

ADDRESSING THE CHALLENGES OF GLOBALIZATION: GENDER, GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT

Joel Lasam*

As we celebrate the milestones of women in a century, one cannot deny the strides we have made to advance women's status in the Philippines. But the scope for re-thinking the participation of women and men in development and in the affairs of society is welcome, especially in a world that is continuously integrated by economic flows, technology and the movement of goods, ideas and people. There is much opportunity in globalization, but the celebration that has accompanied neoliberal promise, needs to be tempered. One has to be circumspect, given the vulnerabilities that we also face under an environment of competition, privatization and integration.

Let us discuss the challenges of globalization and how these should be understood or even critiqued, using the gender lens. By gender, I mean the "cultural, institutional and situation role, contribution and location of women and men in terms of access, ownership and control of resources, decision-making and participation." Gender Analysis is important because: (1) There is gendered division of labor; (2) There is gendered nature of access to resources; (3) Women and men experience development outcomes differently; and (4) Women and men have different levels of participation in governance and decision-making.

*Senior Economic Specialist, Women and Gender Institute, Miriam College.

Let us also examine the challenges of globalization in the light of our own constraints in the Philippines. We will also attempt to understand the intersection of governance and development with gender as a cross-cutting dimension.

DEFINING GLOBALIZATION

Globalization has various meanings. In order for us to have a common understanding of the concept, allow me to read to you Mariama Williams' definition:

Globalization is the "...fundamental transformation of economies, internationalization and relocation of production processes, lowering of barriers for the movement of goods, services, and capital across national and regional boundaries..." (Williams, 2003).

Let us now try to understand more closely the concept of globalization by looking at its dimensions. First, globalization is marked by a period of structural change. Structural change refers to the fundamental transformation in the composition of the economy, a sector of the economy and within firms.

For example, there is declining share of agriculture in the national output. Services, on the other hand, is intensifying. According to the Philippine Human Development Report for 2002, the country's structural change is of the wrong kind. Why? Because unlike the newly industrializing countries (NICs), our structural change was not characterized by strong linkages between agriculture and industry. In NICs, the industry sector expanded while the agriculture sector contracted, signifying the absorption of excess capacity in agriculture by industry. Ours was a different experience. We skirted industrialization by proceeding to services, making the transformation less grounded on solid foundation.

The political aspect of globalization, on the other hand, refers to the spread of the neoliberal paradigm that gives primacy to the market and the conditions that create an enabling environment for the market to flourish. These include: (1) reducing the power and scope of the state to regulate market activities; (2) commercialization, privatization and deregulation; and (3) and infusing Western-style liberal democracy worldwide.

Social aspects include (1) the spread of Western value worldwide (e.g. MTV) and (2) the global reach of technology through the net as a means of connecting people.

GENDER AND GLOBALIZATION

Gender equality refers to a condition in which women and men have equal opportunity to enjoy *de facto* rights such as social, economic and legal rights, and fundamental freedoms. Examples of formal rights include the right to vote, independent rights to own land, and rights related to marriage, property, business or mobility. In this regard, equality refers to “fairness” in the condition of women and men in all life situations in the household, community, market and state.

Gender equity, on the other hand, corrects the disproportionate share of men over women, in access to resources, processes and outcomes by recognizing and addressing fully gender-specific needs arising from historical patterns of gender bias, biological difference or social inequality and discrimination. Measures or intervention to promote gender equity could be analyzed, as follows:

1. **gender-neutral** — those that leave the distribution of resources and responsibilities intact;
2. **gender-specific** — those that meet targeted needs of one

or the other gender within the existing distribution of resources; and

3. **gender redistributive** — those that take from one gender or vice-versa, for the other to benefit more equitably, and to transform existing distribution of resources among categories of men and women in an egalitarian direction. (Kabeer, 1995).

