Civil Society Index: Philippines

An assessment of Philippine Civil Society

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FOREWORD

In 2009-2010, the Caucus of Development NGO Networks (CODE-NGO) undertook the Philippine Civil Society Index (CSI) project in order to better understand the nature and function of civil society in the Philippines. We were glad to have organised the project, as it helped to deepen our understanding of the nature of civil society in the Philippines and allowed us to collaborate with many individuals and organisations.

When CODE-NGO applied to CIVICUS to be the national coordinating organisation and carry out the CSI project in the Philippines, we were very interested in understanding how Philippine civil society fares in relation to neighbouring countries in South East Asia and to other countries around the world. Even if Philippine civil society has often been characterised as one of the "most dynamic" in the region, it was deemed important to find out its strengths and weaknesses compared to other countries, and to determine priority areas that CODE-NGO and other civil society organisations (CSOs) should pay attention to in terms of their policy advocacy and programme development.

It is hoped that the report will further enrich the understanding of civil society, not only among those who comprise the sector itself, but also among its partners - national and local governments, business, academia and others - in working towards the important goal of Philippine development and democratisation.

Anna Marie Karaos
Chairperson

Sixto Donato Macasaet
Executive Director

Caucus of Development NGO Networks
Quezon City, 31 January 2011

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- The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)-Governance Portfolio, especially Dr. Emmanuel Buendia, the Commission on Human Rights and The Asia Foundation, and especially Dr. Steve Rood, for providing us with financial support that enabled us undertake the project;
- The Social Weather Stations, for undertaking the population survey for the project;
- Patrick Lim, advocacy programme specialist of CODE-NGO, who served as manager of the project, Philip Tuaño and Rachel Sescon, who served as researchers, and Dr Ma Oliva Z Domingo, Professor of the University of the Philippines National College of Public Administration and Governance, who served as adviser;
- The Caucus of Development NGO Network (CODE-NGO) national secretariat staff, including Dodo Macasaet, Ange Belangel, and Roselle Rasay, for program and research support, and Winnie Carmona, Cecile Delfin and Mike Timajo, for excellent administrative support;
- Members of the CSI Advisory Committee;
- Participants of the external perception survey and the organisational survey;
- Participants in the various workshops undertaken to refine and finalise the project results, including the participants of the 2009 and 2010 CODE-NGO national assemblies.

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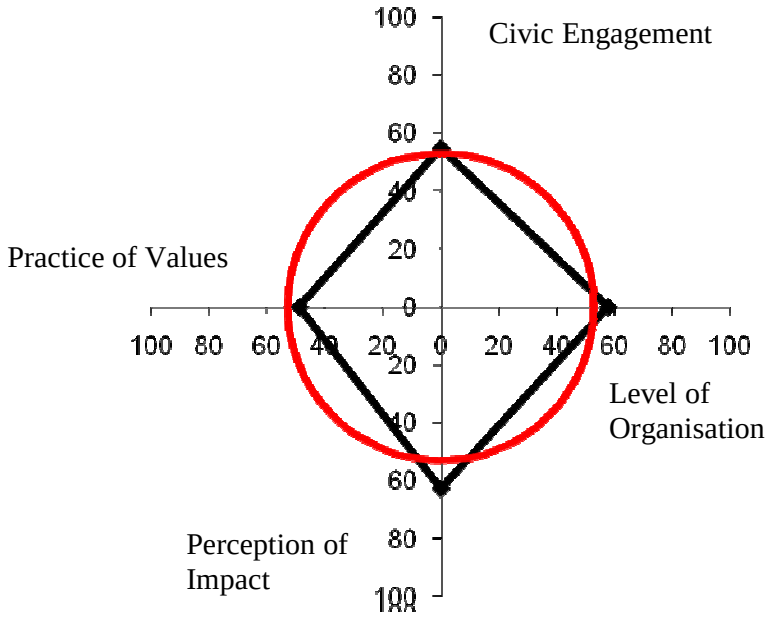
AC	Advisory Committee
AF	Association of Foundations (foundation network)
BCI	Basic Capabilities Index
BIR	Bureau of Internal Revenue (government agency)
CDA	Cooperatives Development Authority (government agency)
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CODE-NGO	Caucus of Development NGO Networks
CSI	Civil Society Index
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DoF	Philippine Department of Finance (government agency)
DOLE	Philippine Department of Labour and Employment (government agency)
DSWD	Philippine Department of Social Welfare and Development (government agency)
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HLURB	Housing and Land Use Regulatory Board (government agency)
LAKAS-KAMPI	Lakas - Kabalikat ng Malayang Pilipino (political party)
LGU	Local Government Unit
MILF	Moro Islamic Liberation Front
MNLF	Moro National Liberation Front
NATCCO	National Confederation of Cooperatives (cooperative alliance)
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PCNC	Philippine Council for NGO Certification
PO	People's Organisation
SWS	Social Weather Stations
WVS	World Values Survey

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report presents the key findings and recommendations made in terms of "measuring" civil society in the Philippines through the Civil Society Index (CSI), undertaken by the Caucus of Development NGO Networks over the course of almost two years (April 2009 to December 2010). The CSI framework and measurement tools were developed by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation, which has been implementing the CSI in more than fifty countries for the past ten years.

Several tools were used to gauge the effectiveness and impact of civil society. First, an organisational survey was carried out with 120 civil society organisations (CSOs) across the Philippines to measure the extent of their resources, the impact of these organisations, and their practice of corporate governance and ethical values. Second, an external perceptions survey was undertaken with approximately 60 influential individuals in government, business, religious, academia, the media and the donor community to assess their views on CSOs. Third, a population survey was conducted in coordination with the Social Weather Stations to measure the extent of participation of Filipinos in civil society groups. Lastly, case studies were commissioned to qualitatively analyse the issues that CSOs are currently facing.

FIGURE 1. Civil Society Index Diamond for the Philippines



The study gives the Philippines a respectable civil society rating. The CSI provides a measure between 0 and 100 for each of the dimensions of civil society. Three of the five dimensions along which civil society was measured received ratings above 60. However, for the Practice of Values dimension, the Philippine rating is quite low (a little over 40).

With regards to civic engagement, participation in CSOs with social concerns is high. Indeed, more than 75% of the population participate in CSOs and almost 50% are actively involved in CSOs. This figure is comparable to that of Asian countries with a high level of civic

participation such as Indonesia and South Korea (Ibrahim, 2006: 10; Joo, et. al., 2006: 29). Membership in CSOs is diverse, with a significant participation from marginalised ethno-linguistic groups and from Mindanao. However, participation in CSOs with political or advocacy concerns is lower, although still quite respectable: about 25% of Filipinos participate in these types of organisations.

The second dimension is the Level of Organisation of CSOs. Almost all the CSOs that took part in the study have formal boards of directors or similar bodies. However, only a small proportion of the boards in the sample meet regularly, while an even smaller percentage of the respondents choose their board members through an election. There are associated issues in terms of board accountability and preparedness in undertaking their tasks. Many CSOs are part of coalitions and networks and most of them relate with other similar groups. Financial resources for CSOs are quite limited and many of the respondents rely on membership dues and service fees, given the limited grants and support from other sectors. Technological resources are more adequate.

Conversely, concerning the Practice of Values, the CSO sector in the Philippines did not score as high as in the other dimensions. A minority of NGOs provide labour rights trainings and have publicly available labour and environmental standards; less than 10% of the sample organisations have staff that are members of labour unions. However, CSOs rank high in terms of perceived practice of non-violence, internal democracy, tolerance and promotion of peace. But only around 30% believe that the frequency of corruption within CSOs is rare.

The Perception of Impact of CSOs is quite high. In particular, the internal and external perceptions of the impact of CSO work in the areas of poverty reduction and environmental protection are quite high; internal and external perception of general social impact is also quite high. However, the perception of impact on reducing corruption is not as high as the perception of impact on poverty reduction and environmental protection. The impact of participation in CSOs on attitudes is very low; there is very little difference in the attittude of CSO members and non-members in terms of trust, tolerance and public spiritedness.

The external environment for the conduct of CSOs is acceptable. The socio-political context mark is highest at 62.0, comprising the levels of political and social rights and government effectiveness. The socio-economic context mark is lower at 53.5, reflecting poor corruption perception levels. However, the socio-cultural context mark is lowest at 43.7, reflecting very low trust rating of Filipinos of their compatriots.

Overall, the level of civic engagement can be read as adequate given the external environment (i.e., the ranking for civic engagement is slightly above the ranking for the external environment), while the level of organisation and perception of impact ratings are higher than that of the environment rating.

In light of this, some of the recommendations to improve the civil society are the following:

a. strengthen governance mechanisms within CSOs,
b. develop standards for good governance across CSOs,
c. strengthen networking efforts,
d. improve the financial and human resource capacity of CSOs, and
e. develop consensus on labour and environmental standards for CSOs.

INTRODUCTION

This document presents the results of the Civil Society Index (CSI) for the Philippines, carried out from February 2009 to December 2010, as part of the second phase in the implementation of the international CSI project coordinated by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation. The CSI is a comprehensive participatory needs assessment and action-planning tool for civil society actors at country level, which, in its current phase, was implemented in 41 countries.

The CSI is an international comparative project conceived with two specific objectives: (1) to provide useful knowledge on civil society and (2) to increase the commitment of stakeholders in strengthening civil society. The first objective is achieved through the measurement of specific country indicators that can be compared across countries. The second objective is implemented through a series of workshops among civil society groups and their partners to strengthen their commitment to advocate for reforms in the civil society policy environment.

The report is divided into the following three sections:

- The first section provides a more specific overview of the CSI project, the details of its conceptual framework and methodology, and an overview of the history of civil society in the Philippines.
- The second section provides an analysis of civil society in terms of the different dimensions of the CSI, including Civic Engagement of Filipinos, Level of Organisation and Practice of Values within civil society, Perception of Impact and the External Environment in which CSOs exist.
- The third and concluding section provides a summary of the findings and overall trends from the CSI study, and recommendations that civil society can follow to improve performance.

The results of this research were reviewed by the CSI Advisory Committee composed of leaders from civil society, media, government, the religious church and academia, and presented to several assemblies of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and people's organisations (POs) in the Philippines.

It is hoped that this document will provide CSOs, researchers and other interested persons and groups with useful information on civil society in the Philippines.

I. THE CIVIL SOCIETY INDEX PROJECT AND APPROACH

Civil society is playing an increasingly important role in governance and development around the world. In most countries, however, knowledge about the state and shape of civil society is limited. Moreover, opportunities for civil society stakeholders to come together to collectively discuss, reflect and act on the strengths, weaknesses, challenges and opportunities also remain limited.

The Civil Society Index (CSI), a participatory action-research project assessing the state of civil society in countries around the world, contributes to redressing these limitations. It aims at creating a knowledge base and momentum for civil society strengthening. The CSI is

initiated and implemented by, and for, CSOs at the country level, in partnership with CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation (CIVICUS). The CSI implementation actively involves and disseminates its findings to a broad range of stakeholders including civil society, government, the media, donors, academics, and the public at large.

The Caucus of Development NGO Networks (CODE-NGO), an alliance of national and regional (sub-national) NGO alliances, was selected to become the implementing partner in the Philippines for this project. CODE-NGO started the research project in June 2009. Funding support was provided by the United Nations Development Programme Philippine Country Office, through the Fostering Democratic Governance portfolio implemented by the Commission on Human Rights, and by The Asia Foundation.

The following key steps in CSI implementation take place at the country level:

1. Assessment: CSI uses an innovative mix of participatory research methods, data sources, and case studies to comprehensively assess the state of civil society using five dimensions: Civic Engagement, Level of Organisation, Practice of Values, Perception of Impact and the External Environment.
2. Collective Reflection: implementation involves structured dialogue among diverse civil society stakeholders that enables the identification of civil society's specific strengths and weaknesses.
3. Joint Action: the actors involved use a participatory and consultative process to develop and implement a concrete action agenda to strengthen civil society in a country.

The following sections provide a background of the CSI, its key principles and approaches, as well as a snapshot of the methodology used in the generation of this report in the Philippines and its limitations.

1. PROJECT BACKGROUND

The CSI first emerged as a concept over a decade ago as a follow-up to the 1997 New Civic Atlas publication by CIVICUS, which contained profiles of civil society in 60 countries around the world (Heinrich and Naidoo, 2001: 3-6). The first version of the CSI methodology, developed by CIVICUS with the help of Helmut Anheier, was unveiled in 1999. An initial pilot of the tool was carried out in 2000 in 13 countries.[1] The pilot implementation process and results were evaluated. This evaluation informed a revision of the methodology. Subsequently, CIVICUS successfully implemented the first complete phase of the CSI between 2003 and 2006 in 53 countries worldwide. This implementation directly involved more than 7,000 civil society stakeholders (Heinrich, 2007:2-8).

Intent on continuing to improve the research-action orientation of the tool, CIVICUS worked with the Centre for Social Investment at the University of Heidelberg, as well as with partners and other stakeholders, to rigorously evaluate and revise the CSI methodology for a second time before the start of this current phase of CSI. With this new and streamlined methodology in place, CIVICUS launched the new phase of the CSI in 2008 and selected its country partners, including both previous and new implementers, from all over the globe to participate in the project. Table I.1.1 below includes a list of implementing countries in the current phase of the CSI.

[1] The pilot countries were Belarus, Canada, Croatia, Estonia, Indonesia, Mexico, New Zealand, Pakistan, Romania, South Africa, Ukraine, Uruguay, and Wales.

TABLE I.1.1 List of CSI implementing countries 2008-2010[2]

Albania	Ghana	Niger
Argentina	Italy	Philippines
Armenia	Japan	Russia
Bahrain	Jordan	Serbia
Belarus	Kazakhstan	Slovenia
Bulgaria	Kosovo	South Korea
Burkina Faso	Lebanon	Sudan
Chile	Liberia	Togo
Croatia	Macedonia	Turkey
Cyprus	Madagascar	Uganda
Djibouti	Mali	Ukraine
Democratic Republic of Congo	Malta	Uruguay
Georgia	Mexico	Venezuela
	Nicaragua	Zambia

2. Project Approach

The current CSI project approach continues to marry assessment and evidence with reflections and action. This approach provides an important reference point for all work carried out within the framework of the CSI. As such, CSI does not produce knowledge for its own sake but instead seeks to directly apply the knowledge generated to stimulate strategies that enhance the effectiveness and role of civil society. With this in mind, the CSI's fundamental methodological bedrocks which have greatly influenced the implementation that this report is based upon include the following:[3]

Inclusiveness: The CSI framework strives to incorporate a variety of theoretical viewpoints, as well as being inclusive in terms of civil society indicators, actors and processes included in the project.

Universality: Since the CSI is a global project, its methodology seeks to accommodate national variations in context and concepts within its framework.

Comparability: The CSI aims not to rank, but instead to comparatively measure different aspects of civil society worldwide. The possibility for comparisons exists both between different countries or regions within one phase of CSI implementation and between phases.

Versatility: The CSI is specifically designed to achieve an appropriate balance between international comparability and national flexibility in the implementation of the project.

Dialogue: One of the key elements of the CSI is its participatory approach, involving a wide range of stakeholders who collectively own and run the project in their respective countries.

[2] Note that this list was accurate as of the publication of this Analytical Country Report, but may have changed slightly since the publication, due to countries being added or dropped during the implementation cycle.

[3] For in-depth explanations of these principles, please see Mati, Silva and Anderson (2010), Assessing and Strengthening Civil Society Worldwide: An updated programme description of the CIVICUS Civil Society Index Phase 2008-2010. CIVICUS, Johannesburg.

Capacity Development: Country partners are first trained on the CSI methodology during a three-day regional workshop. After the training, partners are supported through the implementation cycle by the CSI team at CIVICUS. Partners participating in the project also gain substantial skills in research, training and facilitation in implementing the CSI in-country.

