one legitimate people's organization/association.

In a mid-term review⁵⁵ conducted in 1997 by the CIDSS revealed a 5.6% average reduction rate on the unmet MBNs of the residents in the three barangays (DSWD-CAR, 1997). Noticeable is the decrease in the number of families living below the subsistence level from 342 to only 182, which demonstrates a reduction rate of about 28.1%, but poverty still lingers. Other positive changes were evident including concreting of road networks, maintenance of waterworks facilities, access to health, construction of sanitary facilities and development of organisational and management skills, some of which were initiated by the CIDSS.

BARANGAY KAMOG

Barangay Kamog derived its name from the tree "*Kemog*" which grows abundantly in the barangay. The barangay was once a *sitio* (smaller village) of Barangay Pappa northwest of the municipality. With the growing population, people clamoured for a separate barangay and municipal officials decided to segregate the sitio and officially established it as a barangay on 12 July 1970. The barangay is composed of 16 sitios but only 12 are inhabited most of which are flat lands and sloping terrain ideal for garden plots. About 348.23 of the 870 hectares of the barangay's land area is devoted to agricultural land.

⁵⁵ Please refer to Appendix 11 for the Sablan Consolidated MBN

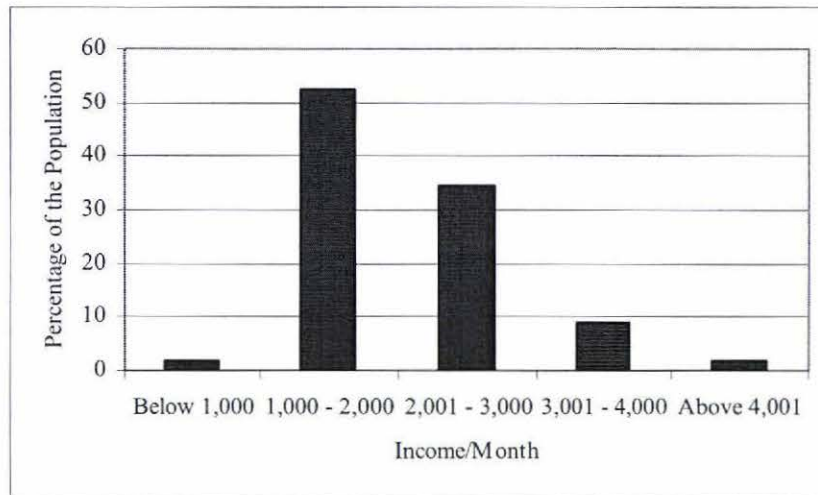
Figure 7.6.
Barangay Kamog Nestled in Hills of the Eastern Portion of Sablan



Economic Profile

Most of the people in the village are small farmers tending garden plots. According to the last MWSO survey conducted in 2002 about 52.2% have a monthly family income of PhP 1,000.00 to 2,000.00. Other occupational skills include broom making and basket weaving. Livelihood opportunities are limited to gardening/farming and livestock raising. Village crops are produced in small quantities which include rootcrops, fruits, and legumes. Rice production is only for family consumption. Baguio City and adjacent towns of the southwestern province of La Union are main trading centres for vegetables and fruits produced. Some private vegetable and fruit stalls alongside the national highway also serve as outlets of the barangay agricultural production or on the town's market day. Goat and chicken raising are common but are for family consumption purposes only. Backyard piggery is decreasing because of escalating cost of swine food and poor access to waterworks facilities.

Figure 7.7
Income Distribution, 2002



Source: Balabag, 2002

Residents of the barangay acquired most of their lands through inheritance or are leased to them. Some owned their lands through old titles and buying of rights and most of the residents own their houses.

The Land Bank of the Philippines (LBP) is one institution that provides financial assistance to farmers. But because credit programs in formal institutions are collateral based and have high interest loans, some low income farmers resort instead to credit groups or individuals in the so-called supply system. This is an agreement drawn between a middleman and the farmer whereby the middleman provides all the farm inputs during the cropping season and at harvest time the produce is given to the middleman who also dictates the price. The middleman and the farmer, depending on their agreement, share net gain. In October 2002, the municipal government invited the Benguet Central Bank, Inc. to serve the needs of the farmers. But very few still avail of its services.

The Kamog Farmers' Multi-Purpose Cooperative has been the longest running cooperative in the barangay registered in 1992. It owns one of the 12 retail stores in the barangay where people can purchase rice and other food and non-food essentials even on credit basis. The women have two cooperatives, namely the RIC-NAK or the Rural Improvement Club of the Nanangs (old women) of Kamog and the Kamog Women's Association. Both are credit cooperatives with more than 50 female members. Another cooperative registered with the Cooperative Development Authority is the BAGODAP, composed of members from sitios Balingew, Alog, Goyudan, Dodo and Peday.

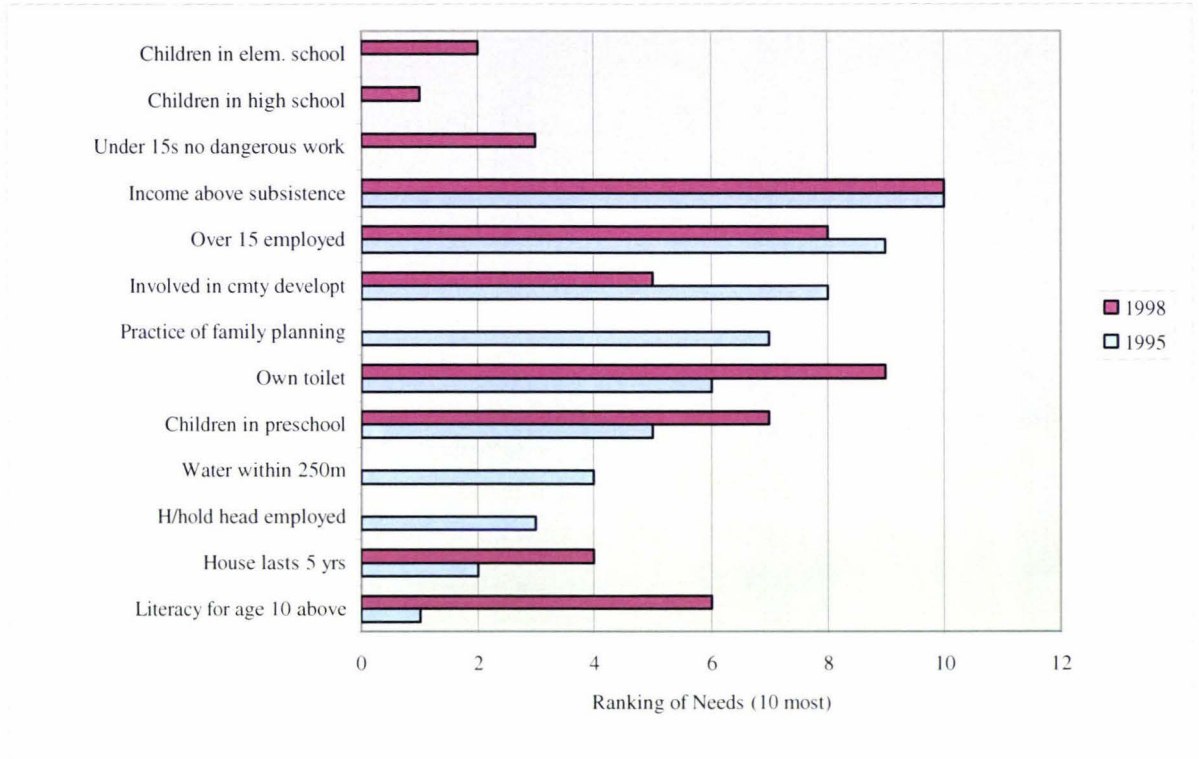
These groups are formally organised, registered, have their own constitution and by-laws with members elected on an annual basis. Most of the people in Kamog are members of these associations. The Kamog Women's Association was formed during the implementation of the CIDSS. There are also some organizations within the municipality or province of which barangay residents, if interested, can freely join. Most of the women are members of the Sablan Women's Association. Benefits from these associations include opportunities for credit assistance, livelihood training programs, training in participatory and organisational skills, and technical knowledge in agriculture.

Line agencies of the government generally deliver extension services to the barangay. For example, the Department of Agriculture (DA) provides technical assistance especially to small farmers in order to increase their farm yield. Information on new and appropriate farming techniques and methods are disseminated through seminars, trainings and symposia. NGOs and private agricultural companies especially pesticide companies render free information services. Lately, private companies and government agencies have introduced organic farming to small farmers.

The MBN was conducted on an annual basis starting late 1994 to 1998 during the implementation of the CIDSS. The data collected in 1994-1995 served as the program baseline data. Annual results of the survey reveal that basic needs unmet include employment and livelihood, sanitary facilities, access to water, education and involvement in community development. In March 1998 the evaluation was conducted and its results were communicated to the community and policymakers were informed. The five year survey showed an overall reduction rate of 19.50%. There were significant changes both positive and negative which in one way may have been but not wholly attributed to the projects implemented by the CIDSS.

It can be clearly seen that the foremost identified need of the barangay remains to be the improvement of income. The figures have not significantly improved since the first year of the CIDSS implementation. In 1995 among 154 families, 97 or about 63% live below the poverty line (Balabag, 1997). In 1998 among 185 families, 65 or almost 35% still live below the subsistence level (ibid). Aside from families' low income is the need for livelihood and employment necessitating the heads of the family and family members 15 years and above to gain employment.

Figure 7.8
Barangay Unmet Needs, 1997 - 1998



Source: Balagot, 1998

However, in 1998 the need for gainful employment of the head of the family has been eliminated as an unmet need. This is due to the realisation that cultivating garden plots or small scale farming which was before primarily delegated to women and children can earn substantial income. Working in garden plots were before not considered gainful employment because of its low productivity yield. Household heads would always set their sights for employment in the urban areas and notably overseas where the pay is more lucrative. No data however was available on the number of household heads or member/s of households who are working overseas or even in urban areas.

The improvement of infrastructure facilities such as roads and waterworks, the input of agricultural methods by national government agencies, private agricultural firms, university pilot projects, and cooperative action, harvest from garden plots increased substantially and have become more productive and income generating. It was no longer difficult to manually carry farm produce to major roads with the improvement of roads and the further construction of farm-to-market roads. Jeepneys and other public and private vehicles have found more accessible routes through the barangay. However, with the wide area of the barangay, several sitios have yet to have passable roads. A

significant number of garden plots can only be reached through intricate footpaths and footbridges.

Income also improved with the availability of livelihood training programs such as sewing, toy craft making, tailoring and food production especially among women and the out-of-school youth. With their newly acquired skills, some were encouraged to engage in small businesses. Some out-of-school youth were encouraged to enrol in vocational courses such as electronic appliance repairs, auto and machine mechanics and hairdressing. These skills were developed to eventually provide gainful employment in urban areas. These activities have significantly helped to generate income for the family.

Some of the family members, especially those who are 15 years and older, sought employment in urban centres as labourers or construction workers augmenting the family's income or employment in bigger farms such as the strawberry farms in La Trinidad and other bigger vegetable and fruit plantations in the area.

Some who could afford or have the capacity to loan or borrow big amounts send their family members to work overseas as contract workers. Collateral for loans include harvest produce for a couple of years or their lands. There are no data to substantiate its return of investment. However, it is significant to note that those who were able to construct concrete houses, own small retail stores, can afford to send their children to school, especially to college, or have more appliances, are those with relatives working overseas. In the later years, people were also able to construct greenhouses and venture into the more lucrative but capital-intensive cut flower business.

People in the village spend more than ten hours in their garden plots working with their family members. Their garden plots are located far from their houses, which they trek through intricate footpaths and footbridges. In some sitios there are no footbridges so they had to cross rivers. People return late at night but security has not been a problem.

In the last few years, government has encouraged small-scale ventures to move people from purely subsistence agriculture. New activities were introduced which hasten entrepreneurial skills but due to lack of experience or advice most of these ventures fail. These include duck raising, mushroom growing, cutflower growing and other ventures.

Small trade stores and passenger jeepneys are two of the new economic activities in the village. Capital usually comes from overseas remittances.

The barangay also lacks economic safeguards in the event of disasters and calamities despite mitigation efforts by the government. People in the community lose houses, crops and livelihood when strong typhoons hit the community. In July 2003, a typhoon swept the barangay which left a significant number of greenhouses and garden plots destroyed and farmers were left with no crops to sell and unable to meet the demands of the market in November for cutflowers. Calamity funds can be availed of by residents upon submission of the barangay council of its report of damage. The barangay captain then endorses and certifies the request for calamity assistance, which varies from PhP 500 to PhP 5,000 depending on the availability of funds.

Figure 7.9
Destroyed Greenhouses



In July 2003 a typhoon struck destroying greenhouses built from big capital uprooting cutflower and vegetable seedlings due for harvest in October

Physical Characteristics

Since 1982 the local government has been responsible for the construction and maintenance of barangay roads. Concrete tire paths and gravel pathways make the central part of the village accessible to all types of vehicles. Farm-to-market roads provide access to interior sitios. Footpaths and four footbridges are used to reach remote sitios. Most of the visible projects of the CIDSS were on infrastructure implemented in 1996 and 1997, which include tirepathing projects and the clearing of footpaths and

canals. In 2002, the barangay implemented 17 infrastructure projects; nine of which have been completed and eight are on-going. Funds for infrastructure projects are from barangay, municipal, provincial or congressional development funds, calamity funds and educational assistance fund.

Table 7.2
Barangay Fund Distribution for FY 2002

| Amount (PhP) | Type of Project |
|--------------|--|
| 541,182 | Road concreting |
| 986,436 | Rehabilitation of roads |
| 10,000 | Clearing of slides |
| 940,028 | Improvement of school grounds and buildings |
| 40,000 | Construction of footpaths |
| 100,000 | Construction of Tanod outpost |
| 400,000 | Construction of the Banao-Beshing waterworks |
| 130,000 | Construction of the Alog Deep well |

Source: Barangay Profile, 2002

Water for domestic and farm needs is made available in the barangay through the development of springs. Privately owned rubber hoses are connected to rivers and springs. Houses along the provincial road are supplied through a common faucet. Since the Marcos administration, the development of waterworks facilities has been in place. But it was accelerated in 1989 when President Corazon Aquino signed into law Republic Act 6716 providing for the construction of water wells, rainwater collectors and development of springs and the rehabilitation of existing waterworks in all barangays in the Philippines. This law scaled up the development of waterworks in the sitios of the barangay such as the on-going construction of the Banao-Beshing waterworks project.

Transport facilities to and from the village are fairly regular. The barangay is about 4 kilometres away from the national highway and 15 kilometres away from Baguio City. Public utility jeepneys (PUJs) ferry passengers five times a day for an hour's trip to and from Baguio City. The first trip leaves the village at 4:00 in the morning carrying mostly vegetable farmers selling their produce in the Baguio City market. A jeepney terminal along the side street of the Baguio City market serves as their terminal or passenger waiting area. Even without passengers, the PUJ leaves for the village before 7:00 ferrying schoolchildren and teachers along the way to attend the elementary school located in the central part of the village. The same jeepney leaves the village at about 9:00 in the morning and returns at 11:00. The last trip to Baguio City is at 1:00 in the afternoon to avoid the heavy fog which envelopes the hills rendering poor visibility. One has to hire a vehicle to leave the village after the last trip or walk for about an hour

to get to the national highway. Some PUJs are owned by people in the village so drivers sometimes act as couriers for the people.

Figure 7.10
Typical House in Kamog



A typical house is made of galvanized iron roof and wooden planks for walls.

Figure 7.11
Public Utility Jeepney (PUJ)



Colorful public utility jeepneys ply the Baguio City-Kamog route daily. Drivers sometimes serve as couriers of the people who are unable to leave the barangay.

Social Development

The barangay has the smallest population in the municipality with 1,086 as per the census conducted by the Barangay Health Centre last year. In the CIDSS five year evaluation report, population growth decreased from 4% in 1994 – 1995 to 2% in 1998.

It has one of the lowest birth rate in the province but the numbers of households continue to increase due to marriages, arrival of new residents and return of old residents. However the household size remains the same.

Figure 7.12
Children in the Barangay



Children in the village relaxing during a recess time

Figure 7.13
St. Francis of Assisi Anglican Church



The St. Francis of Assisi Anglican Church remains the bastion of Anglican faith in the community. Other major religions include Catholicism and other Protestant sects

The people in the barangay are mostly Ibalois, constituting 85.5 % of the population. Today there are people from the Kankanaey, Ifugao, and Igorot tribes and lowlanders such as the Tagalogs, Visayans and Ilocanos. Cultural differences are respected in the area and are strongly preserved to retain their cultural identity and ethnic diversity.

Most of them are related to each other either by affinity or consanguinity. One very distinct trait is their loyalty to relatives and clan members, clearly evident during the elections. Likewise, the Filipino values of “*pakikisama*” (group loyalty) and “*utang na loob*” (debt of gratitude) are embedded in the culture. The people in the Cordillera are also known to take pride in their heritage thus a lot of customs and beliefs are still held and passed on to the younger generation. The *cañao* is a community gathering to celebrate both good and bad misfortunes. A family holds a *cañao* during the death of a loved one, a wedding or just to welcome a *balikbayan* or returning relative and the whole community is invited to the feast. It has ceased to be a religious ritual in the present day life of the people in the barangay but an excuse to celebrate an occasion.

Table 7.3
Population Distribution, 2002

| Age Group | Male | Female | Total |
|----------------------|------|--------|-------|
| Less than 1 year | 12 | 8 | 20 |
| 1 – 4 yrs old | 53 | 38 | 91 |
| 5 – 6 yrs. old | 18 | 26 | 44 |
| 7 – 14 yrs old | 100 | 91 | 191 |
| 15 – 49 yrs old | 309 | 317 | 626 |
| 50 - 64 | 41 | 29 | 70 |
| 65 yrs old and above | 15 | 29 | 44 |
| TOTAL | 548 | 538 | 1,086 |

Source: Barangay Profile, 2002

The church is a powerful single organization in the village. Some vital information especially those of national concerns are brought to the attention of the church. The Anglican parish priest has been a regular fixture in the life of the people. Services are served each week and a Catholic mass is heard at the end of each month at the local public elementary school. The Anglican Church has also been involved in several development projects in the community, the last of which is the construction of a water reservoir.

The village has a public elementary school and hosts the national public high school. It also has a health centre ran by a midwife acting as overall health officer aided by 11 barangay health workers or BHWs. Other government health workers conduct regular visits to the barangay.

Sanitary facilities in the barangay include flush and water sealed toilets and individual pit privy or sanitary pits. Families with sanitary toilets have been a problem since 1994. In the baseline data of the CIDSS, 53 families among 154 have no suitable toilet facilities. The number has increased despite its demise in 1996 and 1997. Fifty-three

families in 1995 are without toilet facilities compared to 51 families among 185 in 1998. In 2002, the barangay recorded that of the 194 households, 88 have flush or water sealed toilets and 106 have individual pit privy.

Pit privies are closed shelters located at the back of houses with a wooden platform to cover the collection pit. Most are crude, shallow holes fashioned with a seating surface. Most single-hole privies are not cemented and are without proper sewerage channel. Thus when the soil is wet the pit automatically collapses. The limited water supply in the summer cannot keep the water-sealed toilets clean. Some of the plastic toilet bowls provided by the CIDSS were not properly installed and in the later years they were literally unserviceable.

The construction of a communal toilet is an important factor in generating awareness and influencing people on the importance of sanitary facilities. This facility can serve many people and takes into consideration the accessibility and convenience to users. It is strategically located in the central part of the barangay where a large portion of the population is located and near the transit point of people to and from the different sitios of the barangay. The facility may be considered the most feasible low-cost alternative for providing sanitation to the people and is more economical on a per capita basis than for providing for individual household facilities.

Figure 7.14
CIDSS-constructed *Toilet for All*



Only nine out of the 16 sitios have been energised because of their far distance, rugged terrain and the limited number of households who can afford to pay the monthly billing. As of 2002, 128 households among 168 remain unenergised. Remote sitios though have

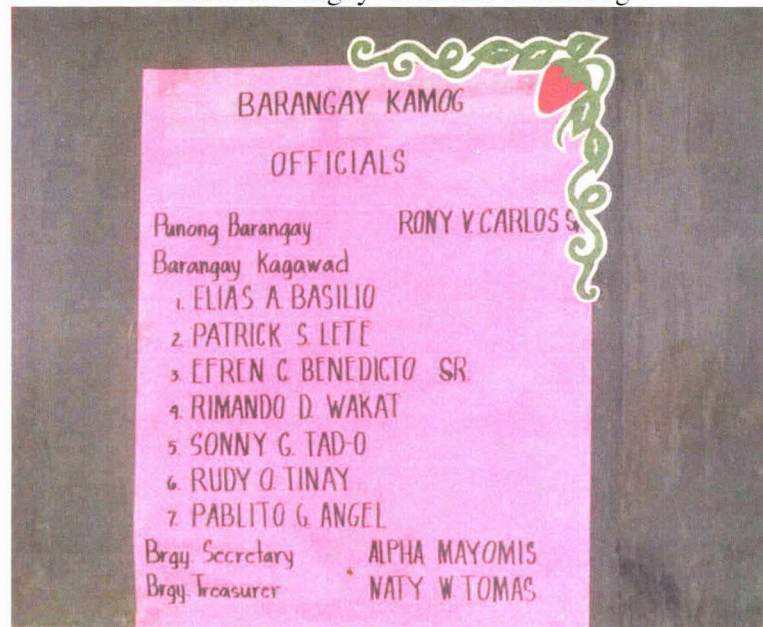
been requesting for electrical supply due to the increasing number of households and of greenhouses in the area. Seventy-one percent of the houses use kerosene and only 29% of houses use electricity according to a social welfare survey conducted last year.

One out of 35 people in the barangay own cellular phones (Balabag, 2002). Owners are mostly those who have relatives abroad or who are professionals. Generally, relatives and neighbours in the sitio share the mobile phone. Signals are clear in the barangay due to the presence of cell sites built within the municipality by telecommunications companies. However, the municipality does not have any telephone or telegraph facilities. Mail is not delivered into the barangay. However, a motorcycle courier distributes the mail to those living in the national highway. The barangay council takes it upon itself to retrieve individual mails from the municipality post office. Urgent messages to residents of the community or official announcements to barangay officials are sometimes passed on jeepney drivers who ply the routes of the barangay or other residents of the community who are chanced upon in the town hall.

Political Administration

The members of the barangay council were elected into office in 2002. It was a mixture of re-electionees and those newly elected. The barangay captain is not new in politics being the barangay youth representative (Sangguniang Kabataan) for a number of years. But some of the kagawads (barangay councilmen) has been re-elected a number of times. A barangay official can serve for up to three terms each term lasting six years. Barangay elections are non-partisan which means that they do not belong to any political party and have no particular political leanings.

Figure 7.15
List of Barangay Officials of Kamog



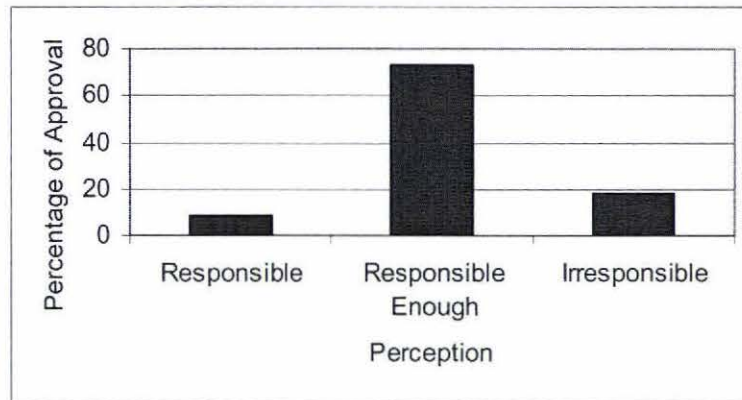
The barangay council is organised into committees as mandated by law. Each of these committees are chaired by the members of the Barangay Council with members from the community appointed by the barangay captain in consultation with the council or as nominated by concerned groups or individuals in the barangay. These committees and councils regularly render reports to the barangay council and form part of the monthly accomplishment report of the barangay submitted to the municipal government at the end of each month.

Issues and concerns of people in the barangay can easily be brought to the attention of the barangay council through the barangay captain, any member of the council or any influential people in the barangay for example the farmers' association president. Some issues are identified through barangay assemblies but they come few and far between. Decisions concerning issues are discussed and deliberated in the barangay council monthly meetings.

Balabag, in the survey conducted in 2002, asked the residents of their perception of their own barangay officials. It was revealed that the community generally have a positive perception of all barangay officials. However, a record number also said that some barangay officials are very good in promising niceties during the campaign period. Respondents also said that some barangay officials only act on problems and

issues that are important to them or that which may affect them their families affect them directly or indirectly.

Figure 7.16
People's perception of barangay officials



Source: Balabag, 2002

Communication Mode

Barangay Kamog like any typical rural villages in the Philippines remain traditional despite its proximity to urban growth centres. As Temu (1989) described the information needs of two Papua New Guinean communities “information needs are recognised by the community and in most cases were fully met within the cultural tradition” (p. 71). The information needs of the barangay further reflect the same divisions identified by Temu (1989) in his research. These two divisions of information needs are “(1) set of needs which the people themselves perceive; and, (2) set of needs which they remain ignorant about” which consist of changes in the socio-political-economic and educational system, changes in foreign relations and whole change processes in the Western world’s penetration of the country (which) has created unstoppable process of change, implications of which people remain ignorant about” (ibid., p. 17).

The set of needs that people themselves have identified include those that directly affect their wellbeing, livelihood and security. People would gather and reinforce information on these three concerns. Those then that does not directly affect their lives would either be ignored or would not be an interest enough to seek additional information. During the researcher’s stay in the village, two important things happened that have directly and indirectly needed information. On the second week of July 2003, a typhoon swept the northern part of the Philippines affecting the barangay. The typhoon destroyed most of

the crops and greenhouses. People were in a pitiful stage. Information on how to access funds or other services to rehabilitate them was very necessary. The barangay officials mobilised themselves and ask assistance from various sources such as the municipal government, the provincial and regional offices. The need to seek for information was greater as people pressure the officials to ask for calamity assistance.

On the third week of July 2003, young, idealistic military officers staged a “military adventurism” in the country’s business district by planting bombs in strategic locations. Radio and television news in urban areas cut all regular programming to put on centre stage this new development. In Baguio City, the researcher observed that people were wary on the streets and everywhere people were tuned in to different radio and television stations interested to hear about the latest development. People were tense as there were few cars on the streets and some businesses were closed. Police and military men and patrol cars were very visible on main streets.

As the researcher travelled southeast of the city towards Sablan there were no indications that people were aware of what was happening. The researcher informed the barangay officials and only then did they tune in their radios. But people would rather listen to the researcher give an account than to tune in to the radio. After a while, conversation went back to updates on the devastation of the typhoon. As people in urban areas continued to monitor developments on the pronouncements of the government on what it was going to do on the demands of the young military officers holed up in a hotel in the heart of the country’s premier business centre, people in Kamog would rather work in their garden plots rehabilitating their areas. The researcher asked people in the community how they reacted to these developments in Manila and their response were that any political developments in Manila do not directly affect them anyway. They could not even tell me the names of the government officials who were negotiating with the rebels nor could they understand national issues being discussed on radio. At the end of the day, they retired without interest if the president will still stay in power by midnight. But they would stay awake for information that could assist them in rehabilitating their garden plots or recovering from losses on their greenhouse investments.

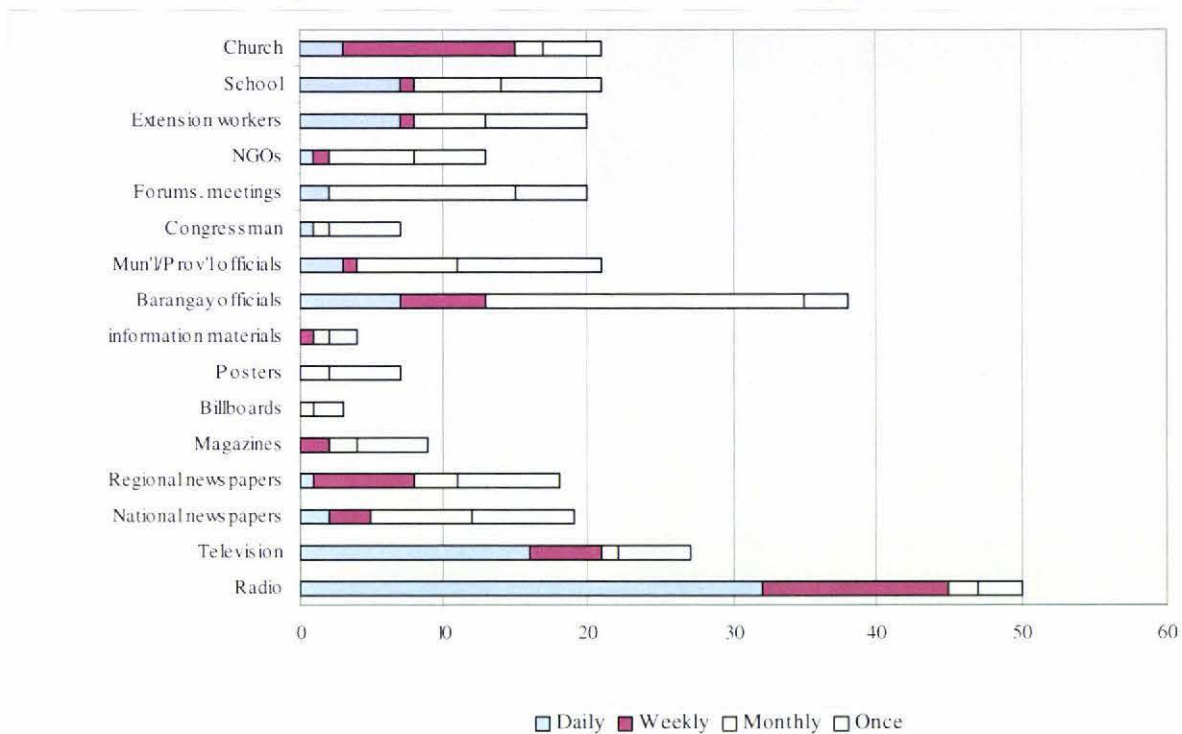
People in the barangay have various sources of information. A survey conducted by the researcher revealed that radio was the main source of information of the people in the

barangay on a daily basis and as gleaned too from previous media surveys by the NSCB in both rural and urban areas. The barangay captain said that almost every household owns a radio set. Its manner of usage however cannot be determined. Most of the radios are battery-powered thus limiting the residents' usage of the medium to certain hours of the days or week.