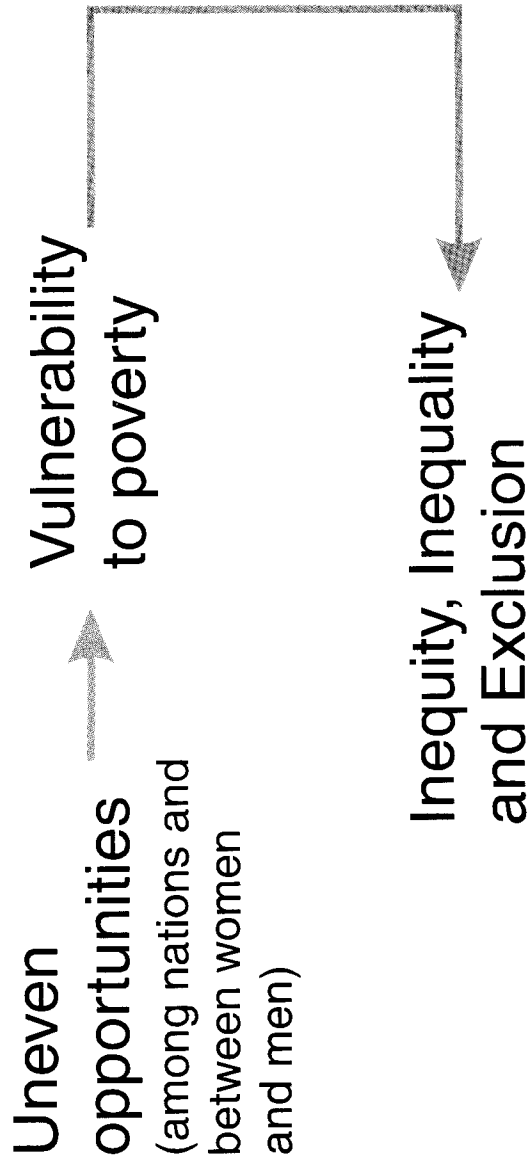
In this regard, one may view gender equity as a means to achieve gender equality. However, both gender equity and equality can only be pursued within the context of nurturing human freedoms and well-being. (see figure 1)

We have what is termed 'gendered realities' in the Philippines to describe the situation of the relationship between men and women in the country. The main characteristics are:

- Unpaid labor and social reproduction remain the domain of women (care remains invisible);
- Gender asymmetry in access to, control and ownership of resources education, information, technology, land, credit and equipment;
- Gender patterns in formal/informal employment (biases in economic participation);
- At a time when real wages are declining, female labor force participation rate increased through the reallocation of labor now better known as flexibilization and casualization;
- As women's work continue to be undercounted and women's incomes decline, there is a marked increase in the movement of women from unpaid household and subsistence agriculture to the paid economy; and
- Women lack employment security more than men, more women serve as unpaid family workers.

Figure 1

Why examine gender in globalization?



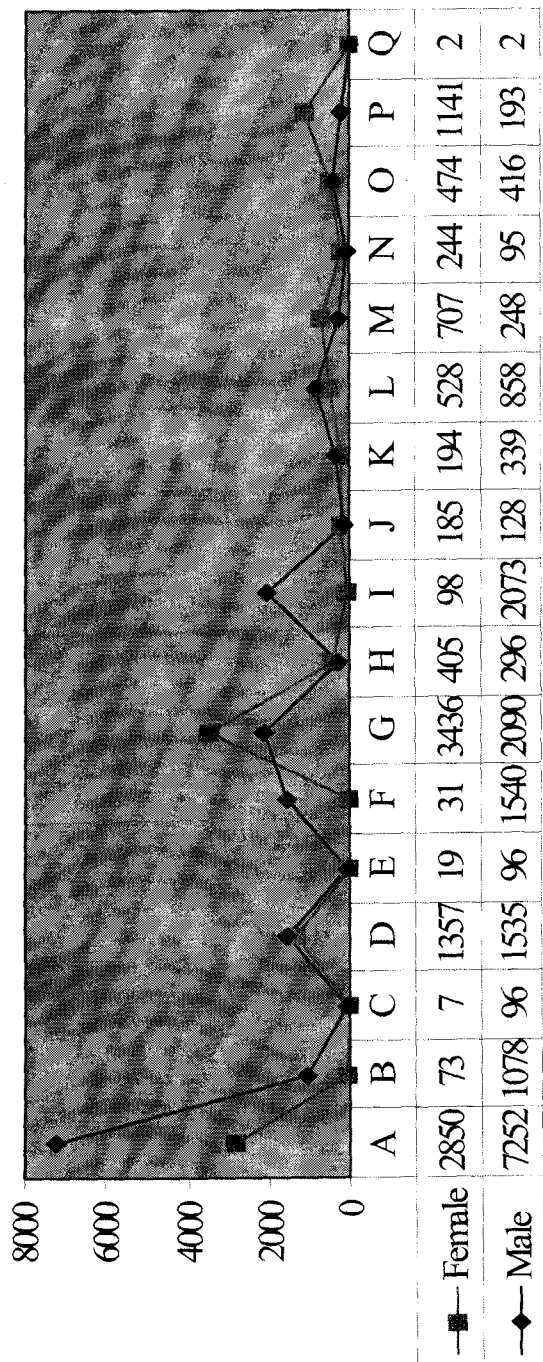
For women, in particular, the female labor force as a percentage of male has increased from 54 percent in 1980 to 60 percent in 1998, and from 35 to 38 percent during the same reference years as a percentage of the total labor force. During the period 1993-2001, the labor force participation rate (LFPR) of females increased by 5.1 percentage points from 47.9 percent in 1993 to 52.9 percent in 2001, compared to only 0.5 percentage point increase in the male LFPR from 81.8 percent in 1993 to 82.3 percent in 2001 (see Figure 2). Since the 80's, the unemployment rates have always been higher for females. However, in 1999 and 2000 female registered lower unemployment rates than males.