Networking: The participatory and inclusive nature of the different CSI tools (e.g. focus groups, the Advisory Committee, the National Workshops) should create new spaces where very diverse actors can discover synergies and forge new alliances, including at a cross-sectoral level. Some countries in the last phase have also participated in regional conferences to discuss the CSI findings as well as cross-national civil society issues.

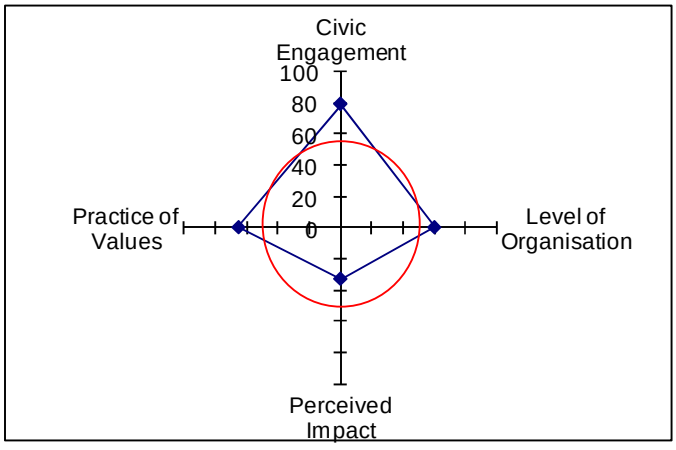
Change: The principal aim of the CSI is to generate information that is of practical use to civil society practitioners and other primary stakeholders. Therefore, the CSI framework seeks to identify aspects of civil society that can be changed and to generate information and knowledge relevant to action-oriented goals.

With the above mentioned foundations, the CSI methodology uses a combination of participatory and scientific research methods to generate an assessment of the state of civil society at the national level. The CSI measures the following core dimensions:

1. Civic Engagement
2. Level of Organisation
3. Practice of Values
4. Perceived Impact
5. External Environment

These dimensions are illustrated visually through the Civil Society Diamond (see Figure I.2.1 for a sample Civil Society Diamond), which is one of the most essential and well-known components of the CSI project. To form the Civil Society Diamond, 67 quantitative indicators are aggregated into 28 sub-dimensions, which are then assembled into the five final dimensions along a 0-100 scale. The Diamond's size seeks to portray an empirical picture of the state of civil society, the conditions that support or inhibit civil society's development, and the consequences of civil society's activities for society at large. The context or environment is represented visually by a circle around the axes of the Civil Society Diamond, and is not regarded as part of the state of civil society but rather as something external that still remains a crucial element for its wellbeing.

FIGURE I.2.1 The Civil Society Index Diamond (sample)



3. CSI Implementation

There are several key CSI programme implementation activities as well as several structures involved, as summarised by the figure below:[4]

FIGURE I.3.1 CSI Implementation Process

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The Philippines CSI project started in February 2009 with the convening of an advisory group which undertook preparations for the start of the project, including the mapping of civil society groups in the Philippines. The broader CSI Advisory Committee (AC) was formally convened on 11 June 2009, and it included representatives from different sectors such as faith-based groups, peasants, labour, women and youth sectors, advocacy and research NGOs, economic interest and environmental civil society groups, and members of the executive and legislative branches of government. During the meeting, members of the AC were briefed on the process of implementing the CSI and, in turn, the members provided suggestions on carrying out the research process. The AC also identified several items in the surveys, including the identification of major social and political concerns of the country.

Three surveys were undertaken for the project. The first was an external perception survey. The survey had a purposive sample composed of experts exposed to work done by Philippine civil society. The respondents included representatives from national and local government, academia, media, religious leaders and foreign donors and multilateral institutions working in the Philippines. This survey was used to form the measures of the perceived impact of civil society from an external perspective. A total of 54 respondents were interviewed or provided with questionnaires for the survey; 44 respondents were interviewed face-to-face, eight sent their answers via e-mail, one by fax and one via courier. One response was discarded due to problems in encoding. The interviews were conducted from July to September 2009.

The second was an organisational survey. The sample for the study was identified by using the registration data of four government agencies. The Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) registration database was used to identify non-profit organisations, which includes NGOs, non-profit schools, professional associations and people's organisations. Cooperatives were identified through the database of the Cooperative Development Agency (CDA), labour unions through the database of the Department of Labour and Employment (DOLE), and homeowners' associations through the database of the Housing and Land Use Regulatory Board (HLURB). These government agencies were identified as the main sources of civil society databases since, in the Philippines, CSOs are legally classified within four types (non-stock organisations, cooperatives, labour unions and homeowners associations) that are regulated by these respective agencies.

Random sampling stratified by regions was used to determine the sample. However, the sample was limited to only include organisations that had a phone line or mobile number in their records. This was done for practical reasons since the researchers could only confirm the existence of an organisation by calling them, given resource and time constraints in conducting the survey. The survey was undertaken from August to October 2009.

[4] For a detailed discussion on each of these steps in the process, please see Mati et al (cited in footnote 3).

The final survey conducted was a population survey which the Social Weather Stations, a Philippine survey institute, was commissioned to carry out, as a rider to its regular quarterly survey. A total of 1,200 persons were interviewed, 300 each from the National Capital Region and the three main island-regions of the country: the rest of Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao. This sample is representative of the entire country, and the survey has a margin of error of ±3% at the country level and ±6% at the island-region level. The survey was conducted from 1 to 4 October 2009.

The results of the surveys were presented in a CODE-NGO general assembly in December 2009 and in the AC meeting in February 2010. Revisions were made in the analysis of the data, given suggestions made during these two forums. Revisions also were undertaken based on comments made by CIVICUS staff and the project management team, which included the CODE-NGO Executive Director, the project team leader, the project researchers and the civil society adviser. The revisions were made between May and November 2010. Several case studies were also commissioned to further investigate some of the issues raised in the findings of the surveys. These included case studies on social and political participation of Filipinos, fundraising strategies of CSOs, and political engagement of civil society groups.

II. CIVIL SOCIETY IN THE PHILIPPINES

1. Overview of Civil Society

Civil society is a "value laden and highly contested concept" (Department of Foreign and International Development, 2010: 1). Broadly defined, civil society refers to "the aggregate of civil institutions and citizen's organisations that is distinct and autonomous from both state structures and private business" (Serrano, 1994: 3-6). CSOs refers to the whole range of non-state, non-profit organisations and groups, including socio-civic organisations, professional organisations, academia, media, churches, people's organisations, NGOs, and cooperatives (Aldaba, 1993: 2-4; Alegre, 1996: 194-197).

However, according to Clarke (Clarke, 2010: 3-4), it is not necessary that civil society should refer to specific organisations. According to him, there are three distinguishing characteristics of 'civil society': a) an institutional space composed of organisations distinct but overlapping with the state and market that advance the collective interests of their members and provide goods and services to the general public on a non-profit basis; b) a distinct realm of values that deepen democracy; and c) an institutional mechanism that mediates competing demands through political, economic and social participation.

According to Serrano (Serrano, 2003: 1-2), the term 'civil society' entered Philippine development language in the early 1990s, after the political upheaval in Eastern Europe in the late 1980s. The term was initially equated with NGOs, a specific type of organisation within the civil society sector. However, after several years, the term was used to encompass a wider set of organisations and institutions which do not belong to the state or the business sector. In current usage, it usually relates to both NGOs and these other types of groups.

Civil society groups include the following:

- Non-governmental Organisations, which are "intermediate agencies and institutions that tend to operate with a full-time staff complement and provide a wide-range of

services to primary organisations, communities and individuals" (Aldaba, 1993: 3-5; Silliman and Noble, 1998: 4-5).

- People's organisations, which are bona fide associations of citizens with demonstrated capacity to promote public interest and with identifiable leadership, membership and structure. Trade unions, which are groups of workers organised for collective bargaining purposes, and workers' organisations, are some examples of such associations. Homeowners associations (described below) are often also considered as one type of people's organisations.
- Cooperatives, which are organised to meet common economic and social needs through the operation of a jointly-owned and democratically controlled enterprise.
- Homeowners associations, which consist of groups whose members include families and households living in the same community, (i.e., common area such as a residential subdivision or condominium), the objectives of which are to uplift the welfare of their members.

In terms of legal definition, NGOs largely belong to a class of groups defined as "non-stock, non-profit corporations." People's organisations (other than trade unions, workers' organisations and homeowners' associations) also register legally in the Philippines as non-stock corporations. A non-stock corporation is an organisation or association in which no part of its income is distributed as dividends to its members, trustees, or officers and in which profits incidental to operations are used only to further the organisation's purpose. Under the Philippine Corporation Code, non-stock organisations are formed for charitable, religious, educational, professional, cultural, literary, scientific, social, civic service or similar purposes. Examples include chambers of trade, of industry, or agriculture and the like, or any combination of these services. To be recognised as a non-stock corporation, an organisation must register with the Philippine Securities and Exchange Commission. Their status does not permit them to be a source of income, profit, or other financial gain for the units that establish, control or finance them.

Cariño (Cariño, 2002: 11-15) identifies other types of non-stock, non-profit organisations such as religious orders/congregations, political parties, foundations, civic organisations, trade/industry associations, mutual benefit associations, churches, business/professional organisations and some international groups operating in the Philippines, housing associations and charitable organisations.

2. Historical Overview of Civil Society

A historical sketch of the civil society movement in the Philippines can be found in several sources (Alegre, 1996: 25- 42; Clarke, 1998: 52- 67; Cariño, 2002: 27-62). Filipino social values, including that of damayan (bonding or assisting one another), pagtutulungan (implying a relationship among equals helping each other), and paghinungod (or the offering of oneself to others) which existed before the arrival of the Spanish colonisers, were instrumental in the early development of civil society in the Philippines.

Formal philanthropy started with the development of Church obras pias (pious works) undertaken by the Spaniards and the indigenous population in the 17th and 18th Centuries. Catholic orders were also instrumental in setting up the first schools and hospitals in the country, and the Church formed religious associations which acted as a force to reduce "immorality" among Filipinos, especially in rural areas. In the late 19th Century, cooperative organisations were set up by Filipino ilustrados who were influenced by the concepts and

principles of modern "cooperativism" and the philanthropic organisations set up by wealthy families. The roots of the revolutionary movement that fought for independence against Spanish rule began with the creation of Filipino self-help groups.

In the early years of the 20th Century, during the American occupation, various welfare agencies set up by the American colonial government, including charitable organisations that provided education and health services to the poor, were instituted by women. The political environment of tolerance and openness during this period also allowed the creation of new groupings, such as labour unions, farmers' groups, and professional, youth and student groups. The Philippine Corporation Code of 1906 was instrumental in the founding of these groups as it formally recognised the right to create private non-profit organisations.

By the late 1940s and early 1950s, the first generation of NGOs were created. These included the Council of Welfare Agencies of the Philippines (an umbrella of various welfare agencies), the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (which promoted the implementation of health, education and socioeconomic services in the agricultural sector), and the Institute of Social Order (a Catholic-run institution which helped organise farmers' and workers' movements around the country).

In the 1960s, up until the 1970s, more radical organisations were founded that pushed for more fundamental changes in society. These included urban poor organisations such as the Zone One Tondo Organisation that resisted government efforts against the demolition of informal settlements in Manila, and youth groups such as the National Union of Students in the Philippines that supported the lobby for agrarian reform undertaken by farmers' groups. The Catholic Church also founded social action centres that tackled social problems in various dioceses around the country. Business was also drawn into development work through the creation of the Philippine Business for Social Progress which facilitated economic development efforts in various areas and the Bishops Businessmen's Conference which also advocated for policy reforms. The Association of Foundations was also founded during this time. This period also saw a mushrooming of cooperativism, with the creation of various regional cooperative groups such as the Mindanao Alliance of Self-Help Societies-Southern Philippines Education Cooperative Centre in Mindanao, the Visayas Cooperative Development Centre, the Credit Life Mutual Benefit Services Association (also in Mindanao), and the National Confederation of Cooperatives.

During the martial law period and the Marcos dictatorship between 1972 and 1986, NGOs were created to organise basic sectors to resist the authoritarian government and to assist these sectors in terms of their social and economic needs. The Church was also involved in various socio-political organising campaigns in the grassroots. When democratic restoration started in the mid 1980s, civil society groups were recognised as key players in government and there was a proliferation of these types of groups.

3. Mapping Civil Society

A small group of academic experts and NGO leaders were convened in early to mid 2009 to develop a 'social forces map', which tried to locate the political, economic and social influence of civil society in the Philippines. The output of this small group became inputs during the discussions of the Advisory Committee that finalised the map. Two maps were developed – one for Philippine society in general, and another for civil society in particular.

The Philippine social map classified socio-economic groups into state agencies, market oriented groups, armed groups and civil society groups. While there may be overlaps among these different groups, this could be a useful classification in describing the configuration of the sectors in Philippine society. State organisations comprise the Presidency, the two chambers of Congress, the national legislature (the 24- member Senate and the House of Representatives), the Supreme Court (the highest judicial body), LAKAS-KAMPI (the dominant party up to June 2010), and military and foreign financial institutions, especially the World Bank.

The Presidency wields significant powers in the Philippine political system. According to the 1987 Philippine Constitution, the President has full control over the executive or the implementing agencies of the government. Other specific powers expressly designated by the country's fundamental law include the powers of supervision over local government units such as provinces, cities, municipalities and barangays, and autonomous regions (which are politico-administrative subdivisions in the country that have some self-ruling powers), appointment of all the heads and officers of the civilian bureaucracy and military, granting of executive clemency, control and supervision of the armed forces, contract and guarantee of foreign loans, entering into agreements with foreign governments, and the development of an annual appropriations bill (Buensalida and Constantino, 2010: 2-13). In addition, the Administrative Code of 1987 grants the President additional powers such as the powers of "eminent domain" and recovery of "ill-gotten wealth" and supervision and control of foreigners. The legislative chamber also specifies the powers of the President in the course of implementing the laws that have been passed by Congress. Thus, the Presidency is a central figure in Philippine society. In fact, more recently, the presidency has expanded its powers to serve the political objectives of its most recent occupant, who has pushed backed attempts to institute a system of checks and balances to limit presidential powers (Rose-Ackerman, Desierto, Volosin, 2010: 6-8).

The Senate and the House of Representatives comprise the main law-making bodies, the powers of which include the passage and enactment of legislation (including the annual appropriations, revenue generating measures and franchises, certificates or authorisation of the operation of public utilities), the conduct of legislative investigations, canvassing of national elections, oversight functions, and providing checks to presidential powers. The political party with the highest number of legislators in the House of Representatives is the LAKAS Christian and Muslim Democrats, which merged with the Kabalikat ng Malayang Pilipino (KAMPI), to become the dominant party in the House of Representatives. However, after the 2010 national elections, the Liberal Party, the party of the current President, is now the dominant party. The Senate has a mix of parties, with no party being in the majority.

The Supreme Court has played an important role as a final arbiter of laws in the country. The Supreme Court reviews cases decided by the lower courts on appeal or by "original jurisdiction" in areas established by the Philippine Constitution. The Supreme Court also supervises the different courts of the country.

The military has played a large role in Philippine society, particularly right after the declaration of martial law in 1972. Then Philippine president, Ferdinand Marcos, allowed military officers into the civilian bureaucracy and the military "became a partner of [the President] in governance" (Carolina, 2002: 28). Even after the restoration of political democracy, certain sections of the military have launched attempted coups d'état, the most serious being that which took place in 1989. The latest incident occurred in 2007, when high-

ranking officers walked out of their trial and marched through the streets of Metro Manila with the support of some political figures.