Balabag's survey in 2002 revealed that only about 63 households among 206 own television sets which constitute roughly 31% of the total population. Among 10 houses in the central part of the barangay seven have television sets. Meanwhile in the unenergised sitio of Banao one household operates a battery-powered television set.

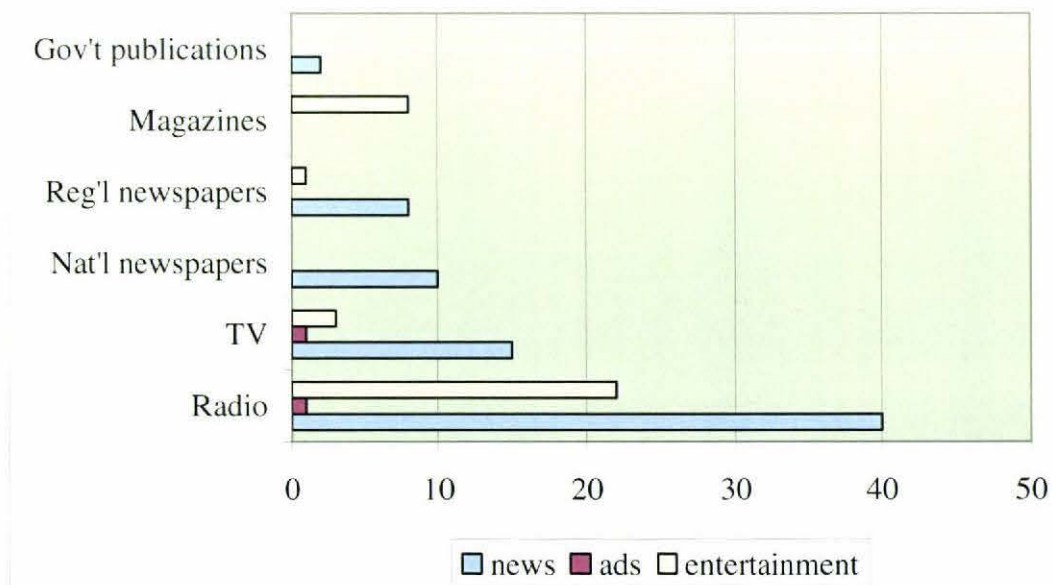
It has also been observed that communities listening to the radio or watching television is a shared activity among neighbours and friends in the barangay, which is a character of rural communities in the country. A single radio is brought to an informal gathering of men and women early in the morning before they trek to their garden plots. It is also common to see people converge after lunch in a house that has a television set in a sitio to watch a noontime television show. Acquiring information on radio or television then is irrelevant to ownership of the medium. As is revealed earlier very few sitios or houses in the barangay are energised and people generally would not include the purchase of batteries for radio sets as part of their immediate expenses. In a survey conducted by the researcher on the residents' regular sources of information, radio ranks highest in any given period. Figure 6.2 revealed that the role of the local officials is important as a regular source of information. The role of other local officials slowly diminishes in the barangay level. It is clear that interpersonal communication such as forums, meetings, church or school gatherings are sources of information. Mass media as a source of information takes a secondary role to interpersonal communication.

Figure 7.17⁵⁶
Regular Sources of Information in the Barangay



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Figure 7.18⁵⁷
Topics of Interest



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

⁵⁶ Figures in percentages

⁵⁷ Figures in percentages

Only two radio stations reach the area, the Catholic owned radio station, DZWT, and DZWX Bombo Radio. Both are in the AM band and features news and public affairs programs. Both radio stations are very popular in the village. Hard-hitting radio personalities attacking issues and mostly government ineptness are regular features that people in the village enjoy to hear. The survey conducted among residents also reveals that people are generally interested in the news when they watch television or listen to the radio. Entertainment is also one of its main reasons for tuning in to the two mediums. Magazines are acquired solely for its entertainment value.

Referring to Figure 7.18 above it would be gleaned that despite the overall high rating of newspaper readership in the region, the barangay demonstrates a low priority in terms of acquiring information from either national or regional newspapers. Reading national or regional newspapers is a rare activity among the people, probably because it is not readily available. Cost, accessibility, literacy, and language use may have been major considerations. National newspapers are written in English and regional newspapers are mostly written in Ilocano. Further, the cost of one national newspaper is almost equivalent to a kilo of finely-milled rice. Newspapers are also purchased from outside of the village usually a jeepney driver is asked to purchase it for people requesting it. Acquiring newspapers rather than borrowing is preferred. Only once in six months do people buy magazines and very rarely do they get their information from government publications.

Other kinds of information materials (brochures, pamphlets flyers, etc.), billboards or posters are hardly considered regular sources of information. This reveals that these kinds of information materials are not produced on a regular basis to inform people on different programs and projects. Neither are they produced in large quantities to include the people in the remote rural areas as target recipients.

The researcher likewise conducted a survey on the preferred methods of acquiring information. The results of the survey are exhibited by Figures 7.16 and 7.18 and revealed that nothing much has changed on the actual sources of information of the people and on the preferred sources of information on a daily, weekly, monthly and once in six months mode.

Radio and television remain the methods through which people prefer to gather their information on a daily basis. On a weekly basis, the church gathering is preferred as a

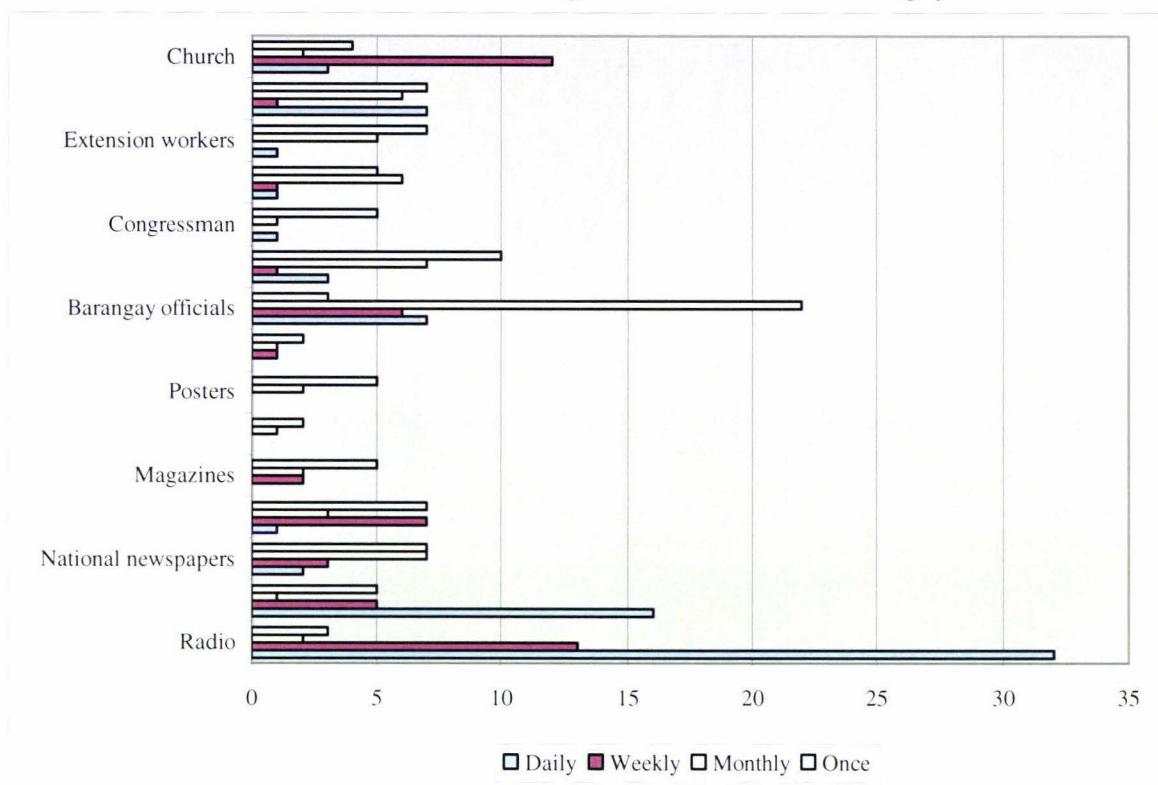
venue where information, can be disseminated. People in the village are predominantly Anglican and the weekly church service is a regular activity. Moreover, the church has also been active in disseminating information particularly on development projects.

On a monthly basis, the barangay officials are the most preferred bearer of information. This may be due to the fact that the barangay council meet very regularly on the last Saturday of each month and issues relevant to people's lives can be discussed in these sessions. Extension workers and NGO workers are sources of information on a monthly basis.

Other government officials are preferred sources of information once in six months because of their inaccessibility to the people in the barangay. The preference of magazines and newspapers on a monthly basis displayed the inability of the people to frequently purchase them.

Despite the preference for monthly consultations with barangay officials, it was clearly evident that people generally consider them as main sources of information on a fairly regular basis and very rarely on a once in six months mode. This therefore reiterates the twin role of the barangay as a bearer and conveyer of information in the barangay.

Figure 7.19⁵⁸
Preferred Methods of Gathering Information in the Barangay



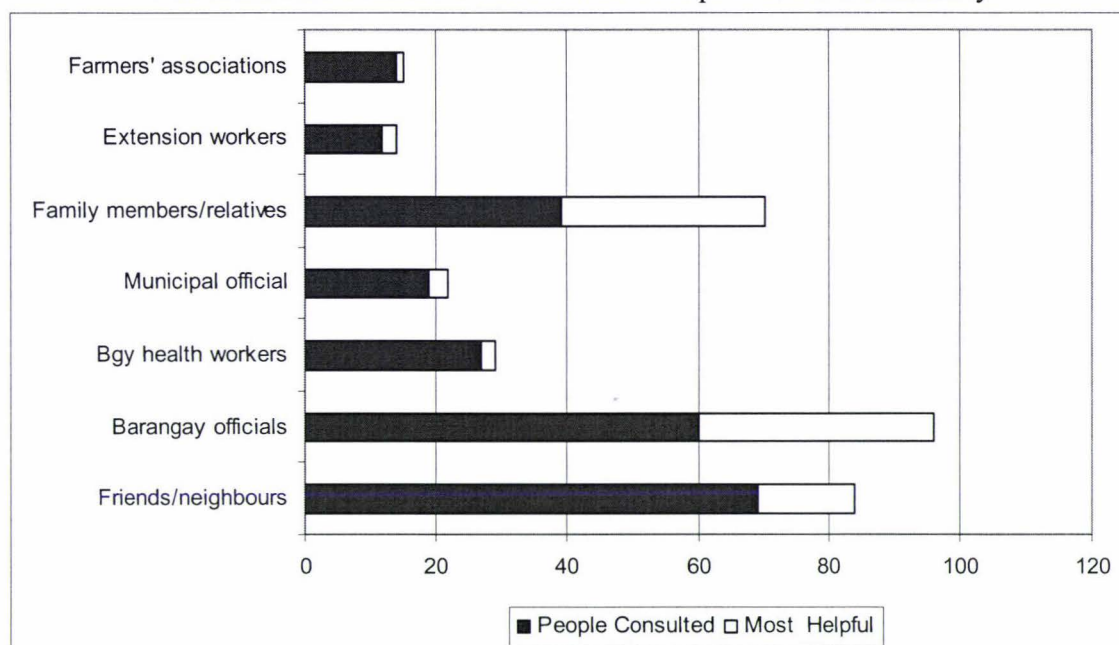
Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The survey also revealed that people generally consult the barangay captain or member/s of the council on their concerns. The figure below reveals that aside from the barangay council, residents most frequently consult friends and neighbours or family members and relatives. With health as the major concern of the residents, the health workers are frequently called upon either for consultation or representation in terms of medical referral or requests to municipal or provincial health services. Moreover, it is the health worker who is employed by the municipal government who facilitates benefits and requests.

Municipal or more clearly provincial officials are not generally sought unless through the assistance of the barangay council or any other influential members of the community. However, among those mentioned above, it is family and relatives who prove to be more helpful to the respondents. But the barangay captain or the member/s of the council are also considered helpful. Despite people generally consulting friends or the health worker, it was the people's experience that they do not be totally relied upon for help. The figure below illustrates the details.

⁵⁸ Figures in percentages

Figure 7.20⁵⁹
 Persons Often Consulted and the Most Helpful in the Community



Source: Fieldwork, 2002

The people's manner of acquiring information to meet their needs is satisfied by various sources, which are well fulfilled by and within their own environment, and though a sad reality may be their inability to purchase or avail of the needed information. The second set of information needs that people are ignorant of as previously enumerated in this section is that of the changes in the socio-economic policies, political system and educational issues or opportunities. In this respect, there is no urgent need for the people to satisfy information needs regarding issues that do not directly affect them. They can easily pass and change without notice only until these issues affect them.

Role of Barangay Officials in the Communication Process

Under Sec. 388 of the Local Government Code of 1991 barangay officials are "persons in authority in their jurisdiction" who by direct election "is charged with the preservation of public order, security of life and property and the maintenance of a desirable environment" (Ortiz, 2003, p. 28). The barangay's role is to be to articulate the needs of the residents to the next tier of government or seek other resources or avenues to which he/she can elevate this concern.

⁵⁹ Figures in percentages

Narayan and Petesch (2002) noted that people “heavily rely” on local leaders most specifically the village chief. These officials assist the community in settling disputes, arrange community activities and seek external resources for local projects. In communities where the leaders do not actively perform, “their absence is strongly felt” (ibid.).

*He is our leader and he settles disputes. He calls whenever there is something that needs to be discussed. With some issues, he will call the whole community together and give each person a chance to express his or her view. He also takes advice from the elders, but they are a small group*⁶⁰(ibid., p. 35).

In Philippine local communities, the barangay captain and the members of the barangay council as earlier revealed in the researcher’s survey display communication roles that they need to portray effectively and efficiently. These roles are embedded in their official capacity as a member of government. It was earlier gleaned that the barangay captain and other officials are one of the main sources of information of residents in the barangay.

The Local Government Code of 1991 ensured people’s participation in the affairs of the barangay especially in the crafting of local legislation. Residents can participate through the “barangay assembly, public hearing, initiative, referendum or plebiscite” (ibid, p. 59). The barangay captain or “at least four of its seven council members may call a barangay meetings and may also be convened upon the petition of at least 5%” (ibid.) of the residents.

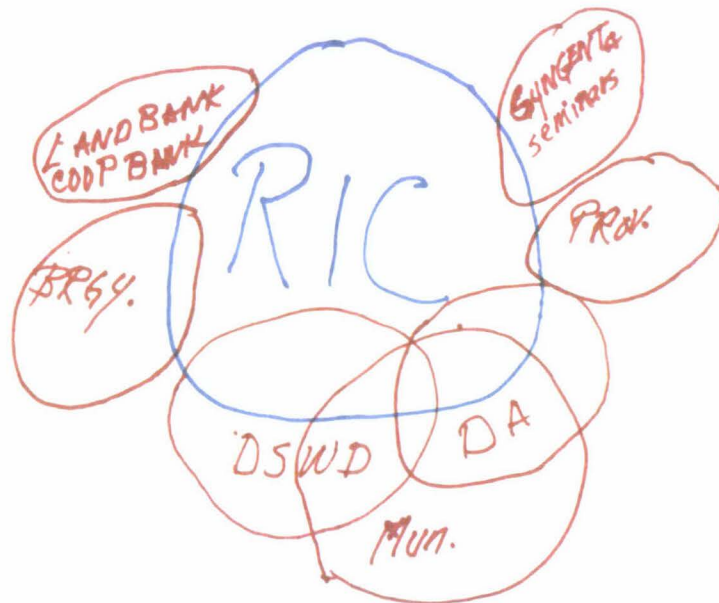
The survey results among residents revealed that the barangay captain or member/s of the council are frequently consulted. Among the issues brought to the attention of the barangay are issues that affect their livelihood, security and protection and well-being. These issues are raised in a collective or individual manner. Information on farming methods, health and peace and order are among the main concerns of the people brought to the attention of the officials. Housing concerns are the least consulted.

In a Venn diagram, a women’s association interviewed by the researcher revealed that there are several factors which influence them. One of these is the municipal

⁶⁰ italics by the authors

government. However, the barangay is a more consistent source of information of the people. As such it has served as the bearer of information to the residents, conveyor of information to higher authorities and then translate policies to the residents and thereby giving feedback on what they perceive about these policies.

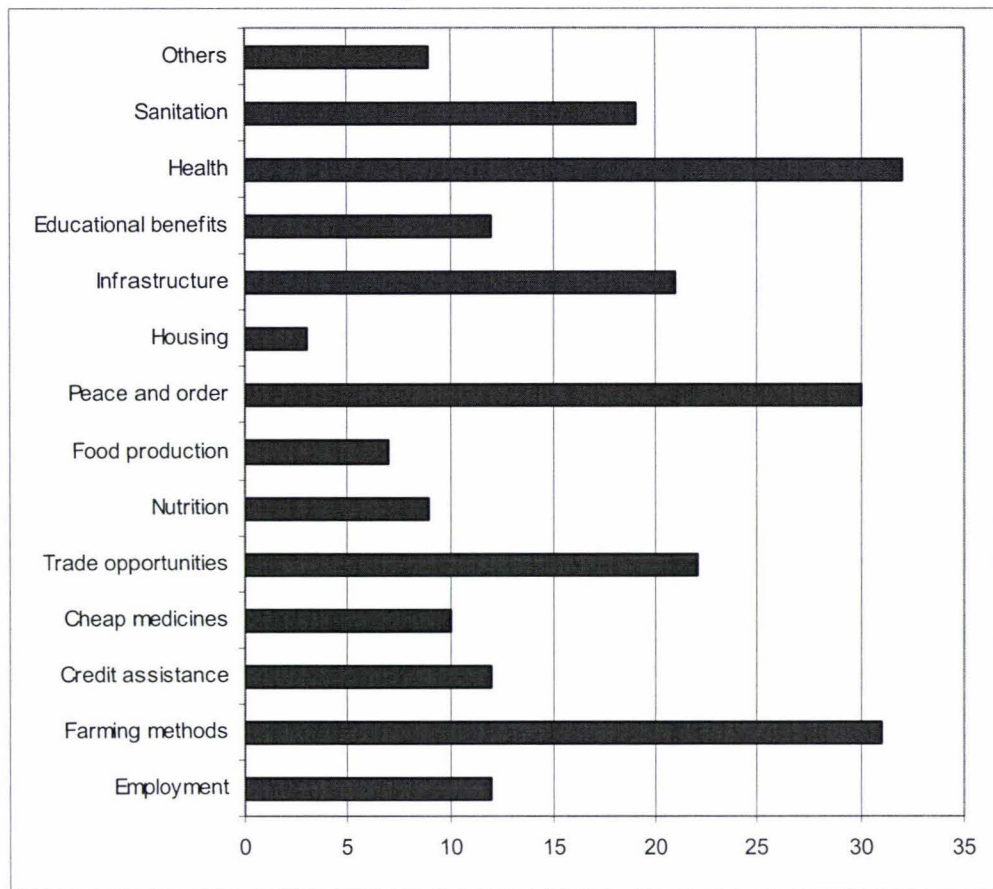
Figure 7.21
Venn Diagram of the RIC-NAK



This is a Venn diagram prepared by RICNAK, a women's association on institutions and offices that influence or affect them most
Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The issues brought about by people to the barangay council may also be their primary information needs. It is then imperative for the barangay to establish and maintain the appropriate communication lines to and from government agencies or institutions that would fill these information needs. In this instance the role of the barangay council is as conveyor of information.

Figure 7.22
Issues Brought to the Barangay Council



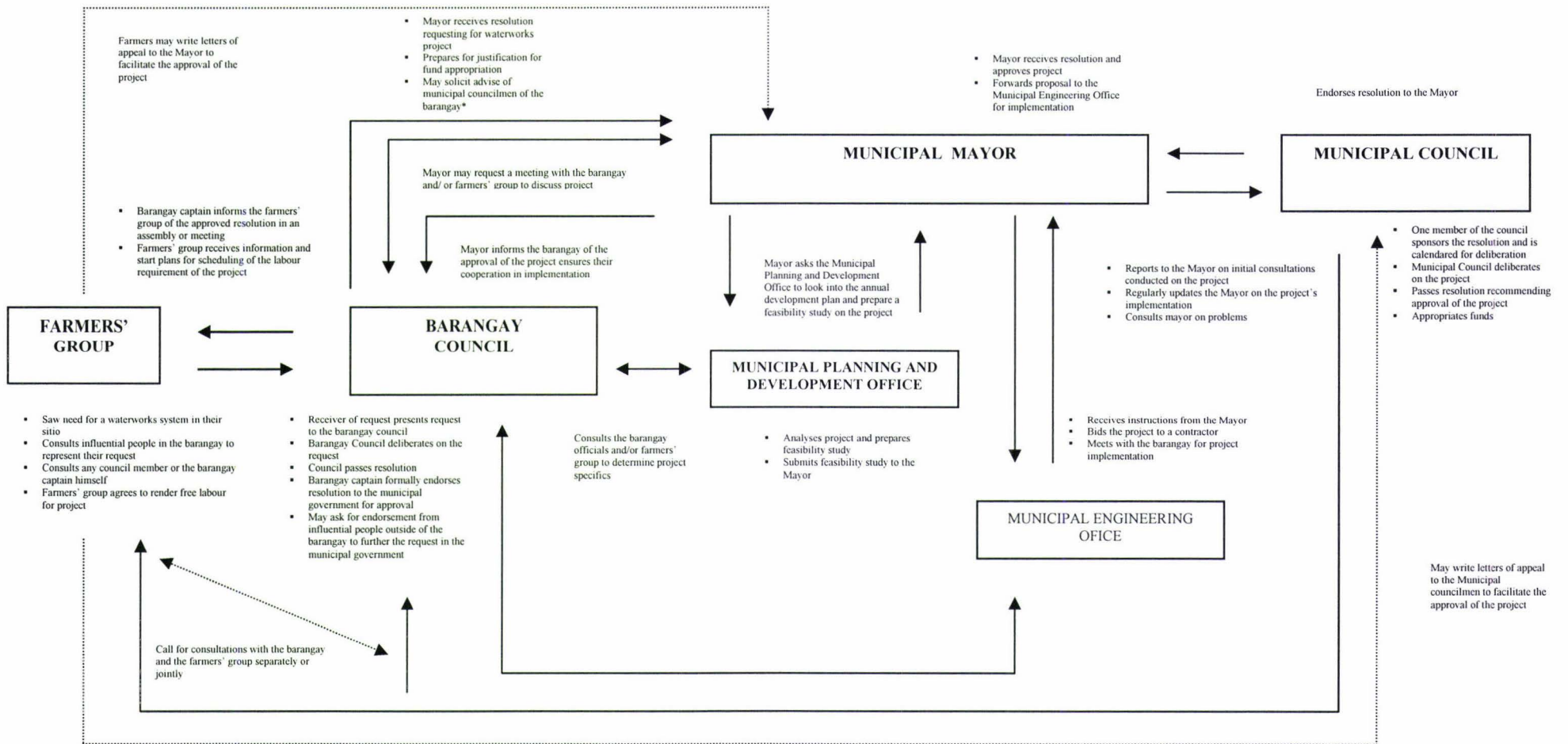
Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Storey and Overton (2002) saw the crucial role of a facilitator in the process of articulating needs. In some instances people are unable to ‘speak up and deal with outsiders’ as their condition prevents, prohibits or inhibits them from voicing out their concerns. The Filipino culture of *hiya* (shame or embarrassment) play a vital role in it. In assemblies and gatherings, people would rather be quiet than articulate their needs in the event that someone might put them to shame because of their impoverished condition, for one. To ensure their participation then, the barangay officials can step on the line. Storey and Overton (2002) says this facilitator can serve as the “third apex of the triangle that involves the people and the government” (p.29). The authors sees their role as “difficult” as they “seek the local views, represent them to government and guide the projects in the interest of the people” (ibid.).

Figure 7.23 below illustrates the horizontal and the vertical flow of communication from the residents to the barangay to its target recipients and back. This is an example of the communication pattern involved in the request for the construction of a

Figure 7.23

UPWARD, DOWANWARD AND HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION FLOW OF PROJECTS
Adapted from Belen, 1982



waterworks system in Sitio Banao. The illustration may have captivated several steps in the process but the influences and the importance of certain key players cannot be undermined. There were also some ways in which people affected may have used to simplify the process and this is through the use of pressure groups or influential people to hasten the process. For example, the barangay may ask the congressman in the district to endorse the project to the municipal mayor to gain access to priority funding. In this respect, the lines of communication established by the barangay need to be open, accessible and sensitive even to partisan politics.

The illustration shows the different players in the communication process and their importance. This displays that the barangay officials are clearly conveyors and bearers of information to and from the people. It is thus important to recognise the role the barangay officials and the residents play and the communication process they undergo. Recognising these roles enhances the flow of information and ensures the success of the communication process. It would be noted that there might be others in within or outside of the community who can enhance or impede the process. These may be individuals or group of individuals, formally or informally grouped, who may have interest on the concern.

The figure illustrates the communication lines that need to be opened, maintained and strengthened by the communication process. Some lines have to be initiated such as those of the farmers' association. The barangay consultations may be able to identify these needs as articulated by the farmers' association. The farmers' association request process is formalised and is sent to the first accountable level of authority which is the barangay officials. This process traverses its course smoothly if and when the barangay council has well-established and maintained open lines of communication with the municipal government. It is important that the barangay officials follow up the process from every stage and is made aware of all the problems and concerns. It does not leave the matters at the mayor's doorstep.

At the same time as it strengthen the lines of forward communication, it also delivers feedback information to the farmers' association and residents who have requested the project in order to maintain its trust and integrity both as persons and as a council.

The farmers' association in this respect also has a vigilant role in the communication process. It needs to strengthen the information lines that have been earlier established or maintained by the barangay. Thus, they may at certain points initiate letters to reiterate their request to certain government officials or offices. Letter writing is one of the most relied upon method and so is group representation.

Some communication lines also strengthen further information as illustrated by the feedback generated from the Municipal Planning and Development Office. Accomplishment reports that have been submitted earlier by the barangay form part of this process.

The process is rendered successful by the delivery of the project. But there will always be a need to further examine the process by the barangay council in order for it to be able to learn lessons and find alternative ways or reinforcing some aspects of the communication process.

As discussed earlier, the barangay council is the conveyor of information. Whenever there is information that needs to be relayed to the people the barangay the council improvise ways and means to put the information across. In the survey, the following figure describes the actual ways residents receive the information relayed by the barangay council.

The primary manner to generate awareness and to disseminate information is through posting letters or any other kind of information materials in strategic places in the barangay and the sitios concerned. For example, information on the registration of voters for the 2004 national and local elections, which was coursed through the barangay by the municipal Commission on Elections, was posted in electrical posts, public utility vehicles, in *sari-sari* (convenience) stores, first house in the sitio, water reservoirs, or on big trees along footpaths.

More urgent messages, which more commonly are personal in nature, such as the approval of a loan from the rural bank, or the need to attend meetings as part of a resident's membership in an Association, are sent through messengers such as the barangay tanod (volunteer village peace and order personnel) or to any resident from the sitio.

Alpha Mayomis has been the barangay secretary for almost two years serving two barangay captains. Sometimes she wants to inform residents who lives in the sitios to attend a livelihood training seminar in town. What she commonly does to relay this message is to wait for classes to end in the elementary school and ask children who live in the sitios to deliver her message to the residents concerned. She would entrust the letter of invitation to the child. She says these children are trustworthy and can be depended upon. However, this manner of delivering information is confined to less sensitive information. She says she personally goes to the sitio to relay the information if it is a sensitive and important matter.

Both the informal and formal methods of sending and relaying information are traditional means that the barangay has been very used to and would innovate on these methods if needed. These are traditional information needs that are satisfied and sustained within the context of their own cultural tradition (Temu, 1989).