A comparison of inter-industry wage differentials was made for the years 1988 and 1994. In wholesale and retail trade, and community, social and personal services, where female employment is traditionally dominant, the inter-industry wage differential for females and males declined below the national average. The wages of women in the community, social and personal services, which has the highest concentration of female employment (see Figure 3) has moved farther away from the average while wages of men approximated the average (Firmeza and Durano, 2002).

Employment by Industry

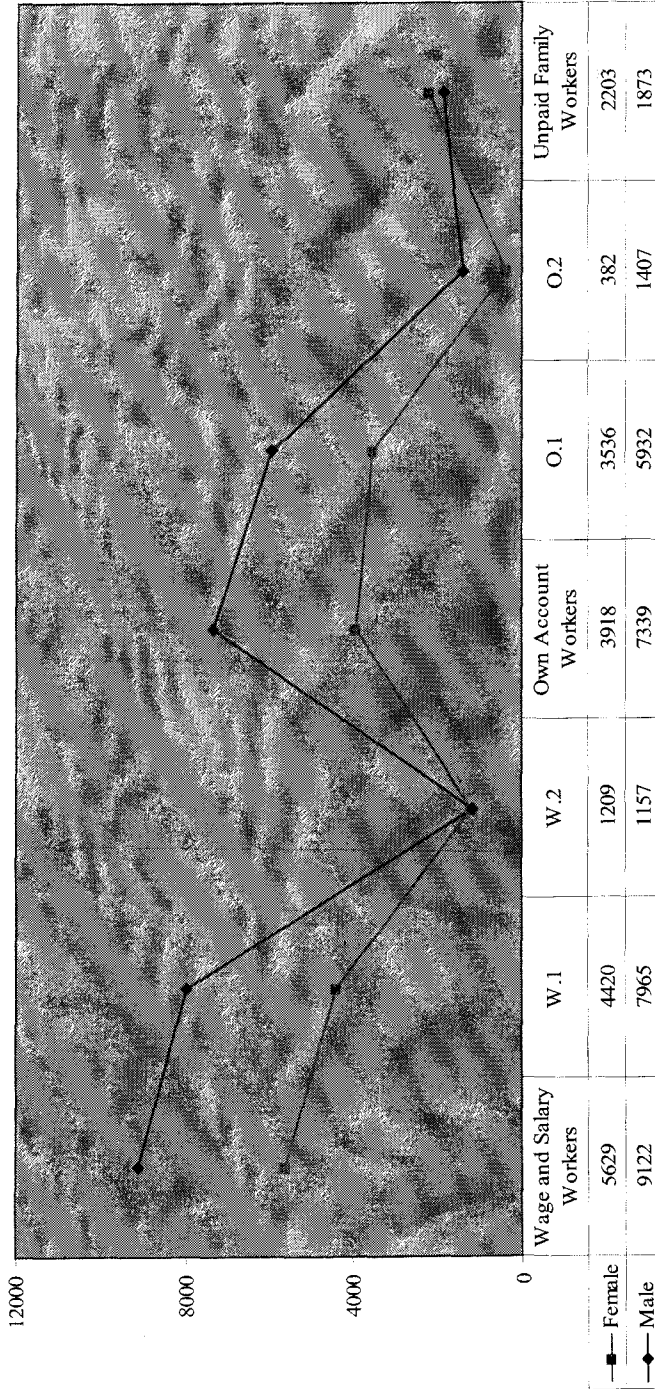
About 29 percent of the total employed female in the same period were in wholesale and retail trade, the highest concentration of female employment by industry. Following wholesale and retail trade (29 percent), and agriculture (24 percent), other industries where there was high concentration of female employment were in manufacturing at 11.5 percent of the total employed females and in private households with employed persons at 9.7 percent.