Regarding the market-led institutions in the country, the main forces include "big business," the "landed elite," the entertainment industry, and the media industry. "Big business" has been used as a term to describe the largest corporations in the Philippines or their owners. The largest corporations (by gross revenues) include the three big oil companies, local affiliates of multinational semiconductor processing firms (many of which export their products), food processing companies, telecommunications companies, and pharmaceuticals and drug retailers. The wealthiest individuals include owners of the largest retail chain in the country, the biggest cigarette and alcohol companies, and a diversified conglomerate mainly in the services sector. Their wealth comes from a combination of luck and business acumen. However, for many in business, their success has also come from their influence in the political system (see for example, Hutchcroft, 1998: 6-12).

Another influential bloc is the landed elite, which mainly controls a significant portion of agricultural land, although the enactment of an agrarian reform programme in 1988 has started to weaken their economic and political base. Many of the members of this class serve as officials in local government units or as members of the national legislature, and as such retain significant power to hinder the implementation of reforms, especially in the area of economic modernisation and assets redistribution.

The mass media, which is mostly privately owned, is also another social power base. They strongly influence people's views and societal norms, especially among young people and lower income classes. Several mass media surveys undertaken by the Social Weather Stations have shown that television and radio are the most important sources of information for the people. Mass media has intersected with the entertainment industry, as there are many personalities that cut across television, radio and the movie industry.

The last group that impact society, besides civil society, are the armed groups. The outlawed Communist Party of the Philippines, and its armed wing, the New People's Army, runs one of the last left-wing insurgencies in Asia. They are still an influential force in many areas and are present in 60 of 79 provinces. In addition, they have at least 5,000 armed members (down from around 11,000 in 2001 and more than 25,000 during their peak in the mid 1980s). Their continuing presence is due to the fact that they function as "another state structure" in isolated areas of the country (Human Development Network, 2005: 82- 96).

Muslim insurgencies are another force within Philippine society. The Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF) was founded in 1969 as a direct result of the massacre of Muslim military recruits by their Christian officers in 1968 and the massacre of Muslim families by Christian vigilantes in Mindanao during 1970-72. Subsequent negotiations with the government in the 1970s and 1990s resulted in a peace accord in 1996. There are still armed elements that undertake sporadic violent activities. The Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) was formed in 1984 from a series of organisational splits within the MNLF. This group is currently in peace negotiations with the government. Finally in this cluster, the Abu Sayyaf has been classified as a terrorist organisation due to a rash of kidnap-for-ransom incidents in the 1990s and 2000s in which it was involved.

Major civil society groups include business associations such as the Makati Business Club, church affiliated groups such as the Catholic Bishops Conference of the Philippines, the

Iglesia ni Kristo, the El Shaddai movement and the Catholic Educators Association of the Philippines, academic institutions (including those owned by religious organisations) and research groups, unorganised migrant and diaspora groups abroad, NGOs and people's organisations.

In the civil society map identified by the Advisory Committee, the most influential groups were held to be the following:

- The Caucus of Development NGO Networks, which is the largest association of non-governmental organisations in the Philippines. Its members include Philippine Business for Social Progress (a social development organisation founded by business groups), the Association of Foundations (a network of private foundations), the National Confederation of Cooperatives (one of the largest cooperative networks in the country), the Partnership of Philippine Support Service Agencies (a network of NGOs focused on socialised housing), the National Council for Social Development (an association of social welfare focused NGOs), and the Philippine Partnership for the Development of Human Resources in Rural Areas (a grouping of rural-focused NGOs). Also part of CODE-NGO are regional NGOs, including those in the western, central and eastern politico-administrative regions of the Visayas island group, Bicol region (in the southern tip of Luzon island), Cordillera region (northern part of Luzon) and Mindanao;
- Local donor agencies and foundations, including the Peace and Equity Foundation, the Foundation for Sustainable Society Inc., the Foundation for Philippine Environment and the Philippine Tropical Forest Conservation Foundation, which have provided substantial resources for sustainable development and poverty reduction;
- Advocacy groups, including Social Watch Philippines, which promotes increased awareness of, and participation in, social development concerns in government. Other advocacy groups include the Freedom from Debt Coalition (a network of NGOs, people's organisations and individuals that have lobbied for reduction in the dependence of Philippine government on foreign aid), the Philippine Association of Human Rights Advocates, the Transparency and Accountability Network (which provides anti-corruption and good governance programmes), and the Former Senior Government Officials, a grouping of ex-Cabinet secretaries and undersecretaries that have advocated for good governance reforms;
- NGOs such as the Institute for Popular Democracy, the Alternative Law Group network and health groups;
- The *Bagong Alyansang Makabayan*, a militant multi-sectoral group;
- Peoples' organisations and trade unions. The large trade federations include the Trade Union Congress of the Philippines, the Federation of Free Workers, the Alliance of Progressive Labour, and the *Kilusang Mayo Uno*;
- Religious associations, the most prominent being the Catholic Bishops' Conference of the Philippines, which groups Catholic diocesan leaders. Other religious groups are Protestant and evangelical groups (some of which belong to the National Council of Churches in the Philippines or the Philippine Evangelical Council of Churches), and Muslim groups (such as the National Ulama Conference and other local ulama groups). There are also groups affiliated to, but not part of the Church hierarchy, such as the Catholic Couples for Christ, Legion of Mary, the Protestant Philippine Bible Society, and others. Educational associations affiliated with religious groups are also prominent, such as the Catholic Educators' Association of the Philippines, and the Association of Christian Schools, Colleges and Universities;

- Private academic institutions, which are critical in youth training and in advocacy for social change. Many of these institutions are affiliated with religious educational institutions;
- Survey firms such as the Social Weather Stations and Pulse Asia;
- Professional associations, including the Integrated Bar of the Philippines (for lawyers) and the Philippine Institute of Certified Public Accountants (for accountants) ;
- The Makati Business Club, one of the most active business groups in the Philippines, founded in 1981 to enable the business community to participate in national affairs. There are other business associations such as the Philippine Chamber of Commerce and Industry (the largest trade federation in the country), the Federation of Philippine Industry (mainly composed of domestic industries), the Philippine Export Confederation, and the Filipino-Chinese Chamber of Commerce;
- Microfinance institutions and corporate foundations (many of the latter are affiliated with the League of Corporate Foundations);
- The Philippine Council for NGO Certification, which certifies non-profit groups as donee institutions for taxation purposes (which means that they also meet public standards of financial management and accountability;
- Electoral watchdogs such as the National Movement for Free Elections and the Parish Pastoral Council for Responsible Voting; and
- Socio-civic groups such as the local affiliates of Rotary International, Junior Chamber International (JCI), and the Lions Clubs.

There is currently no single reference that maps the different NGO actors in the Philippines. The abovementioned groups provide a sample of the major networks and groups of NGOs in the Philippines based on the knowledge of the Advisory Committee. It is by no means an exhaustive list of all the various civil society groups in the Philippines.

FIGURE II.3.1 Social Forces Map in the Philippines

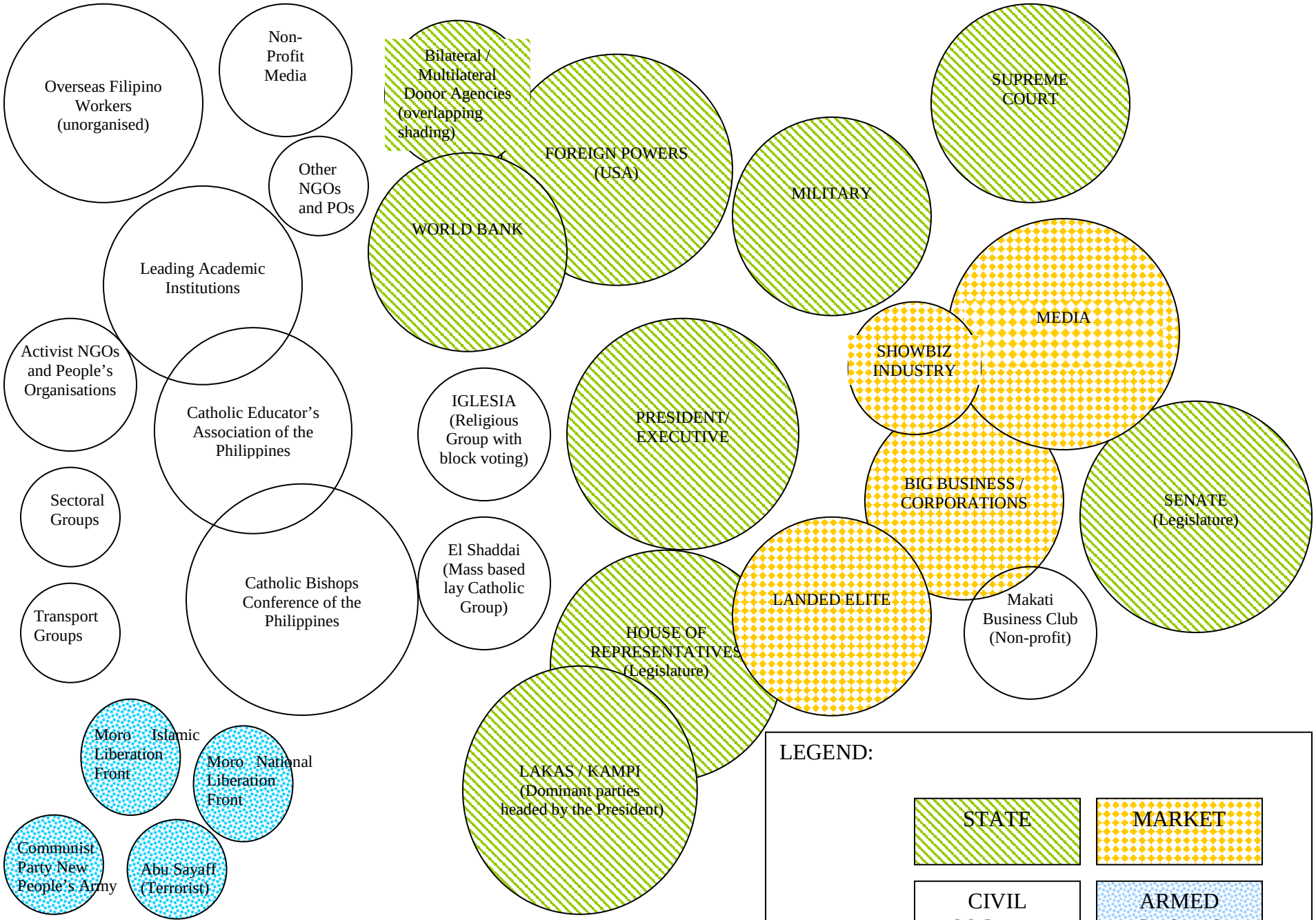
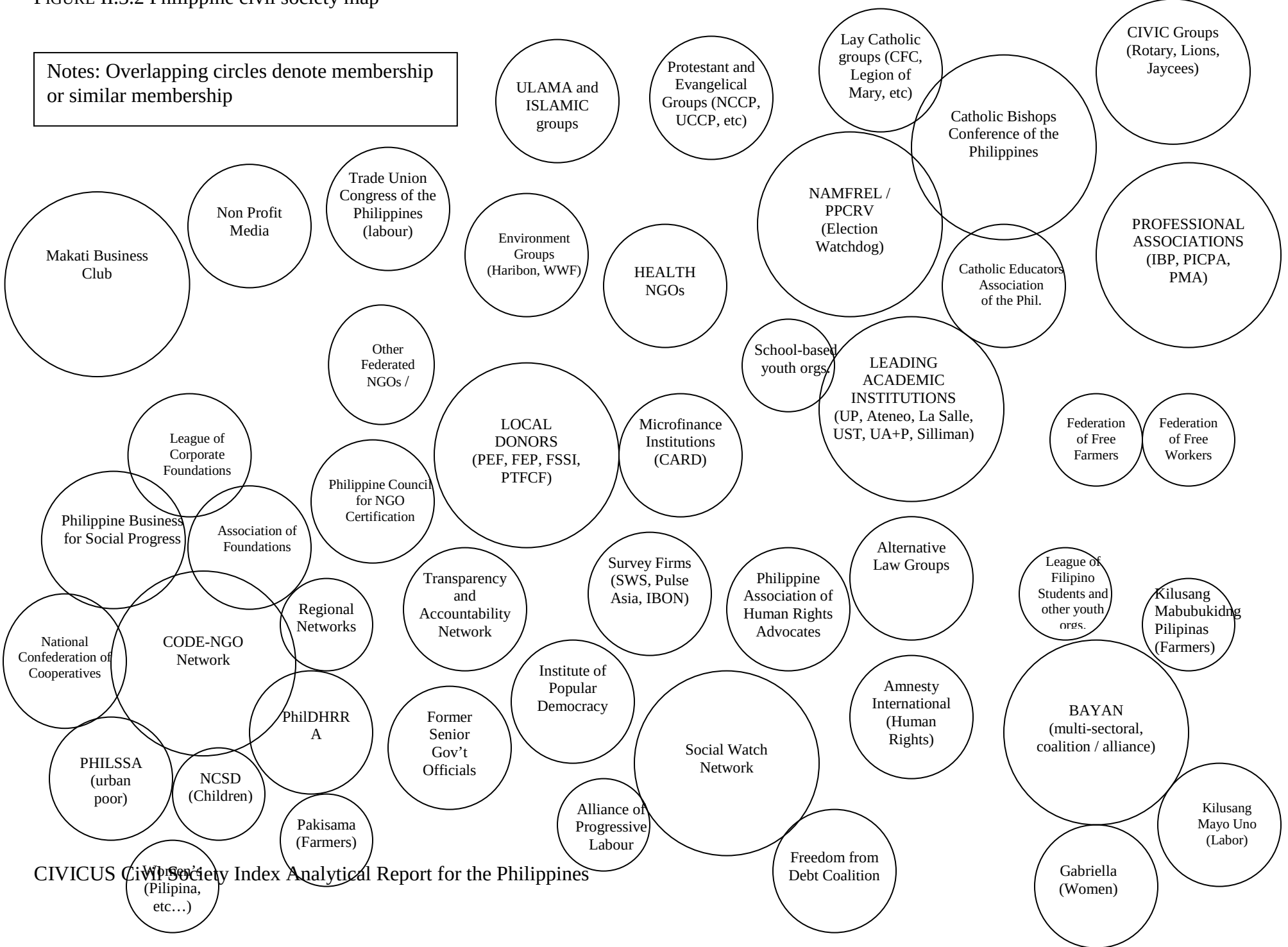


FIGURE II.3.2 Philippine civil society map



III. ANALYSIS OF CIVIL SOCIETY

1. Civic Engagement

TABLE III.1.1 Summary Scores for Civic Engagement Dimension

Dimension: Civic Engagement		54.7
1.1	Extent of socially-based engagement	47.6
1.2	Depth of socially-based engagement	43.7
1.3	Diversity of socially-based engagement	95.7
1.4	Extent of political engagement	21.5
1.5	Depth of political engagement	32.2
1.6	Diversity of political engagement	87.7

Civic Engagement is the first core dimension assessed by CSI. It refers to the extent to which individuals engage in active citizenship through various social and policy related interactions (CIVICUS, 2008: 1-3). Social engagements refer to activities within the public sphere where individuals interact with others, while political engagements refer to activities through which individuals advance shared interests of a political nature, such as rallies and legislative lobbying.

The areas being examined more specifically are the following: a) the extent of engagement of citizens as members and/or volunteers of organisations, associations and networks, b) the frequency (or 'depth') of engagement of these individuals in these groups, and c) the diversity of engagement of individuals in these groups, including membership distribution across gender, age, socio-economic background, ethnicity and geographical location. The total score for civic engagement is 54.7, which is the mean of the scores of extent, depth and diversity of engagement in socially-based organisations, and the extent, depth and diversity of political engagement.

Participation in civil society is enshrined in the 1987 Philippine Constitution. The Constitution contains specific provisions on the promotion of 'non-governmental, community-based or sectoral organisations' (Article II, Section 23), on respect, by the state, of the role of "independent people's organisations" to pursue their collective interest (Article XIII, Section 15), and the right of people and their organisations to participate in decision-making (Article XIII, Section 16). Given that the country's laws value the organisation of civil society groups and also that the civil society groups have had a long history in the Philippines, it should be expected that participation in civil society would be quite high.