SUMMARY

Barangay Kamog is a typical remote village in the Philippines relying heavily on subsistence agriculture. Tending garden plots and of late the cultivation of cutflowers in greenhouses have been some major activities in the barangay. However, migration to urban centres and overseas has always been lucrative options. Families receiving remittances from overseas enjoy a fairly comfortable life in the village. People also do not have safety nets to secure themselves and their livelihood from natural and man-made disasters.

The role of the other officials in the region, municipality or province diminishes with the magnifying role of the barangay officials. In this capacity, they are both the bearer and conveyor of information from the people and to the wider world. They assume this role in an inherent capacity as an elective official. People frequently consult officials on issues that concern wellbeing, livelihood and security. The barangay facilitates for the people their concerns and it is trusted upon them to seek avenues and open communication lines to convey and articulate these concerns.

Several Philippine legislations have been enacted to ensure people's participation in their local affairs. It should be the duty of the barangay council then to be able to communicate this effectively for the people to maximise this right. The barangay likewise needs to open, maintain and strengthen communication lines that will give access to the barangay for more resources and services.

The people live simple lives despite their proximity to Baguio City. Residents generate their information more often from secondary sources and may confirm it with local officials or through the media. However, ownership of a media instrument does not guarantee that information is gathered from it. Access to information limits the capacity of people. It seems that the people rely on their officials to perform this role for them.

CHAPTER EIGHT

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The previous chapter described the socio-economic characteristics of Barangay Kamog and illustrated its different forms of communication. The people's simple lives are characterised by their traditional subsistence economic activities, information needs that centre on their wellbeing, livelihood and protection largely unmindful of socio-political and economic changes outside of their community.

The community was one of the poorest among the eight barangays in the municipality when it was identified as a CIDSS covered-area in 1994. Today people's living conditions reflect the same needs they identified earlier. People's lack of exposure to mass media and their reliance to hand down information likewise limits their ability to enhance the communication process in the barangay level.

This chapter discusses more thoroughly the mechanics of the implementation of the CIDSS as a government flagship poverty alleviation program detailing the process undertaken by certain projects and the results thereof. It also discusses several needs of the community that have been met by the program and which continue to be unmet. These identified needs shall be compared to the present conditions in the community.

It also focuses on the beneficiaries' perception of, and involvement in, the implementation of the poverty alleviation program and describe their subsequent participation in the community's development. It was the main aim of the CIDSS to empower the communities to enable them to identify their own needs and articulate them.

The chapter also looks into the communication program used to generate awareness on the CIDSS. It includes the sources of their information and list of the preferred method or medium to which the information can be disseminated. It also determines the kinds of poverty alleviation programs suitable to their condition.

It has been established in the previous chapter that barangay officials portray significant communication roles in the flow of communication as bearers and conveyors of

information, both in a formal and informal manner. As the chapter describes the modes, patterns and flow of communication, it would be evident that there would be other roles that they perform which affect the flow of communication in the barangay. This reveals what Belen (1982) quoting Havelock (1971) construe that the barangay officials serve as link between the sender and the recipient of information - "between the most remote consumers of knowledge and the most remote sources of expert knowledge." Guinarez (1978) observed that the role of the barangay officials are essential especially in introducing new concepts, methods and ideas that may affect wellbeing, livelihood and security of the people.

It is important therefore to explore, describe and define these roles in order to recognise their importance in the delivery of information especially on poverty alleviation programs. Their strategic roles have not also been recognised by the government's hierarchical structure opting instead to use mass media and other high impact communication strategies. The chapter will be a realisation of the different communication roles of the barangay council on which strategies for future action may be gathered and recommended for effective adoption.

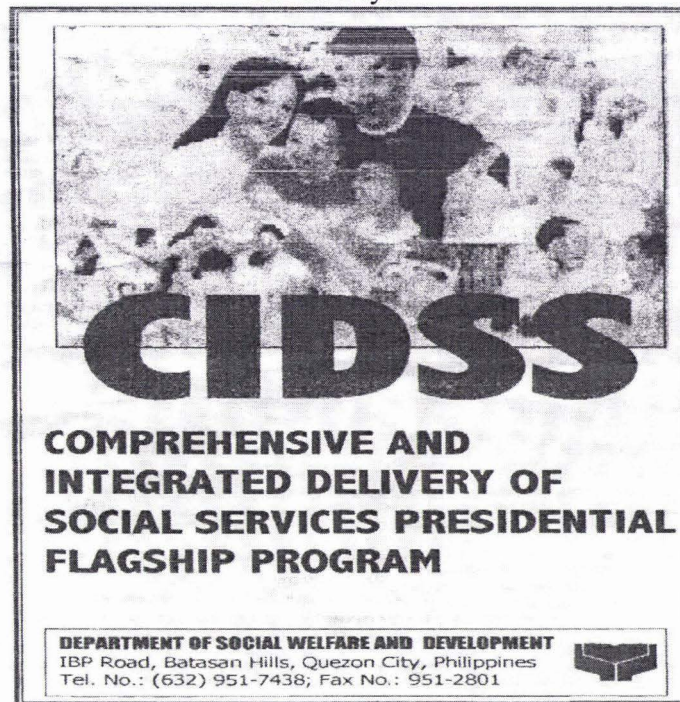
THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CIDSS

The CIDSS was implemented from FY 1994 to 2000 and was regarded as a flagship government poverty alleviation program. It was launched in the municipality by the regional DSWD-CAR office and to set-up the program in the barangay level, the municipal mayor was in hand to assist the barangay captain in introducing the program to the community. Several information materials were distributed to residents in the barangay to generate awareness on the program. The CIDSS implementer was introduced at the start of the launching of the program in the municipality and was present in the barangay assemblies conducted later to introduce the program to the residents. Information materials include posters, flyers, pamphlets and brochures. Later, a billboard was set-up in the *labasan* or entry point of the village to inform people that the barangay is CIDSS recipient barangay.

The CIDSS implementer distributed among residents in the barangay sample flyers during the orientation session on the CIDSS. Later this flyer was also distributed during

the house-house visitations of the CIDSS implementer and the barangay health workers (BHWs) who assisted in the program implementation.

Figure 8.1
CIDSS Flyer



The flyer was produced in English by the DSWD.

The CIDSS served more than a hundred families in the barangay and constructed infrastructure projects that are still in existence today. In a survey conducted by the researcher among CIDSS recipients, 46.6% said that the CIDSS helped them in the short term and 43.3% said it assisted their families in the long term. About 53% said that the CIDSS met their needs when it was identified and 40% said it did not. It was also gathered in the same survey that most of the recipients participated only in the implementation probably rendering labour services or joining in the conduct of seminars or lectures or joining assemblies. Very few were involved themselves in the project preparation and the post-project activities. This validated Del Rosario's (2003) observation that the same people may assume leadership roles in committees or associations formed to address their concerns.

A Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) survey was conducted to capture the poverty situation in the community given the indicators earlier discussed in Chapter 3. Eleven barangay health workers under the direct supervision of the CIDSS implementer carried this out

in the barangay. In the initial implementation of the CIDSS from 1994 to 1996 about 154 families served as initial program recipients increasing to 163 in 1987 to a total of 185 families in 1998. These families were identified through the MBN survey conducted by the CIDSS implementer assisted by eleven trained barangay health workers (BHWs). In the initial stage 100 families have to be chosen as recipients of the program. They are chosen according to the number of their unmet needs. However the specific criteria on what were the foremost needs that have to be met were not identified. Certain officials such as the barangay or the municipal officials may also have sifted the list that was prepared by the CIDSS implementer and the BHWs. It would be gathered that the list of beneficiaries has become a bone of contention among the residents. The recipient families became beneficiaries of different projects⁶¹ such as shelter assistance, livelihood trainings, organization and management building measures, leadership training, educational benefits and infrastructure facilities to name a few.

The identified needs of the members of the barangay are submitted to the barangay council to form part of the Barangay Development Plan (BDP). This plan is subsequently submitted to the Municipal Planning and Development Office for the municipal government to incorporate in its annual plans and programs. The data gathered in the MBN survey shall also serve as the basis for future intervention measures. In this manner of identifying needs, the people arguably have initially contributed to the policymaking process.

It was also heralded that the focus and success of the program is on the concerted action of the members of the community. At the social preparation stage, the CIDSS implementer explained the process of the program. Participation of the people in the community was emphasised. The whole concept was new both to the community and to the officials of the barangay. Bautista (n.d.) noted

CIDSS veers away from mobilising the community merely to facilitate the delivery of a package of social services imparted by technical people but of ensuring that the people's organisation (POs) leaders have a role to play in selecting the services applicable to them from a menu of projects. The people are given the opportunity to make decisions rather than to serve as mere recipients of "impact programs" defined or designed by key policymakers (PCHRD, DOST).

⁶¹ Please refer to Appendix 12 for the Summary of CIDSS Projects 1995 – 1997

The Convergence Strategy

The CIDSS prided itself on the strategy of convergence and inter-agency linkages. The principle was to unite all efforts of government, private and non-government institutions in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. It was said that at different levels of government, inter-agency meetings should be conducted in order to address the identified unmet needs of the communities. However, in the experience of Kamog, very few incidents manifested this kind of partnership.

It was the DSWD which funded most of its identified projects as part of the seed money allocated for the CIDSS implementation and only a handful of agencies or private institutions have linked up with either the DSWD or the barangay itself. Most of the projects that linked up with the DSWD were on the conduct of seminars and trainings on livelihood or introduction of agricultural methods and techniques, which did not necessitate much funding. Another activity was a sports event, which was initiated by a Baguio City-based organization, which coordinated with the Sangguniang Kabataan (youth council).

The roles and functions of government agencies involved in the implementation of the program were drawn up earlier to avoid duplication and redundancy in the activities undertaken⁶². For example, in the orientation of barangay officials, it is clear that the municipal government and the DSWD-CAR were those involved. In the execution of programs, the DSWD-CAR, the provincial and municipal governments both play certain key roles that complement each other. It can be noted though that the barangay council has no distinct role or function mentioned in the table prepared by the DSWD.

For example in the provision of livelihood assistance, the DSWD-CAR conducts the field monitoring and technical assistance and provides funding. The PSWDO on the other hand generates and provides funding support. The MWSDO assists in the selection of the beneficiaries and augments funds for livelihood training. The MWSO also assists in the preparation of project proposals and provide other support services. The CIDSS implementer follows up the identified beneficiaries and mobilises the committee formed in the implementation of the livelihood project.

⁶² Please refer to Appendix 13 for the Delineation of Roles and Functions of Agencies Involved in the CIDSS Implementation

The supposed linkage and convergence strategy of the program were good only obvious on paper. In some instances, as interviews generated from the field revealed, this was not carried out to its true intents and purposes. Officials lament that they are called in when the project is only in its conceptualisation or evaluation stage and very rarely were they ever consulted through various stages of project implementation. In the study area some officials said that the CIDSS was primarily run by the DSWD-CAR and the CIDSS implementer was the prime mover in the municipality. For example, in the municipality the CIDSS implementer was assigned to work very closely with the Municipal Social Work and Development Office. The MWSDO however said that their role too was ceremonial in nature.

I was called in at the start of the program in the municipality. The CIDSS implementer informs me of all the on-going programs and the MBN survey in the barangays. I would be invited at the commencement of projects and would be asked to give a speech. But after that I am only given reports and was not invited to be involved in the actual execution of projects. It was the CIDSS implementer who was in control of the whole situation. And at the yet at the completion of the project I am expected to submit accomplishment reports to the mayor and the DSWD regional office. (Interview, Sablan, July 9, 2003).

Likewise, in some instances of the program's implementation the role of the barangay council seem to have been neglected and relegated to a ceremonial role. It is the CIDSS implementer who has the upper hand in the execution of the program in the field and the authority to communicate with the other units of government. Most importantly, project funding is requested and implemented through the CIDSS implementer.

It was noted in the AusAid (1999, p. 78) report on the CIDSS that the municipal government is to support the implementation of the CIDSS in the barangay level by authorising the barangay captain to locally manage the CIDSS implementation. One barangay kagawad however said that they participated in the implementation and monitoring but their role was not as distinct as that of the members of the barangay CIDSS screening committee.

Progress reports (on projects) were disseminated but when it comes to implementation, the barangay officials are neglected (Written comment on survey questionnaire, Kamog, Sablan, July 2003).

For example, Table 1 details the functions of each office or individuals in the construction of the day care centre. It would be clearly gleaned that the barangay council has no defined role in the process.

Table 8.1
Delineation of Roles in the Construction of the CIDSS-funded Day Care Centre

| DSWD-CAR | PSWDO | MSWDO | CIDSS IMPLEMENTER |
|---|---|--|---|
| Conducts the technical assistance and field monitoring | Augments funding and maintenance of the day care centre | Facilitates preparation of Program of Work, sketch plan, lot donation, MOA | Organises the committee on the day care centre |
| Provides financial assistance on day care centre construction | | Identification of day care centre work and provides salary thereof | Prepares action plan Assists the community in project proposal and other documents, e.g. deed of lot donation, MOA |

Source: DSWD-CAR, 1995

It was established in the role delineation that the PSWDO will augment funding and maintenance of the day care centre but documents reveal that the provincial government has not provided any assistance in the maintenance or gave any funding support.

The project proposal was prepared by the CIDSS implementer which in the table indicated should be prepared by the proponents, in this case the created day care centre committee assisted by the local Parents Teachers Association (PTA). In the project's rationale, it was specified that the need met was the provision of a day care service facility to 3-6 years old children to safeguard them and to provide for early education. On the other hand, it was also mentioned that the construction of the day care centre shall "promote and strengthen awareness and cooperation among parents to respond to their community needs/problems in the barangay and enable them to have a positive attitude on their duties and responsibilities as parents."

In the brief description of the proposal, activities were detailed. Funds for the construction of the materials will be provided by the DSWD taken from the seed fund of the barangay as a CIDSS-covered area and the labour shall be the community's counterpart. The day care centre building shall be provided by the barangay "through negotiations of their officials/leaders."

The PTA in a formal discussion with the barangay council requested its assistance in facilitating the lot donation. In Resolution No. 60 series of 1995, dated 28 October

1995, the Kamog barangay council and the PTA herein represented by its president and Day Care Centre President requested the principal in-charge of the elementary school to donate 120 square meters for the construction of the day care centre. On 20 November 1995 in Resolution No. 95-221, the Sangguniang Bayan (Municipal Council) approved the barangay request for the principal to allocate the earlier requested lot for the construction of the day care centre. The approved resolution was endorsed to the municipal mayor and on the same day the municipal mayor issued a certification authorising the principal-in-charge to make the land available for the day care centre.

On 16 December 1995, the principal-in-charge certified that only 60 square meters of the elementary school lot would be available for the construction of the day care centre. No documents or formal complaint/s are available to show that the parents or the barangay council further contested the principal-in-charge's certification.

A memorandum of agreement (MOA) was drawn up by the DSWD-CAR as the first party, the Municipality of Sablan, second party and the Day Care Parents Committee of Kamog as the third party. The MOA again outlined the functions of each agency or committee. In the process, the role of the barangay council seems to have been hidden in the shadows. It is clearly evident in that its role was taken for granted or may have been subsumed to that of the municipal function and taken as an entirety as an LGU. However, its role in the process was explicit and needed. The barangay council in this respect need to be included clearly because the program is public in nature thus necessitating official representation such as in the case of the lot donation. The following table shall outline the identified premises and terms in the drawn MOA signed and sealed in November 1995:

Table 8.2
Some of the Provisions of the MOA in the Turnover of the Day Care Centre

| DSWD-CAR (First Party) | Municipality of Sablan (Second Party) | Day Care Parents Committee of Kamog (Third Party) |
|--|---|---|
| Premises | | |
| Recognises the participation of people as tool/means to achieve self-reliance in its programs and services | In addition to their existing functions and responsibilities provide basic services and facilities devolved to them including health and social welfare services through the maintenance of health and day care centres | (The) active party of the first party in the implementation of the day care program and the ultimate user of the centre |
| Through the CIDSS envisioned the construction of the day care centre in identified areas based | | |

| DSWD-CAR (First Party) | Municipality of Sablan (Second Party) | Day Care Parents Committee of Kamog (Third Party) |
|---|---|---|
| on criteria at a maximum amount of PhP 80,000.00 as its counterpart | | |
| TERMS | | |
| Disburses the amount directly to the Day Care Centre Committee through its Chairman | Assists the third party, thru its technical staff, in the undertaking of procedures and completion of necessary documents like Deed of Lot Donation and Sketch/Plan relative to the construction specifications | Implements the project employing standard procedures and to coordinate with the technical staff of the second party |
| Conducts periodic monitoring to ensure that the construction is undertaken as per plan and specifications | Provides counterpart in cash and in kind and supervises community volunteers in the construction | Provides food to be served to community volunteers during the construction |
| Conducts technical assistance relative to the implementation of the day care centre service upon completion of the Centre | Provides training expenses, salary and other benefits of day care workers | Maintains the day care centre |
| | Overseas the maintenance of the Centre | |

It is ironic that it is even mentioned in the MOA that Article 55 of RA 7160 or the Local Government Code of 1991 provides that “National government agencies with project implementation function shall coordinate with one another in the discharge of these functions. They shall ensure the participation of local government units in planning, implementation and monitoring of said projects.” However neither the DSWD nor the municipal government acknowledged it in the signed agreement.

The DSWD-CAR has fulfilled its role as defined earlier in Table 1 but its premise saying that it has “envisioned the construction of day care centre” defeats the purpose of the CIDSS main objective of allowing the community to identify its own needs. Nowhere in the MOA was it mentioned that the day care centre was a need that has been identified by the community and that it was the community who requested for its construction.

Further, it was mentioned that it is the role of the municipal government to oversee the completion of necessary documents may have been too overstated. It can be gathered from earlier documents that the municipal government only acted upon a joint request of the barangay officials and the parents group. The municipal government did not initiate its own action.

Further, the monitoring role was not explicitly worded as a joint undertaking in the MOA. It could be assumed that DSWD-CAR and the parents and the local officials may conduct separate monitoring efforts and may have form different conclusions. However, in the project proposal it was overtly indicated that the monitoring of the implementation of the project was to be conducted by the barangay officials, the day care parents committee and the DSWD implementer.

The supervision of volunteers has been delegated to the municipal government when it should have been the main responsibility of the parents group or even the barangay council as earlier stated. It can be said that it might have been identified for them in line with the need to for the program to produce major infrastructure high-impact projects as a poverty alleviation measure.

Finally, a certificate of acceptance was issued in 1997 by the barangay captain representing the “group leader,” presumably, the day care parents group, as the end-user of the project and accepts the said project from the DSWD. The certificate says, “We assume full responsibility for the proper operation and maintenance of the structure.” It then gives back the operation and maintenance role both to the barangay council and the day care centre parents group. It is clear that the day care parents group run the operations but the barangay council makes the major decisions since it is through their powers that requests can be communicated and facilitated.

Funding of the project was never made to the barangay council. The officials did not have any direct supervision or control in the disbursement of funds. It was the parents groups who were responsible for the disbursement of funds’ accountability and reporting. In a way it freed the barangay council of more work and the responsibility of tracking down details of the project. Moreover, it enhanced the skills and the abilities of the residents to carry out the financial aspect of the project.

Figure 8.2
Kamog CIDSS-constructed Day Care Centre



Barangay day care centre located in the central part of the barangay

But the non-involvement of political units such as the barangay may have been the true intent of the program. The program intends to empower people in the communities aside from those who have been elected into office. In this sense, the CIDSS has successfully fulfilled its objective of drawing people in other than those elected thus expected to participate and meaningfully contribute to the decision-making. Its merit lies in its “ability to develop the capabilities of the poor people in the community to undertake productive activities and seek to break down (previous) anti-poverty efforts into manageable and concrete ways as identified and decided upon by the community themselves (DSWD-CIDSS Information Flyer, 1994). However, not much can be done without the assistance of the barangay council since it is a government program.

Infrastructure Development

Most of the poverty alleviation projects in the barangay that were implemented were infrastructure projects such as the construction and improvement of farm to market roads. These projects were very visible and were designed to be high impact affecting the lives of a number of residents in the barangay. Income below subsistence level is the foremost identified need in the community. During an assembly called for the purpose of prioritising the identified needs in the MBN survey, it was revealed that the lack of farm-to-market roads is a predicament small farmers face in transporting their produce from their garden plots to the main trading posts. In order to address this need, infrastructure projects are proposed by the community, endorsed by the barangay council and supported to facilitate funding request by the CIDSS implementer. An

example of the project is the construction of the Peday farm to market road was one of the infrastructure projects that were implemented to increase economic activity in the barangay. A major road, its construction intended to benefit a third of the members of the community. The project feedback report states:

Since the farmers are very much affected with the problem on the road, they had been so enthusiastic and voluntarily sacrifice almost two weeks to work on the tirepathing project. Monitoring of the project by the committee and barangay council has been done to ensure proper implementation.

The barangay officials and Farmers Association of Kamog were enlightened and are helping that their tirepathing project will be continued to increase their production, which leads to the upliftment of their income. Tirepathing of the market road is a necessity in bringing about development and improvement of income and livelihood of the families (Balagot, 1998).

The tirepathing project was prioritised by the barangay after it has been identified as a need in the MBN survey. A project proposal was drawn and a legitimate organization in the barangay, in this case the Farmers Association of Kamog, implemented the project. Funds were released in the name of the Association as required by the program and certified by members of the community. The Association shall “facilitate and oversee the implementation of community development projects in infrastructure and livelihood.” The project in the amount of P93, 148.00 completing about 130 meters of the two-kilometre road was accomplished in 25 staggered days since the farmers also need to attend to their garden plots. The pictures below show the transformation of Sitio Peday farm to market road. This is a major road network linking not only Barangay Kamog to the national highway but also the innermost Barangay of Pappa. All types of vehicles can now traverse the area bringing goods and services to the people in these two barangays. However, during the rainy season only big vehicles can ply the route due to mud and landslides.

A Barangay-Municipal Assessment Seminar was conducted on 13 October 1998 to evaluate and study the program’s performance. In the feedback report of the CIDSS the municipal government was complaining that they do not have direct hold on the projects. This was because funding was directly released to the association/group officers especially on infrastructure projects. It was the experience of municipal officials “that when they questioned a project under CIDSS, they were told that by the community officers who took charge of the project that since the funding did not come from the LGU, it is not their business to monitor.” It was however pointed out that there

was a misinterpretation since in the orientation and organization of the community associations that the LGU is the overseer. “It was suggested then that the municipal guidelines on infrastructure projects be adapted to the CIDSS,” according to the feedback report.

Figure 8.3⁶³
Transformation of the Peday Farm to Market Road



⁶³ Photo of unpaved road courtesy of the MWSDO

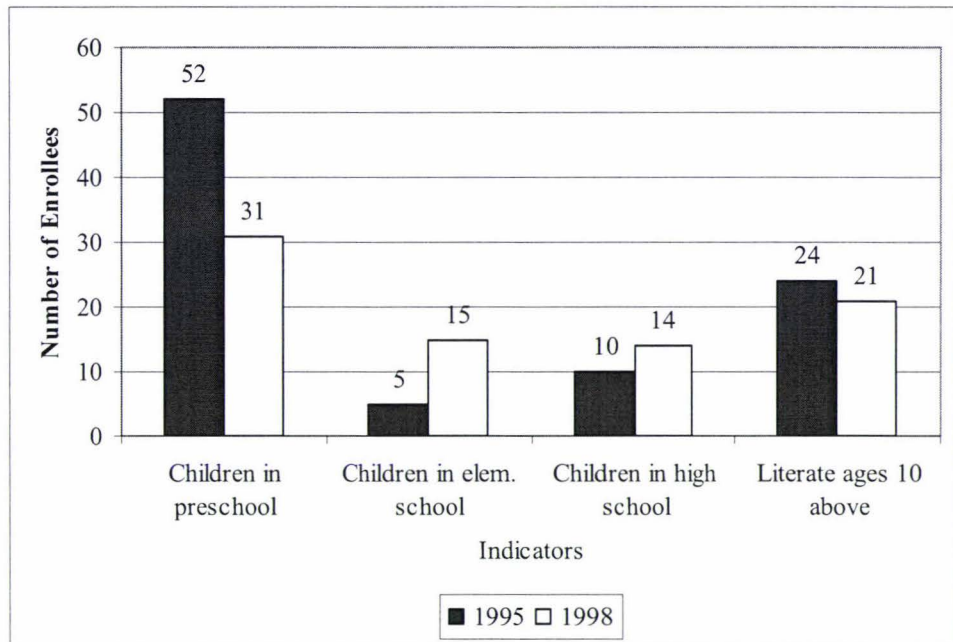
Encouraged by the CIDSS implementer, the people in the community set up their own mechanisms to monitor and evaluate the project. It seems that the LGU officials, specifically the municipal engineer, were not consulted in the process. The barangay may also seem to have been neglected in that it was just informed of the activities being undertaken. However, these projects, especially infrastructure, cannot exist without the supervision of local government officials. The strategy to involve everyone in the implementation of projects has failed. However, it was a good exercise in terms of project management for the community who seems to have felt the ownership to it. Political interests and self-preservation in terms of accomplishments may have compelled government officials to dip their fingers especially on high impact projects such as those that were implemented by the CIDSS.

Education

Education was one of the primary projects of the CIDSS. One of the projects of the CIDSS in terms of educational support was to assist graduating high school students. Stipend in the amount of PhP5, 000 provided for books, uniform and daily expenses to encourage students to finish high school. Likewise, funding was given to purchase school supplies for the day care centre in the barangay.

However education was not a priority of the people in the barangay. With the slight improvement in livelihood sending children to school became a problem. Increase in production in small farms necessitated the assistance of more family members especially children to assist in the work in the garden plots. Instead of employing workers on a daily basis, children especially those 10 years old and above are encouraged by parents to work in the gardens. Thus, there is an increase in the number of children who are out of school in the elementary level from 98% enrolment rate noticeable in the CIDSS MBN survey in 1994 – 1995. Dropouts in the elementary level remain unchecked due to garden chores of both parents and elder siblings.

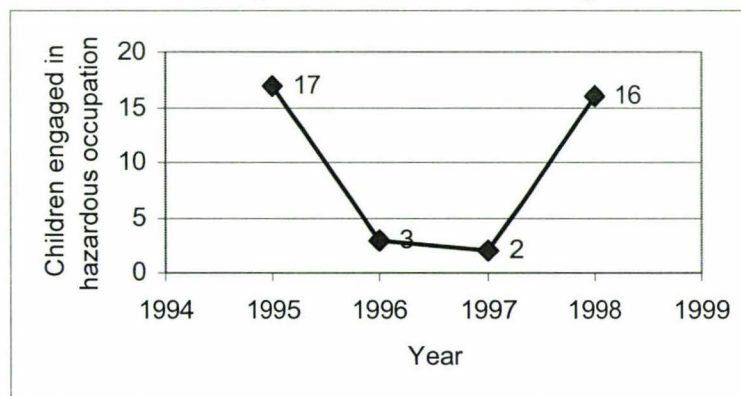
Figure 8.4⁶⁴
Comparative Basic Education and Literacy, 1995 and 1998



Source: Balagot, 1998

This development has also resulted to the increase in the number of children engaged in hazardous occupation. The exposure to pesticides and unsupervised work expose children to health and safety risks. In 1995, among 154 families 17 children below 15 years of age are engaged in or exposed to hazardous occupation and the number declined dramatically and rise again to almost the same number in 1998. In a feedback report in April 1998 on an emergency housing assistance provided to a house gutted by fire it was indicated that children and neighbours of the beneficiary rendered labour services.

Figure 8.5⁶⁵
Children Exposed to Hazardous Occupation



Source: Balagot, 1998

⁶⁴ Figures in real numbers

⁶⁵ Figures in real numbers

Enrolment in the high school level exhibited varying trends but recently has shown encouraging results. In 1994-1995, the enrolment rate in high school was 67% dramatically increasing to 81% in 1998.

Housing

One of the projects of the CIDSS is the Emergency Shelter Assistance Program, which gives limited financial or material assistance to families for the repair of their houses that were damaged by natural or man-made disasters. This program was one of the most popular in the barangay. Houses durable for at least five years have earlier been identified as one of the top ten unmet needs in 1995. In 1998, the need had been eliminated partly because of the shelter assistance program given by the CIDSS. Each beneficiary is given P2, 000.00 for house repairs. However, there are questions among residents on who actually benefited from the program and how they were identified. Moreover, disaster management training programs have escalated during the period to enable families to cope with these situations.

Figure 8.6
Galvanised Iron Sheets Provided by CIDSS for House Repair



The picture shows the galvanised iron sheets that would be used to build the walls and roof of this house, which is a recipient of the housing shelter assistance program.

One of the project proposals for house repairs involved 14 families initiated by the Kamog Environmental and Re-greening Association (KERA). The project rationalises that “with the low income, the families cannot save for repair or reconstruction of their

houses since their priority in their budget is food, medicine and education of children.” The program shall “purchase needed construction materials for the repair or renovation of walls, roofs, posts or windows of their houses.” It was emphasised that the assistance is “minimal and cannot buy the needed materials for the repair or reconstruction, so the family has to provide their counterparts.” It was also clear that the labour requirement is also a counterpart of the beneficiary. The KERA, the Barangay’s Council’s Committee on Disaster was in-charge of monitoring the progress of the project.