Figure 2 Employed Persons by Industry, October 2001, '000
(NSO, 2001a)



Legend: A-agriculture, hunting and forestry; B-fishing; C-mining and quarrying; D-manufacturing; E-electricity, gas and water; F-construction; G-wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods; H-hotels and restaurants; I-transportation, storage and communication; J-financial intermediation; K-real estate, renting and business activities; L-public administration and defense, compulsory social security; M-education; N-health and social work; O-other community, social and personal services; P-private households with employed persons; and Q-extra-territorial organizations and bodies.

Figure 3 Employed Persons by Class of Worker, October 2001 ('000)
(NSO, 2001a)



Legend: W.1-worked for private household/establishment/family-operated activity; W.2-worked for government/government corporation; O.1- self-employed; and O.2-employer.

Employment by Occupation Group

In terms of distribution of female employment by occupation groups, laborers and unskilled workers had the highest concentration at 35 percent of the total employed females, followed by official of government and special interest organization, corporate executives, managers, managing proprietors and supervisors, 15 percent; service workers and shop and market sales workers, 12 percent; and farmers, forestry workers and fisher-folks, 9 percent. (See figure 4)

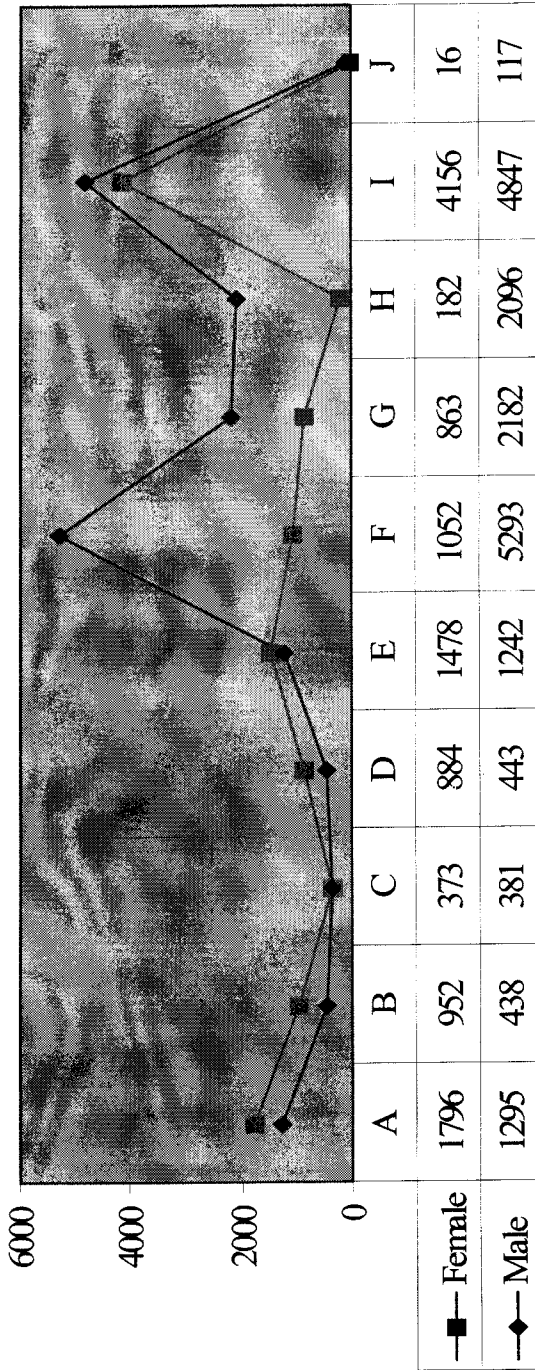
Employment by Class of Worker

In terms of distribution of female employment by class of worker, wage and salary workers accounted for 48 percent; own-account workers, 33 percent; and unpaid family workers, 19 percent.

In the illustration on figure 5, the arrows indicate a dynamic representation of linkages between production and social production how this is being undermined by governance and social protection to ensure human freedoms and well-being (Kabeer, 1995).

This indicative framework shows that social protection through publicly-provided, market-based or community sharing arrangements lead to the attainment of human freedoms and well-being. These are characterized by health, nutrition, education, personal security, reproductive health, and political participation. Governance and institutions of government, market, and civil society in turn reinforce the mechanisms for social protection. Productive resources lead to production, care resources to better social reproduction which impacts on production and is in turn affected by it. Income from production leads to the enhancement of human freedoms, just as social reproduction does.