TABLE III.1.2 Membership in CSOs

Membership	Active Member	Inactive member	Do not belong
All civil society groups	45.7	37.0	17.3

Source: CSI population survey.

Based on the population survey, almost half of the respondents (45.7%) consider themselves as active members of at least one CSO, either an organisation with a political

engagement, or one with a social engagement. This compares favourably with civil society participation in other countries in Asia, such as South Korea and Indonesia (Ibrahim, 2006: 10; Joo, et. al., 2006: 29).. Table III.1.2 shows membership in CSOs.

1.1 Extent and depth of socially-based engagement

More than four in ten (43.4%) of respondents in the population survey consider themselves active members of at least one organisation engaged in social activities. This includes religious organisations, sports or recreational organisations, art or educational organisations, and cooperatives. Including inactive members, about 76.6% of the respondents are members of at least one social organisation. Table III.1.3 shows membership in social organisations.

TABLE III.1.3 Membership in social organisations

Type of social organisation	Active member	Inactive member	Do not belong
Church or religious organisation	34.2	20.4	45.4
Cooperatives	12.2	6.9	80.9
Sports or recreational organisation	10.1	8.4	81.6
Art, music or education organisation	6.0	5.3	88.7
All social organisations	43.4	33.2	23.4
Two or more organisations	34.2		

Source: CSI population survey.

Filipinos are most active in church or religious organisations, with about one-third (34.2%) of the sample being active members. This is followed by cooperatives, with 12.2% of the sample as active members. Sports organisations come next, followed by organisations undertaking youth work and those involved in health. Among active members, 34.2% are active in more than one type of social organisation. As stated in the civil society history above, people's involvement in Church groups pre-dates participation in non-Church voluntary groups.

TABLE III.1.4 Volunteering in social organisations

Type of organisation with social membership	%
Church or religious organisation	31.1
Sports or recreational organisation	13.8
Social welfare	10.1
Organisations concerned with health	8.9
Youth work	6.9
Art, music or education organisation	4.3
Volunteering in at least one type of organisation	47.4
Volunteering in more than two organisations	33.2

Source: WVS Philippine population survey (2001).

In addition to the population survey, the study derived data on volunteering from the 2001 World Values Survey. Table III.1.4 shows the proportion of the sample participating in volunteer work. The data indicates that 47.4% of Filipinos volunteer in at

least one type of organisation. They engage in unpaid work for various organisations. These include social welfare, church or religious, cultural (art, music or education), youth, sports or recreational and health organisations. Among those who volunteer, 33.2% do so in more than one type of social organisation.

As a means of quantifying community engagement, the survey also sought to identify how often the respondents spent time in sports clubs or voluntary/service organisations. More than half (51.0%) of the sample responded that they do so more than once a year.

1.2 Extent and depth of politically-based engagement

About one quarter of the sample (25.6%) consider themselves active members of at least one political organisation. These include labour unions, environmental organisations, professional associations, humanitarian or charitable organisations, non-governmental organisations, people's organisations, and consumer organisations. Membership in at least one political organisation increases to 35.1% of the sample if inactive members are included in the count. Table III.1.5 presents data on membership in political organisations.

TABLE III.1.5 Membership in political organisations

Type of political organisation	Active member	Inactive member	Do not belong
People's organisations	9.6	5.0	85.2
Humanitarian or charitable associations	9.2	5.0	85.8
Conservation, environmental, animal rights organisations	8.2	5.4	86.4
Labour unions	5.6	6.6	87.8
Consumer organisations	5.5	3.0	91.5
Non-governmental organisations	5.0	3.6	91.4
Professional associations	3.7	3.6	92.7
All types	25.6	8.5	74.9

Source: CSI population survey.

Compared to social organisations, respondents are less active in political organisations. Active membership in political organisations is highest in people's organisations where it stands at 9.6%. Among those active in political organisations, 42.5% are active in more than one type of organisation.

Data from the 2001 World Values Survey shows that, in terms of volunteerism in political organisations, 27.5% of those surveyed indicated they were doing unpaid work for political organisations. This includes 11.2% of the respondents who indicated that they were doing unpaid volunteer work for a peace movement, and 9.0% who reported that they were volunteering for conservation, environmental or animal rights organisations. Table III.1.6 below shows the data for volunteering in political organisations.

TABLE III.1.6 Volunteering in political organisations

Type of political organisation	% of sample
Peace movements	11.2
Conservation, environment, animal rights	9.0
Women's groups	8.8
Local community action	6.5
Human rights	5.7
Political parties	3.8
Labour unions	3.3
Professional associations	2.7

Source: WVS Philippine population survey (2001).

The CSI population survey also sought to know whether the respondents had engaged in any of the following three forms of activism during the previous five years: signing a petition, joining a boycott or attending peaceful demonstrations. Around 15.1% of those surveyed indicated that they had done at least one of these activities, while 3.3% had engaged in more than one type.

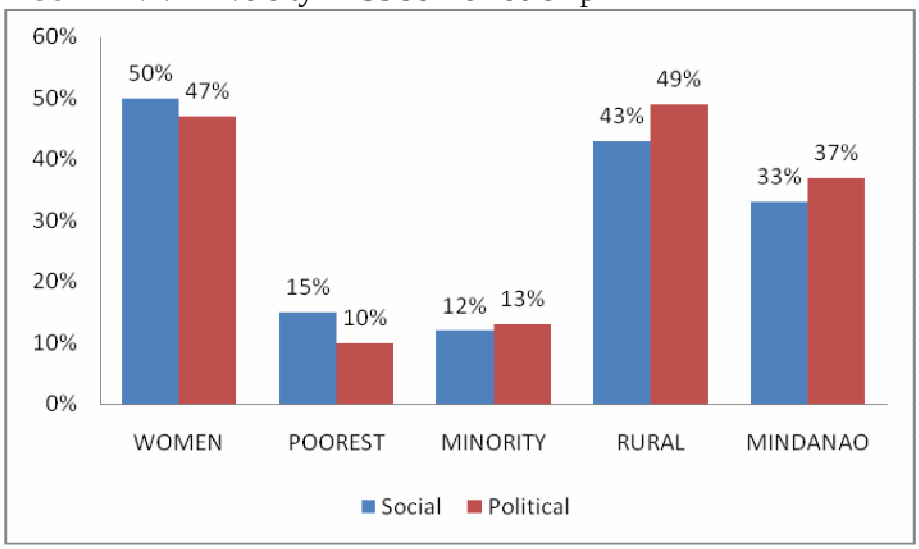
TABLE III.1.7 Participation in political activities

Type of political activity	% of sample
Attended peaceful demonstration	9.6
Sign a petition	7.0
Joined a boycott	2.5
Undertook at least one activity	15.1
Undertook more than one activity	3.3

Source: CSI population survey.

1.3 Diversity of social and political engagement

FIGURE III.1.1 Diversity in CSOs membership



Source: CSI population survey

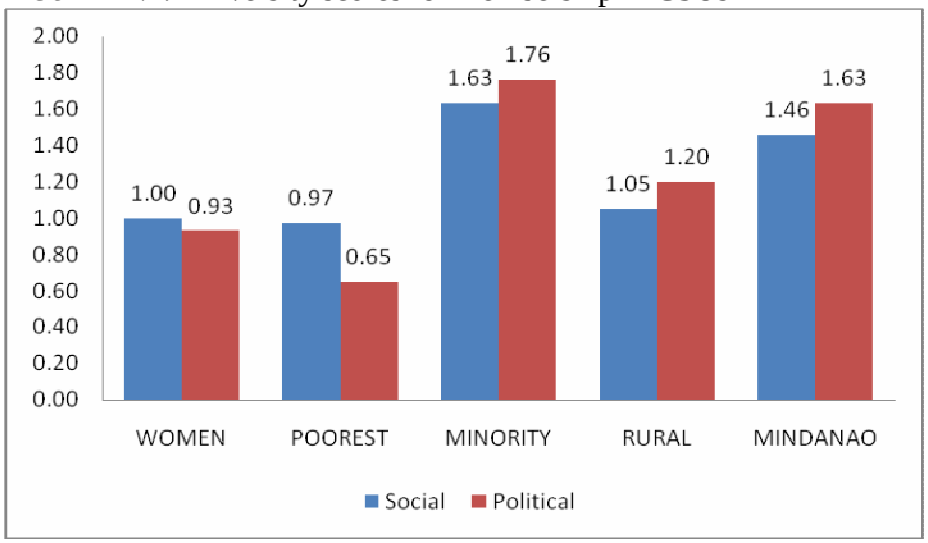
This indicator examines whether participation within civil society is inclusive. The memberships of five groups are examined in particular: women, poorest social class, ethnic minorities, rural population, and the Mindanao population.[5] This could provide a measure of the diversity of participation in civil society groups across different categories – gender, income level, socio-ethnic group, area of residence and regional location.

Figure *III.1.1* shows that among the active members of social organisations, 50% are women, 15% come from the poorest social class, 12% are from minority groups, 43% originate from rural areas and 33% come from Mindanao. Active members of political organisations are composed of the following respondents: 47% are women, 10% originate from the poorest social class, 13% are from minority groups, 49% are from rural areas and 37% originate from Mindanao.

In order to assess if these groups are adequately represented in the membership of civil society organisations, a diversity score is computed by dividing the percentage of a group within all active members by the percentage of a group within the entire population. The scores for the five groups are presented in Figure III.1.2.

For example, half of all active members in social organisations are women, and half of all survey respondents are also women. Thus, the ratio for women's participation is 1.00, which means that their representation in civil society is equal to their proportion in the population. All five sub-groups, except for those with lowest incomes, obtain ratios that are close to or even exceed 1.00. This shows that Philippine civil society is relatively inclusive. The lowest ratio obtained is for the political membership of the poorest class of society.

FIGURE III.1.2 Diversity scores for membership in CSOs



Source: CSI population survey.

[5] Mindanao, the second largest island in the southern part of the Philippines, contains the poorest administrative regions and provinces in the country. Eight of the 15 poorest provinces can be located in the island.

1.4 Comparison of 2001 and 2009 results

The study also compared the results of the 2009 CSI population survey and the 2001 World Values Survey, both of which used roughly the same methodology and were carried out by the same survey organisation. The proportions of the sample of members of various types of CSOs in both surveys are similar in both years. However, the proportion of members of a sports or recreation organisation is marginally lower in 2009 compared to 2001.

TABLE III.1.8 Comparison of active membership in 2001 and 2009

Type of Organisation	2001	2009
Church or religious	32.8	34.2
Sports, or recreation organisations	13.5	10.1
Conservation, or environmental organisations	8.2	8.2
Art, music or education organisations	5.9	6.0
Trade unions	3.9	5.6
Political parties	4.3	5.1
Professional associations	4.4	3.7

Source: CSI population survey; WVS Philippine population survey.

Explaining lower rates of political engagement vis-à-vis social engagement (**Case Study**)
One of the paradoxes that a CSI case study reveals is that there is a relatively lower level of participation in organisations engaged in political activities compared to those engaged in social activities. Oreta, in a CSI Philippine case study (Oreta, forthcoming) explains this contradiction. She notes that Filipinos have a "natural tendency to get involved with the affairs of others" and Filipino cultural values have allowed them to become readily engaged in responding to social issues. However, civil society groups, according to the study, have not provided a clear framework for citizens to participate in political issues. At the same time, people have become increasingly aware of the shortcomings of the political system, for instance, corruption and abuse of authority, especially in the past several years. This, the study suggests, has not helped to reduce the cynicism of ordinary citizens that inhibits participation in political campaigns, because these are seen as suspect and unlikely to lead to improvements in social wellbeing. Therefore, it is necessary to effectively institute mechanisms that would allow for more authentic participation, especially of the poor and marginalised, so that people can be motivated to participate in the political system.

Conclusion

The civic engagement scores show that participation in civil society groups, especially social organisations, is quite widespread. This is due to the fact that, in the Philippines, there is a long tradition of civic engagement, especially at the barangay (village) level and there has been a generally positive association with civil society groups given the sector's role in democratic restoration. Civil society has also provided a mediating mechanism to channel the socio-economic demands of marginalised groups.

However, the participation of the section of civil society associated with political engagement still needs to be improved. Given that the average Filipino tends to have a cynical view of the possibilities of reforming the polity and those who are involved, the civil society sector should engage the citizenry through more intensive political education. Civil society organisations that are undertaking social action should also examine how political engagement could sustain their actions, while those undertaking political action could study how providing support to socio-economic needs of their members can intensify their efforts.

At the same time, there should be increased efforts to integrate the poorest income households and indigenous groups so that they can better participate in civil society. Thus, efforts should be geared towards developing the political and regulatory environment to improve participation by the poorest and the indigenous in civil society groups.

2. Level of Organisation

TABLE III.2.1 Summary scores for level of organisation dimension

Dimension: Level of Organisation		57.9
2.1	Internal governance	94.4
2.2	Infrastructure	63.3
2.3	Sectoral communication	67.3
2.4	Human resources	38.9
2.5	Financial and technological resources	69.3
2.6	International linkages	14.5

The second core dimension of CSI is the level of organisation. This dimension examines the organisational development of civil society as a whole by exploring six sub-dimensions: internal governance, infrastructure, sectoral communication, human resources, financial and technological resources and international linkages (CIVICUS, 2008). The total score for this dimension is 57.9%.

Internal governance is measured by the presence of a board of directors or a similar body. A board is crucial in offering accountability from the management and staff of a non-profit organisation, helping to ensure that its programmes are in line with the organisation's purpose and that its resources are not improperly used.

Support infrastructure refers to the presence of a network or umbrella organisation that is able to provide support to members within a sector. This is measured by the average number of federations or umbrella bodies of related organisations that CSOs belong to. Connections and networks within civil society are a sign of strength, although not necessarily in all contexts. Networks and umbrella groups that have extensive membership have also been observed within some non-democratic political environments (CIVICUS, 2008).

The human resource dimension examines the sustainability of civil society's human resources, which could provide some indication of the ability of an organisation to retain staff. Financial and technological resource indicators assess the funding sources and financial sustainability of an organisation. Changes in revenues and expenses are used to indicate financial sustainability. This sub-dimension also assesses organisations' access to technology.

The last sub-dimension for the level of organisation dimension is international linkages, which assesses the presence of international networks. This is measured by the number of international NGOs present in the country as a ratio to the total number of known international NGOs.

2.1 Internal governance

Boards of directors or boards of trustees, as they are often referred to in non-profit organisations in the Philippines, are essential as they are accountable for the governance of their organisations and are in a good position to monitor the performance of their organisations' management.

Based on the organisational survey undertaken for this survey, 94.4% of CSOs indicated that they have a board of directors or similar body in their organisations. NGOs put a lot of effort into determining the size, composition and responsibilities of their boards (Domingo, 2005). Large organisations also have formal programme and planning review systems in place. However, this indicator may not present a full picture of internal governance among CSOs in the Philippines. This is because a board is required for any non-profit organisation to be registered and to acquire legal status. While registration per se is not required, organisations need to have a legal personality in order to be able to open bank accounts, enter into contracts and raise public funds (CODE-NGO, 2008).

A better measure would be to see if these boards meet regularly, a prerequisite for a board to function well. Roughly two-thirds of the organisations in the survey reported that they have board meetings at least once every quarter, while close to 10% did not meet regularly. A further indicator of good governance is whether board members are chosen through a democratic process. More than two-thirds of organisational respondents (67.9%) chose their board through an election by members. More than one in ten respondents (11.9%) had boards that were chosen by the board members themselves, while the rest were selected either by a leader or the management and staff.