In order to avail of the assistance, the barangay council attesting to the truth of the family’s residency and a certification is then issued. It was further revealed that a screening committee endorses the application of the indigent family to the barangay for this certification. This is ironic and meaningless since these families could have been earlier identified by the MBN survey conducted.

Mr. Rene Bio, a resident of Tinekey, was identified during the MBN survey as one of those who need housing assistance and recommended to receive assistance in the amount of PhP 4,000.00. He was interviewed by the CIDSS and a case study was prepared. The barangay captain issued a certification of his residency endorsed by the CIDSS barangay screening committee. After which the CIDSS implementer prepares a certificate of eligibility to be submitted to the DSWD-CAR for funding.

Availment of housing assistance is based on many factors. It may not depend wholly on the finding of the MBN survey but on interpersonal relationships that the indigent family have with the barangay council, the members of the screening committee or the CIDSS implementer. It was not solely based on the merits of his case requiring dire assistance. Interviews with some CIDSS recipients reflected this observation. Below are some written comments in the survey questionnaires:

“...*Kanya Kanya*” (to each his own) system and “*palakasan*” (bias favouritism) system prevail.”

“During that time, I’m one of the kagawad. We participate in the implementation and monitoring but I am not a member of the screening committee. I observed that there is a bias that time especially in the housing and educational assistance.”

“I did not avail personally for ----- assistance because the screening committees are “*sipsip*” (to bribe subtly) and they do not like me, one of them is (a) cousin

of the extension worker in which she was the one who availed (of) housing and her two sons for ----- assistance”

The process itself of availing the assistance defeats the purpose of the CIDSS of stamping out bureaucratic procedures and making it more accessible to the people. In the process that was earlier described, it did not change from the usual and normal way of requesting social services. It might have been a difficult experience after being subjected to a case study by the CIDSS implementer and then being asked to request for certification and endorsements from the barangay officials.

In this respect the role of the barangay is more pronounced that without their certification that the family is a resident of the barangay, the indigent family cannot avail of assistance even if they have been earlier identified. Certain procedures like this may be considered merely paper work but still affects the delivery of social service.

Community Involvement

The CIDSS is a classic example of a self-help program assisted by a “change-agent” in the person of the CIDSS implementer. It followed the usual steps of the participation process as enumerated by Storey and Overton (2002, p. 28). However participation may have been limited by various factors such as the influence of the CIDSS implementer or the local officials. Nevertheless the participation process developed the potential of the community to identify leaders especially among women.

It is positive to note that the only identified need that has been met since 1994 is the involvement of family members in at least one legitimate people’s organization/association for community development. A consistent decline in non-membership was manifested from 76 among 154 families to 21 among 185 families in 1998. The entry of CIDSS projects in the community enhanced people’s participation in community work. Conduct of meetings to identify and prioritise projects develop and promote awareness among the people and elevate people’s consciousness to meaningfully contribute to decision-making which may affect their lives.

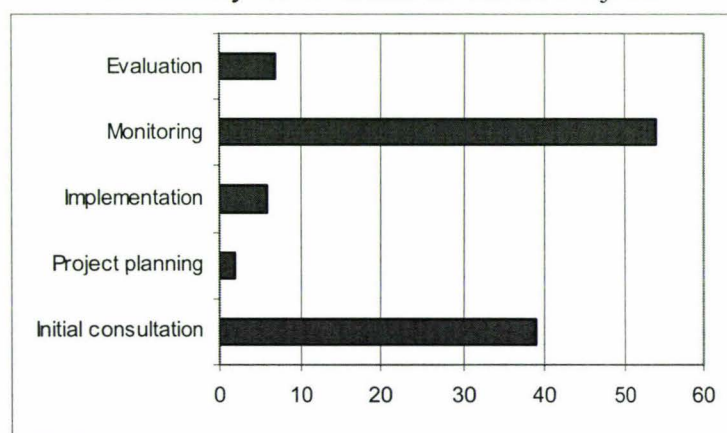
The increase in the number of people’s organizations/associations and the ability of the people to form mutually beneficial groups with shared goals are significant developments in matters of participation and governance. This is one of the positive

attributes the CIDSS has left as a legacy to the barangay. Most of the existing cooperatives do not include members from the remote sitios. With the newly organised cooperatives, officers are more diligent in trekking to remote sitios to ensure involvement and participation of people from these areas.

The barangay assemblies, seminars and orientations generate awareness among the people on the need for and built their confidence in active participation, community organising and mobilisation and leadership. Some of the more active organization members of the community have since become the community's mobilisers. Organizations formed are formal in nature necessitating a delineation of roles and definition of functions. The five-year evaluation of the CIDSS noted the willingness of the people to devote time to community activities and to lend their skills and abilities to community projects. The construction of the day care centre is one fine example as earlier illustrated and the volunteer work provided for infrastructure projects.

In a survey conducted among CIDSS recipients, 93% said that they participated in the program. Asked in what stage of the program they participated, it was clearly evident that very few people were involved in the pre-activities such as conceptualisation and planning stage and the post-activities such as monitoring and evaluation. Most residents participated only in the program implementation, which more often than not involve rendering free labour services. This parallels the earlier observation that the same people may have headed the associations and committees formed to implement the different projects throughout the CIDSS implementation in the barangay.

Figure 8.7
Community Involvement in CIDSS Projects



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The CIDSS likewise conducted several training programs to enhance the people's skills in several areas of organisational development and community organising. One of the training programs proposed was the "Project Development, Management, Feasibility and Study Project Proposal Preparation Training." This was attended by several leaders of different associations in the barangay funded in the amount of PhP 12,388.35 with the barangay council's treasurer as the fund disburser. Another training was the "Participatory Leadership Development Training" for 30 community organization leaders and officers initiated by the community volunteers and barangay officials. The three-day training was held on 16-18 November 1995 and was aimed to "provide knowledge and skills and value leadership and direct the participants to their line of interests and skills."

The training rationalised that

Community organising and development can only be effective and efficient when the people have the volunteerism and leadership to participate in community activities. More often, it is observed that most people get involved in community activities because of personal motives or interests and if they can be directly benefited but if not they are reluctant and generally disinterested and indifferent. Even the barangay officials are having the problem of getting the participation of the people in community meetings and activities.

However there are some people in the community who readily agree to volunteer for certain tasks. And so these are the same people who get nominated and elected to several positions in the different associations formed for several purposes. This is very similar to Del Rosario's (2003) observation on "committee overload" explaining that some community members sit in as many as 6 – 7 committees formed for particular projects (p.9). Likewise some Filipino values held tight in the consciousness and culture of the people is manifested in their choice of leaders. A person's community-wide reputation takes on "leadership capital" as with the other cultural factors that the community adheres to. No doubt the Filipino's value for *pakikisama* (smooth social interaction), *utang na loob* (debt of gratitude) and other status symbol such as age, wealth, education or religion are also some other major factors in the choice of leaders. At times factors such as a person's compassionate nature and approachable ways are given more emphasis than the traits listed above.

However the CIDSS implementer also recognised the “lack of capabilities and skills of some to lead and motivate their constituents to act or work collectively for a common goal.” The feedback report on the training on participatory and leadership training revealed

It was expected that the participants were community officers and leaders, they were to be active and motivated to participate in exercises, and however, on the first day they were shy and silent. But had gradually shown participation and enthusiasm on the following days since they were expecting a facilitator from the regional office but as no one came, they did still enjoy and cooperated in the three-day training.

With the presented outputs of their exercises, it is evident that they have internalised and learned insights. The barangay officials were awakened as to their roles and responsibilities in the development and promotion of unity and cooperation among the people for their common vision and mission. The organization officers/community volunteers as well had a better understanding of the goals and directions and hopefully they will be more active and really be leaders of the community.

In a diary one of the participants wrote, “through this training, we learned many things like: characteristics of a good leader, value and concept of coordination and participation; roles and functions of a leader and many other learning points” (21 December 1995, 12th meeting of the KALIMOSKA).

However, the DSWD likewise has a Food for Work (FFW)/ Cash for Work Program (CFW) designed to provide either food or a day’s wage in exchange for community work. The “Guidelines/Policies in the Implementation of FW/FCW Work Program” drawn by the DSWD-CAR states

Is a strategy for people’s participation in planned community development effort during the rehabilitation phase after the occurrence of disaster and also during mitigation and disaster preparedness activities.

One of this FFW/FFC projects in the barangay is the removal of landslides on barangay roads and foot trails and drainage canals in sitios Batilid, Banao, Beshing and Peday in December 1995. The project proposal prepared by the CIDSS implementer revealed that the proponents are the Barangay Council and the residents comprising 35 families with a project duration of eight (8) days with the amount of PhP18,200 as requested.

The rationale of the project revealed that the project took off from a resolution of the barangay to the LGU to clear the gravel roads and the foot trails. However due to the unavailability of funds no action was taken on the resolution. Request was made through the MWSDO but since there was no budget available, the budget was requested to be taken out of the CIDSS funds. The CIDSS implementer and not the proponent association or the barangay prepared the project proposal. The project also rationalised in the proposal that “their limited resources and their need to work for their daily bread are worrying them, thus limiting their participation to the *bayanihan*⁶⁶work which makes the work unfinished.”

In the road landslide clearing, she recommends the project to the DSWD-CAR for funding considering that “the hand to mouth existence of the families in the barangay, rendering free labour for a week of *bayanihan* community project is causing them burden. Much as the people are voluntarily rendering their time and efforts, their poverty stricken situation hinders them.

Further, the FFW/FFC would also “lessen the worries of families on where to get their food while they are doing *bayanihan* work.” Objectives of the project include the following:

- (1) To promote and strengthen the value of cooperation and collective efforts among the barangay residents of Kamog to work for their own development;
- (2) To lessen the burden of poverty among the families in Kamog and increase their voluntary participation in community activities/projects.

Another FFW/FFC project is the repair and re-installation of waterworks in Piswick-Kamog Central proposed by the Barangay Council and the Peday Kamog Waterworks Association in the amount of PhP13,000.00. About 25 people were involved and paid in the amount of PhP 65.00 for eight (8) days of work, which was disbursed, to the Association’s treasurer. The CIDSS implementer wrote in the evaluation and recommendation, “While we encourage volunteerism and participation among the community people, there are factors that have also to be considered.” This then acknowledges the people’s indigent stage and would therefore need to be compensated for time taken away from the field.

⁶⁶ Cooperation

Clearly the design of the projects meets the policies outlined by the program since it is a response to restore and rehabilitate the damaged community's road facilities. But as used as a strategy to lure people to participate in community activities is another matter to consider. But this is the classic "self-help" philosophy advocated by the development process itself. Use of local labour brings down the cost of projects and gives the local people a sense of "ownership" to the program. One person in the village proudly said, "I helped build that road." But this does not discount that most of the poverty programs that have been instituted in the past have left a "dole-out" mentality among the poor communities.

The CIDSS has started to veer away from this approach and was even slowly gaining success but with this strategy it somehow defeats the whole purpose. This was confirmed by an interview with the CIDSS implementer in whom she regrets that the dole-out mentality has not left the community's consciousness. "It was always what I (government) can give them every time I visit and not what they can contribute," she laments.

Livelihood Training Programs

The Self-Employment Assistance *Kaunlaran* (Progress) (SEA-K) Program despite providing interest-free loan for alternative livelihood projects was coupled with an integrated package of social welfare services. Thus it includes capacity building services. In a diary of one of the CIDSS beneficiary it was written

This day is the first day of our SEA-K seminar/training, we've done many activities such as the following: (1) writing activity about: a) myself; b) facilitator; c) the training; and d) co-participants. In doing so, there's awareness, leadership and the role to individuals. (2) Building a tower. In building a tower, we've learned that within the association there must be the following: a) planning; b) commitment; c) sacrifice; d) openness; e) commitment; f) trust; g) collective effort and unity/participation.

There's also a value that one must process. He must be hardworking and disciplined. (Diary of a KALIMOSKA member, 20 September, 1995)

At the end of the three-day seminar, applications were filled up and an election of officers ensued. It was presumed that a group was to be formed among those who attended the seminar. Thus on the 28th of September, she wrote that they held the first

meeting and named the Association KALIMOSKA or Kamog Livelihood Mobilisation of SEA-K Association. The initial deposit was PhP 20.00, the membership fee was PhP 10.00 and the processing fee for the application was PhP 10.00. On the 5th of October 1995, the members prepared their individual project proposals. The common project was gardening and because their produce can only be marketable every two months, they resolved to pay their contributions when they can readily pay. The beneficiary wrote that “Everybody have their own way of paying their weekly contributions.”

In the third meeting of the KALIMOSKA it was clear that there was a criteria for eligibility of loan and a screening committee to approve the application. She wrote on the 12th of October 1995, “All clients then we recommended for a loan assistance in the amount of PhP 3,333.33.” The identified livelihood activities include broom making, buy and sell of vegetables, and hauling of vegetables.

On the 4th meeting, a first resolution was passed providing for the Association to “transact business with the Land Bank of the Philippines, as the official depository bank of KALIMOSKA.” On the 5th meeting, it was resolved that the loan awarded to the association in the amount of PhP 100,000.00 would be named to the President of the association. On 10th of November 1995, the association received the amount and was deposited in the Land Bank of the Philippines.

On the 6th meeting on 3rd November 1995, the members signed a promissory note stating “We will pay the said amount prior to the requirements given.” The first three members received their loans on the 7th of December, the association’s 10th meeting. On the 9th meeting a poster “*Tulong Kilos sa Kaunlaran*”⁶⁷ was distributed among members. The beneficiary wrote, “This poster was being posted in our houses. Thus, reminding us always about *kaunlaran*.”⁶⁸

On the 14th of December, the beneficiary wrote that everybody paid the weekly payments in response to the requirements given. The final entry in the diary on January 1996 says, “We have not undertaken many activities. But the weekly contribution is still going on. The Association is still meeting every week and ---- (CIDSS implementer) is always monitoring us.”

⁶⁷ Self Help for Progress

⁶⁸ Progress

This detailed account of the association's activities visibly expresses the amount of participation of the member and their willingness to comply with requirements and other procedures. It was in interviews gathered that the association did not last long and that the loans were not repaid because they were use by members not for intended livelihood programs they have identified but to pay off old debts, to buy necessary medicines, to purchase basic essentials and food, and some kept the money for emergency purposes. This is despite the monitoring efforts made by the CIDSS implementer.

Other Seminars and Trainings

The CIDSS implemented several training programs and seminars, which fall under the capability building program. They were designed to enhance the readiness of the barangay residents to manage their own groups and associations in response to identified basic needs. However not all of these training programs directly corresponds to this defined objective.

One project sponsored by the barangay's Sangguniang Kabataan⁶⁹ (SK) and the out-of-school youth was the "Enhancement of Leadership Skills" conducted for two days on 23 February and 2 March 1997. However, the project description revealed that it is "a sports festival or sportsfest" and was a joint undertaking of the St. Louis University College of Nursing graduating students and was designed to "enhance the leadership skills of the youth and the members of the community."

The activity, according to its project proposal, would among others: "(1) develop constructive sports consciousness among the members of the community; (2) develop friendship and sportsmanship among the youth sector of the participating barangays; (3) enhance the talents of the youth and the community members regarding sports; and (4) enhance the leadership skills of the youth in order to become good leaders and followers towards Philippines 2000." There were major and parlour games with the SK members and those of the Pag-Asa⁷⁰ Youth Association, family members and graduating students of the St. Louis University College of Nursing. The project rationalised that 18.5% of the barangay's population comprise the youth sector and most of them are members of

⁶⁹ Youth Council

⁷⁰ Hope

the SK and other associations. However, it was observed that the out-of-school youth has created trouble in the community due to drunkenness. In order to address this idleness, the project was proposed to be able to tap their skills in playing volleyball, basketball and develop other talents such as singing or the playing of musical instruments. Though there was no mention of any activity in the project on the latter.

The budget in the amount of PhP 16,040.00 was proposed and submitted for funding to the DSWD-CAR and some minor prizes were solicited from donations of the members of the community. The barangay captain, a faculty member of the SLU-CN and the CIDSS implementer, noted the project proposal.

Further interviews on this project revealed that it was not the youth who forged the partnership with the SLU-College of Nursing but was an initiative of the CIDSS implementer and the MWSDO. It was only the desire of the SK to come up with projects for the youth in the barangay. The project title, description and mechanics were prepared by the CIDSS implementer and were only signed by the SK chairman. The SK chairman was granted authority through a resolution to disburse the funds. He said that he only withdrew the money and handed it to the sportsfest organisers to disburse. However, the group who facilitated the sportsfest instituted proper accounting and reporting.

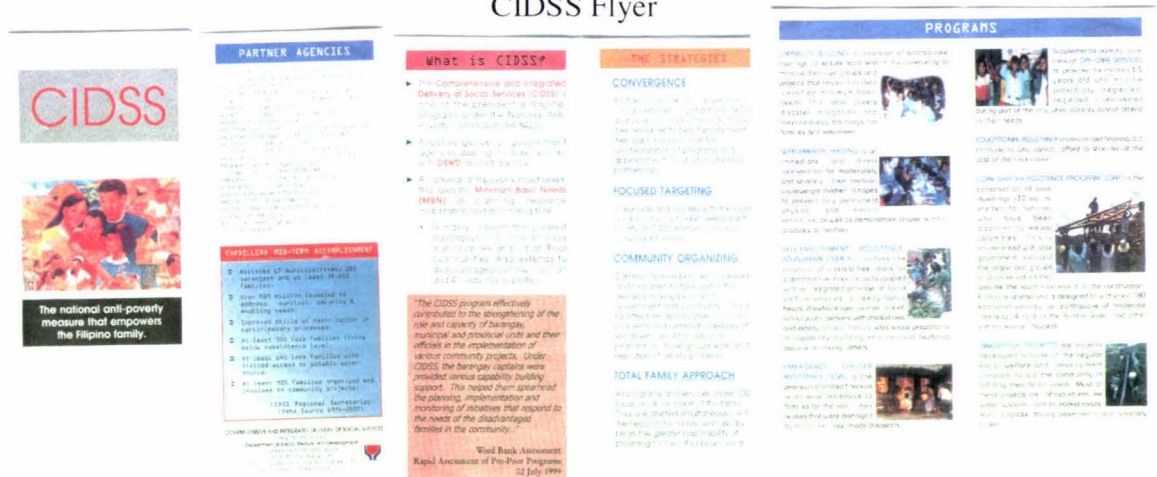
Communication Mode of the CIDSS

People in the community are generally aware that the CIDSS is a government poverty alleviation program according to the survey conducted by the researcher. Information gathered on the CIDSS prior to the implementation came primarily from the barangay captain. This is what Fawles and Alexander describes as “rely (ing) on information on others” because information cannot be obtained first-hand (1978, p. 16). It is assumed by people in the community that if the information comes from reliable sources such as the barangay officials the uncertainty is reduced. In this respect, the barangay’s accountability to the people to deliver accurate, reliable, and timely information is crucial.

As not all the residents may have attended the assembly called for the purpose of informing people about the program, the figure below enumerates their other sources of information prior to it implementation.

Various information materials were distributed by the CIDSS during the implementation from FY 1994 – 2000 to the different sitios. The CIDSS implementer distributed this flyer below in the barangay during general assemblies and visits to sitios to generate or reinforce awareness on the program. The DSWD-CAR produced different kinds of information materials mostly in English. Posters were also distributed to LGUs and were placed in different strategic places in the municipality and in the barangays as well as in PUJs. Below shows one flyer distributed during the mid-term implementation of the program, which included the partner agencies, its programs and strategies. The flyer focused on the “family wellbeing approach” of the program. The flyer included the World Bank favourable assessment of the program as well as the accomplishments of the program

Figure 8.8
CIDSS Flyer

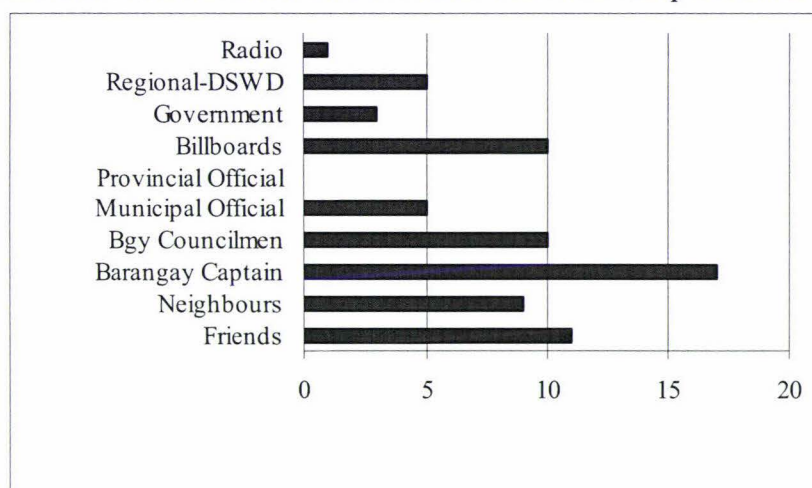


Flyers produced by the CIDSS Regional Secretariat in Baguio City

In the initial implementation of the program in 1994-1995, residents have minimal exposure to mass media. There may have been very few people who listened to the radio and watched television more so purchase newspapers. Government publications were also very few. One of the best information methods of generating awareness is through the setting up of billboards, which was an activity well accomplished by the CIDSS implementers. At the entrance of the barangay, a billboard announcing the area as CIDSS covered was strategically set up. It was the only billboard set up but lasted

for almost five years. The role of government officials outside of the barangay slowly fades when programs are in its implementation phase in the barangay level. The task of informing the people is partly left to the municipality mostly on a ceremonial basis and the greater responsibility is turned over to the barangay council.

Figure 8.9⁷¹
Sources of Information on the CIDSS Prior to Its Implementation



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The manner of distribution of information on the CIDSS during its implementation was always by messengers. Eleven barangay health workers (BHWs) assisted the CIDSS implementer in her tasks aside from a core group that has been formed earlier. These barangay health workers served as messengers of the CIDSS implementer. Thus, for instance, to inform a recipient that the emergency assistance for housing repair has been approved, the CIDSS implementer would most likely ask the assistance of the BHW to send the information.

When the residents received information on the CIDSS programs, the survey revealed that most people seek additional information generally from the barangay, the CIDSS implementer and from relatives and friends.

Discussing the information received is vital in the process. The survey results revealed that the information they have earlier sought is best discussed with the immediate family, relatives, friends, barangay officials and the CIDSS implementer in that order. Belen (1982) in her study of development communication flow in the barangay level

⁷¹ Figures in percentages

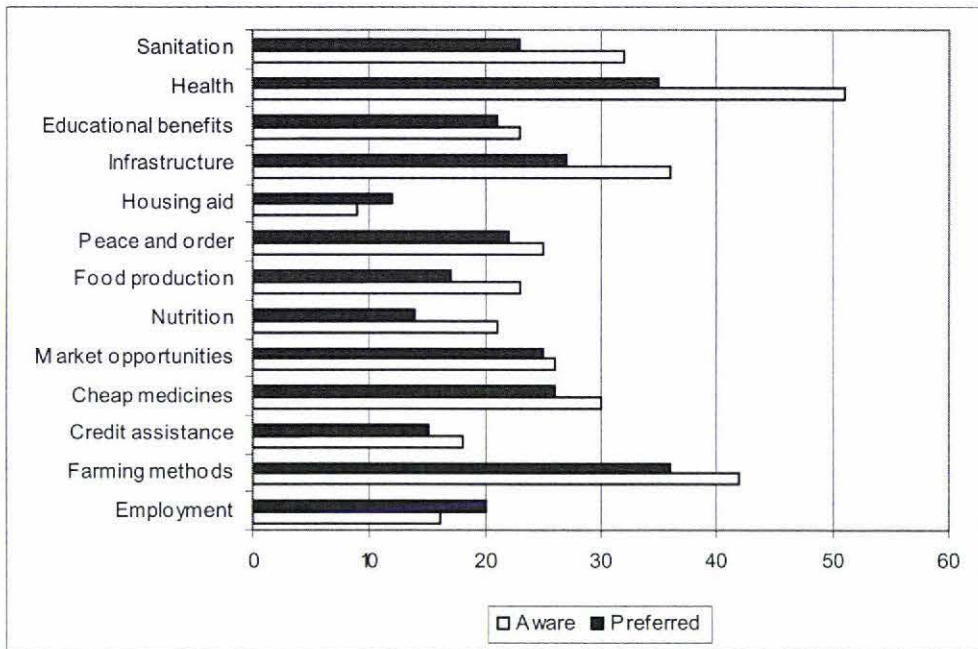
surmises that the family, friends and relatives takes over the place of certain information sources or even mediums after the initial stage of introducing a particular program.

Information materials include posters that were placed in strategic places all over the barangay and a billboard was put up in the central part of the barangay to generate awareness of the people on the program. Information materials were also distributed to members of associations or committees formed. This was mentioned earlier in the diary of the CIDSS livelihood beneficiary.

Interpersonal communication characterised the implementation of the program through house-to-house visitations in the sitios conducted by the CIDSS implementer assisted by barangay health workers. Flyers and other information materials were distributed during the house visitations. It was also became a regular activity for the people to be called in for assemblies to identify and subsequently deliberate on priority projects to be implemented.

However, the information that the residents gathered on the CIDSS prior to its actual implementation and the information they directly received from the CIDSS implementer matched. The sources of information of the people prior to the formal implementation of the CIDSS and during its implementation showed various changes. But it was clearly evident that during the implementation stage, the CIDSS worker was the source of information more than the barangay and that mass media was being considered as a source of information. Billboards and government publications were only used during the start of the program's implementation and were not sustained. The diminishing role of the municipal government was also evident.

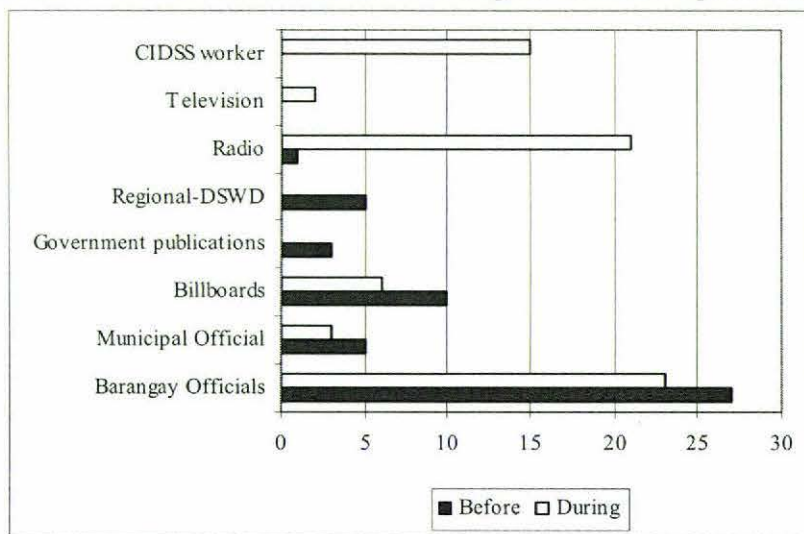
Figure 8.10⁷²
 Prior Information Received on CIDSS Services
 Versus Information Received from CIDSS Implementer



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Below is a more comprehensive discussion of the recipients' perception on their sources of information. The tables with figures in percentages reveal their level of satisfaction of radio, interpersonal and institutions used by the CIDSS to disseminate information and to gather feedback on the government program's implementation as a poverty alleviation measure.

Figure 8.11
 Sources of Information Before and During the CIDSS Implementation



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

⁷² Figures in percentages

Information Materials. The researcher conducted an evaluation of the information materials used during the CIDSS. Some of the materials were only evaluated as the respondents remember them posted on strategic places in the barangay or as distributed either by the CIDSS implementer, BHWs or the barangay officials.

One of the information materials produced by the DSWD-CAR is a brochure which may have not been distributed in Kamog but to policymakers as the inside pages detailed accounts of how the CIDSS made a difference in the life of the people in the region.

Figure 8.12
Brochure on the CIDSS Accomplishments in the CAR



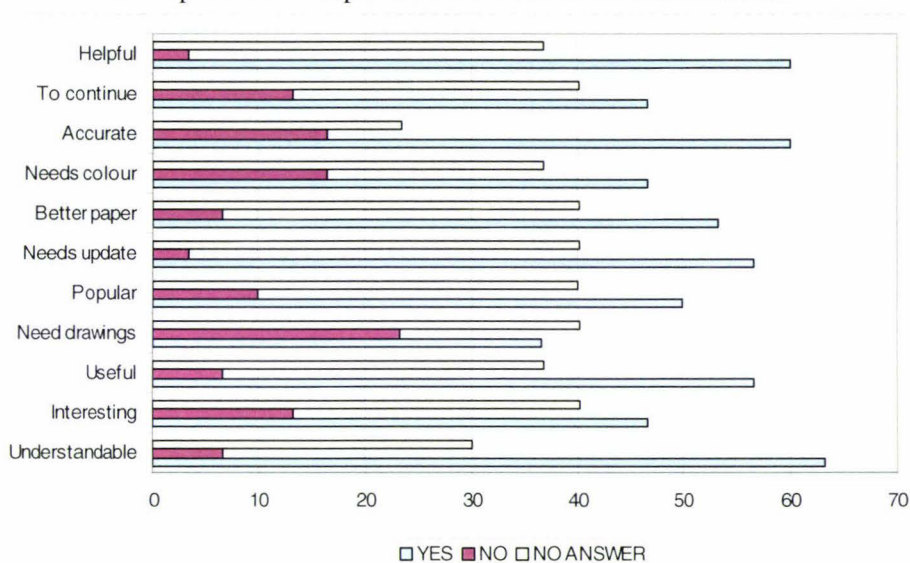
CIDSS and the Cordillera Experience

Source: DSWD-CAR, 1999

The figure below describes the level of satisfaction of the recipients of the program on information materials produced to generate awareness on the CIDSS in the barangay. It revealed that most of the respondents favourably accepted these materials. About more than half or 60% found that print information materials have accurate information and were helpful. About 56% said it contained useful messages and can be easily understood. However, an equal number also felt that the information should be updated.