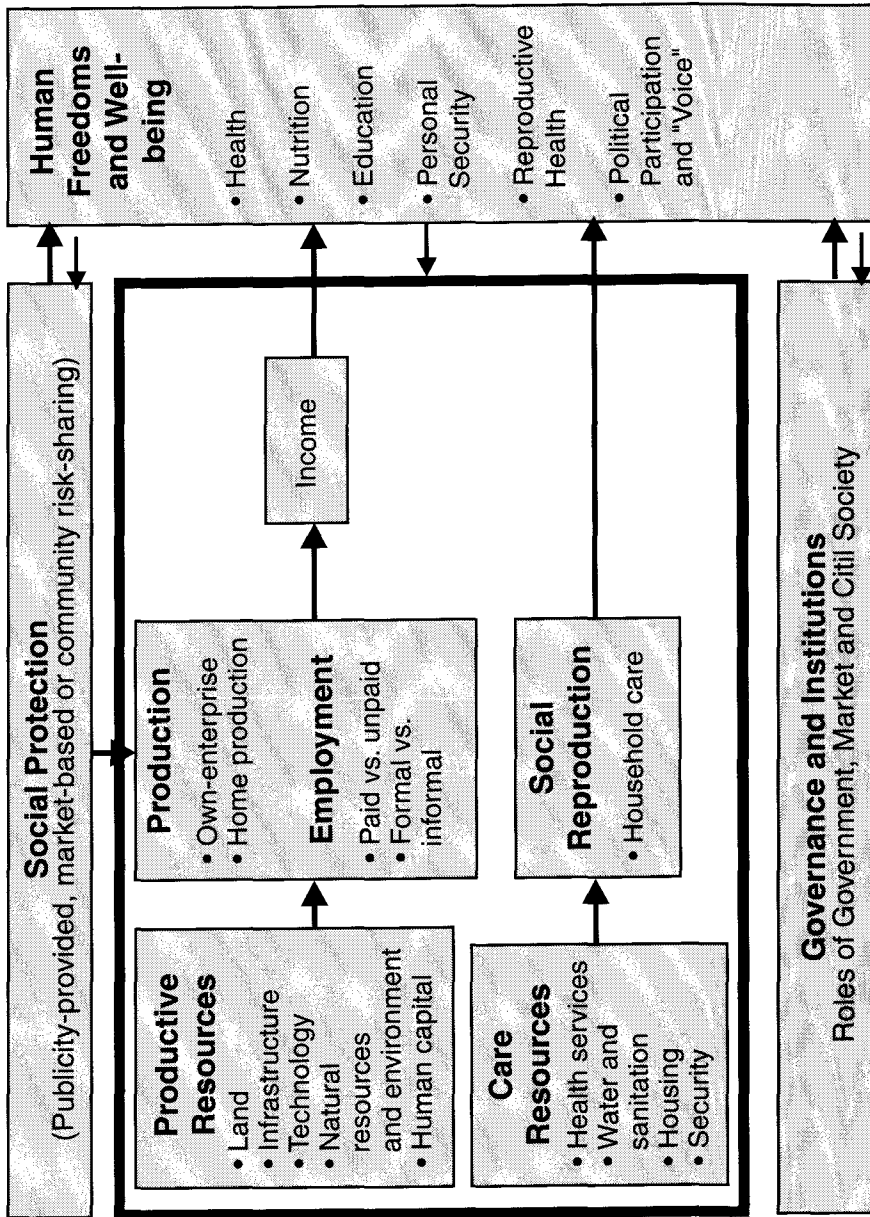
Figure 4 Employed Persons by Occupation Group, October 2001, '000 (NSO, 2001a)



Legend: **A**- officials of government and special-interest organizations, corporate executives, managers, managing proprietors and supervisors; **B**- professionals; **C**- technicians and associate professionals; **D**- clerks; **E**- service workers and shop and market sales workers; **F**- farmers, forestry workers and fishermen; **G**- trade and related workers; **H**- plant and machine operators and assemblers; **I**- laborers and unskilled workers; and **J**- special occupations.

Figure 5

An Indicative Framework



This is a very useful tool for explaining the interplay of economic and social forces in achieving greater human freedom and well-being.

REFERENCES

- Kabeer, Naila. *Reversed Realities: Gender Hierarchies and Development Thought*. London and New York: Verso, 1995.
- Williams, Mariama. "*Gender, Globalization and the MTS*." Paper presented to the symposium on **Gender, Dimensions of Trade**, Suva, Fiji, 2003, 12-14.
- Women and Gender Institute. "*To Produce and to Care: How Do Women and Men Fare in Securing Well-being and Human Freedoms?*" Report submitted to the United Nations Country Team, 2002.