Aldaba (2001) and Abella and Dimalanta (2003) identify lack of board accountability as one of the internal management issues confronting Philippine NGOs. According to their studies, "most NGO boards are nominal, inactive, and/or disinterested in their governance functions" (Abella and Dimalanta, 2003: 245), and they give several reasons. First, it is common in Philippine NGOs to have board members who are friends or relatives of the founders. Many individuals are also invited to become board members in a bid to use their reputation to lend credibility to an organisation. Second, NGOs "lack the discipline of distinguishing between the policy making functions of the boards and the managing functions of the chief executive officer (CEO)" (Abella and Dimalanta, 2003, p.245).

Third, they affirm that board members are often not properly oriented on their roles and responsibilities. Often board members merely approve or disapprove proposals. They only become actively involved when major problems arise.

As a response to this situation, a few umbrella organisations have begun to offer training in board governance. The Association of Foundations (AF), a network of Philippine foundations, and CODE-NGO, have started organising board governance training seminars for their member organisations. However, orientations have proved to be insufficient to instil effective board governance, as governance problems were still encountered in some of the organisations that received training.

It is not easy to become an effective board member, given that the work is voluntary and no monetary compensation is given in the Philippines. The challenges facing CSOs can be daunting, especially those concerning financial sustainability. It becomes more difficult for a board member who also serves as a CEO of another organisation to balance the demands and concerns of both organisations, especially if both have financial difficulties.

In a study of Philippine CSOs, most of which were considered by influential members of society to be performing well, Domingo (2005) asserts that only a small percentage of board members are aware of their expected roles. Most learn the ropes gradually as they become actively involved in an organisation. The study also confirmed that board members do not actually perform the important roles expected of them and that board member training is necessary.

Poor board governance as such leads to situations where leadership is left entirely to the CEO or executive director. The CEO becomes solely responsible for mapping out the strategic direction of an organisation and ensuring its financial sustainability. Often there is no one who effectively checks how an organisation is being managed. There have been some instances in which CSOs have misrepresented their objectives and activities, and these organisations have had their certificate of registration revoked (Caucus of Development NGO Networks and Charity Commission, 2008: 59).

There have been numerous efforts to strengthen accountability among Philippine CSOs; foremost among them is the establishment of the Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC), which is a self-regulating mechanism for ensuring a standard of good governance among organisations through a rigorous process. However, after eight years of existence, PCNC has only certified 1,000 organisations among the tens of thousands of non-profit organisations that exist.

Part of the problem is that many organisations do not feel the need for PCNC accreditation. PCNC accreditation gives an organisation the status of a ‘donee institution’ recognised by the Bureau of Internal Revenue. A donee institution entitles its donors to claim a fully deductible individual or corporate income tax for the year. However, this benefit is only applicable to a small fraction of Philippine CSOs that receive local

donations. In addition, many organisations find the PCNC certification relatively expensive and laborious to undertake

Also, the Institute of Corporate Directors, a locally based institution, is undertaking several programmes in the business sector but is also extending its services to civil society groups. These could also supplement the initiatives undertaken by NGO networks that have developed codes of conduct to guide their respective members to function ethically. Some examples are the following:

- In 1990, CODE-NGO established a 'Code of Conduct for Development NGOs' that would help the network police its own ranks and strengthen accountability of individual organisations.
- The Association of Foundations and the Philippine Support Service Agencies prepare an annual report card of their members as a form of peer-review of non-government agencies.
- The Children and Youth Foundation Philippines, a funding organisation based in Makati, provides prospective grantees a self-assessment tool that they can utilise to evaluate their own operations before they request financial support from the foundation.

2.2 Support infrastructure

Many networks, coalitions and umbrella organisations have been formed in the long history of Philippine civil society. Networking is beneficial to CSOs as it provides them opportunities for sharing knowledge and resources, as well as greater strength in advancing their shared interests. Several past NGO surveys show that numerous NGOs and POs have connected with each other through coalitions and networks. In the late 1990s, for example, more than half of the respondents (around 56%) in an NGO survey reported that network/coalition-building is one of their greatest strengths (Association of Foundations, 1999).

Among the organisations surveyed for this study, about two-thirds (63.3%) are formal members of a network or umbrella group. At least one-third of farmers/fishers groups, homeowners' associations and religious groups, and at least half of other types of organisations (traders/business associations and socio-civic groups) are members of a network. This shows that membership in networks is widespread across different sectors.

Coalitions and networks have proved to be powerful in pushing for changes in the Philippines. The 1986 People Power Revolution which brought down the Marcos dictatorship was a product of multi-sectoral collaboration between political, business and church organisations and CSOs. This was repeated 15 years later in 2001 when a similar coalition succeeded in impeaching and forcing the resignation of former President Joseph Estrada, who had been accused, and was later convicted, of corruption and plunder.

2.3 Sectoral communication

Part of the measure of a strong civil society is the frequency of inter-CSO communication. Among the organisations surveyed, 70.6% have had a meeting with

another organisation within the previous three months before the survey was conducted, while 63.9% have shared information with another organisation. This is indicative of regular communication and information sharing among Philippine CSOs.

However, the lowest incidence of sectoral communication is among farmers/fishers' groups, which falls below 40%. Out of 11 organisations belonging to these groups, seven have not met or exchanged information with another organisation in a three month period. It is hypothesised that financial constraints could be a factor. Farmers and fishers are among the poorest in the Philippines, and their organisations often rely on the resources of their own members and officers. Meeting with other groups entails transport and other incidental expenses which these organisations may not be able to afford.

Given that the growth of CSOs can be tied to the number of networks that they belong to, that is, networks can lead to sharing of financial and human resources and can contribute to the adoption of new technologies and ways of conducting work, there is a need to support linkage activities in rural areas.

Government and donor support can be critical in this regard. For example, the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), the government agency in charge of social welfare programmes, continues to support the creation of area-based standards networks, which link different social development groups that are accredited by the DSWD to undertake programs for the socially marginalised. This can also be undertaken by other government agencies to improve the standards of governance for other CSOs with other concerns.

2.4 Human resources

In order to evaluate the sustainability of the human resources of a particular organisation, the ratio of paid staff to the total number of staff and volunteers is calculated. An organisation is deemed to have sustainable human resources if paid staff comprise at least 25% of the total personnel. Using this measure, only about one-third (34.6%) of organisations surveyed are deemed to have sustainable human resources.

Table III.2.2 below shows the ratio of volunteers to paid staff in various types of civil society groups interviewed in the organisational survey. The ratio of volunteers to paid staff is highest among farmers and fishers organisations and cooperatives, with a very high ratio of 11.3, and education groups with a ratio of 2.9. The ratio is lowest among socio-civic groups such as the Rotary Club or the Lions Club and ethnic-based community groups, with a ratio of 1. On average, the ratio of volunteers to paid staff is around 2.3, that is, 2.3 volunteers for every paid staff member.

TABLE III.2.2 Ratio of volunteers to paid staff, by organisation type

Type of organisation	Ratio of volunteers to paid staff
Farmers, or fisherfolk organisation or cooperative	11.3
Education group (parent-teacher association, school committee)	2.9
Cooperative, credit or savings group	1.8
Traders or business association	1.5
Trade union or labour union	1.6
Church or religious organisation	1.2
NGO or human rights organisation	1.2
Civic groups (Lions, Rotary)	1.0
Ethnic based community group	1.0
Others	5.5
Average	2.3

Source: CSI organisation survey.

A major concern regarding the sustainability of human resources of Philippine CSOs identified in the literature is the lack of a "successor generation" in civil society that will replace the first generation civil society leaders that emerged after the era of martial law (Abella and Dimalanta, 2003). Development work and community organising have been fertile training grounds for developing civil society leaders, but only a few young people are becoming interested in taking this career path today. High turnover is also a perennial problem for many organisations, especially since many CSOs are unable to provide competitive compensation and job security to their managers and staff.

2.5 Financial and technological resources

TABLE III.2.3 CSOs revenue sources, by organisation type

Organisation type	Gov't	Corporate	Foreign	Individual donations	Member fees	Service fees/sales	Others
Farmer / fisher organisations	8.8	0.0	0.0	10.0	33.2	28.4	19.7
Trader / business association	0.6	1.9	0.1	8.1	73.5	15.8	0.0
Trade / labour union	0.0	0.0	8.0	0.0	92.0	0.0	0.0
Homeowners' association	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	80.0	20.0	0.0
Religious / spiritual groups	0.0	0.0	14.2	46.0	39.6	0.2	0.0
Cooperatives	1.5	0.3	1.3	7.1	34.1	39.5	16.3
Education organisations	5.1	0.0	9.1	20.2	16.2	39.5	10.0
Health organisations	3.8	1.3	18.0	32.0	18.8	16.3	10.0
NGOs	9.9	11.6	48.4	5.5	0.9	12.0	11.7

Source: CSI organisation survey.

Table III.2.3 shows the income sources for each type of organisation. It is important to note that the averages can be misleading due to the high variance of income sources within most types of organisations.

The farmers' and fishers' organisations surveyed were primarily dependent on either membership fees or service fees and sales revenue, except for three out of 10 organisations, which obtained most of their funding from other sources such as government grants and individual donations. The situation is similar for cooperatives.

Trade or business associations, labour unions and homeowner's associations were primarily dependent on membership fees, which are supplemented by revenues from sales and services, except for one trade union (out of 10) which obtained 80% of its income from a foreign grant.

Religious or spiritual groups obtained their incomes either from individual donations or membership fees. There was one religious organisation (out of five) that obtained 70% of its income from a foreign grant.

The education organisations included non-profit schools, alumni associations, teachers associations and education related foundations. The non-profit schools obtained their funding from service fees, and the alumni associations from membership fees. The other organisations obtained income from either individual donations or foreign grants.

All of the NGOs obtained the majority of their income from a mix of foreign and corporate grants, except for one organisation which obtained 100% of its funding from government sourcesThe findings are similar to those of a study carried out in the late 1990s where NGOs funding sources were shown to be a mix of foreign grants, local fundraising and donations, and earned and membership fees (Association of Foundations, 2001). However, as a whole, funding from government and corporations is quite low for all types of organisations.

Other sources of financial resources included counterpart funding from service partners/beneficiaries, interest on income and production sales.

Respondents to the organisational survey were also asked whether their revenues for the fiscal year 2009 had increased or decreased compared to the previous year. Among the respondents, 38.6% indicated that their revenues increased, 37.6% that they had decreased, and 23.8% that their revenues remained the same. With regard to their expenses, 53.5% experienced an increase, 19.8% a decrease and 27.7% no change.

The changes in revenues and expenses of each organisation were compared in order to give a simplified measure for financial sustainability. Organisations that experienced an increase in their expenses while their revenues decreased or remained the same were deemed not financially sustainable. For 36 out of 108 organisations (33%) surveyed, this is the case. Out of these 36 organisations, 38.9% had membership fees as their main source of revenue. Organisations with donations from individuals, service fees or foreign donations as their main revenue source accounted for 10 to 15% each of financially unsustainable organisations.

TABLE III.2.4 Main source of revenue for financially unsustainable organisations

Main source of revenue (one source for 75 or more of total revenues)	Number	%
Membership fees	14	38.9
Individual donations	5	13.9
Service fee / sales	4	11.1
Foreign donors	4	11.1
Diversified revenue	4	11.1
Government	2	5.6
Others	3	8.3
TOTAL	36	100.0

Source: CSI organisation survey.

The recent economic crisis and the resulting financial difficulties for people in general may have resulted in the reduction in payments of membership fees, service fees/sales revenues and individual donations. Foreign grants, however, have been continuously declining since they peaked in the late 1980s, the period immediately after the 1986 People Power Revolution. Geopolitical priorities for development assistance have shifted to other regions since then (Abella and Dimalanta, 2003). According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2010), there has been a sizable reduction in

the amounts of the ODA grants that the Philippines has received since the mid 1990s (mainly made by bilateral and multilateral agencies and to the national government); from a peak of US$ 900 million in 1993, total grants disbursed has dwindled to a little over US$ 400 million in 2008.

Diversifying sources of income for civil society groups (**Case Study**)
Because of the dearth of traditional sources of grant income, many CSOs have developed new ways of increasing the availability of their resources. The Venture for Fundraising case study for the Civil Society Index study (Venture for Fundraising, forthcoming) provides two cases of organisations that have diversified their income base. The first case captures the experience of SOS Village Foundation, a Philippine affiliate of an international social welfare organisation dedicated to assisting neglected children, which undertook a 'direct mail campaign' to different organisations and individuals; the organisation was able to raise over P 1 million (around US$ 23,000) net through its campaign. The second case highlights the experience of Pangarap Foundation, founded by religious organisations to provide social protection for children, in widening its resource base outside grant funding; from 2006 to 2009, it raised over P 25 million (around US$ 580,000) by holding special activities, direct mailing and appeals, and soliciting gifts from donors.

In the Philippines, many civil society groups are exempt from payment of income taxes. The 1997 National Internal Revenue Code provides for the exemption of non-stock, non-profit corporations from income taxation, provided they are registered with the Bureau of Internal Revenue, the government agency in charge of collection of local taxes. There are many types of CSOs exempt from taxes, including non-profit labour or agricultural organisations, mutual savings and cooperative banks created for mutual purposes and not for profit, beneficiary societies, cemetery companies owned and operated exclusively for their members, business leagues or chambers of commerce, civic leagues, non-stock and non-profit and government educational institutions, and mutual or cooperative organisations. However, income from properties and from interest earned from bank deposits are subject to tax.

Donations to civil society groups that are non-profit can be tax deductible as long as these organisations are accredited by the Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC). Established in 1999 by six national NGO networks, including CODE-NGO, in partnership with the Department of Finance (DoF) and the Bureau of Internal Revenue (BIR), the PCNC certifies non-profit organisations after a stringent review of their qualifications. The certification becomes the basis for the BIR granting 'donee institution' status to the organisations certified by PCNC. The Philippine tax code provides for limited deductibility for income taxes for individual (in the amount not exceeding 10% of donations or gifts) and corporate donors (in the amount not exceeding 5%).

More recently, the civil society community has diversified its sources of financial support. There are now local foundations that have been created through debt-for-environment or debt-for-development swaps (Foundation for the Philippine Environment

and Foundation for a Sustainable Society, Inc.) with the support of foreign governments or by the participation of civil society groups in the capital markets (Peace and Equity Foundation).

The CSI organisation survey also asked organisations whether they had access to a telephone, a fax machine, a computer and the Internet. More than 70% had regular access to a telephone line, more than 60% had access to a computer, more than 50% had access to a fax machine and more than 50% had access to the Internet or e-mail.

TABLE III.2.5 CSOs Access to technology

Technology	No access	Sporadic access	Regular access
Phone line	20.2	8.3	71.6
Fax machine	40.4	5.5	54.1
Computer	22.9	8.3	68.6
Internet or email	34.3	9.3	56.5

Source: CSI organisation survey.

Among all the organisations surveyed, 72.5% had access to three out of the four technologies, indicating a high level of access to basic technologies.

2.6 International linkages

About one in six (14.54%) of the international NGOs listed by the Union of International Associations Database operate in the Philippines.[6] However, some NGOs in Mindanao have observed that more and more international NGOs are beginning to implement projects on their own, rather than letting local NGOs implement these for them. This creates further competition for local NGOs in terms of raising funds for projects, which poses serious problems for local NGOs, given the decreasing availability of funds.

Conclusion

One of the key findings of this study is that Philippine CSOs have formal processes for accountability; however, this study did not examine whether these mechanisms work in actuality. There have been anecdotal studies which show that, in many instances, board members have not been empowered to or empowered themselves to judiciously oversee the operations of civil society groups. Recognising this fact, many organisations have offered training seminars in order to improve board accountability, and codes of conduct have been devised to improve accountability of civil society groups to the general public. But it has been recognised that good corporate governance in civil society organisations still has a long way to go.