Only about 46% of the respondents said that these information materials should be continued. Only about 36% said that the publications need more drawings, 53% said it needs to use better paper and about 46% said it needs more coloured pictures. Most of the favourable comments were made on the content of the publications and not on the physical appearance of the publications. The number of those who did not answer was also worth noting. It was deduced from interviews later that these information materials were exclusively distributed to those who attended the assemblies and seminars. Posters were the only materials widely distributed to most households and not these information flyers, brochures and pamphlets.

Figure 8.13⁷⁴
 Recipients' Perceptions on the Information Materials



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Radio. The mountainous terrain and the interior location of the barangay make it difficult for radio to reach the barangay on a clear signal. Other sources revealed that at that time the Catholic-run radio station, DZWT, and Bombo Radyo have not yet improved their infrastructure facilities thus there may actually be a scant number of radio programs that can be listened to and beamed as well to the barangay and may have been only on some designated hours like early in the morning or late at night.

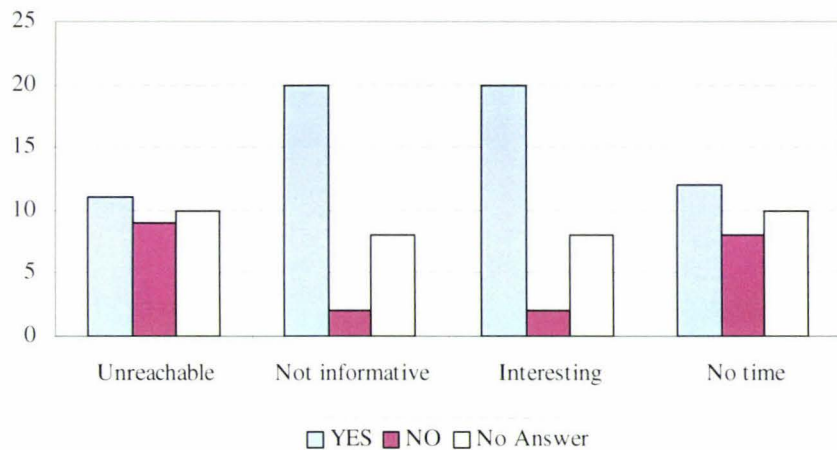
As exhibited earlier, people's exposure to radio in the area was very minimal during the CIDSS implementation. Respondents have varied answers when asked if radio news programs reached them in the barangay. About 36.6% said that their area cannot be

⁷⁴ Figures in percentages

reached by radio and 33.3% did not answer. This revealed that listening to the radio was not a regular activity of the people.

As can be gleaned from the figure below about 66.6% of the respondents agreed that radio was informative and interesting. However, 33.3% did not give any answer. Likewise, only a handful of people or about 40% wanted to listen to the radio but have no time. About 26.6% said they do not want to listen and about 33.3% did not respond. The number of people who did not respond to questions is significant. It may draw us to the conclusion that radio was a medium that was admittedly used as a source to gather information.

Figure 8.14⁷⁵
 Recipients' Perceptions on Radio Programs



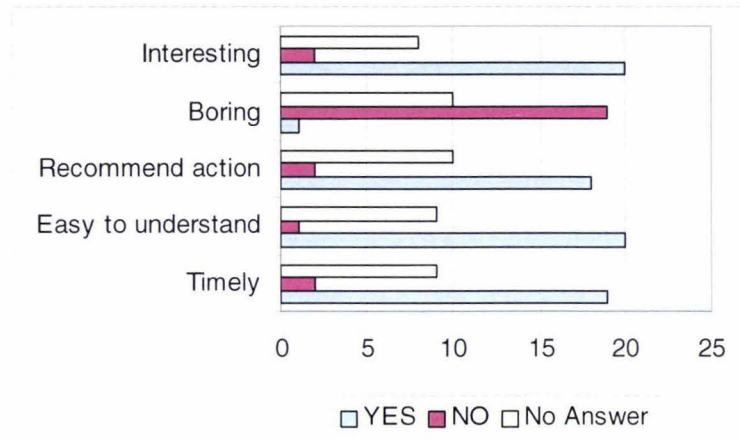
Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Seminars, Workshops and Lectures. People in the barangay generally favoured the conduct of seminars, workshops or lectures. The figure below reveals that about 63% agree that these activities conducted were timely and only 2 of the 30 respondents or about 6% disagreed. About 30% did not respond. About 66% of the respondents also said that the information given during talks or lectures were easily understood. Only one disagreed but 30% also did not respond.

About 60% of the respondents said these activities tend to recommend feasible courses of action on certain concerns or problems in the barangay. This method of gathering information was also not considered boring by 63%.

⁷⁵ Figures in real numbers

Figure 8.15⁷⁶
 Recipients' Perceptions on Seminars, Workshops and Lectures



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

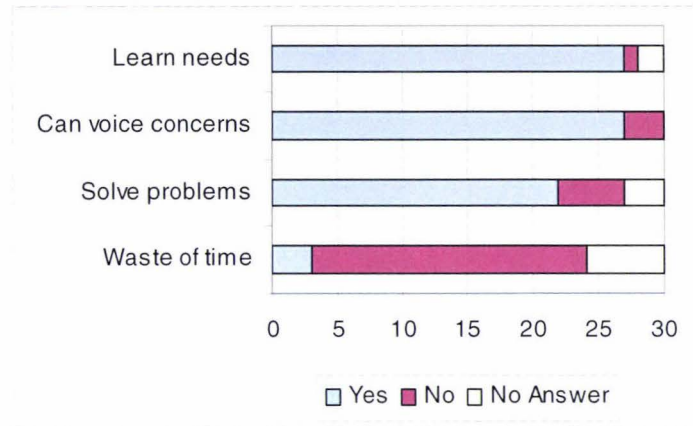
Forums, Meetings or Assemblies. The data collected revealed that among all the methods used by the program in informing people about the progress of the program, forums, meetings or assemblies were the most effective. The survey gathered revealed that a large number responded to the question. It was gathered that most of the meetings were well attended even if they were called when people were working. Each household ensured that they are represented in these meetings.

About 76% did not agree that these meetings were a waste of time. Only 20% or 6 of the 30 respondents did not answer. Three disagreed. About 22 of the 60 respondents or about 73% also believed that community problems can be solved in inter-personal gatherings such as forums, meetings or assemblies and or about 16% disagreed.

Ninety percent of the respondents agreed that this kind of communication activity could also serve as venues to ventilate and voice concerns on matters affecting the community. Only 10% disagreed. Likewise, 90% believed that in these gatherings officials and those concerned could learn more about people's needs.

⁷⁶ Figures in real numbers

Figure 8.16⁷⁷
 Recipients' Perceptions on Forums, Meetings or Assemblies

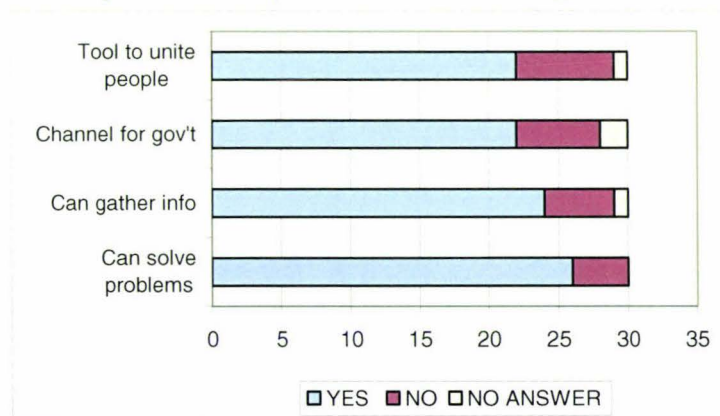


Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Farmers' Organizations

The barangay has a number of farmers' organizations of which most residents in the community are members. According to the survey conducted, about 86% believed that these organizations should assist in solving problems and concerns pointed out by members. To about 80% it was one way of effectively gathering information from the people. It was perceived those needs were easily articulated in a collective manner and would merit more attention than when raised individually. Because similar people with similar beliefs are joined together, it can be a tool to establish unity among the people on what they want to do as a community. For about 73% believe that government can utilise these organisations as a channel to disseminate information to the people.

Figure 8.17⁷⁸
 Recipients' Perceptions on Farmers' Organisations



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

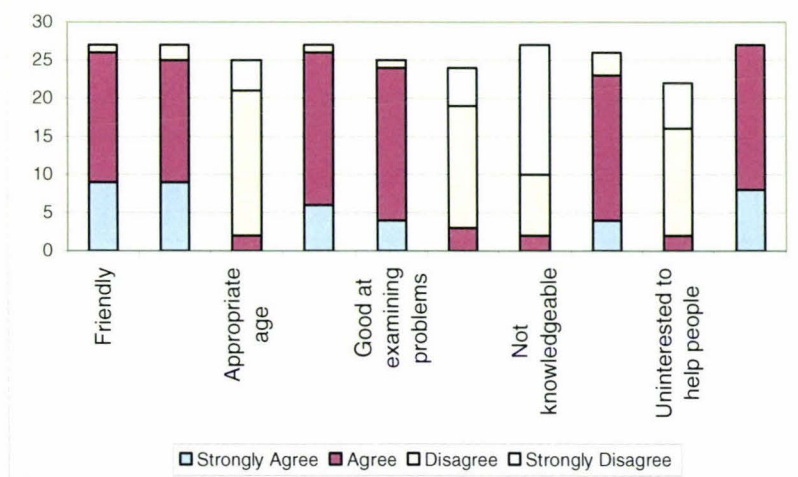
⁷⁷ In real numbers of multiple responses

⁷⁸ In real numbers of multiple responses

CIDSS Implementer. The CIDSS implementer acted as a change-agent, an intermediary, “whose role was to intervene, primarily, as a catalyst in an endogenous process of self-regeneration” (Rahnema, 1992, p. 230). The CIDSS implementer tried to be sensitive to the needs of the community. However, it may have been probable that to earn accomplishments for the regional office, for one, she might have been, in some cases the “promoter of participation rather than a sensitive party to a process of mutual learning” and may have become for some projects “the self-appointed authority on people’s needs and strategies to meet them” (ibid., p. 230-231.).

The MIAC should select the CIDSS implementer to be assigned in the barangay according to the program summary. In this case, the CIDSS implementer in the three barangays was selected by the DSWD-CAR. However, she has met the criteria such as willingness to stay and be immersed in the community, familiarity with the local language and culture. These qualities are important for a CIDSS implementer as former DSWD Secretary Lina Laigo (2001) “skill and adaptability of the workers are important qualities as these allow them to adapt the service to the requirements of the beneficiary.” The survey conducted by the researcher on the CIDSS recipients’ level of satisfaction of the CIDSS implementer generated very positive results. The following table show the levels of agreement of recipients on the different personal qualities thought to may have an effect on the efficient and therefore successful delivery of the program.

Figure 8.18⁷⁹
 Recipients’ Perceptions on the CIDSS Implementer



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

⁷⁹ Figures in percentages

Interviews with the CIDSS implementer also revealed the frequency of her visits facilitated the efficient implementation of programs. The CIDSS implementer conducted house-to-house visits especially during the MBN survey to assist the BHWs conducting the survey and to be able to familiarise herself with the community. She would talk to the people and personally ask them about their conditions and concerns.

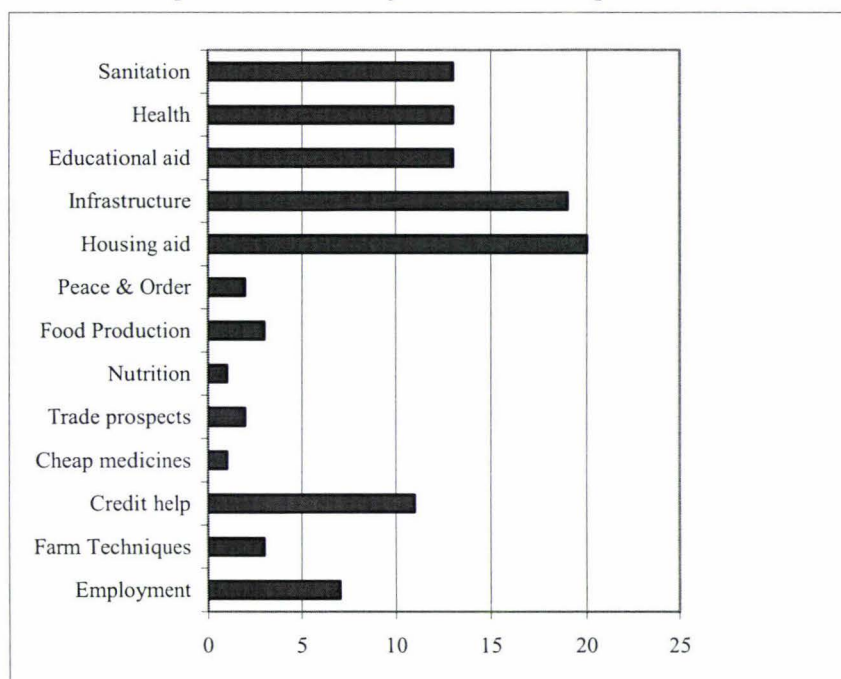
The number of reports generated by the CIDSS implementer to document projects was readily available from files of the MSWDO though only until 1998. Most of the people live in sitios and her visits more frequently to the central part of the barangay so responses on the frequency of her visits were not the same. But more often the recipients said that her visit was once a week. A confirmation with the CIDSS worker revealed that she usually visits the barangay on Tuesdays or Thursdays. The length of her visits varied from a whole day to a few days depending on the need for her presence in the barangay. As the prime mobiliser of the program, the CIDSS worker had acknowledgedly opened, established and maintained good relations with the barangay officials and the residents of the community. This she was able to maintain throughout the implementation of the program.

However, there were certain aspects of the implementation, which the CIDSS implementer has somehow failed to strengthen which was crucial in the end. Among these was the convergence of the municipal and barangay involvement in the program's different phases. It could have been resolved by opening communication lines to and from the community and the officials such as frequent holding of dialogues and other informal meetings. The reports should not have been confined to written accomplishment reports and pictures to support such project updates. Inter-personal communication could have avoided such conflict.

Laigo (2001) as the DSWD secretary during the CIDSS implementation in Kamog, also said that as the service provider, the CIDSS implementer "has to make decisions on appropriateness of intervention and whether it is helpful to the target beneficiary. The skilled worker is able to retool the interventions and to make it more responsive to clients" (ibid.). To be able to do that she has to continually look for alternative ways to address the identified needs. The CIDSS implementer lamented, however, that despite the CIDSS aim to develop a community-driven needs approach to deliver poverty alleviation programs; the dole-out mentality is very much evident among the residents.

In a survey the recipients were asked what information were disseminated by the CIDSS implementer and the following figure show their responses. The topics discussed by the CIDSS implementer clearly matched the projects that were later implemented. These projects include housing and educational assistance, construction and rehabilitation of infrastructure facilities, toilets, and livelihood assistance.

Figure 8.19⁷⁶
 Topics Discussed by the CIDSS Implementer



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Need for an Information Centre. The survey gathered that the 93.3 % of the respondents wanted to have an information centre in the barangay that would address their concerns and problems related to the implementation of the CIDSS. Location according to 90% should be in the barangay hall. If this was not possible, a significant number said that they would want it located near the barangay hall. Given this option about 10% said they would not want the information centre located near the barangay hall and presumably preferred it to be located near the sitios where they are residing.

Visitations of Government Officials. President Ramos was said to be the chief salesman of the poverty alleviation program. As such, it was also important that line agency officials visit the areas where the program is being implemented. Thus in the course of

⁷⁶ Figures in real numbers of multiple responses

the CIDSS in Sablan, DSWD Secretary Lina Laigo visited Banangan, the showcase barangay of Sablan. Kamog and Pappa were too far but almost all the beneficiaries, screening committee and especially the barangay officials were invited to have a discussion with her. In her talks with the officials and the people from the different barangays, according to an interview with officials and beneficiaries of the program, they remember she emphasised that government was working to make the program beneficial to them and that the DSWD was committed to fund the projects. It was the first time that a national official implementing poverty alleviation gave importance to the municipality. Most of the national officials visit the municipality before elections. For the people, it was an important visit and which they still vividly remember.

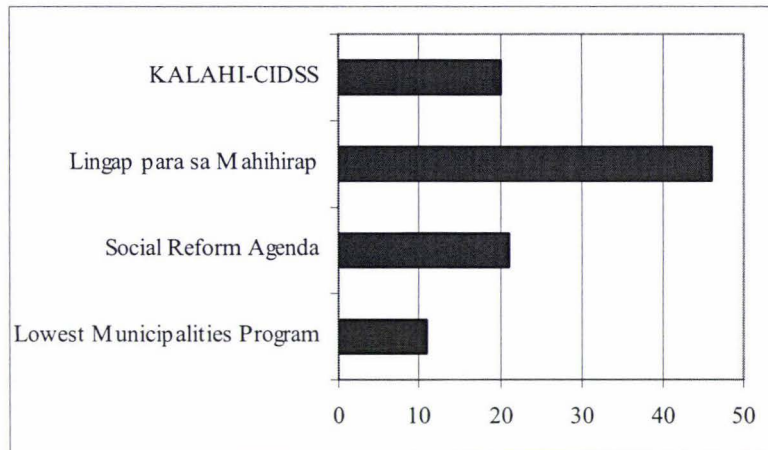
AFTER THE CIDSS IMPLEMENTATION

Poverty alleviation programs of the government targeted small communities both in the urban and rural areas. After the implementation of the CIDSS, Sablan has not been a recipient of specialised government poverty alleviation programs because Benguet's poverty indicators had increased and focused was given to the more distressed provinces in the region such as Ifugao, which has consistently ranked 4th among the poorest provinces in the country. This is despite of the fact that the localisation of the CIDSS program never took off in the municipality because of lack of funds to continue most of the programs that has been started. The programs have now been incorporated into the development plan of the municipality and an allocation is given to each barangay upon submission of its priority programs.

In a survey conducted by the researcher among residents some of the poverty alleviation programs that they were most aware of from 1986 were the Lingap Para sa Mahihirap Program of President Estrada, the KALAHI-CIDSS of President Arroyo, and the SRA of President Ramos. The residents hardly heard of President Aquino's anti-poverty programs. People's awareness of Estrada's Lingap Program confirmed the World Bank's Report Card on Pro-Poor Services Survey in 2000. This could be attributed to the popularity of Estrada as a former actor and not due to the concentration of the poverty alleviation program on generation of awareness.

Figure 8.20⁷⁷

Residents' Perception of the Government's Poverty Alleviation Programs, 1986 - 2002

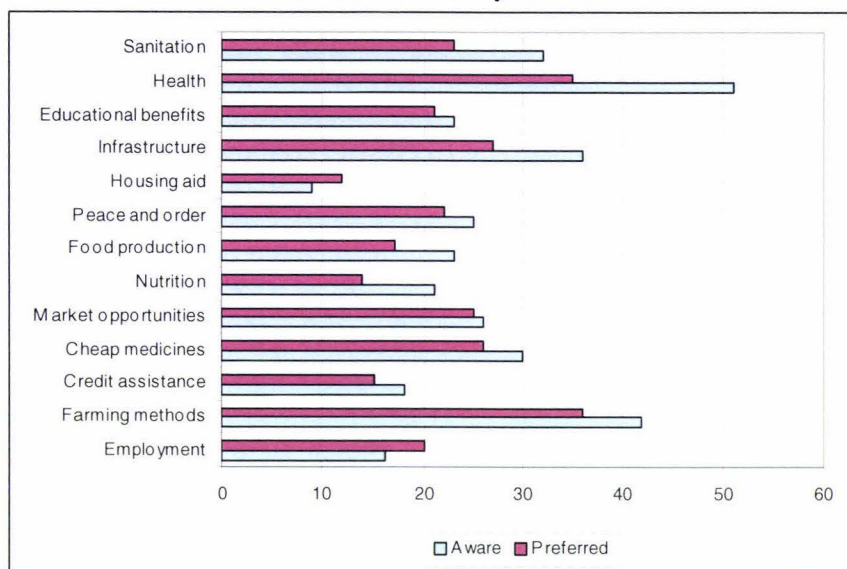


Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Comparing the government services residents were previously aware of and what residents prefer now, it was very evident that their revolve around their wellbeing, livelihood and security are foremost but not necessarily in that order. Among the poverty alleviation program services, health, inputs on farming techniques and methods, and infrastructure were their foremost needs. The figure below clearly displays these needs. It is clear too that what they were aware of parallel what they prefer. Employment and housing aid were the concerns the people prefer now than before. Very few were aware before and even today of housing aid benefits, nutrition, credit assistance and employment. Peace and order has also been a more preferred need today than when they were aware of it. Food production though was another service that people most prefer now for government to focus on. Infrastructure continues to be a need of the community and was a concern that the people would want prioritised.

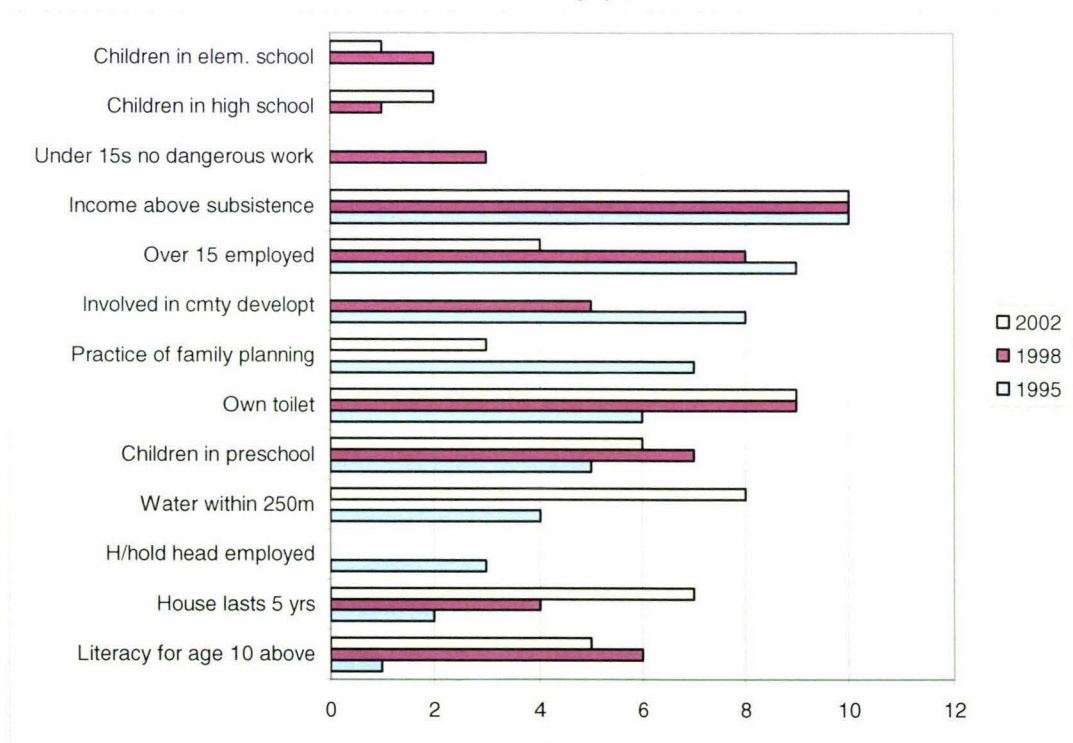
⁷⁷ Figures in percentages

Figure 8.21⁸²
Poverty Alleviation Services People Were Aware
and Services They Prefer



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Figure 8.22⁸³
Unmet Needs of the Barangay, 1995, 1998, 2002



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

⁸² Figures in percentages

⁸³ Figures in percentages

Despite some gains over the last few years especially after the implementation of the CIDSS in 2000, the barangay still struggle with poverty. It was noted however in the five-year evaluation report of the CIDSS that the involvement of at least a member of the household in a legitimate association in the barangay had dramatically improved. It is the only indicator that had dramatically decreased over the five-year period and was totally removed from the list by year 2002. The meaningful involvement and active volunteerism of residents in the barangay was observed in a number of projects implemented. Their vigilance in the implementation especially of infrastructure projects forced the barangay officials to be more transparent and open to balance and check.

In the latest poverty indicator released by the NCSB, it was noted that Benguet's annual poverty threshold is P14,185.00 necessitating an individual to earn about P1,182.08 per month. Alleviation of poverty by increasing the income of families above the subsistence level and the employment of family members 15 years old and above seem to be the main priorities of the barangay. The widening gap between those who earn a monthly income of PhP 4, 000.00 and above from those earning between PhP 1,000.00 to P2, 000.00 is widening. There remain very few employment opportunities for both men and women in the barangay and employment in the urban centres are very few and more competitive.

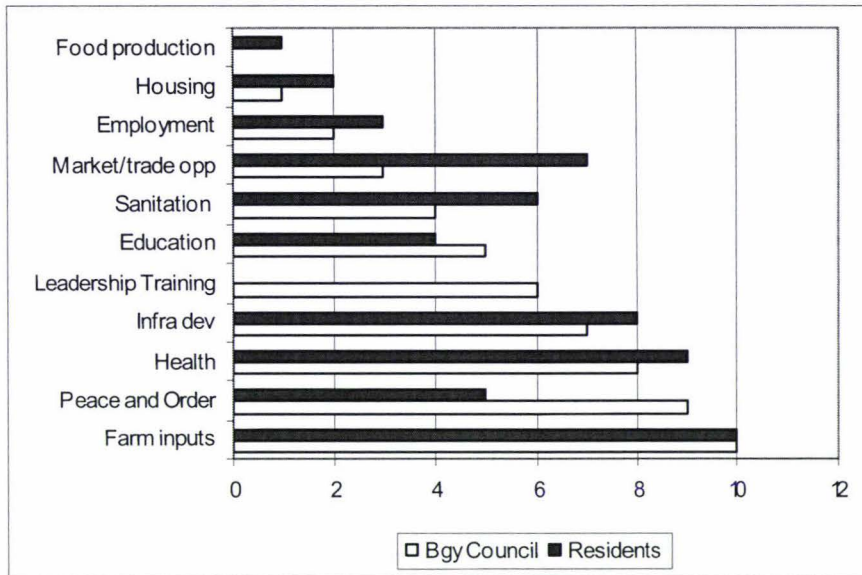
The positive economic change that may have been generated by the program from 1994 – 2000 was not wholly sustained. Two years after the CIDSS implementation, the residents identified the ten most unmet needs of the community in a survey conducted and on various interviews and on a focus group discussion with women and the barangay council. The results clearly indicate that conditions brought about by their inability to meet their minimum basic needs remain.

Identified needs in the initial survey in 1994-1995 that were eliminated in 1998 were resurrected in 2002, such as the lack of potable water and the practice of family planning methods. Some indicators remain from 1994 to 2002, primarily on income, which continue to be below subsistence level, lack of toilet among others. Official statistics in 2002 on these indicators however are unavailable but personal observation reveal that the life of the people crystallise the starking reality of their inability to meet their needs.

There are also other indicators, which have not been earlier identified which have now developed into pressing problems in the community. These indicators include those of peace and order and more specific ones such as the need for power supply, training for livelihood, agricultural inputs, and food production and credit assistance. The barangay council have identified most of these needs specific needs. The need for infrastructure development has been specified to include need for waterworks system or power supply, construction, improvement or rehabilitation of farm-to-market roads or the clearing of canals. Market and trade opportunities also reveal different needs such as the lack of market opportunities, livelihood training programs and projects, credit assistance. The health needs are also numerous to include the need for cheap medicines or family planning practices. Sanitation includes toilet facilities and proper waste disposal in the community. Education includes enrolment in all levels, number of children in-school and their drop-out rates.

The residents' identified needs tend to enumerate those which are only based on their household or smaller community or sitio's realm of experience which may be very specific. The figure below particularly shows the residents differing identified needs from those of the barangay council. The figure tried to get the most common needs accordingly and rank it starting with 10 as their most pressing need.

Figure 8.23⁸⁰
 Barangay Official's Identified Community Needs
 Versus Residents' Identified Community Needs



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Some of the identified needs of the residents were matched by needs enumerated by barangay officials such as those of the need for more information on new farming techniques and methods. In line with this the barangay is now closely looking at organic farming as a preferred method as endorsed by the government. Information materials on organic farming have been disseminated to the community and the barangay has requested for agricultural extension workers to conduct seminars and discussions on the merits of this farming method.