Another key finding is that the infrastructure (in terms of the presence of networks), financial and technological resources and sectoral communication are quite good. CSOs have a long history of linking with each other through local and national alliances and

[6] CODE-NGO and CIVICUS are grateful to the Union of International Associations for this information.

coalitions, and these links have thrived over time. For example, the National Council for Social Development, the coalition of social welfare agencies, has been in existence for 63 years, while the National Confederation of Cooperatives (NATCCO), one of the largest cooperative alliances in the country, has been in existence for 34 years. Surprisingly, the indicator score on financial and technological resources is quite good; many CSOs are relying on internal resources (through membership fees and service fees) and thus are quite stable compared to their counterparts that rely more on external resources (such as grants).

Human resources had a low indicator score in this study. Given the voluntary nature of work in many civil society groups, it is not surprising that Philippine civil society groups had a low ranking in this aspect. One of the reasons that may have caused this is that the core value of volunteerism and service to society may have diminished during the past years due to the loss of financial resources available to CSOs and the flourishing of work within the sector as a professional career. Currently, civil society leaders admit that there has been a problem of attracting young people and students in organising civil society groups, given that the current crop of leaders are in their middle age. It has been observed that it is more difficult to retain good middle managers within civil society given that opportunities also exist for development work in government.

3. Practice of Values

TABLE III.3.1 Summary scores for practice of values dimension

Dimension: Practice of Values		48.9
3.1	Democratic decision-making governance	69.7
3.2	Labour regulations	29.4
3.3	Code of conduct and transparency	45.7
3.4	Environmental standards	30.8
3.5	Perception of values in civil society as a whole	69.1

The third dimension of the CSI is the internal practice of values. This dimension assesses whether civil society practices what it preaches in terms of democratic decision-making, labour regulations, codes of conduct and transparency, and environmental standards. Democratic decision-making encompasses how and by whom decisions are made within CSOs. Labour regulations include the existence of equal opportunity policies, staff membership in labour unions, training in labour rights for new staff and a publicly available policy on labour standards. Code of conduct and transparency includes the presence of codes of conduct and the availability of financial statements. Environment standards include the presence of policies with regard to environmental issues.

This dimension also assesses the perception of values such as non-violence, democracy, trustworthiness and tolerance within civil society. It is important to note that the values being considered here are seen as normative for civil society, and as such CSOs should ideally uphold and promote these values.

3.1 Democratic decision-making

About a third (37.6%) of respondents in the organisational survey indicated that key decisions in their organisations were taken by an elected board (see Table III.3.2 below). Elected leaders made the key decisions in 16.5% of the organisations, while members did the same in 14.7%. Only one organisation operated with the staff taking key decisions. More than two-thirds (69.7%) of surveyed organisations are deemed to practice some form of democratic decision-making. In the rest of the organisations an appointed leader or an appointed board makes the key decisions.

TABLE III.3.2 Key decision makers in CSOs

Key decision-makers in the organisation	Number of respondents	%
An elected board	41	37.6
An elected leader	18	16.5
An appointed board	17	15.6
An appointed leader	16	14.7
Members	16	14.7
The staff	1	0.9
Total	109	100

Source: CSI organisation survey.

3.2 Labour regulations

Out of the 60 organisations with paid staff, only seven have employees who are union members, while one did not divulge the figure. The rest had no union members among their paid staff. Two organisations had 100% union membership even though they only had 1 or 2 paid staff. As such, the average union membership among paid staff for these 59 organisations is only 5.3%.

Most of the organisations in the sample have very small staff sizes. Within the sample of 60, 39 have fewer than 10 employees inclusive of managers, 17 have 31 or fewer paid employees and 4 have employees ranging from 62 to 218. It is striking that only 2 out of the 21 organisations with more than 10 employees have union members.

Table III.3.3 shows the percentage of organisations with equal opportunity policies, that conduct training on labour rights for new staff, and that have publicly available labour standards. More than half (52.3%) of organisations have an equal opportunity and equal pay policy for women. However, less than 30% conduct training on labour rights and less than 30% have publicly available labour standards.

TABLE III.3.3 Organisations that report good labour practices

Labour practice	Percentage of organisations	Percentage of organisations with paid staff
Has equal opportunity and equal pay policy for women	52.3	63.3
Conducts training on labour rights for new staff	28.7	43.3
Have publicly available labour standards	28.0	38.3

Source: CSI organisation survey.

The picture is slightly better when looking only at organisations with paid staff (see Table III.3.3 above). Excluding organisations without paid staff presents a more accurate picture, as it is not practical for these organisations to have labour policies and trainings if they do not have employees per se.

While labour contractualisation[7] is a major issue being opposed by many CSOs, especially trade unions, many CSOs also practice contractualisation through project-based hiring of staff. It is argued by CSO managers that such a practice cannot be avoided given the nature of project based operations and the donor dependent funding of many CSOs, especially non-government organisations. Many CSOs are constrained from putting their employees on a more regular footing since there is no certainty that the organisation will be able to obtain future grants with which it could implement projects and pay salaries. Thus, it is important for the sector to develop standards on labour practices that provide protection and fair salaries and benefits to employees of CSOs, while at the same time taking into account the project-based nature of some CSOs. In one of the consultations conducted for this project, it was suggested that as an initial step towards the creation of such standards, civil society should study the legally mandated labour standards that apply to the construction industry, which also operates on a project basis.

Overall, the survey suggests that Philippine CSOs do not fare well in implementing labour standards.

[7] In the Philippines, labour contractualisation means hiring of employees or workers without a permanent wage contract or only on a short-term basis. Under the Philippine Labour Code (Presidential Decree 244), temporary labour contracts are allowed for up to six months' duration and mainly for non-regular and non-recurring activities, and beyond this period, employees should be made permanent if they will be kept by their employers. The practice is controversial because many employers, including CSOs, do not confer permanent status on their employees after the six month prescriptive period, and contractualisation is sometimes used in order to deny employees certain benefits and labour rights (such as the right to self-organisation and collective bargaining) available only to those in permanent status.

3.3 Code of conduct and transparency

TABLE III.3.4 Presence of a code of conduct among CSOs

	Very small organisation (no paid staff)	Small organisation (1-10 employees)	Medium organisation (11-50 employees)	Big organisation (more than 50 employees)	Full Sample
Have publicly available code of conduct for staff	28.3	35.9	52.9	50.0	35.8
Have publicly available financial information	60.0	61.5	41.2	25.0	56.2

Source: CSI organisation survey.

Only 35.8% of all organisations surveyed have a publicly available code of conduct for their staff. Disaggregating the data by size of the organisation as determined by their number of paid employees, it is observed that a higher percentage of medium and big organisations have a publicly available code of conduct.

However, it is surprising to note that, based on the survey, smaller organisations are more transparent with regard to their financial information compared to bigger organisations. Over 60% of very small and small organisations (having between zero and 10 employees) have publicly available financial information, which is in stark contrast to medium and big organisations where only 41.2% and 25.0% have such information. Overall, 56.2% of those surveyed reported that their financial information is publicly available.

Respondents in the survey also show that only three out of ten organisations that receive more than 75% of their revenues from foreign donors have publicly available financial information. A higher ratio of organisations with service fees, membership fees or individual donations as their main source of revenue has this information.

TABLE III.3.5 Civil society organizations, by main source of revenues

Main source of revenues (more than 75%)	Total no. of organisations per type of revenue source	No. of organisations with code of conduct	% with code of conduct
Foreign donors	10	3	30
Individual donations	13	9	69
Membership fees	36	23	64
Service fees / sales	17	11	65
Government	2	1	50

Source: CSI organisation survey.

Previous analysis presents a less rosy picture in terms of financial transparency. Aldaba (2002) states that available SEC registration data suggests that less than 50% of non-profit organisations registered with the SEC submit the required annual reports, which include financial statements. The SEC has delisted numerous non-reporting non-profit organisations in the past few years.

3.4 Environmental standards

Less than a third of the organisations surveyed had existing and publicly available environmental standards. More than half of the education-related organisations, trade unions and homeowners' associations had publicly available environmental standards, while only one of three environment organisations had them. Lack of a written policy on environmentally-friendly practices that could include recycling, waste reduction and carbon footprint reduction suggests that the majority of CSOs have not yet prioritised the initiation and/or institutionalisation of such practices within their office and work environs. Despite the general awareness of CSOs on environmental issues, there is still a lack of knowledge on how to codify environmental norms. Many technologies necessary to improve waste reduction are still prohibitive in terms of costs.

3.5 Perception of values in civil society as a whole

Questions on the perception of whether CSOs uphold values of non-violence, tolerance, trustworthiness and democracy were included in the organisation survey. Respondents from different CSOs were asked whether these values were being upheld and practiced by CSOs in general.

Organisational respondents were asked whether they were aware of forces within civil society that use violence. Only 27.1% responded in the affirmative, 70.1% in the negative, and 2.8% said they did not know.

Among the 34 respondents who affirmed that they are aware of violence among civil society forces, 5.9% said that they were a significant mass, 20.6% that they were an isolated mass, 44.1% that they were isolated groups that occasionally resorted to violence and 14.7% that the use of violence by civil society was extremely rare; see Table III.3.6 for disaggregation.

TABLE III.3.6 Perception of use of violence by CSOs

Description of civil society forces that use violence	No. of respondents	% of sample
Significant mass based groups	2	5.9
Isolated mass based groups	7	20.6
Isolated groups occasionally resorting to violence	15	44.1
Use of violence by CS groups is extremely rare	5	14.7
Don't know	5	14.7
TOTAL	34	100

Source: CSI organisation survey.

With regard to civil society's role in promoting democratic decision-making within their own organisations and groups, 76.0% of respondents affirmed that civil society in general had a moderate to significant impact. Almost a third of the respondents also indicated that they perceive corruption within civil society to happen frequently or very frequently. Only 30.8% of the respondents indicated that corruption was very rare in civil society.

TABLE III.3.7 Perception of corruption within civil society

Frequency of instance of corruption	Respondents	%
Very frequent	11	11.7
Frequent	23	24.5
Occasional	31	33.0
Very rare	29	30.8
Total	94	100%

Source: CSI organisation survey.

When asked how many examples of forces within civil society are explicitly racist, discriminatory or intolerant, 50.5% indicated that they know none, or one or two examples, while 34.8% indicated that they know several or many examples and 29.4% said they did not know of any. Figure III.3.1 summarises the results.

When asked how these forces relate to the rest of civil society, 38.8% of those who indicated that there are forces that are explicitly racist, discriminatory or intolerant in civil society felt these forces either dominate or are significant actors within civil society. The results indicate that there is a perception by a significant segment of civil society that there is discrimination against certain sectors of society, but that these are not dominant.

Conclusion

This study shows that while CSOs are perceived to practice democratic values, there are some areas in which the values are not fully ingrained in civil society work. This research has unearthed new findings on Philippine civil society that need to be explored in more depth. These include the findings on the impact of civil society on attitudes and the practice of labour and environmental standards. The low scores may be due to the fact that there are no specific standards that have been developed in these areas, even among CSOs who report that they adhere to specific codes of conduct. It may also be due to the fact that there are too few models of practice or the good practices, in terms of environmental and labour standards, in these areas have not been disseminated well.

Also, many CSO networks admit that there have not been many discussions on labour and environment standards among Philippine organisations At the same time, the weak enforcement systems by Philippine public institutions of the legal norms that are in place allow for the lack of adherence to these standards.

4. Perception of Impact

TABLE III.4.1 Summary scores for impact dimension

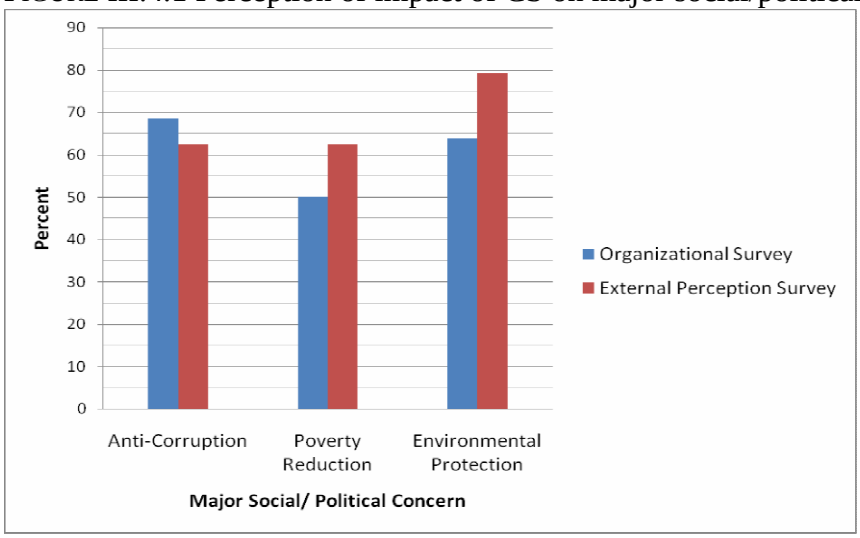
Dimension: Perception of Impact		62.8
4.1	Responsiveness (internal perception)	62.0
4.2	Social impact (internal perception)	78.5
4.3	Policy impact (internal perception)	55.0
4.4	Responsiveness (external perception)	73.0
4.5	Social impact (external perception)	83.0
4.6	Policy impact (external perception)	66.6
4.7	Impact of civil society on attitudes	21.4

The fourth core dimension of the CSI seeks to describe and assess the perceived impact of civil society as it strives to exert influence and take action with regard to major issues concerning society. The study looks into the perception of both those within civil society, through the organisational survey, and external stakeholders, through a survey of experts and stakeholders not coming from CSOs. In these two surveys, respondents are asked to assess the impact of civil society on society as a whole and on three specific issues identified by the study's advisory committee. Respondents are also asked to assess the impact of CSOs on social issues and on government policies.

This section will also explore the impact of membership in a CSO on an individual's attitudes in the areas of trust, public spiritedness and tolerance. It is hypothesised that civil society has a positive impact on these attitudes, given the nature of many CSOs.

4.1 Responsiveness

FIGURE III.4.1 Perception of impact of CS on major social/political concerns



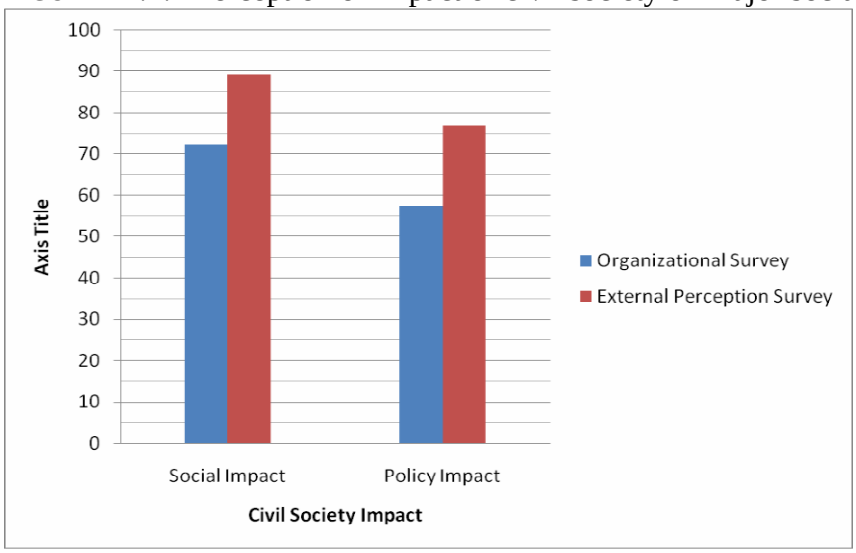
Source: CSI organisation survey, CSI external perception survey.

The advisory committee identified three issues which are most important for civil society in the Philippines. These are fighting corruption, reducing poverty and protecting the environment. The majority of the respondents of both the external and organisational

surveys had a favourable view of the impact of civil society on these three issues. It is interesting to note that for two out of the three issues, external stakeholders perceive a higher impact of civil society compared to the perception of CSOs themselves. More than three quarters of external stakeholders (77.4%) viewed civil society to have some tangible or a high level impact on poverty reduction, as compared to only half of CSOs. The case is the same with environmental protection, where 79.2% of external respondents viewed civil society impact favourably while only 63.9% of CSO respondents did. However, in the case of anti-corruption, CSOs rated civil society impact on the fight against corruption higher on the average than did external stakeholders.