With the same desire to meet the same need, residents and officials can resourcefully collaborate to discover alternative ways to be able to articulate these needs and to whom these needs can be effectively communicated. Likewise, with the knowledge of the identified needs of the community, it is essential for the barangay council to identify appropriate measures to communicate them effectively to those concerned.

There are instances when the priority needs of the residents are not those of barangay officials. For example the residents' need for more market and trade opportunities for their produce is ranks as a priority need of the community but is one of the least concerns of the barangay council. In this example, the residents too should somehow be able to directly raise their concerns to the barangay either in a collective manner or as an

⁸⁰ Figures in percentages

individual. This is exemplified by the need for more market and trade opportunities for products cultivated in the barangay. Below is an articulation of this need as observed by the researcher in an assembly during the celebration of the founding anniversary of the barangay and subsequent interviews with the barangay captain.

Mrs. Yolanda Pacdayan is a small cutflower grower from Sitio Peday. She wanted to sell her produce at the La Trinidad trading post. However, the city government informed her that only registered associations are allowed to do business. In the general assembly held last 12 July 2002, she formally asked the barangay council if she could request for assistance in the creation of a small cutflower growers association in order to be able to sell her produce in the trading post and elsewhere. Though it has now been a thriving business for some of the residents, there has been no formal association formed for this purpose. The Baguio City market, which is nearer the barangay, has no need for such requirement. However much can be earned from selling the produce in the trading post in La Trinidad.

Barangay officials have sent letters and notices to the different sitios to those interested to join the association that would be formed. The barangay has sought the assistance of the Department of Agriculture in the municipal and provincial levels in order to facilitate the requirements of its formation (Fieldwork, 2003).

The identification of leadership trainings as one of the ten unmet needs in the barangay indicate the ability of the community officials to recognise the call to raise more leaders or to augment the skills and abilities of those who have actively been involved in community projects. This is however not a concern of the residents. On the other hand food production is not a priority need of barangay officials but has been recognised by residents. In this respect, it is important that the barangay officials recognise this need in order for them to effectively address it. Likewise, both in a collective and individual manner this need has to be articulated to officials by residents.

Conversely, peace and order has also been a foremost concern of the officials more than that of the residents and so is education. Programs and projects too have to be focused on these two areas to make more people aware that they are pressing concerns.

Funding

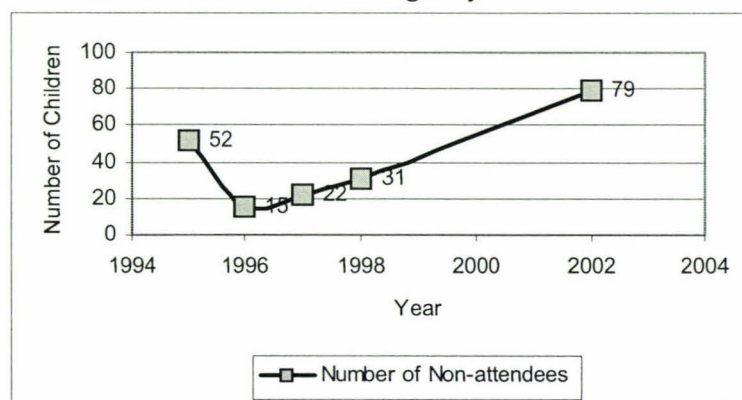
The CIDSS funded most of the projects implemented in the community. But it was the aim of the program that the community would be able to develop linkages and establish other sources of funds for community projects. It was the expected that the community

will be able to find other funding sources that would sustain their future projects. This was however not explored and maximized. The full potential of the residents to avail and search for other funding sources was not developed as a strategy by the CIDSS implementer or by other government officials who could have been involved in the process. As such, the barangay was left attached to the program funding provided for by the CIDSS as a poverty alleviation program. No doubt in the end the CIDSS was a slightly improved version of the dole-out poverty programs of the past.

Education

Despite the construction of the CIDSS-funded day care centre in 1997, there is a continuous need for children between 3 – 5 years old to have pre-school education and avail of the services provided for by the day care centre. The day care centre likewise facilitates children’s entry into the elementary level. It helps them to prepare for basic reading and writing. Thus its importance to early childhood education cannot be discounted. This was then identified as a priority need of about 52 families in a total of 154 in the initial survey. The number of those availing of the services of the day care centre increased with the need for more family members working in the garden plots to increase productivity. In 2002, among 91 children only 12 or only about 13.19% are enrolled in the day care centre resulting to about 79 children in neglected or unattended in their homes. Perhaps the location of the day care centre has a bearing on the availability of the parents to bring these younger children to the central part of the barangay which is far from their garden plots and houses.

Figure 8.24⁸¹
Number of Children Not Attending Day Care School/Pre-School



Source: Accomplishment Report of Barangay Kamog, 2002

⁸¹ Figures in real numbers

Infrastructure Development

In 1995, about 47 identified families lack access to potable water within 250 meters of their abodes. This has dramatically decreased over the years and has been totally eliminated as a need in 1998. Kamog's springs and rivers are rich sources of water enabling the local government to easily install more waterworks systems especially in the sitios. But the increase in the production of garden plots has significantly affected the availability of water for domestic consumption. Though the barangay has mandated the scheduling of water distribution and issued an ordinance on the prohibition of domestic water for use in garden plots, these measures have not been implemented in full force. The construction of more roads, presence of more vehicles and natural disasters has resulted to the breakdown of pipes, which have been installed more than ten years ago. Some of the rubber hoses for domestic use purchased through CIDSS funds have long exceeded their life span and residents are unable to replace them easily due to lack of personal funds. Thus in 2002, the access to potable water within 250 meters was again a glaring need in the barangay.

Figure 8.25
Deteriorating Condition of Water Hoses



Rubber hoses for domestic consumption is being diverted to garden plots

Housing

Due to natural and man-made disasters such as typhoons and landslides, dwelling places in the barangay started to become dilapidated and uncomfortable to live in despite some semi-concrete materials have been used and donated through the emergency shelter

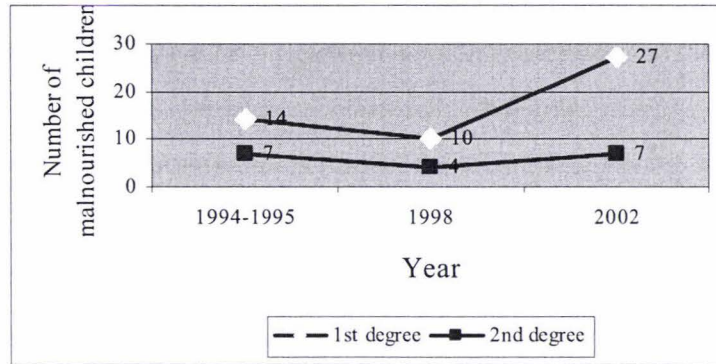
assistance of the CIDSS form 1994-2000. Thus, the need for houses durable for at least five years has resurfaced as a problem in 2002. During the fieldwork, a typhoon wrecked havoc in the barangay, which rendered a number of residents homeless. Emergency assistance was however provided by the MWSDO but the identification of recipients is again a problem as a number of factors hinder those who need the service most.

Health and Sanitation

In the 1994-1995 MBN survey about 63 families among 154 have not been practicing family planning in the previous six months. The number steadily decreased over the years. Pills and other contraceptives used to have been freely given in the health centre. However of late these contraceptives have not been readily available and have appeared as a necessity in the family budget. Thus in the list of 2002 unmet needs this problem was again identified. The birth rate however remains far below the average rate nationwide. Increase in the population has been attributed to new marriages, arrival of new residents and return of former residents.

The number of severely and moderately underweight children under 5 years old has dramatically declined. Education and information campaign specifically targeted mothers. Weighing-ins was carried out in the sitios and in the central barangay. The CIDSS also assisted in the supplemental feeding program targeting malnourished children in the day care centre and elementary school. However, since 1998 no supplemental feeding programs have taken place and the barangay health centre has concentrated its services only on the immunisation program. Further, younger children are always left behind while parents work in garden plots. Among 154 families, 21 have children less than 5 years of age severely and moderately underweight in the initial survey in 1994 – 1995. This has dramatically declined over the years. Yet in 2002, 27 children out of 147 are suffering from first degree malnutrition.

Figure 8.26⁸²
Nutritional Status of Children



Source: Socio-economic Profile of Sablan, 2002; Balabag, 1998

Some religious practices and traditional beliefs have also resulted to the increase in the number of infants born with physical and mental abnormalities as it prevented mothers from seeking medical assistance. Lack of funds and exposure to medical information likewise hampered the ability to correct these abnormalities such as cleft palate.

Support from Extension Workers

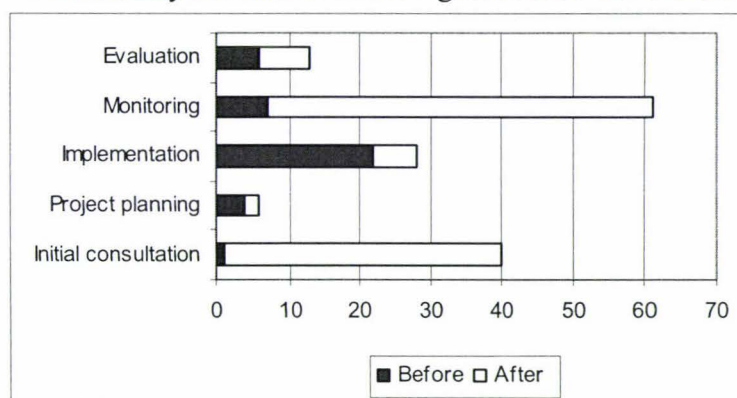
During the implementation of the CIDSS extension workers often visit the barangay to conduct seminars and lectures on different topics of which most were concerned with livelihood and wellbeing. Residents, in the survey, conducted revealed that health workers were consistent with their visits in the last six months. Other extension workers employed by the regional, provincial or municipal office who frequently visit the barangay include social workers, agricultural extension officers, supervisors of the Department of Education, and from the Department of Environment and Natural Resources. Residents said these officials visit at least once a month. Their visits may have been arranged by the barangay officials through a request of the residents or by the initiative of the extension office. Again most of the topics discussed dealt with wellbeing (e.g. health, sanitation, nutrition); livelihood (e.g. farming inputs, infrastructure development, credit and loans); and, security (e.g. peace and order, information and education, education).

⁸² Figures in real numbers

Community Involvement

With the increase in the number of groups, committees or association to implement programs and projects during the CIDSS residents in the community 15 years and above belong to at least one. This has definitely increased the amount of participation of people in community activities. Below is a figure that succinctly illustrates their participation in activities during the CIDSS implementation and the present events from a survey conducted among residents. It would be gleaned that there are more people involve in all aspects of the program now than before. It is worthy to note that people are now more concerned in all aspects of implementing community programs in the barangay. The survey also revealed that 85% of the respondents are satisfied with their involvement.

Figure 8.27⁸³
Community Involvement During and After the CIDSS



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

People are now more concerned on the projects that would be implemented in the community, hence their participation in the initial stages. They make their presence felt during orientation meetings or assemblies. Project planning is relegated to leaders of the community unlike during the CIDSS when the projects are planned as a community. Aside from the barangay officials, the community have already identified a set of leaders that they can trust to develop projects that can help the community. However implementation of projects is now passed on to workers and not as free labour rendered by the community as there was no scheme as food for work or food for cash. Volunteerism is done on a half-day basis and is delegated to younger members of the community as ordered by their family elders. People are also more involved in

⁸³ Figures in percentages

monitoring asking more questions and trying to play the watchdog vigilant of the affairs conducted in the community especially those that involve financial resources.

Storey and Overton (2002) have said, “The poor are often the most powerless in society and they have little experience in articulating their needs” (p. 28). CIDSS gave the people the avenue to express their needs directly or indirectly. Being a homogeneous community, it is easy to use the traditional leaders such as the barangay officials to serve as their mouthpiece. The CIDSS has likewise develop their capability skills “Providing such groups with skills to express their views and the support to respond to their initiatives” (ibid.) has been a major accomplishment of the program. “Indeed, such empowerment may just be a very important development end itself rather than just a means of putting a project in place” (ibid.).

In the last six months residents have been involved voluntarily in the community projects despite projects being few and far between. Activities of a volunteer nature involve repair of school buildings, repair of waterworks systems especially after typhoons, waste management seminars, and re-greening and cleaning of the barangay. Project contractors now pay workers for most of the construction work such as construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of barangay roads and waterworks facilities.

Figure 8.28
Voluntary Canal Clearing



Figure 8.29
Programme of the Celebration

Welcome!

Kamog's 1st Celebration of its 32nd Foundation Day

*Kamog Elementary School
July 12, 2003*

Theme: *"Kalajo Mansaksakey Kito!"*
Halkays! Maghays Tays!

Guest Speaker: *MR. MICHAEL G. ANGEL*

KFMPCI
This serves as an invitation

Figure 8.30
Foundation Day Celebration



Figure 8.31
Women's Song Presentation



Figure 8.32
Voluntary Work for the Celebration of the Foundation Day



Men folk initiated the cooking for the lunch served on this anniversary day

They held their foundation day as a barangay for the first time in 32 years. A momentous occasion for the community, the municipal mayor and other local officials arrived to celebrate the founding anniversary. An Anglican mass was heard and later the children and the community rendered special song and dance numbers to entertain the guests and the residents. The program included a welcome lunch for the community and the guests as well.

Communication Mode

The program was successful in generating full awareness of the residents in the barangay that they are a CIDSS-covered area. As such, different projects are instituted and have accepted the ways in which they are to be implemented in the community as manifested by their readiness and willingness to attend meetings and assemblies and to organise their own association in response to their identified needs. Belen (1982) says in her study that the amount of information received by the people determines their “readiness” to share or “pass on” the information. Further she adds that awareness leads people to seek further information.

Public consultations are now more frequent means of identifying and solving problems after the CIDSS implementation as gleaned from the survey conducted by Balabag in 2002. It has been inculcated among members of the community that they have a role to play in the running of the affairs of the barangay. Thus, barangay officials are very cautious and readily practice transparency especially in the implementation of infrastructure projects. This is evident because of the vigilance of the people as they relish their roles in the monitoring and evaluation in the implementation of the CIDSS projects from 1995 – 2000. Residents said that they doubt any member of the barangay council will ever be involved in corruption. This can be attributed to the active participation of people in barangay affairs as exhibited by the attendance of people’s association representatives and some individuals to the barangay assembly on 12 July 2003 to mark the 32nd foundation day of the barangay.

In the monthly barangay meetings, the council invites people to join and argue their case to be able to gather enough information. Barangay meetings are also open for all to attend and minutes of meetings are recorded by the barangay secretary. These minutes are made available to the community a few weeks after and are posted in the

barangay community board. Any reactions, suggestions or problems that arise from there can be communicated to the barangay captain, council member/s or people in the community who have access to the barangay captain or any council members. They are either made verbally or through writing in the initial stage of discussion but necessity of the concern to be formally written surfaces when immediate action is required.

However, barangay meetings are confined to the barangay hall. It has been brought to the attention of the council to hold meetings in the sitios. This is now being seriously considered by the barangay. However, house-to-house visitations, sitio visits and interpersonal communication make the barangay council accessible to the people.

Balabag (2002) noted that other means of solving community problems are through resolutions passed by the council such as that of the scheduling of water distribution. Other ways indicate meetings with concerned parties such as the request of Sitio Banao for electricity. The barangay council set up a meeting between the Benguet Electric Power Cooperative and the sitio residents to determine its viability. In some instances the barangay serve as a conduit for concerns made outside of the barangay. In some cases, barangay officials take it upon themselves to solve some problems especially those that are personal in nature such as domestic disputes. The barangay likewise acts as channels of residents to make requests known to municipal, provincial, regional or congressional offices to make the nature official in capacity even if the concern is personal. For example, one community member sought the assistance of these different tiers of government to drum up support for a relative in crisis situation overseas. In order to speed up repatriation, the barangay endorsed the request to several government officials and diligently followed up these requests.

It would be gleaned that the communication roles of participants in a development project such as the earlier illustration (Figure 7.22) in Chapter 7 of the request for a waterworks system in Sitio Banao more pronounced, distinct and defined. The pattern of communication is regular and predictable at times so mitigation or interventions can be made at several stages of the process. Reinforcement can also be utilised. People or groups who are not in authority display weak lines but they can exert some pressure to gain attention to their cause. The use of media as a pressure is not new in the Philippines. It has to some extent been exploited and to some extent maximised.

With more energised sitios and improvement in the livelihood of some residents the communication mode of the barangay had changed since the implementation of the CIDSS. More households have access to television programs and radio shows. Information gathered from radio and television as established earlier may not mean ownership of the medium. It may be information shared or gathered. The audience of mass media have increased prompting several media organizations to improve their facilities. It was gathered that the information on recent poverty alleviation programs focused on health. It would also be surmised that since most of the people in the Cordillera are small farmers most of the programs beamed are on farming techniques and methods thus it was also one of the most heard on the media.

In studies conducted on communication patterns in rural areas in the Philippines, radio is the most preferred medium and news program in the local languages is preferred (Belen, 1982). This is manifested in Chapter 5 where it was shown that the medium used on a daily basis was the radio. A survey conducted among residents also revealed that it was also the most preferred way of receiving information on a daily basis. The figure below displays their preference on the medium they want to receive information on the above mentioned poverty alleviation programs of the government.

However, it could not be discounted that the role of the barangay officials as sources of information is crucial. On an overall time period the people's level of trust and confidence in these officials have been established earlier. As such, their role as conveyors of information is legitimate as they are persons of authority as mandated by law and as the end of the chain among government officials. It may have been that in the monthly meetings people can reinforce their information gathered from radio and television with their barangay officials. In turn the barangay officials verify these information from sources outside of the barangay. Then the information is relayed back favourably or not to the community. How information is treated after it has been gathered would be up to the community members to follow-up or ignore.

The Role of the Barangay. It has been earlier articulated that the communication roles of the barangay officials are the source, bearer and conveyor of information to and from the residents to the wider community outside of the barangay. People in the community more or less interact more frequently informally or formally with barangay officials. They communicate largely about their wellbeing, livelihood and security concerns as

earlier established. It is crucial then to recognise that their capabilities as barangay officials greatly affect their communication role. These capabilities may have been enhanced by education, experience, age, wealth, involvement in associations, or linkages formed with people and institutions outside of the barangay. Aside from these Belen (1992) adds that the barangay official's awareness of their duties and responsibilities enhanced the likelihood to communicate effectively.

Among the members of the barangay council, it is only the barangay captain who has finished college. All the rest have either some or finish high school education and some may have some or finish elementary. All the barangay officials are farmers with one doubling as PUJ driver thus their primary source of income were farming. All of the officials own their houses and garden plots which they or their wives may have inherited from parents or other relatives. Barangay officials' income range from a maximum of PhP 25,000 to about PhP 50,000 annually. Most of the officials have been a resident of the barangay since birth. Only one has been in resident for only ten years.

The barangay captain is on his first term but has served as youth representative for six years. Only two of the officials are on their first term and one have been kagawad for almost three terms meaning that he has served for a total of 14 years. The appointed members of the barangay have been in office for almost three terms too such as the barangay treasurer.

All the officials said they are satisfied with their role and finds it beneficial to be a member of the council. Different factors motivated them to run for office. These include (1) helping people; (2) stepping stone for higher political positions; (3) enjoy being a leader; and, (4) to gain experience. Two did not give any answer.

All of the officials are members of organizations within and outside of the barangay serving in different capacities. Most of the officials have been elected officer of these associations at one time or the other. Their years of membership in these associations range from twenty to one year.

The barangay captain was very aware of all his powers and duties. Voted as the youngest barangay captain in the region, he was an SK leader for a number of years and has assisted the barangay council in drafting significant barangay ordinances and

resolutions for almost six years. His capacity as SK leader has brought him to different conferences and seminars outside of the barangay. Moreover his being an agricultural engineering graduate, he is able to articulate the needs of the small farmers in the barangay to the wider community. He has introduced organic farming to the community as a way to minimise cost of fertilisers.

Most of the members of the council understand their roles. However, a lot of factors hinder their performance. As such, it is the barangay captain who was the main formaliser of the communication in the barangay. Their roles were pronounced in the gathering of information and in mobilising the community but their limited knowledge of administrative proceedings limit their participation in meetings held outside of the barangay. In barangay meetings however, each can articulate and voice their affirmation or objection to certain propositions. These were expressed in the native language and never in the language it could be communicated to in a formal manner, such as in writing. Some of the members are adamant to attend meetings or seminars outside of the barangay due to this inability to effectively articulate their concerns. They stay in the village and are more concerned with peace and order and as gatherer of information. The official conveyor of information is left to the barangay captain. This has been a big burden to the barangay captain as observed by the researcher. The barangay council meets on the last Saturday of the month and the researcher was able to observe them in session last 27 July 2003. Agenda of the barangay meeting include the prioritisation of projects for the 20% of the Municipal Development Fund for 2004, establishment of the Gabay sa Mamayan Action Centre in compliance to Executive Order No. 130, COMELEC precinct mapping and the registration of voters. The barangay captain presided over the meeting and would every now and then ask the members of the council of their opinions and views. Most of the council members, especially those who have been elected for the first term, would tend to agree and never said much on any of the issues. Though one kagawad lack educational background, his experience being a member of the council for a number of years made him able to articulate his opinions more effectively. Otherwise the barangay captain made delegation of work with no objections from those who were elected to perform the task such as the precinct mapping.

The officials said it is their role to convey information to people in their barangay. Regular communication with the people will give them (1) knowledge on their needs,

aspirations, problems; (2) suggestions on different issues; (3) information on what is happening in the sitios; and, (4) to be popular. All of them are called upon at one time or the other to explain certain matters to them on an individual or collective manner. Barangay officials also said that groups in within the community call upon them to represent them or to articulate their concerns during the barangay sessions. However, when representing the barangay outside of the community, only five members said they are willing to do this. Two declined to comment.

All of the officials said that their role as barangay officials brings them out of the community often. In the last six months since the interviews were conducted, most of them have made visits outside of the barangay once a month. During their visits in some other areas in and outside of the municipality, they are keen to observe farming technology, infrastructure facilities including irrigation, livelihood facilities, and administrative techniques. Though health is identified as a foremost need in the community, it was one concern that the officials most likely observe in the areas they visit. This might have been due to the fact that they delegate this to the health officer in the community. Modern telecommunications, housing, cooperative action, food production techniques and employment opportunities are also least of their concerns. This means that their gathering of information is centred on high impact projects and those that can enhance their administrative capacities.

However, with lack of effective communication skills may have relegated this visit to mere observation. It would have been evident that they could not ask for further information or to confirm information earlier gathered due to their inability to communicate it effectively especially in a more formal setting such as municipal sessions or municipal, provincial or regional inter-barangay assemblies.

Some of the barangay officials said they willingly share, confirm or gather more information to other officials in the barangay as well as to LGU officials they are close to such as municipal officials. But this again will depend on their ability to communicate this information. This is however different with regards to their constituents. Due to their close association or familiarity or kin relations in the community, these officials are effectively able to communicate the information to the people through assemblies, social gatherings or on one-on-one basis.

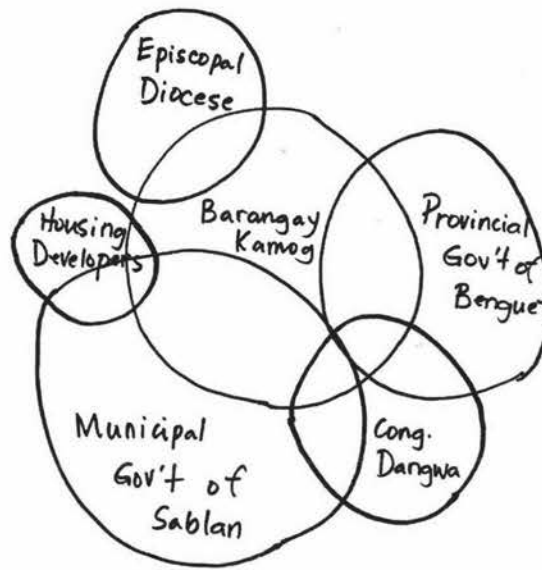
In the last six months nine of the elected and appointive officials have served as a sponsor in a wedding or christening in and outside of the barangay. Four said they have been invited to chair or be involved in a community activity such as a sports activity twice in the last six months, four said twice and one said once. In the last six months, these officials have attended social gatherings of different nature from two to forty-one times.

On the information they have gathered from people in the community in assemblies and social occasions, the officials said they relay the information themselves or ask someone to relay the information to the person or offices concerned such as the MWSO or other municipal officials. It was only on one occasion in any of the terms of the officials have they hired a vehicle to relay information to people. Aside from the usual assemblies, which are always conducted in the barangay hall situated in the central part of the barangay, the officials have not used any innovative way to gather or convey information to people. Their method of conveying information includes the use of the barangay tanods, BHWs, relatives, friends, or teachers. The officials also conduct house-to-house visitations especially during the typhoon season.

In an interview, barangay officials revealed that the information they gather or may have heard from the residents or other sources are consulted with officials outside of the barangay. They consult them on an individual or on a collective manner. Most frequently it is the barangay captain who takes over this role. In an interview the barangay officials said it is important to communicate with other officials outside the barangay in order to (1) learn more and acquire more knowledge; (2) to seek more information; (3) discuss problems; (4) develop ways to assist each other in times of crisis; (5) gain popularity; and, (6) develop more relationships.

It would be gleaned from the Venn diagram prepared by members of the council that the municipal officials and its various offices are the most likely consulted. The church too has an influence in governance. Other line agencies frequently consulted include the Department of Agriculture, Department of Social Welfare and Development, and the Population Commission. The role of the congressional district representative and the provincial officials diminish as the municipal officials take over this role in a protocol manner. The information then is relayed back to the barangay directly or through the municipal office as well.

Figure 8.33
Venn Diagram Prepared by Barangay Officials



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The national government issuances are received by the barangay through the municipal government. Most of this information reaches the barangay in within the week depending on the urgency of the matter. The table below will show the kind of information frequently received by the barangay and the carrier or disseminator of the information.

Table 8.3
Information Received by the Barangay

| TYPE OF INFORMATION | DISSEMINATOR OF INFORMATION | LENGTH OF TIME INFORMATION BEFORE INFORMATION IS RECEIVED |
|-------------------------|---|---|
| Executive orders | Municipal Human Resource Management Office/MHRMO | One week |
| Presidential issuances | Department of Interior and Local Government Municipal Local Government Office (MLGO) | One week |
| Government publications | Sangguniang Bayan secretary | One week |
| Administrative orders | Sangguniang Bayan secretary | One week |
| Ordinances | Sangguniang Bayan secretary | Five days |
| Circulars | Department of Interior and Local Government/MLGO/MHRMO | Five days |
| Memorandum orders | Department of Interior and Local Government/MLGO/MHRMO | Five days |
| Bulletins | Department of Interior and Local Government/MLGO/MHRMO | Five days |
| Manuals | Department of Interior and Local Government/MLGO/MHRMO | One week |
| Official letters | Postmaster | One week |

| TYPE OF INFORMATION | DISSEMINATOR OF INFORMATION | LENGTH OF TIME INFORMATION BEFORE INFORMATION IS RECEIVED |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| Endorsements | | One week |
| Interpersonal communication | | One day |

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The barangay officials know they have specific roles to play in the execution of development projects in the community. In an interview, the researcher asked what type of work are they most likely to perform in a development project. For a, assemblies and meetings are listed as the media that have influence the officials' participation in the project's execution. Clearly, all the officials see themselves in different roles in the execution of development projects. The table below shows their involvement in each phase of the development project.

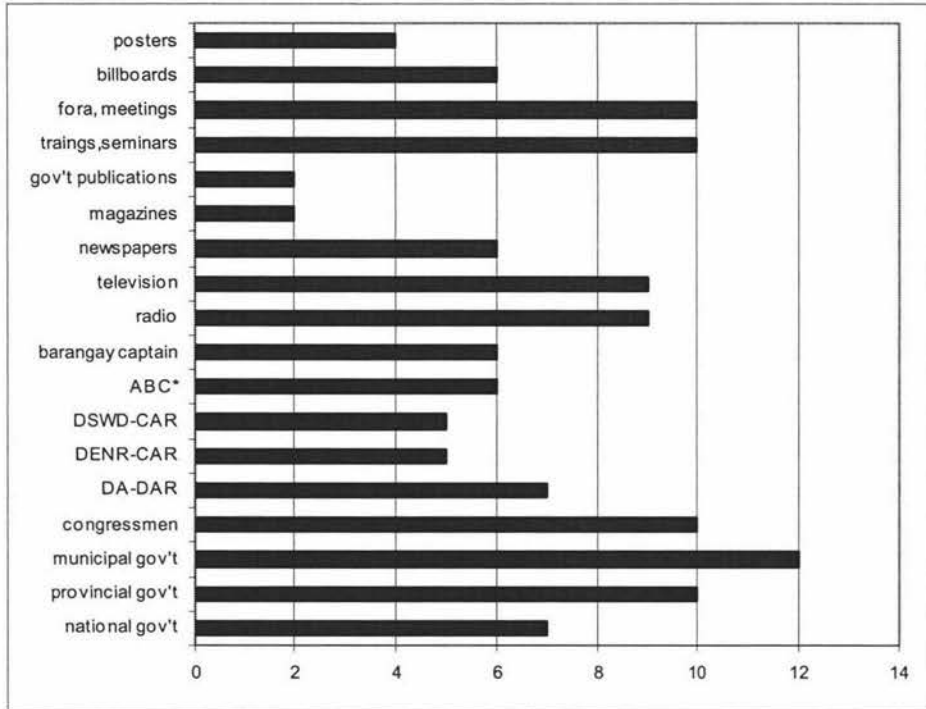
Table 8.4
Barangay Officials' Involvement in Community Projects

| Type of Action | Number of responses |
|---|---------------------|
| Project organising | 6 |
| Identification of needs | 7 |
| Planning projects | 5 |
| Decision-making whether to implement or reject | 5 |
| Project implementation | 7 |
| Project supervision | 6 |
| Actively pass and seek information throughout the project | 6 |
| Reporting status of project | 4 |
| Soliciting aid | 8 |
| Evaluation of the project | 5 |

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Barangay officials said that they have various sources of information. The following figure display the source of relevant information that assists the official in deciding to implement development projects in the barangay.

Figure 8.34⁸⁴
Barangay Officials' Sources of Information



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Among these sources of information, the municipal government is singled out for being effective in the interviews. The manner in which barangay concerns are addressed promptly may have influenced this response.

The sources of information of barangay officials parallel those preferred by the people in the community. Radio is their main daily source of information, television is second and only one reads the newspaper on a daily basis because he is a driver. Television is only a weekly source of information, two buy national newspapers, and one buys a regional newspaper and one a magazine. On a monthly basis, two borrow national newspapers and acquires government publications. Once in six weeks, four watch television, two listens to the radio, buy and borrow national newspaper, and one buys and borrow regional a regional newspaper and magazine.

News programs are the only programs they listen to in the radio. However, three listen to drama and one tune on the music dial. News reports are also the only reason they watch television. Three constantly watch drama serials, one watch sports and another watches films on television. Headline stories and other news appeal to those buying

⁸⁴ Multiple responses of barangay officials

national newspapers while one reads the horoscope. News and regional issues are the reasons why officials but the regional newspapers. Government publications are read because of national news and other issues.

SUMMARY

Barangay Kamog benefited from the anti-poverty projects of the CIDSS by empowering the community to have the capacity to identify and respond to present and future needs. However the measures the program started did not propel the community to stamp out poverty. The identified needs in the initial year of implementation resurfaced in the last few years such as the access to for potable water and lack of sanitary facilities. Though the program instilled in the people the value of gardening or small farm cultivation as a gainful activity, it was not able to sustain its viability as the main income earner of the family. Competition from other areas, fluctuating prices in the market, lack of credit, inconsistency in the delivery of agricultural inputs, unavailability of extension workers were some of reasons the economic activities was not sustained. The produce was just then regarded as family consumption purposes only and not for livelihood itself.

Likewise, their condition prevented them to be exposed to mass media, which may have been a major source of information on farming techniques and methods, and other livelihood and employment opportunities, which could have been explored to its maximum. Access to radio and television were limited and residents relied on information shared to them or gathered from other sources. It was also evident that their main source of information was barangay officials. Some of the barangay officials however were not ready to take on some of the roles of a communicator. Their lack of experience, education and exposure prevented them from taking on some of these roles. This had constrained the community from accessing valuable information from outside of the community.

Family, friends and neighbours are main sources of information and media only either introduce or reinforce the information gathered. Two main points became evident with regards with their interpretation of their information needs. One is that their main concerns are to gather and reinforce information that affects their wellbeing, livelihood and security. Two, people are unmindful and therefore remain ignorant of other factors outside of this three identified needs.

Most of the CIDSS projects were monuments to remind the people that the program was implemented in the community. Infrastructure projects amounted to about 80% of the entire program cost. Though the day care centre was a solution to the identified problem it was under utilised and its importance was not vital. The communal toilet is still being used but the lack of water had defeated its purpose. The awareness for more sanitary facilities have gained ground but people's lack of resources prevented them from instituting such measures in their own households.

However, the farm to market roads that have been constructed and major roads rehabilitated made the barangay accessible to more vehicles and it brought about its exposure to more people and services. For example, distributors of goods such as more cola drinks, beer dealers and bread distributors are now plying the route instead of the small owners travelling to town or the urban centre.

Projects were also short-lived and designed to momentarily and temporarily address needs such as the provision of toilet bowls without sufficient guidance and materials in its installation and the grant of one-year educational assistance to graduating students. Identification of beneficiaries had not been a systematic process. The MBN was a rich source of data to draw from in order to identify beneficiaries but other factors may have influenced the decision in selecting beneficiaries. Partisan politics within the barangay and outside played a role in the process so did several cultural traits ingrained in the people's interpersonal relationships. Residents of the community have heralded charges of favouritism among members of the screening committee of particular CIDSS projects under the guidance of the CIDSS implementer.

However, the lasting legacy of the program was its ability to involve members of the community to participation and governance. To date, each member of the community who are 15 years old and above is a member of at least one legitimate people's association/organization in the community. Community assemblies have gained attendance. Members of the community have gained skills in organization, management, mobilisation and leadership enabling them to propose projects in and outside of the community.

The role of the barangay has been easier since it could deal with groups instead of individuals when coordinating projects and programs. Residents in sitios have learned to voice their concerns in groups and found strength in the numbers they form. People have found venues and means to fully participate in decision-making in the barangay. Moreover, people have learned to be more vigilant. They relish their roles as vanguards of the community.

However, the role of the barangay as the main administrator in the implementation of poverty alleviation projects of the government has been relegated to a ceremonial role. The barangay was informed in almost all instances of the projects that were being implemented. It was, however, the CIDSS implementer who played the key role in the whole exercise. She had the authority, for example, to push on projects to have access to funds or to communicate with other government offices for that matter. The barangay council's role was an endorser of the process. The inputs of the barangay council may have been considered in some aspects of the decision-making but the CIDSS implementer was the main resource person of the community during the entire program implementation.

It is the aim of the program to be grassroots in nature. In this respect, it followed its tenets to its fullest sense. The community was ready to take on its role as the determiner and executor of the projects. However, the third phase of the CIDSS, which is that of localisation, was not followed through entirely by the process. When the program ended in 2000, continuity, which was supposed to have been instituted by the municipal government, was not carried out. Sablan as a municipality was not ready to take over the activities that were identified by the program because of lack of funds. There were projects that need to be continued but there were no funds available. The CIDSS also did not do a lot of the converging to source funds or services from other institutions or linking outside of the community. Since the program have money the convergence aspect or the identification of other sources of funds was neglected in the process.

Other government agencies, which were supposed to be part of the so-called convergence theme, did not deliver because of its own priorities and plans. The barangay council, since it was not a key player in the implementation of the program, lack knowledge in some aspects of the program. Thus the main purpose of the program

to reach a bottom-up approach in solving the poverty problem got stuck in between unable to pass through because the process was clogged by its own doing.

In the end it was just an improved version of the dole-out poverty alleviation programs in the past. The only difference was that they have identified the need, gained the confidence to articulate these needs in a collective or individual manner.

CHAPTER NINE

THESIS CONCLUSION

This chapter summarises the main findings of this study and draws out recommendations fit for communicating information on poverty alleviation policies and programs in the Philippines. The study gave a deeper understanding of the relationship of poverty policies, programs and communication. Tracking the definition of poverty determines the poverty policies crafted to address the problem. Communicating information on poverty revolves in the same environment despite changes in government setting and introduction of concepts that would give meaningful participation to the poor. The chapter ends on the note that the role of communication has yet to be defined clearly in the process of delivering poverty alleviation programs but the potential to contribute to its success cannot be discounted.

COMMUNICATING INFORMATION

The role of communication in the delivery of poverty alleviation programs has been regarded with “passing relevance.” It cannot even take its own hat off when poverty alleviation programs become successful because it is not even considered to be a vital factor in the process. In some instances it still is regarded as an add on to the programs implemented.

It was also gleaned from Chapter Three that each administration has its own poverty alleviation program. In doing so what is being communicated are the policies of the incumbent administration. Thus Estrada fashioned himself as the champion of the masses thus communication programs on poverty centred on his personality. President Arroyo moved to fast track poverty programs to deal with the seeds of insurgency, which are nestled in poverty-stricken areas, as is the perceived need of the time in line with the September 11 bombing in the US. Their particular brand of fighting poverty marked the way poverty policies were communicated.

Overall the poverty policies of government are enunciated and picked up by its main coordinator, the National Anti-Poverty Commission and disseminated to all target

audiences including the government's own media infrastructure. Communication campaigns fail because of the inability of the national and local governments to orchestrate and synchronise its activities. Priorities of the national level at times do not parallel those of the local level relegating programs for later implementation.

Prior to this each administration detaches itself from poverty alleviation programs of its predecessor. President Aquino "deMarcosified" government by trying to change systems and procedures and re-inventing public information. The administrations show it fit to maintain its own media facilities to be "assured a space" in the free flow of information and that the "people's voice are heard." However the failure of information to reach the grassroots level is not much different from the authoritarian rule of Marcos. Sad to say, it is still experienced today. And likewise the inability of the poor to have avenues to which it can air its sentiments have been tightly sealed or clogged.

Government had a legal mandate to create media facilities to serve where there are no media facilities. It was notable that some of these government media facilities focused on areas where there are no media channels. However, the government still competes with the private media in urban centres employing the same tactics and strategies of the private media. More funds are provided to the urban centre facilities than to the rural areas. Wider audience reach and influence are some of the reasons given by government information officers justifying the allocation for more resources in maintaining these urban facilities. However, government must not be in the business of competing with the private media. Funds should be channelled on the maintenance and strengthening of its reach.

The government media is not even the gatekeeper of information with regards to even poverty policies and programs. The free-for-all information of each of the administration is an inherent quality of any democratic state, which the country strictly adheres to. But there are certain circumstances such as those that calls to secure the State against lawlessness. In this stance, the government exhibits a dual personality, a libertarian and an authoritarian nature. In the delivery of poverty alleviation programs, it could not call upon private media, for example, to rally behind this program. It would resort to paying advertisements and media space, hiring consultants to develop communication campaigns, providing tax concessions to media firms in order to produce television or radio programs or mount a media mix of information materials to

generate awareness and drum up support to a particular poverty alleviation program. But when the Presidency is being challenged it calls upon the media to curtail itself. It takes a bolder role to ask media, for example, not to give airtime to the Abu Sayyaf, at the height of their kidnap for ransom activities in the South. If government could only exercise more its authoritarian stance to push for more private media space for poverty alleviation programs then it would be easier for people to be informed.

INFORMING PEOPLE

As earlier said, communication is not considered significant in the process. What is given more attention is informing people. The poor people however, according to this study, could not claim ownership to a particular media due to financial constraints. It was illustrated that their information are most likely second hand and relayed to them by various sources. One of their major sources of information is not the media despite some of the surveys revealing that radio is the most important medium in the country. Interpersonal communication is still the best strategy information officers can use and develop. This includes house-to-house visitations, forums, meetings, assemblies, seminars or lectures. These type of media setting allows them to participate actively in the process. There is a need therefore for proper documentation of what have been the sentiments of the people in order to share these with other information officers enhancing their knowledge and deepen their understanding of the situation and conditions of the people.

Moreso the importance of communication is only in disseminating information. Though government and other democratic institutions have heralded the need for communication to be two-way, the participation of the people is yet to be truly meaningful. Poverty policies are disseminated unmindful of how people react to this. Though there are certain mechanisms that may encourage people to speak, as the EDSA People's Power may have advocated, the poor has yet to find its voice. Thus the feed forward and feedback mechanisms proposed in every program have yet to be realised. It is either ignored by people in the regional level or is shelved by people at the higher level. A mechanism could be developed whereby an avenue to which the aspirations of the people in the community could be heard and appropriate measures have to be developed and presented.

Information unless unfavourable are documented, narrated back, translated and form part of the wide array of “*what they say about*” series of information materials. Unfavourable information is arrested at the lowest possible level in order to ensure that media will not get hold of it and would not cause embarrassment to the Presidency, in particular, or the government, in general.

Despite poverty alleviation as being introduced as using participatory approaches, communication strategies and techniques remain top-down, traditional and beset by various barriers. Stopgaps are everywhere in the process filtering information to and from the national and the local level and vice versa.

DISSEMINATING INFORMATION

Informing people means disseminating information. There are several information materials produced to communicate poverty policies and programs. However their significance, relevance, usefulness, appropriateness cannot be determined easily because of the inability of government to evaluate it properly. Government has yet to include the accomplishments on communication and information without enumerating the number of information materials produced. Accomplishments are always quantitative amounts and not the perception or the acceptability of the information materials received.

Moreover, some of these information materials are produced by consultants and not by people from the area. Thus, its relevance is remote. Initial information materials produced are glossy posters distributed to policymakers. Likewise brochures, pamphlets and others were given to media in the hope that these two would be able to magnify and multiply the results of the campaign. Even this has yet to be fully studied in its qualitative aspect and not as a statistical figure. Even some information materials produced are misleading and raises people’s hope for funding for their local areas.

In the latest poverty alleviation program, the communication campaigns are developed suited to the local residents. Laudable is its efforts if it can be sustained. Likewise, there is a need to develop more information materials that clearly enunciates policies. It should not only be able to enunciate and generate awareness but for people to support the program. This should be the end goal of disseminating information.

More importantly, in disseminating information, the role of the local level officials need to be tapped. It was succinct in the survey that local officials re their best sources of information. These officials can serve as the key link in communicating information on poverty alleviation. With their authority, experience, education and other factors, these officials can very well articulate the needs of the people. Their role as bearer of information can be maximised and their role as conveyor of information to the top remain untapped. Communication comes to a rural village in the form of materials and is not reinforced unless a defined line of communication is open, maintained and strengthened by both the local level and the information officers at least in the regional level.

DETERMINING INFORMATION NEEDS

There are two information needs the study was able to identify, one is that the people's information needs centred on what directly affects their wellbeing, livelihood and security; and second, people are unmindful of all information that do not directly affect the three factors mentioned above.

Thus information campaigns need to address, link and establish messages that focus on these three factors if they want their target audience to be aware and for them to support their initiatives.

It can be gleaned from above that the need for research on this area is paramount in being able to contribute significantly to the delivery of poverty alleviation programs. It could be noted that even sectoral areas of the communication campaign may be studied in a qualitative manner to link the statistical data to the people's perceptions and sentiments. The studies could guide policymakers and communication planners on how best to communicate poverty to the people who need it most.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1
Regions and Number of Political Subdivisions

| Regions | Geographical Description | Number of Provinces | Number of Cities | Number of Municipalities | Number of Barangays |
|--------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Region 1 | Ilocos Region | 4 | 8 | 117 | 3,265 |
| Region 2 | Cagayan Valley | 5 | 3 | 90 | 2,311 |
| Region 3 | Central Luzon | 7 | 12 | 118 | 3,101 |
| Region 4-A | CALABARZON | 5 | 10 | 132 | 4,010 |
| Region 4-B | MIMAROPA | 5 | 2 | 71 | 1,457 |
| Region 5 | Bicol Region | 6 | 7 | 107 | 3,471 |
| Region 6 | Western Visayas | 6 | 13 | 117 | 4,050 |
| Region 7 | Central Visayas | 4 | 12 | 120 | 3,003 |
| Region 8 | Eastern Visayas | 6 | 3 | 139 | 4,390 |
| Region 9 | Zamboanga Peninsula | 3 | 5 | 67 | 1,903 |
| Region 10 | Northern Mindanao | 5 | 8 | 85 | 2,020 |
| Region 11 | Davao Region | 4 | 5 | 43 | 1,158 |
| Region 12 | SOCSARGEN | 4 | 5 | 45 | 1,194 |
| Region 13 | CARAGA | 4 | 3 | 70 | 1,308 |
| ARMM | Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao | 5 | 1 | 98 | 2,459 |
| NCR | National Capital Region | | 4 | 13 | 1,693 |
| CAR | Cordillera Administrative Region | 6 | 1 | 76 | 1,176 |
| TOTAL | | | | | |
| 17 | | 79 | 115 | 1,499 | 41,969 |

APPENDIX 2
Poverty Incidence of Population, Urban-Rural, 1985 - 2000

| Year | Total | Urban | Rural |
|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1985 | 49.3 | 37.9 | 56.4 |
| 1988 | 49.5 | 34.3 | 52.3 |
| 1991 | 45.3 | 35.6 | 55.1 |
| 1994 | 40.6 | 29.0 | 53.1 |
| 1997 | 36.8 | 21.5 | 50.7 |
| 2000 ^a | 40.0 | 25.0 | 54.4 |

^a Preliminary results
Source of Data: 1997 Final Philippine Poverty Statistics, NSCB
Source of Data: 2000 FIES, NSO

Source: Reyes, 2002

APPENDIX 3
Poverty Incidence of Population by Region, 1985 - 2000

| Regions | 1985 | 1988 | 1991 | 1994 | 1997 | 2000 ^a |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|-------------------|
| Philippines | 49.3 | 49.5 | 45.3 | 40.6 | 36.8 | 40.0 |
| National Capital Region | 27.2 | 25.2 | 16.7 | 10.5 | 8.5 | 12.7 |
| Cordillera Administrative Region | * | 50.7 | 55.4 | 56.4 | 50.1 | 43.9 |
| Region I- Ilocos Region | 43.5 | 51.7 | 55.3 | 53.6 | 44.1 | 43.5 |
| Region II – Cagayan Valley Region | 42.7 | 44.6 | 48.9 | 42.1 | 38.0 | 36.3 |
| Region III – Central Luzon | 32.2 | 33.8 | 35.5 | 29.2 | 18.5 | 22.9 |
| Region IV – Southern Tagalog | 45.7 | 46.6 | 43.2 | 34.9 | 30.0 | 31.7 |
| Region V – Bicol Region | 67.6 | 61.4 | 61.3 | 60.8 | 57.0 | 62.8 |
| Region VI – Western Visayas | 66.5 | 56.6 | 52.9 | 49.9 | 45.9 | 51.2 |
| Region VII – Central Visayas | 61.9 | 52.1 | 46.7 | 37.5 | 38.9 | 43.9 |
| Region VIII – Eastern Visayas | 65.2 | 54.7 | 47.1 | 44.8 | 48.5 | 51.0 |
| Region IX – Western Mindanao | 60.0 | 43.7 | 54.4 | 50.6 | 45.5 | 53.0 |
| Region X – Northern Mindanao | 56.7 | 50.2 | 57.4 | 54.1 | 52.7 | 52.1 |
| Region XI – Southern Mindanao | 49.7 | 48.9 | 51.6 | 45.6 | 44.3 | 46.3 |
| Region XII – Central Mindanao | 56.3 | 41.0 | 63.1 | 58.7 | 55.8 | 57.9 |
| Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao | ** | ** | 56.0 | 65.3 | 62.5 | 73.9 |
| * Provinces under CAR were part of Region I and II in 1985 | | | | | | |
| ** ARMM was created into a region under RA No. 7864 dated 26 November 1989 | | | | | | |
| Source of data: 1997 Final Philippine Poverty Statistics, NSCB | | | | | | |
| Source of data: 2000 FIES, NSO | | | | | | |

Source: Reyes, 2002

APPENDIX 4
Number and Percent of Families by Status of Poverty
(Unweighted)

| Status of Poverty | | | Number of Families | Percent |
|---|----------|----------|--------------------|---------|
| 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | | |
| Poor | Poor | Poor | 3,881 | 21.7 |
| Poor | Poor | Non-poor | 665 | 3.7 |
| Poor | Non-poor | Poor | 578 | 3.2 |
| Poor | Non-poor | Non-poor | 488 | 2.7 |
| Non-poor | Poor | Poor | 1,551 | 8.7 |
| Non-poor | Poor | Non-poor | 1,154 | 6.4 |
| Non-poor | Non-poor | Poor | 1,277 | 7.1 |
| Non-poor | Non-poor | Non-poor | 8,303 | 46.4 |
| TOTAL | | | 17,897 | 100 |
| Source of Basic Data: Run from matched Public Use Files of the 1997 FIES and the 1998 and 1999 Annual Poverty Indicators Survey | | | | |

Source: Reyes, 2002

| BASIC NEEDS | INDICATORS | 1996 | | | | | | | | 1997 | | | | | | | | 1998 | | | | | | | |
|--|---|------|---|----|----|----|---|----|----|------|---|----|----|----|---|----|----|------|---|----|----|----|---|----|----|
| | | S1 | | | | S2 | | | | S1 | | | | S2 | | | | S1 | | | | S2 | | | |
| | | y | n | na | dk | y | n | na | dk | y | n | na | dk | y | n | na | dk | y | n | na | dk | y | n | na | dk |
| B. SECURITY 5. Shelter | 16. Housing owned, rented or shared | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 17. Housing durable for at least five (5) years | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Peace and Order/ Public Safety | 18. Family members safe from crimes against person (murder, rape, abuse, physical injury) | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 19. Family members safe from crimes against property (robbery, theft, and other similar crimes) | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 20. No family members severely affected by natural disaster | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 21. No family member is a victim of armed conflict | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Income and Livelihood | 22. Head of the family employed | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 23. Other members of the family 15 years old and above employed | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 24. Family with income above subsistence threshold level | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| C. ENABLING 8. Basic Education and Literacy | 25. Children 3-5 years old attending day care/pre-school | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 26. Children 6-12 years old in elementary school | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 27. Children 13-16 years old in high school | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 28. Family members 10 years old and above able to read write and do simple computations | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. People's Participa- tion in Community Development | 29. Family members involved in at least 1 legitimate people's organizations/association for community development | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 30. Family members able to vote at elections | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Family Care/ Psycho-Social | 31. No children below 15 years old engaged in hazardous occupation | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 32. No incidence of domestic violence | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 33. No child (below 7 years old) left unattended | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

14 September 1995

APPENDIX 6
CIDSS Programs and Projects

| PROJECT CATEGORIES | DESCRIPTION |
|---|---|
| Capability Building | It is a provision of appropriate trainings to ensure readiness of the community to manage their own groups and projects that respond to their identified minimum basic needs. This also covers disaster mitigation and preparedness trainings for families and volunteers. |
| Supplemental feeding | This is an immediate and direct intervention for moderately and severely (non-medical) underweight children. It hopes to prevent any permanent physical and mental retardation as well as demonstrate proper nutrition practices to mothers. Supplemental feeding projects amount to P27,000.00 or P5 per child per day for a period of six-months. |
| Self-Employment Assistance - Kaunlaran (Progress) or SEA- K | The project involves the provision of interest-free loans for alternative livelihood projects coupled with an integrated package of social welfare services to needy family heads, disadvantaged women, out-of-school youth, persons with disabilities, and elderly groups. This includes social preparation or capability building services and technical assistance among others. SEA-K project provides a capital up to a maximum of P150,000 per association composed of 25 families and P75,000 for Basic Management Training Seminar or livelihood assistance. |
| Emergency Shelter Assistance (ESA) | This is the provision of limited financial or material assistance to families for the repair of their houses that were damaged by natural or man-made calamities. Estimated cost of core shelter units is P25,000 per beneficiary. |
| Day Care Services | Supplemental parental care is provided through this project for children from 3 - 5 years old who may be potentially neglected, neglected, or abandoned during the day when parents cannot attend to their needs. Estimated cost of each day care center project is P150,000 per building construction for an average of 30 pre-schoolers. |
| Core Shelter Assistance Program (CSAP) | This is the construction of core dwellings for families who have been displaced by natural calamities. This is implemented with LGUs and the organised groups of disaster victims that assume the labour counterpart in the construction. Each core shelter is designed to withstand 180 kpw wind velocity, a moderate earthquake and other similar natural hazards. Estimated cost of core shelter units is P25,000 per beneficiary. |
| Educational Assistance | This covers limited financial aid to students who cannot afford to shoulder all the cost of their education. Educational assistance was provided at P7,500 per student per semester for a two-year course. |
| Innovative projects | Projects are developed outside of the regular social welfare and development programs to aid the communities in fulfilling their basic needs. Most of these projects are infrastructures line poAPPENDIX water systems, farm-to-market roads, multi-purpose drying pavement and sanitary toilets. Projects amount to at least P150,000 to P200,000 for an average of 125 families. A sanitary toilet would cost about P1,000 per family. |

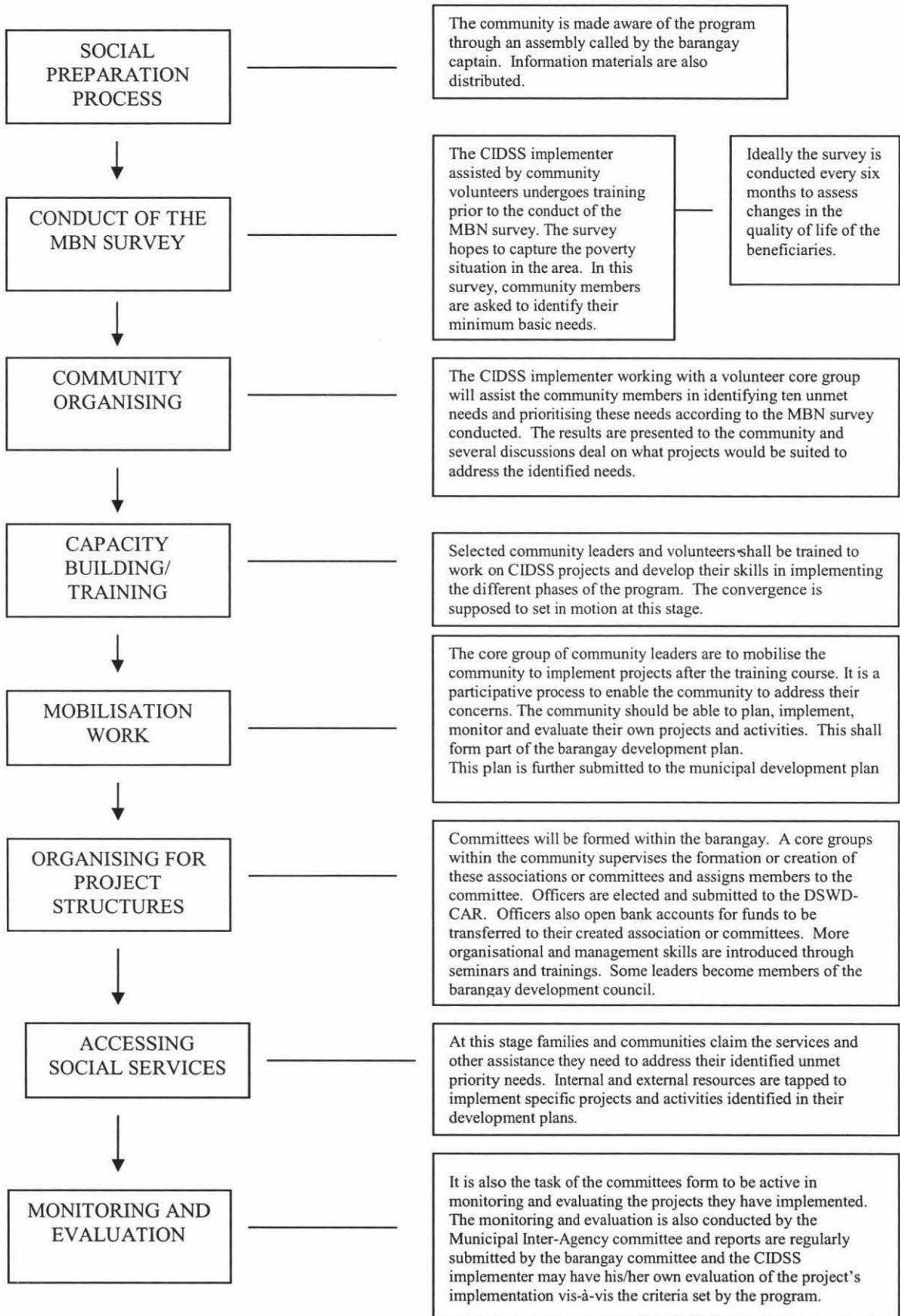
Source: CAR-CIDSS Secretariat and Public Affairs Unit, 1999

APPENDIX 7
Major Implementation Phases of the CIDSS Program

| PHASE I Pre-Implementation | PHASE II Implementation | PHASE III Localisation |
|--|---|---|
| Selection of target barangay <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • three poorest barangays in the municipal level • three urban poor communities in the cities | Social Preparation - unifying various development players in the local level on goals and targets at the community level | National government agencies shall affect the turnover of the CIDSS management to the LGU within a period of Five (5) years |
| Criteria of selection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high incidence of unmet needs based on MBN survey • high incidence of socially dysfunctional families • low level of participation in community projects and activities • additional criteria defined by the MIAC | Program orientation | Institutionalisation of all CIDSS strategies and components as a response mechanism to address the unmet MBN at the barangay, municipal and provincial government units |
| Passage of local level ordinances | Community entry | |
| Provincial, municipal, barangay level ordinances formalising the implementation of the CIDSS and supporting establishment of corresponding inter-agency committees | Formation of community (neighbourhood) plan - a process of community awareness by providing opportunities for participatory community endeavours | |
| Designation of community-based CIDSS development workers | Local researchers training (e.g. BHWs) for the implementation of the MBN survey | |
| | Capacity building | |
| Training of CIDSS development workers | Presentation of MBN survey results | |
| CIDSS Basic Training | Data analysis | |
| CIDSS Regional Inter-Agency Committee orientation and consultation with their provincial, city municipal counterparts | Problem identification and prioritisation | |
| CIDSS orientation for municipal government officials | Formulation of the sitio (smaller village) development plan | |
| | Formulation of the community development plan | |
| | Making the socio-economic profile | |
| | Profile presentation to the local development councils | |
| | Integration of barangay of the community development plans | |
| | Formation of function groups or committees per neighbourhood or sitios | |
| | Project planning | |
| | Accessing social services | |
| | Program management | |
| | Monitoring and evaluation - <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regularly conducted by area supervisors and the inter-agency committees involved • Annual evaluation of the inter-agency at all levels | |