4.2 Social and policy impact

FIGURE III.4.2 Perception of impact of civil society on major social and policy concerns



Source: CSI organisation survey, CSI external perception survey.

With regard to the general social and policy impact of civil society, the external perception was also higher than the view within CSOs. Respondents were asked to select two fields in which their CSO had been active (for CSO respondents) or in which they have observed CSOs to be most active (for external stakeholders). Then they were asked to rate the impact of CSOs in these fields, that is, whether there has been a high level of impact, some tangible level of impact, a limited level or no impact at all. Figure III.4.2 above shows the proportion of total respondents in both surveys that indicated that the perception of external stakeholders was higher both in social and policy impact than the perception among CSO respondents.

CSOs were also asked to rate the impact of their own programmes. Four out of five respondents (81.0%) of the CSOs surveyed rated their programmes as having some tangible or a high level of social impact, which is a higher average than those that gave a positive rating to the overall civil society social impact. In terms of policy advocacy, however, only 45.4% of CSOs surveyed reported that they had engaged in lobbying for the approval of some policy in the previous two years. Among these organisations,

slightly over 61.2% reported that at least one of the policies they were pushing for was approved. See below for an example of the successful lobbying efforts of CSOs in pushing for the passage of the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Extension with Reform Law.

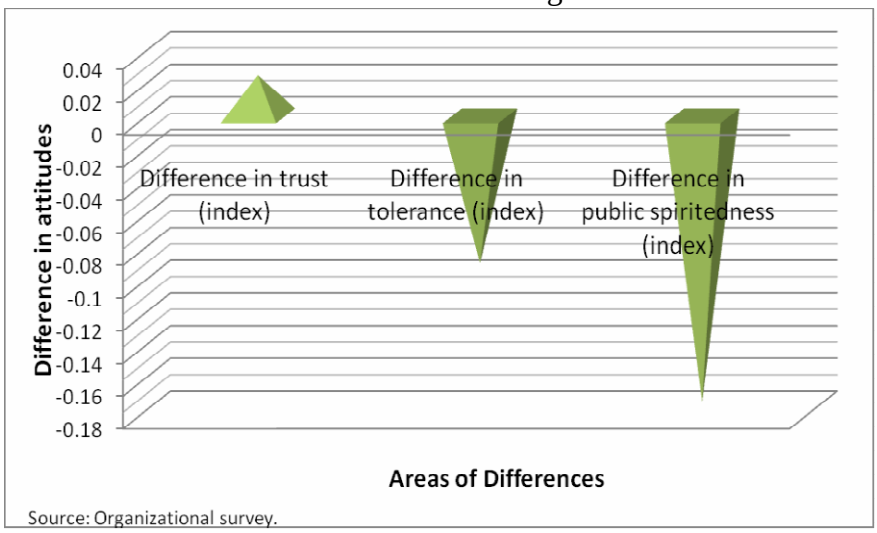
Passing the "Unpassable Law" (**Case Study**)
During the past twenty years, civil society has lobbied for the passing of many socially progressive bills which seek to enhance the rights of marginalised socio-economic sectors and extend government services to these sectors. These include the Urban Development and Housing Act, Women In Nation-Building Act, Generic Drugs Law, Cooperatives Code, the Local Government Code, Anti-Rape Bill, Act Repealing the Anti-Squatting Law, the Indigenous Peoples' Rights Act and the Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act of 1997. Lim, in a case study for the CSI research entitled 'Passing the Unpassable Law' (forthcoming) describes the role of civil society groups in the passing of a law which extended the implementation of the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program (CARP). This law aimed to distribute land to landless tenants and agricultural workers and to provide support services for the beneficiaries of the law for another five years (2008 to 2013). This campaign was highly successful and led to the passing of the law extending the CARP program despite strong opposition from some legislators and the reluctance of the executive branch of government.

Lim notes that there are several factors that were crucial in the passing of the law. These include: a) the support given by the Catholic Church hierarchy; b) the sponsorship of bills by senior legislators in both legislative chambers of Congress; c) the technical support given by non-government organisations and research groups (which was critical in providing the arguments for the passage of the law); and d) spontaneous lobbying efforts made by farmers' groups. Despite the limited financial resources during the campaign and the inflexible lobbying stance of some of the law's supporters, the campaign provided civil society with experience and confidence that it could lobby for the passage of a bill with sufficient technical capacity in policy formulation, good networking skills with legislators, and the ability to mobilise campaign activities.

4.3 Impact of civil society on values

The CSI also assesses the impact of civil society membership on three attitudes. The first attitude is interpersonal trust. Respondents of the population survey were asked whether they thought people could be trusted in general. Only 4.8% of the total population answered in the affirmative. Members of political organisations had a slightly higher proportion of trust at 6.0%.

FIGURE III.4.3 Differences in values among CSO and non-CSO members



Source: Organizational survey.

The results for tolerance were, however, surprising. Figure III.4.3 shows that non-members of civil society tend to be more tolerant than members. The index scores represented in the figure were computed by averaging the mean tolerance among CSO members and non-members across 10 different categories of people of whom individuals might be intolerant (e.g., people of a different race, immigrants, drug addicts). One explanation could be that since a significant proportion of CSOs in the country comprise church-based organisations, especially those belonging to the Roman Catholic faith, which is conservative in terms of social values, CSO members on average might be less tolerant of specific types of groups that impinge on these values. This is borne out by the fact that tolerance for homosexuals and unmarried couples cohabiting are significantly lower among CSO members.

At the same time, public spiritedness scores lower among CSO members than non-CSO members. This could be due to the fact that CSO members have a healthy disrespect for public rules brought about by their experience during martial law in the 1970s and 1980s. During this period, the government tried to instil concern for social norms, but these efforts were in support of existing dispensation.

Conclusion

It is clear from this assessment that the external perception scores are higher than the internal perception scores. One possible reason is that the external perception respondents were chosen on the basis of their working knowledge of and familiarity with the civil society sector, and they may be generally better informed on policy advocacy initiatives compared to other respondents. The scores may also have been affected by the high regard accorded by the general public to civil society groups; it may be noted that during the time this study was undertaken, regard for other public institutions, such as the government, has been quite low due to the numerous corruption scandals in which officials of the executive branch have been perceived to be involved.

At the same time, the trust, tolerance and public spiritedness scores of CSOs can still be improved. Values education and formation could be further strengthened among civil society groups.

5. External Environment

TABLE III.5.1 Summary scores for external environment dimension

Dimension: External Environment		53.0
5.1	Socio-economic context	53.5
5.2	Socio-political context	62.0
5.3	Socio-cultural context	43.7

This dimension assesses the external environment in which civil society exists and functions. This section describes and analyses the overall social, economic, cultural and legal environment. Several development indicators were gathered in order to provide a general picture of the overall welfare of the Philippines, based on dimensions which included social welfare, the sustainability of public finances, income inequality, political freedoms, the effectiveness of government in implementing public programmes, and the level of trust, tolerance and public spiritedness of the general public.

5.1 Socio-economic dimensions

The Philippines received a 77.2% rating in the Basic Capabilities Index (BCI) in 2008, which is a composite rating based on three indicators: percentage of children who reach fifth grade, percentage of children who survive until at least their fifth year and percentage of births attended by health professionals. The BCI is a measurement of the general social welfare of different countries and is undertaken by Social Watch, an international NGO. This reflects the fact that government spending on social services, on a per capita basis, has been declining since the early 2000s (Raya, 2007; Fabros, 2007), and significant institutional reforms have to be undertaken in education (Luz, 2009) and health.

The country's external debt to gross national income ratio, a measure of fiscal sustainability, stood at 58.1% in 2007, while the Gini coefficient, a measure of income inequality, was 0.445 in 2007. The external debt ratio can be said to be moderate compared to other countries, given the fact that the Philippine government has shifted its borrowing from foreign to domestic sources since the mid 2000s; but nevertheless, the current amount of foreign debt has been considered by analysts as not 'sustainable' given that new borrowings are utilised to fund old debt (Diokno, 2007: 8-9). The country's level of inequality is quite high for a Southeast Asian country due to the lack of public mechanisms for asset redistribution and the fact that recent economic growth has improved the situation of higher income, rather than low income, families.

There is a high level of perception of corruption in the Philippines, as reflected in the country's rating in the Transparency International Corruption Index. The Philippines had been given a 2.3 rating in the index for 2008 which ranges from 0 to 10, with the lower scores meaning a high perceived level of corruption; the average rating received by

countries is 4. Several corruption scandals racked the national government in the mid 2000s, including the diversion of an agricultural fund to the coffers of administration-supported congressional candidates and the apparent intervention of the chair of the national election board in the government's computerization program in return for large bribes, which caused a significant worsening of perception of transparency in the country. In 2011, congressional hearings had been started to investigate diversion of funds intended for the Philippine armed forces to the personal use of high-ranking officers.

5.2 Socio-political dimensions

Freedom House's Index of Political rights, the Index of Civil Liberties and the World Bank's World Governance Indicators were used as indicators for the Philippines' socio-political context. In addition, data from the organisational survey regarding the legal and regulatory framework were included in calculations for this sub-dimension.

In terms of political rights, the Philippines scored 23 points in 2008, which is slightly below average for the set of countries that the Freedom House reviewed. The ratings include subjective analyses of the electoral process (the Philippines was given a score of 6 out of 12 points), political pluralism and participation (10 out of 16 points) and functioning of government (7 out of 12 points). In terms of rule of law, the Philippines scored 38 points in 2008, which is an average rating. The ratings include freedom of expression and belief (12 points out of 16), associational and organisational rights (8 points out of 12), rule of law (6 points out of 16) and personal autonomy and individual rights (10 points out of 16).

In terms of state effectiveness, the World Bank Governance Indicators Project examines perception of the quality of public services, the quality of the bureaucracy and its degree of independence from political pressures, and the quality of policy development and implementation, including the government's commitment to undertaking such policies. The Philippines received a score of -0.04, slightly below the average of 0.0 but above the median of -0.17.

As seen in Table III.5.2, more than half of the organisations surveyed view the Philippines' laws and regulations as highly enabling. However, 15.8% of the respondents also reported that they have been subject to illegitimate restriction or attack by central government.

The most grave of these attacks on civil society has come in the form of extrajudicial killings and enforced disappearances which had become a grave concern between 2001 and 2010 during the Arroyo administration. Betweem 2001 and 2007, between 100 and 800[8] executions have been perpetrated, and these have especially targeted leftist activists, including civil society leaders, human rights defenders, trade unionists and land reform

[8] The number of the executions vary depending on who is counting and how. Task Force Using, the government formed body to investigate the extrajudicial killings has a list of 116 cases. The number of people on the lists of civil society organizations also vary, but are all higher than the count of Task Force Using, the highest of which is 885 cases as counted by Karapatan.

advocates had been the target of executions (Alston, 2008: 2). Philip Alston, the United Nations Special Rapportuer on extrajudicial killings, summary or arbitrary executions has determined that the counter insurgency strategy of the Philippine military and the changes in the priorities of the criminal justice system during that period helps explain why the killings continue.

The case of the Morong 43, which has received much media attention, also shows human rights abuses against members of civil society organizations. On 6 February 2010, forty three medical practitioners and health workers were illegally arrested and detained by the Philippine military under charges of illegal possession of firearms and explosives. The victims' rights against illegal arrest, illegal detention and torture and right to counsel were violated (Asian Human Rights Commission, 2010. They were kept in military custody for 12 weeks before being transferred to police custody. The Morong 43 were finally released on 18 December 2010 upon orders of President Aquino.

While formal civil and political rights are guaranteed by the Constitution, various independent agencies have noted that the country's performance in terms of rights protection remain weak. Law enforcement and judicial agencies are feeble in the face of rampant abuses by the military, police, paramilitary groups and 'private armies' (Human Rights Watch, 2011: 359- 364). With the change to a new administration, it is expected that extrajudicial killings and human rights abuses will significantly decrease given the new policy and approaches of government.

TABLE III.5.2 CSO perception of laws and regulations for CSOs

Perception of restriction	Frequency	%
Highly restrictive	9	8.3
Quite limiting	28	25.7
Moderately enabling	50	45.9
Fully enabling	14	12.8
Don't know/missing	8	7.3

Source: CSI organisation survey.

The Philippines has a very progressive legislative framework in support of participatory governance. This principle is enshrined in the Philippines' 1987 Constitution, under Article XII Section 16 which states that "The right of the people and their organisations to effective and reasonable participation at all levels of social, political, and economic decision making shall not be abridged. The state shall, by law, facilitate the establishment of adequate consultation mechanisms." Thus, the ratings of the Philippines in terms of the provision of formal rights to organisation and assembly are quite high.

At the local level, various bodies such as local development councils, local health boards, school boards and other local special bodies have been mandated to include civil society and private sector representatives by various laws such as the Local Government Code of

1991. It is the intent of these laws to institutionalise consultative mechanisms within local governments.

However, despite the progressive legislative framework supporting people's participation, most local governments in the Philippines are far from practicing participatory governance. Many of the mandated local bodies are either not convened or merely serve as a rubber stamp for the local chief executive who chooses the civil society representatives to these bodies. This has often led to misdirected priorities and poor planning, leading to much waste of scarce local government resources (Capuno, 2007: 222- 226). Instead of programmes that have a high impact on development, many local government units have historically focused their resources on visible projects that have little development impact (such as waiting sheds or dole-out programs) or projects that serve the vested interest of the local politicians (such as roads leading to their property). The situation is made worse by a general lack of transparency on how local governments utilise their budget and what they have achieved as a result (PHILDHRRA, forthcoming: 13).

Under such circumstances, it is often the most vulnerable groups who are hurt the most as their needs and concerns are not factored into the plans of the local government, driving resources away from anti-poverty development projects that could better address their needs. At the same time, CSOs have been vulnerable to "various forces of society," especially to self-serving politicians and other groups who have used these groups to further advance their interests (Buendia, 2005: 363- 364).

In relation to illegitimate restrictions and attacks against civil society

CSO Assessment of the Local Government Code **(Case Study)**
In 1991, the Philippine legislature passed the Local Government Code, the enabling law that implemented the 1987 Constitution mandates to decentralise government powers to the provincial, city, municipal and barangay (village) government units. The law also provided space for civil society organisations to participate in local government 'consultative' bodies, that plan and monitor the implementation of specific policies, programs and processes such as those in the areas of health, education (schools), peace and order, development planning and others.

In a case study for this paper (PHILDHRRA, forthcoming) noted that while there are areas of productive relationships established between CSOs and the local government units in these bodies, there are still many areas for improvement, such as strengthening information dissemination within these bodies, strengthening the capacity of these bodies to effectively monitor the implementation of local government programs and projects and improve the 'functionality' of the bodies.

5.3 Socio-cultural context

Based on the population survey, Filipinos have a moderate degree of tolerance and public spiritedness. However, the level of trust is excessively low, with less than 5% of the

respondents in the population survey expressing the belief that people can be trusted in general.

On the average, less than two-thirds of the population survey respondents (62.2%) are tolerant of a list of population sub-groups; this is an average of the proportion of respondents who would not mind having groups such as people of a different race, migrants/foreign workers, Muslims, homosexuals, unmarried couples living together, people who speak a different language, drug addicts, people with HIV/AIDS and heavy drinkers as their neighbours.

A similar proportion, 64.1%, can be described as having some level of 'public spiritedness'. This is measured by the degree to which survey respondents disagreed with the acceptability of the following practices: claiming government benefits that one is not entitled to; avoiding fare on public transportation; not paying taxes; and paying/accepting a bribe.