Source: Adopted from Caluen, pp. 3-4

APPENDIX 8 CIDSS Implementation Flow



APPENDIX 9
SRA Awareness, 1996 – 1997

| Categories | | June 1996 (%) | April 1997 (%) |
|----------------------|--------------|---------------|----------------|
| NCR | | 19 | 28 |
| Luzon | | 22 | 40 |
| | Urban | 17 | 24 |
| | Rural | 19 | 23 |
| Visayas | | 22 | 33 |
| | Urban | 31 | 43 |
| | Rural | 17 | 27 |
| Mindanao | | 16 | 24 |
| | Urban | 22 | 30 |
| | Rural | 12 | 19 |
| Socio-economic class | ABC | 25 | 49 |
| | D | 16 | 23 |
| | E | 12 | 18 |
| Gender | Male | 20 | 30 |
| | Female | 18 | 26 |
| Age Group | 18-24 | 12 | 29 |
| | 25-34 | 19 | 29 |
| | 35-44 | 21 | 31 |
| | 45 and above | 20 | 26 |

Source: SWS 1997 Survey in Sourcebook of the SRA, 1998, p. 37

APPENDIX 10
Media Usage, 2001

| TELEVISION | | | | | | |
|----------------|----|-----------|----------|----------|---------|----------|
| | RP | Metro Mla | N. Luzon | S. Luzon | Visayas | Mindanao |
| 3 + hrs/day | 43 | 62 | 48 | 53 | 30 | 30 |
| 1 - 2 hrs/day | 18 | 17 | 17 | 9 | 23 | 25 |
| less 1 hr/day | 6 | 5 | 8 | 4 | 8 | 6 |
| few days/wk | 7 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 3 |
| seldom | 24 | 9 | 18 | 27 | 29 | 30 |
| never | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| RADIO | | | | | | |
| | RP | Metro Mla | N. Luzon | S. Luzon | Visayas | Mindanao |
| 3 + hrs/day | 33 | 43 | 31 | 36 | 32 | 28 |
| 1 - 2 hrs/day | 15 | 9 | 11 | 11 | 21 | 23 |
| less 1 hr/day | 7 | 6 | 10 | 3 | 11 | 6 |
| few days/wk | 9 | 10 | 14 | 8 | 8 | 5 |
| seldom | 32 | 31 | 30 | 39 | 27 | 34 |
| never | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Newspapers | | | | | | |
| | RP | Metro Mla | N. Luzon | S. Luzon | Visayas | Mindanao |
| Daily | 15 | 35 | 11 | 18 | 10 | 8 |
| Few times a wk | 12 | 20 | 7 | 9 | 15 | 12 |
| weekly | 6 | 4 | 13 | 4 | 5 | 5 |
| less once/wk | 55 | 39 | 57 | 59 | 64 | 52 |
| never | 11 | 1 | 12 | 10 | 6 | 23 |

Source: Mangahas, 2001, in www.sws.org.ph

APPENDIX 11¹
Sablan Consolidated MBN Profile, 1995 - 1998

| BASIC NEEDS | NO. | INDICATORS | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 |
|----------------------|-----|--|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | | | Total Number of families: <u>154²</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>154</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>163</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>185</u> |
| | | | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs |
| SURVIVAL | | | | | | |
| • Food and Nutrition | 1 | Newborns with birth weight of at least 2.5 kgs | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 2 | No severely and moderately underweight children under 5 years of age | 21 | 13 | 5 | 4 |
| | 3 | Pregnant and lactating mothers provided with iron and iodine supplements | 2 | 3 | 10 | 0 |
| | 4 | Infants exclusively breastfed for at least four months | 1 | 2 | 0 | 6 |
| • Health | 5 | Deliveries attended by trained personnel | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | 6 | 1-1 infants fully immunised | 2 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| | 7 | Pregnant women given 2 doses of tetanus toxoid | 1 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| | 8 | Not more than 1 diarrhoea episode per child below 5 years old | 2 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| | 9 | No deaths in the family due to preventive causes within one year | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | 10 | Couples with access to family planning services | - | 13 | 1 | 0 |

¹ Balagot, 1998

² Total number of families are the number of the recipients of the program

| BASIC NEEDS | NO. | INDICATORS | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 |
|-------------------------------------|-----|--|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | | | Total Number of families: <u>154²</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>154</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>163</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>185</u> |
| | | | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs |
| | 11 | Couples practicing family planning in the last six months | 63 | 51 | 34 | 10 |
| | 12 | Solo parents availing of health care services | - | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| • Water and Sanitation | 13 | Family with access to potable water within 250 meters | 47 | 41 | 18 | 0 |
| | 14 | Family with sanitary toilet | 53 | 39 | 26 | 51 |
| • Clothing | 15 | Family members with basic clothing (at least three sets of external and internal clothing) | 21 | 15 | 9 | 4 |
| SECURITY | | | | | | |
| • Shelter | 16 | Housing owned, rented and shared | - | 14 | 7 | 7 |
| | 17 | Housing durable for at least five years | 27 | 27 | 11 | 18 |
| • Peace and Order/ Public Safety | 18 | Family members safe from crimes against person | 18 | 12 | 4 | 0 |
| | 19 | Family members safe from crimes against property | 10 | 13 | 4 | 0 |
| | 20 | No family members severely affected by natural disasters | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 21 | No family member is a victim of armed conflict | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| • Income and Livelihood | 22 | Head of the family employed | 34 | 24 | 9 | 2 |
| | 23 | Others members of the family 15 years old and above employed | 78 | 61 | 46 | 42 |

| BASIC NEEDS | NO. | INDICATORS | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 |
|---|-----|--|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | | | Total Number of families: <u>154</u> ² | Total Number of Families: <u>154</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>163</u> | Total Number of Families: <u>185</u> |
| | | | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs | Number of Families with Unmet Needs |
| | 24 | Family with income above subsistence level | - | 97 | 76 | 65 |
| ENABLING | | | | | | |
| • Basic Education and Literacy | 25 | Children 3- 5 years old attending day care/pre-school | 52 | 15 | 22 | 31 |
| | 26 | Children 6 – 12 years old in elementary school | 5 | 4 | 11 | 15 |
| | 27 | Children 13-16 years old in high school | 10 | 2 | 15 | 14 |
| | 28 | Family members 10 years old and above able to read, write and do simple computations | 24 | 22 | 22 | 21 |
| • People's Participation in Community Development | 29 | Family members involved in at least 1 legitimate people's organisations/ association for community development | 76 | 22 | 29 | 21 |
| | 30 | Family members able to vote at elections | 22 | 21 | 18 | 4 |
| • Family Care/ Psycho-Social | 31 | No children below 15 years old engaged in hazardous occupation | 17 | 3 | 2 | 16 |
| | 32 | No incidence of domestic violence | 4 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| | 33 | No child (below 7 years old) left unattended | 19 | 2 | 10 | 0 |

APPENDIX 12
Summary of CIDSS Implemented Projects in Kamog, 1995 – 1997

| Year | Projects/Activity | Number of Beneficiary | Funding |
|---|--|------------------------------|------------|
| 1995 | Leadership training for community leaders and volunteers | 35 individuals | 9,195.00 |
| | SEA-K Pampamilya (Family) Training | 38 individuals | 8,095.00 |
| | SEA-K Pampamilya (Family) Seed Capital | 30 individuals | 100,000.00 |
| | Day Care Center Construction | 3- 5 yrs. old | 80,000.00 |
| | Assistance to individuals in crisis situations | 3 families | 4,900.00 |
| | Educational assistance | 5 youths | 26,357.00 |
| | Disaster preparedness and management training | 30 families | 10,000.00 |
| | Transportation, food, allowance and dormitory fees for skills training in sewing | 2 women | 2,460.00 |
| | Municipal Inter-agency committee consultation dialogue | 40 participants | 3,150.00 |
| 1996 | Food for work for waterworks repair | 35 families | 13,000.00 |
| | Food for work for removal of landslides, clearing of canals | 40 families | 18,200.00 |
| | AICS | 3 families | 4,500.00 |
| | Educational assistance | 4 youths | 23,526.00 |
| | Emergency shelter assistance | 4 families | 8,000.00 |
| | Transportation, food, allowance and dormitory fee of women in toy/sewing craft | 3 women | 1,584.00 |
| | Tirepathing Project (Kamog – Banao farm to market road) | community | 90,980.00 |
| | Tirepathing Project – Phase 1 (Kamog – Alog Road) | community | 85,160.00 |
| | Training kit for PEX-DCS | 2 parents; 2 workers | 626.32 |
| | ECEP kits for day care center | DCC parent and worker | 723.51 |
| | Books for reference of the day care worker | DCC worker | 931.58 |
| | Tapes for Teachers Guide | DCC worker | 513.16 |
| | Supplies for day care worker | DCC worker | 3,022.16 |
| | ELE for day care worker | DCC worker | 6,843.16 |
| | 1997 | Emergency shelter assistance | 6 families |
| AICS | | 1 family | 2,000.00 |
| Construction of public toilet in barangay | | Community | 28,454.00 |
| Mid-year term evaluation workshop | | 40 participants | 1,856.00 |

Source: Balagot (1997) Department of Social Welfare and Development, Cordillera Administrative Region

APPENDIX 13¹
Role delineation in CIDSS implementation

| Activity | Regional DSWD | Provincial Social Welfare Office | Municipal Social Welfare Office | CIDSS Implementer |
|---|---|--|--|---|
| I. Area selection 1. gathering of secondary data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • confirms the selected target barangay | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides access to existing records relevant to the identification of target municipalities • advocates the inclusion of CIDSS targets within the prioritised areas | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides access to existing/latest profile of municipality/barangay • advocates for the inclusion of CIDSS targets within LGU prioritised areas | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reviews available survey records of the municipality • ranks barangays as per secondary data gathered and SW indicators • informs LGUs on the identification of barangays • prepares spot maps/ neighbourhood clusters |
| 2. Orientation of barangay officials on the SRA-CIDSS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides the necessary resources | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assists in the conduct of orientation and defines points of partnerships | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts orientation with concerned barangay captains, councilmen and members of SRA-CIDSS |

¹ DSWD-CAR, 1995

| Activity | Regional DSWD | Provincial Social Welfare Office | Municipal Social Welfare Office | CIDSS Implementer |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| <p>II. SOCIAL PREPARATION</p> <p>1. Formation of core group</p> <p>2. Orientation of core group on participative, study and analysis and presentation, MBN</p> <p>3. Conduct of participative survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • filling-up of MBN • study and analysis • presentation of gathered data • formulation of community development goals • formulation of community development plans | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts monitoring and provides technical assistance through demonstration | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides list and registry of volunteers • assists in the conduct of orientation/demonstration • assist in advocating and planning convergence • monitors neighbourhood ac | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identify potential core group members as per identification of neighbourhood • conducts initial meeting with core group • conducts demonstration to core group of participative survey analysis presentation, filling up or MBN • institute the conduct of consultation to advocate support from other participating groups |
| <p>4. Identification of 100 target families</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • submits masterlist of target families to CO | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • integrates/includes target families within the provincial plan in terms of their devolved functions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • integrates/includes target families within the municipal development plan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identification of 100 target families based on survey and MBN • submits masterlist of target families |

| Activity | Regional DSWD | Provincial Social Welfare Office | Municipal Social Welfare Office | CIDSS Implementer |
|--|---|--|---|---|
| V. ACCESS TO SERVICES 1. Child and Youth Development 1.1. day care center | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducts technical assistance/field monitoring • provides assistance of day care center construction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • augments funding and maintenance of the day care center | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • facilitates the preparation of program of work, sketch plan, lot donation, memorandum of agreement (MOA), • identification of day care worker and provide salary of worker • oversee the maintenance of the day care center | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organises the committee on the day care center • prepares the action plan • assists the community in the preparation of the project proposal and other documents |
| 1.2. IHRDPY | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides technical assistance and field monitoring | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acts as coordinator to organise the provincial PYM | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • implements the IHRDPY | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • co-ordinates with the MSWDO |
| 1.3. Children in especially difficult circumstances | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • implements programs and services | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • may augment funds provided by DSWD-CAR for dialogues, forums, trainings • provide immediate assistance to abused child like taking child to hospital for treatment and removal of child from abusive family to prevent further abuse • report cases of child abuse immediately to social worker or other authorities like the BCPC, police, barangay captain | | |
| 1.4. Women's Welfare Program 1.4.1. community-based skills training for women | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts technical assistance and field monitoring • provides funding support and other logistics • extends capital assistance • identification of market outlets • monitor and follow up graduates of training program | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides capital assistance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts modular training sessions as an integrated service • links/generates resources • identified community-based trainer • follows-up graduates | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • coordinates with MSWDO • mobilises committee in the identification of women's needs, women clientele • conducts necessary social preparation activities • identify/organise beneficiaries • requests budget and technical support |

| Activity | Regional DSWD | Provincial Social Welfare Office | Municipal Social Welfare Office | CIDSS Implementer |
|--|--|---|--|---|
| 4. Emergency Assistance Program | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts technical assistance and field monitoring • augments funding support • conducts training • conducts family preparedness disaster program • CSAP training to the organised RRC | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides funds for capital building or program project funding • mobilises PDCC for funding of disaster operation and capital building | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • implements the devolved emergency assistance programs • assists in the conduct of trainings • mobilises the MDCC • CSAP <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • LGU as lot donor • conducts SPPP • prepares necessary documents • implementor | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mobilises the committees • assists in planning/proposing projects • assists the MSWDO in the conduct of preparatory action plans for CSAP project and accomplishment of documents |
| 5. Disabled Persons Welfare Program | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts field monitoring/technical assistance programs • training of MSWDOs and volunteers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • generates/provides funding support for municipal program implementation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • implements devolved services and special projects for PWDs or senior citizens • identification and training of volunteers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • refers needy PWDs and senior citizens to the MSWDO • conducts/assists MSWDO in preparatory action |
| 6. SEA/Livelihood Assistance Program 6.1. SEA Kaunlaran | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conducts field monitoring/technical assistance programs • provides funding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • generates/provides funding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assists in the selection of beneficiaries • augment funds for SEA-K training • assists in the conduct of weekly meetings/assembly • assists in the preparation of project proposals • provides other support services | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • follow-up beneficiaries • mobilises committee in the implementation of the SK project • coordinates with provincial employment officers and |

| Activity | Regional DSWD | Provincial Social Welfare Office | Municipal Social Welfare Office | CIDSS Implementer |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 7. Family and Community Welfare Program (FCWP) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides technical assistance and field monitoring in devolved programs • provides funding for capability building actions • attends to case conference if needed • acts as trainer/resource persons • work out for the maintenance and sustainability of turn-over projects and CIDSS implementor to LGU | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assists in the implementation of the FCWP in the provincial and municipal levels • acts on referrals • included funding for projects/activities in workplan and financial plan e.g. provincial federations • links/provides/generates/coordinates for FWCP (CIDSS) support in the provincial, national, international levels • attends and provides/augments funding for capability building and evaluation workshops • act as trainer/resource person • plans activities/budget for maintenance and sustainability of project in pilot areas to augment LGU fund • plan activities/budget for CIDSS expansion areas | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assists in the implementation from situational analysis, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the FWCP (CIDSS) implementation • conducts sessions • acts on referrals and make follow-ups • assists the SWS, PEO and CIDSS in the conduct of trainings and preparatory activities • includes funding for projects/activities/logistical support in work and financial plan • links/provides/generates/coordinates for FWCP (CIDSS) support e.g. attends with CIDSS worker meetings with council and inter-sectoral councils • attends and provides/augments funding for capability activities and evaluation workshops • documents cases handled e.g. counselling sessions and conducts case conference and follow-ups • act as trainer/resource person • LGU plan for pilot areas | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mobilises. coordinates with committee in the barangay level • coordinates major activities/projects with MSWDO and the PSWDO if needed • conducts preparatory activities for FCWP services and mobilises committee • make referrals to MSWDO and PSWDO if needed e.g. family planning, responsible parenthood program • coordinates trainings • assists beneficiaries in planning/generating resources from MSWDO, PSWDO, etc. • gives updates on FWCP implementation in the municipal, provincial levels to advocate/generate support • attends trainings/seminars/evaluation workshops and acts on agreements reached • attends case conference • refers cases • coordinates activities, resource persons • continues to implement FWCP in the pilot and expansion areas |

| Activity | Regional DSWD | Provincial Social Welfare Office | Municipal Social Welfare Office | CIDSS Implementer |
|----------|---------------|----------------------------------|---|-------------------|
| | • | • | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • plan activities/budget for maintenance and sustainability of projects and CIDSS implementer in the in the LGU plan for pilot areas • plan activities/budget for CIDSS expansion areas (replication) • continue to assist CIDSS implementer and implement devolved programs and services | |

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BARANGAY RESIDENTS OF KAMOG, SABLAN, BENGUET

Good day! I am a student in Development Studies at Massey University in New Zealand. I am asking you to answer questions on this form in line with my thesis on the role of communication in the delivery of the government's poverty alleviation programs. An enumerator to which I have direct supervision shall administer this form. Your answers will remain confidential and will only be used for purposes of this research likewise will in no manner put you to any type of danger or risk. Thank you for your kind assistance.

Name of interviewer : _____
 Place : _____
 Date : _____

I. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

1. Sex : () M () F 2. Civil Status : () Single () Married () Widow () Others _____
3. Level of Education : () some elementary () elementary graduate () some high school () high school graduate () college undergraduate () college graduate () others _____
4. Present Occupation : _____
5. What is your primary source of income: _____

II. MEDIA POSSESSION AND USAGE

6. Please indicate your answers on the space provided.

| Possession | Frequency of Usage | | | | Type of Program |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--------|---------|------|-----------------|
| | Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Once | |
| Radio | | | | ✓ | |
| TV | ✓ | | | | |
| Buy national newspapers | | | | | |
| Borrow national newspapers | | | | | |
| Buy regional newspapers | | | | | |
| Borrow regional newspapers | | | | | |
| Buy magazines | | | | | |
| Borrow magazines | | | | | |
| Government publications | | | | | |

7. If none of the above, do you listen to neighbours or friends about recent developments:
 ___ / YES ___ NO

8. If yes, what type of information interests you most? _____

III. AWARENESS OF POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAMS

9. Have you heard of these following poverty alleviation programs:

| Pls. Check | Poverty Alleviation Program | Years |
|------------|---|----------------|
| | Lowest Municipalities Program | 1986 - 1992 |
| | Social Reform Agenda | 1992 - 1998 |
| | Lingap para sa Mahihirap | 1998 - 2000 |
| | KALAHI – Kapit-Bisig Laban sa Kahirapan | 2000 - present |

10. Where do you usually get your information on these programs and in what frequency?

| Media | Frequency of Usage | | | |
|---|--------------------|--------|---------|------|
| | Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Once |
| Radio | | | | |
| TV | | | | |
| National newspapers | | | | |
| Regional newspapers | | | | |
| Magazines | | | | |
| Billboards | | | | |
| Posters | | | | |
| Brochures, pamphlets, flyers, primers | | | | |
| Barangay officials | | | | |
| Municipal/Provincial officials | | | | |
| Congressman | | | | |
| Forums, meetings | | | | |
| NGOs | | | | |
| Extension workers (line agency personnel) | | | | |
| School | | | | |
| Church | | | | |
| Others (pls. specify) | | | | |

11. What kinds of poverty alleviation programs have you heard?

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> employment | <input type="checkbox"/> peace and order |
| <input type="checkbox"/> farming techniques and methods | <input type="checkbox"/> housing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> credit assistance | <input type="checkbox"/> infrastructure |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cheap medicines | <input type="checkbox"/> educational benefits |
| <input type="checkbox"/> trade and market opportunities | <input type="checkbox"/> health |
| <input type="checkbox"/> nutrition | <input type="checkbox"/> sanitation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> food production | <input type="checkbox"/> others _____ |

12. At present, what kinds of poverty alleviation programs would you want government to focus on?

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> employment | <input type="checkbox"/> peace and order |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> farming techniques and methods | <input type="checkbox"/> housing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> credit assistance | <input type="checkbox"/> infrastructure |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cheap medicines | <input type="checkbox"/> educational benefits |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> trade and market opportunities | <input type="checkbox"/> health |
| <input type="checkbox"/> nutrition | <input type="checkbox"/> sanitation |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> food production | <input type="checkbox"/> others _____ |

13. What media would you want to receive it and in what frequency?

| Media | Frequency of Usage | | | |
|---|--------------------|--------|---------|------|
| | Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Once |
| Radio | | | | |
| TV | | | | |
| National newspapers | | | | |
| Regional newspapers | | | | |
| Magazines | | | | |
| Billboards | | | | |
| Posters | | | | |
| Brochures, pamphlets, flyers, primers | | | | |
| Barangay officials | | | | |
| Municipal/Provincial officials | | | | |
| Congressman | | | | |
| Forums, meetings | | | | |
| NGOs | | | | |
| Extension workers (line agency personnel) | | | | |
| School | | | | |
| Church | | | | |
| Others (pls. specify) | | | | |

IV. INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP CONTACTS

14. Do you consult somebody when you have a problem in the community?

YES NO

12. Whom do you consult?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Friends | <input type="checkbox"/> Family members/relatives |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Neighbours | <input type="checkbox"/> extension worker from line agency |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Barangay captain | <input type="checkbox"/> Farmer's association |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Barangay kagawad | <input type="checkbox"/> Others _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Health Worker | |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Municipal official | |

13. Who among them was the most helpful? _____

14. In the last six months, have you consulted any of these people?

YES NO

15. Why have you consulted these people? _____

16. Have you ever actively joined any barangay activity in the last six months?
 YES NO
17. If yes, what activity have you actively joined? _____
18. How often do you contact the barangay when you have problems or issues?
 weekly once every six months
 monthly once a year
 never
19. What issues do you bring to the barangay?
 employment peace and order
 farming techniques and methods housing
 credit assistance infrastructure
 cheap medicines educational benefits
 trade and market opportunities health
 nutrition sanitation
 food production others _____
20. Who initiate these meetings?
 You Barangay Officials
21. How often are barangay meetings held?
 once a month
 once every two months
 once every six months
 once a year
21. How are people gathered for a meeting?
 by announcements posted in barangay hall or other places
 word of mouth by messenger
 letter notice sent through messenger
 others _____
22. Where do you usually meet for barangay meetings? _____
23. Do you receive visits from the extension worker from line agencies?
 YES NO
24. What line agency often visit your barangay?
 Department of Agrarian Reform
 Department of Agriculture
 Department of Environment and Natural Resources
 Department of Interior and Local Government
 Department of Health
 Department of Education
 Department of Social Welfare and Development
 Department of Public Works and Highways including the National
 Irrigation Administration
 Others _____

25. How often do they visit the barangay?
 weekly once in six months
 once a month once a year
26. Do their programs correspond to poverty alleviation programs?
27. What are the issues discussed in meetings with the extension worker?
-

V. AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT

28. What development projects are there in the barangay in the last six months?
29. Where you involve in the development project? YES NO
29. What is your participation in the development project?
 initial consultation
 project conceptualization
 project planning
 project implementation
 project monitoring
 project evaluation
30. Are you satisfied with your involvement in the development project?
 YES NO

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CIDSS RECIPIENTS

Good day! I am a student in Development Studies at Massey University in New Zealand. I am asking you to answer questions on this form in line with my thesis on the role of communication in the delivery of the government's poverty alleviation programs. An enumerator to which I have direct supervision shall administer this form. Your answers will remain confidential and will only be used for purposes of this research likewise will in no manner put you to any type of danger or risk. Thank you for your kind assistance.

Name of interviewer : _____

Place : _____

Date : _____

I. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

1. Sex : () M () F 2. Civil Status : () Single () Married () Widow () Others _____

3. Level of Education : () some elementary () elementary graduate () some high school
() high school graduate () college undergraduate () college graduate
() others _____

4. Present Occupation : _____

5. What is your primary source of income: _____

II. AWARENESS OF THE POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAM

6. Are you aware of the Comprehensive Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS) implemented by the government from 1994 to 2000? _____ YES _____ NO

7. Where did you learn about the CIDSS prior to its implementation in the barangay?

| | | | |
|-------|--|-------|---------------------|
| _____ | Friends | _____ | Regional DSWD |
| _____ | Neighbours | _____ | Mass media |
| _____ | Barangay Captain | _____ | Radio |
| _____ | Barangay Kagawad | _____ | Television |
| _____ | Municipal Official | _____ | National newspaper |
| _____ | Provincial Official | _____ | Regional newspapers |
| _____ | Billboards | _____ | Posters |
| _____ | Government publications (brochures, pamphlets) | | |

8. Are you aware that it is a poverty alleviation program of the government? _____ YES _____ NO

9. What were the services offered by the program?

| | | | |
|-------|--------------------------------|-------|----------------------|
| _____ | employment | _____ | peace and order |
| _____ | farming techniques and methods | _____ | housing |
| _____ | credit assistance | _____ | infrastructure |
| _____ | cheap medicines | _____ | educational benefits |
| _____ | trade and market opportunities | _____ | health |
| _____ | nutrition | _____ | sanitation |
| _____ | food production | _____ | others _____ |

10. Did you participate in the program? _____ YES _____ NO

11. How did you participate in the program?

_____ project conceptualization
_____ project planning
_____ project implementation
_____ project monitoring
_____ project evaluation

13.3. Seminars/Workshops/Lectures

| Activity | Level of Satisfaction | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-------|----|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly Agree | Agree | No | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| Timely | | | | | |
| Easy to understand | | | | | |
| Recommended courses of action feasible | | | | | |
| Boring | | | | | |
| Interesting | | | | | |

13.4. Information Center

| Activity | Level of Satisfaction | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|-------|----|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly Agree | Agree | No | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| There is a need for an information center | | | | | |
| No need for an information center in the area | | | | | |
| Information center to be located in the barangay hall | | | | | |
| Information center to be located not far from the barangay hall | | | | | |
| Information center to be located far from the barangay hall | | | | | |

13.4 Farmers' Organisations

| Activity | Level of Satisfaction | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-------|----|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly Agree | Agree | No | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| Should be able to help solve members' problems | | | | | |
| One-way to gather information from the people | | | | | |
| Channel government policies to the people | | | | | |
| Tool to unite the people | | | | | |

13.5. Forums

| Activity | Level of Satisfaction | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-------|----|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly Agree | Agree | No | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| Meetings are waste of time | | | | | |
| Problems are solved in forums | | | | | |
| Serve as ventilation arena to voice concerns | | | | | |
| Learning about people's needs | | | | | |

13.5. Extension worker

| Activity | Level of Satisfaction | | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|----|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly Agree | Agree | No | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| Friendly | | | | | |
| Ready to help | | | | | |
| Too young or too old | | | | | |
| Willing to learn about people | | | | | |
| Good at examining problems | | | | | |
| Cannot be understood | | | | | |
| Not knowledgeable | | | | | |
| Always around to answer queries | | | | | |
| Needs training | | | | | |
| Not interested to help people | | | | | |
| Has leadership qualities | | | | | |

III. SOCIAL AND GROUP CONTACTS

14. How often does the extension worker visit the barangay?
 Daily Twice or more a month
 Twice or more a week Monthly
 Once a week Once every six months
15. How long does the visit last?
 Whole day Few hours
 Half a day Longer
16. What topics are discussed by the extension worker?
 employment peace and order
 farming techniques and methods housing
 credit assistance infrastructure
 cheap medicines educational benefits
 trade and market opportunities health
 nutrition sanitation
 food production others _____
17. Was the barangay involved in disseminating information on the CIDSS?
 YES NO
18. How did the barangay disseminated the information to the people?
 by announcements posted in barangay hall or other places
 word of mouth by messenger
 letter notice sent through messenger
 others _____
19. What do you do with the information you receive on the CIDSS?
 Seek further information from relatives and friends
 Seek further information from barangay
 Seek further information from extension worker
 Ignore information
 Did not immediately act upon information received

20. Who are the people you discuss the information with?
- | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Family | <input type="checkbox"/> | Extension Worker |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Relatives | <input type="checkbox"/> | Barangay |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Friends | <input type="checkbox"/> | Others (pls. specify) _____ |
21. What do you think are the best methods in disseminating information?
- Mass media
 - Radio
 - Television
 - National newspapers
 - Regional newspapers
 - Billboards
 - Posters
 - Barangay
 - Extension worker
 - Municipal government
 - Provincial government