Conclusion

The external dimension ratings show that the Philippines has a moderate level of socio-economic development, and despite the problems of corruption and lack of accountability that have plagued the national government in the past years, also a modest level of socio-political development. Nevertheless, both areas can still be improved; there are some serious efforts made by the government to undertake education reforms to improve the efficiency of the public school system, and to re-examine the corruption issues that have plagued the bureaucracy in the past ten years in order to develop more sustainable good governance mechanisms. These are areas worthy of civil society involvement.

At the same time, there is a need to improve the average citizen's public values and norms. One study (Clarke, 2010; 3-4) would describe as a "distinct realm of values," and as such, could assist in broadening the commitment of the public to put the good of the public before the interests of a specific group.

IV. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF CIVIL SOCIETY

Philippine civil society is one of the most vibrant and active in Asia. One of its strengths is its deep and expansive roots in society, as shown by the high participation rate of adult Filipinos, an estimated 45.7% of whom count themselves as active members of at least one CSO, compared to only 17.3% of the population who are not a member of a CSO. There is also extensive participation of minorities and marginalised groups (women, indigenous peoples, and members of the rural population) in Philippine CSOs, a substantial number of which were formed by these groups themselves, or by NGOs representing their interests.

CSOs had thrived after the 1986 Edsa People Power Revolution which toppled the Marcos dictatorship through a citizen led non-violent and peaceful revolt. The 1987

Constitution that was put in place after this enshrined the value of people's participation and protects the rights of people's organisations to participate at all levels of social, political, and economic decision-making.

In terms of their organisation, Philippine CSOs rate well in terms of having boards that are democratically elected and meet regularly, despite the need to strengthen board accountability and transparency. They are also strong in networking and sectoral communications. The long history of NGOs and other CSOs in the Philippines has allowed these networks and relationships to develop.

Many networks have been organised around different sectoral interests or specific issues. As a sign of their strength, formal and informal CSO networks have been instrumental in the passage of legislation that promotes the interests of the poor and vulnerable sectors. Such legislation includes the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Programme, Urban and Housing Development Act, Fisheries Code, Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Act, Party-List System Act, and many others.

Aside from these, CSO networks have also successfully begun three local grant making institutions through debt swaps or participation in the capital markets. These institutions now provide grants and loans that fund projects and programmes of Philippine CSOs. Networks have also helped establish the Philippine Council for NGO Certification, a self-regulatory mechanism recognised by government which certifies CSOs that meet minimum standards in financial management and accountability. These contributions to the enactment of legislation, as well as the many services delivered by CSOs to citizens, have led to a high perception of impact for Philippine CSOs.

Furthermore, peace and non-violence are practiced by most Philippine CSOs. There are only a few groups that use violence and they largely operate on the periphery of civil society. However, these groups do have links with some formal CSOs operating within the legal framework.

In terms of impact on the attitudes of their members, CSOs have less impact on the level of trust, and appear to have a negative impact on tolerance and public spiritedness. While CSOs are perceived to have moderate to high impact in terms of promoting peace and non-violence, democracy and intolerance, they are perceived to demonstrate little internalisation of labour rights and standards and environmental norms, at least as defined in this study. Only a small number of CSOs have publicly available codes of conduct or ethics that guide their operations.

There is also a perception of pervasive corruption within the sector among CSOs themselves. This is related to the issue of weak board governance within the NGO sector which has been written about in the existing literature (Aldaba, 2001: 3-5; Abella and Dimalanta, 2003:3- 8). It is probably the case that problems with board governance are also present in other types of CSOs in the Philippines. However, corruption within civil society needs to be subjected to further research and investigation in order to provide better understanding.

Another weakness of Philippine CSOs is that its members appear to be less tolerant and have lower regard for public-spiritedness compared to non-members. This issue would also merit further exploration. There is also a need to better engage the poor in political issues and engagements.

The data generated by the Civil Society Index suggests low political activism and political engagement in the Philippines, as indicated by lower participation rates in political CSOs and a low proportion of citizens who sign petitions, join boycotts and attend peaceful demonstrations. However, this data may not provide an accurate picture since the classification between social and political CSOs made by the CIVICUS methodology is not as applicable to the Philippine setting, given that social organisations such as religious organisations and cooperatives also tend to engage in political activities. But nevertheless, it points to an important issue that many CSOs have not gone beyond their local programmes and projects to advocate for more structural reforms at the national level.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on results of the study, the following recommendations are given to address the identified weaknesses of Philippine civil society:

1. On strengthening governance within CSOs

Formal institutional mechanisms that promote accountability and transparency within CSOs can be strengthened. The Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC) still remains a viable mechanism for genuinely promoting and monitoring CSO governance. In order to effectively broaden the reach of PCNC, it is recommended that government and foreign/local donors make PCNC certification one of the requirements for organisations that seek a minimum level of grants from them. They should also include in their grants to non-PCNC registered organisations some support to help the organisation undertake PCNC accreditation.

Another recommendation is for donors to institutionalise a mechanism that would compile and regularly publish lists of negligent grantees that did not satisfy the terms of their respective grants. When institutionalised, this mechanism can serve both as a clearing house and a good governance check among CSOs. The participation of the PCNC and major CSO networks in the development of this mechanism would promote buy-in to the system.

2. On developing standards for good governance across civil society groups

One of the issues that came out from the study is that, while a large proportion of civil society groups meet the formal requirements for governance, it is not clear that they are able to meet adequate standards for good governance. The proportion of the organisational survey sample with formal board membership is high, but there is a significant minority who report that their boards do not meet regularly. Another issue is

that there are many civil society groups that are not transparent with regard to financial reports.

Thus, there is a need to develop a consensus on the expected roles of civil society oversight boards. These may include the regularity of holding of board meetings, and the specific powers and responsibilities of the board, including oversight of management of civil society groups, and the areas of policy making that they can undertake. It is also important to specify clearly the policies that can guide civil society groups to improve their financial transparency.

3. On strengthening networking of civil society groups

There are many areas in which CSOs can work at the national and local government level; these include national 'multi-sectoral' and 'sectoral' bodies (e.g. the National Anti-Poverty Commission, the National Youth Commission, the Philippine Commission on Women) that have opened the venues for participation for organised marginalised groups, and local 'consultative' bodies.

Given these circumstances, CSOs should further strengthen their engagement in these institutionalised bodies. They should advocate for the convening of local development councils and other local bodies. Once convened, they should participate proactively in setting the agenda and in providing input to local governance. CSO networks and organisations at the national level should provide capacity building support for their members and affiliates at the local level.

4. On the financial and human resource sustainability of CSOs

Many of the organisations surveyed for this study already rely on membership fees and service fees to support the operations of their organisations. Public giving should be further strengthened and promoted in order to generate greater resources that can support civil society within the Philippines.

Arrangements whereby government facilitates citizen contributions to CSOs should be explored. There are several models from other countries that could be explored which can support the growth of civil society groups. In Germany, for example, the government allows taxpayers to allocate a small part of their tax (around 1% of their total payments) to church groups. This could be adapted in the Philippines by allowing qualified CSOs (perhaps linking this to PCNC certification to also encourage CSOs to undergo certification) to be the beneficiaries of this public support.

Government can tap more CSOs as alternative service delivery mechanisms. There is already a rich history of this in the Philippines; after the 1986 democratic restoration, many government agencies opened NGO-PO desks partly in order to explore the possibility of civil society groups undertaking some public services. Civil society groups are already active in areas such as community-based forestry management, communal irrigation management, family support and counselling, and procurement oversight. However, there are still many areas where civil society can have a comparative advantage in the delivery of social services.

5. On CSO labour and environmental standards

There is still a need for consensus building on what different labour and environment standards are for Philippine CSOs and how these could be made operational in the local context. These include standards for pay and work conditions and the provision of collective bargaining rights for staff. Also, the norms of practice in terms of applying environmental standards need to be deepened. This can be undertaken first through discussion among different groups, and then through model building, before formal decisions can be made across the civil society sector as a whole.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has analysed the state of civil society by examining several factors that have affected its growth and development in the Philippine milieu. In sum, civil society has made a moderately strong impact in the Philippines, especially in the areas of poverty reduction and environmental protection, and in programme development. There have been some successes in terms of policy advocacy, notably in the area of agrarian reform and other areas of social reform that have helped ensure the integration of economically and politically marginalised groups in the mainstream social order.

The growth of civil society has been helped by adequate levels of civic engagement in the Philippines; participation in organisations with social concerns is quite high, as is the diversity of membership, particularly among those from marginalised ethno-linguistic groups and from Mindanao. At the same time, the level of organisation of CSOs, especially in terms of the development and persistence of coalitions and networks, has sustained these groups. The political and economic environment is also favourable, providing adequate protection of civil liberties and political rights.

The area in which CSOs need improvement is the practice of values. Labour and environmental standards need to be formally enforced and there is a perception among CSOs that some level of corruption is practiced in the sector. This problem has long been recognised. Carino (2002), for example, notes that “[Civil society] has not resolved its identity crisis, especially since its presumed core values are perceived to be diminishing in the population.” According to her, the core value of volunteerism and service to society may have diminished during the past years due to the loss of financial resources available to CSOs and the flourishing of work within the sector as a professional career. At the same time, there is need to improve the financial and programme accountability of CSOs, which have been lacking.

Several recommendations have been made in order to address the issues raised in this study. These include better governance and networking, enhanced financial and human resources and greater application of ethical standards.

It is hoped that the study may have made a contribution toward better understanding the contours of the civil society sector in the Philippines, and that the recommendations will

lead to a wider discussion on improving this sector. As Carino (2002) also points out, “Philippine civil society … will always be engaged in the process of refinement… [and how this will play out] will be of great interest to scholars in the discipline and to society at large.”

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Members of the CSI Philippines National Advisory Committee

Civil Society Organizations:

1. Bishop Reuben Abante, Alliance of Baptist Councils
2. Emmanuel Areño, Regional Coordinator, Western Visayas Network of Social Development NGOs (WEVNet)
3. Moner Bajunaid, Executive Director, Mindanao Integrated Development Center (MIND)
4. Florencia Casanova-Dorotan, Chair, Women's Action Network for Development (WAND)
5. Tessie Fernandez, Executive Director, Lihok Pilipina
6. Ana Marie Karaos, Chairperson, Caucus of Development NGO Networks (CODE-NGO)
7. Neil Lim, Media Liaison Officer, Youthvote Philippines
8. Jun Mabaso, Executive Director, Agri-Aqua Development Coalition (AADC)
9. Christine Reyes, Executive Director, Foundation for Philippine Environment (FPE)
10. Giovanni Reyes, Executive Director, Koalisyon ng Katutubong Samahan ng Pilipinas (KASAPI)
11. Oman Jiao, Executive Director, Association of Foundations (AF)
12. Fely Soledad, Executive Director, Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC)

Government:

13. Erlinda Capones, Director, Social Development Staff, National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA)
14. Nathy Cause, Project Development Officer, Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD)
15. Ramon Falcon, Social Development Staff, National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA)

NOTE: A total of 30 civil society leaders from various sectors, regions and networks were invited to become members of the National Advisory Committee. However, only the 12 CSOs listed above agreed to join the NAC and attended the advisory committee meetings.

APPENDIX 2. CSI INDICATOR MATRIX

1) Dimension: Civic Engagement			54.7
1.1 Extent of socially-based engagement			47.6
	1.1.1	Social membership 1	43.4
	1.1.2	Social volunteering 1	47.4
	1.1.3	Community engagement 1	51.9
1.2 Depth of socially-based engagement			43.7
	1.2.1	Social membership 2	34.2
	1.2.2	Social volunteering 2	33.2
	1.2.3	Community engagement 2	63.6
1.3 Diversity of socially-based engagement			95.7
	1.3.1	Diversity of socially-based engagement	95.7
1.4 Extent of political engagement			21.5
	1.4.1	Political membership 1	23.3
	1.4.2	Political volunteering 1	26.2
	1.4.3	Individual activism 1	15.1
1.5 Depth of political engagement			32.2
	1.5.1	Political membership 2	35.7
	1.5.2	Political volunteering 2	39.2
	1.5.3	Individual activism 2	21.7
1.6 Diversity of political engagement			87.7
	1.6.1	Diversity of political engagement	87.7
2) Dimension: Level of Organisation			57.9
2.1 Internal governance			94.4
	2.1.1	Management	94.4
2.2 Infrastructure			63.3
	2.2.1	Support organisations	63.3
2.3 Sectoral communication			67.3
	2.3.1	Peer-to-peer communication 1	70.6
	2.3.2	Peer-to-peer communication 2	63.9
2.4 Human resources			38.9
	2.4.1	Sustainability of HR	38.9
2.5 Financial and technological resources			69.3
	2.5.1	Financial sustainability	66.0
	2.5.2	Technological resources	72.5
2.6 International linkages			14.5
	2.6.1	International linkages	14.5
3) Dimension: Practice of Values			48.9
3.1 Democratic decision-making governance			69.7
	3.1.1	Decision-making	69.7
3.2 Labour regulations			29.4
	3.2.1	Equal opportunities	52.3
	3.2.2	Members of labour unions	8.7
	3.2.3	Labour rights trainings	28.7

	3.2.4	Publicly available policy for labour standards	28.0
3.3 Code of conduct and transparency			45.7
	3.3.1	Publicly available code of conduct	35.2
	3.3.2	Transparency	56.1
3.4 Environmental standards			30.8
	3.4.1	Environmental standards	30.8
3.5 Perception of values in civil society as a whole			69.1
	3.5.1	Perceived non-violence	76.7
	3.5.2	Perceived internal democracy	80.6
	3.5.3	Perceived levels of corruption	40.4
	3.5.4	Perceived intolerance	65.1
	3.5.5	Perceived weight of intolerant groups	69.9
	3.5.6	Perceived promotion on non-violence and peace	81.7
4) Dimension: Perception of Impact			62.8
4.1 Responsiveness (internal perception)			62.0
	4.1.1	Impact on social concern 1	69.4
	4.1.2	Impact on social concern 2	50.9
	4.1.3	Impact on social concern 3	65.7
4.2 Social Impact (internal perception)			78.5
	4.2.1	General social impact	75.65
	4.2.2	Social impact of own organisation	81.4
4.3 Policy Impact (internal perception)			55.0
	4.3.1	General policy impact	58.3
	4.3.2	Policy activity of own organisation	45.4
	4.3.3	Policy impact of own organisation	61.2
4.4 Responsiveness (external perception)			73.0
	4.4.1	Impact on social concern 1	77.4
	4.4.2	Impact on social concern 2	62.3
	4.4.3	Impact on social concern 3	79.2
4.5 Social Impact (external perception)			83.0
	4.5.1	Social impact selected concerns	89.2
	4.5.2	Social impact general	76.9
4.6 Policy Impact (external perception)			66.6
	4.6.1	Policy impact specific fields 1-3	57.7
	4.6.2	Policy impact general	75.5
4.7 Impact of CS on attitudes			21.4
	4.7.1	Difference in trust between civil society members and non-members	0.3
	4.7.2	Difference in tolerance levels between civil society members and non-members	0.0
	4.7.3	Difference in public spiritedness between civil society members and non-members	0.0
	4.7.4	Trust in civil society	85.2
5) External Environment			53.0
5.1 Socio-economic context			53.5

	5.1.1	Basic Capabilities Index	77.2
	5.1.2	Corruption	23.0
	5.1.3	Inequality	55.5
	5.1.4	Economic context	58.1
5.2 Socio-political context			62.0
	5.2.1	Political rights and freedoms	57.5
	5.2.2	Rule of law and personal freedoms	62.5
	5.2.3	Associational and organisational rights	66.7
	5.2.4	Experience of legal framework	73.4
	5.2.5	State effectiveness	49.8
5.3 Socio-cultural context			43.7
	5.3.1	Trust	4.8
	5.3.2	Tolerance	62.2
	5.3.3	Public spiritedness	64.1

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