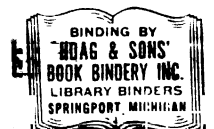


COMPREHENSIVE DEVELOPMENT POLICIES  
FOR THE FUTURE GROWTH  
OF THE PHILIPPINES

Thesis for the Degree of M. U. P.  
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY  
JAIME UYVICO NIERRAS  
1971

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## ABSTRACT

### COMPREHENSIVE DEVELOPMENT POLICIES FOR THE FUTURE GROWTH OF THE PHILIPPINES

By

Jaime Uyvico Nierras

The Philippines is a developing nation and the process of urbanization that is taking place is similar to that in other developing countries. However, at the same time, the Philippines in many respects, is unlike other growing nations today. The framework within which this urbanization takes place is unique, and is seen in the country's land, its people, its economy and its system of government.

The land is insular in configuration; it is a group of 7000 islands. The climate is tropical, the landscape is mountainous, and the natural resources are varied, rich, and abundant. The people are similarly varied. Converging from all over Asia, and literally isolated into distinct regions by mountains and seas, the Filipinos formed groups that drastically differed in language, customs, and beliefs. The contact with foreign powers in the past, the presence of Spain for 300 years and of America for 48 years, have only served to sever their indigenous ways and widen the gaps in their contrasting traditions.

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The economy is predominantly agricultural, although industrialization and diversification of economic activities are slowly being realized. The system of government is patterned largely after that of the United States, but its practice has inevitably given way to the Filipino customs and traditions.

The Philippines, as a growing nation, shares the problems and dilemmas of most developing countries: a high birth rate and population increase, which is coupled with a sudden and massive surge of rural migration into the urban centers and to the over-crowded "primate city"; congestion in the streets and in the residential areas; slums and squatter settlements; poverty, and mounting crime rates. Simultaneously, given a unique Philippine setting, the Filipino is confronted with problems that are uniquely his own: the ambiguities of his dualistic beliefs and traditions that are constantly challenged by the demands of modernization; the sharp and disturbing contrast between the poor and the rich; the gross inequities in the distribution of economic wealth; and the inefficient administrative machinery and rampant graft and corruption in the public offices, all stem from his singular past history and present culture and temperament.

The vast resources and the complex problems that confront the Philippines are uniquely indigenous. It is therefore, only logical that solutions peculiar to these conditions are required. These solutions--policies and plans--must be responsive not only to the complex problems of a developing country, but more importantly, be receptive of the unique needs and demands of the physical, social, economic, and administrative environments in the Philippines.

A careful assessment of the social, economic and administrative recognition of the national and inherent potentials to guide the future growth of the national development pattern. A hierarchy of goals, objectives and priorities is required.

1. The right to education.
2. The privilege of beauty, and of a healthy environment.
3. The freedom of movement and of choice.

1. In considering the national development process, its related aspects and the interrelationship between the national and international development process, guide the national development process to be efficient and effective.
2. In the process of national development, the national development process should be efficient and effective.



A careful assessment and analysis of the Philippine physical, social, economic and administrative resources, together with a serious recognition of the nation's problems, as well as the future trends and inherent potentials, all reveal that in order to effectively guide the future growth and changes of the country toward a more desirable development pattern, the following policies, presented in a hierarchy of goals, objective and implementing policies, should be adopted:

#### Goals

1. The right to equality, justice and liberty.
2. The privilege to seek happiness, security, wealth, creativity, beauty, and dignity.
3. The freedom from hunger, fear, ignorance, misery and hopelessness.

#### Objectives

1. In consideration of the diseconomies of urban congestion, with its related rapid increase of slums and squatter settlements and the inefficiencies in the administrative structure, a national urban growth policy should be established which would guide the location and character of future growth centers, development patterns, and conservation areas in the most efficient manner.
2. In the process of developing a comprehensive approach, the national policies and plans should be formulated to bring

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together all professions involved in the improvement of the environment and to integrate the physical, social, economic and political dimensions in planning.

3. In an attempt to regulate the rapid rate of rural-urban migration, which has caused diseconomies of urban congestion and rural decline, the national government should actively influence the location of new industries and the movement of people, as well as the upliftment of the disadvantaged rural areas, through the creation of "urban growth centers," with a development strategy of "planned dispersion."
4. In the face of administrative inefficiencies and deficiencies, substantial reorganization should be made in order to create a viable and dynamic administrative framework that will improve the machinery for the formulation and implementation of development policies and plans, and to achieve maximum coordination among various departments, as well as insure the implementation of the defined policies and plans.
5. In order to guide the formulation of sound policies and the preparation of effective plans, as well as to facilitate their implementation, the government should embark on a massive education and research program which would include continuing research, information systems studies and data gathering on rural and urban issues; sustained and intensive public education to illicit informed and active citizen participation; and a generous program to train more competent technicians and professional planners.

## Land-Use Policies

1. Policies for land use should be made on a national scale.
2. In consonance with the national land-use policy, the Government should influence the location of land use or the shift of land use.
3. Strategic use of land should be made in accordance with the national land-use policy or misuse of land should be avoided in developments.
4. Land-use control regulations, including zoning regulations, others, should be made by the government in accordance with the Human Settlement Policy.
5. The national land-use policy should be applied to urban land use.
6. Programs for land use should be made in accordance with the land cost.
7. In the process of land use, land should be conserved and protected.
8. The Land Use Policy should be applied to the land use.

Implementing Policies

Land-Use Policies

1. Policies for land-use should be formulated on a regional scale.
2. In consonance with a growth strategy of "planned dispersion," land-use policies should be formulated to effectively influence the location of industries and the movement of people or the shift of population centers.
3. Strategic use of tax levies, public loan and subsidization should be made in order to discourage improper developments or misuse of land and to encourage proper and more desirable developments.
4. Land-use control measures such as zoning ordinances, building regulations, subdivision controls and housing codes, and others, should be encouraged for use at the local units of government, with guidance from the proposed Department of Human Settlements.
5. The national government should exercise its powers to control urban land allocations, public land abuse and misuse.
6. Programs should be devised and utilized to control private land cost speculation.
7. In the process of land development, natural areas should be conserved and diminishing natural and scenic areas should be protected permanently.
8. The Land Reform Code should be implemented.

#### Housing Policies

1. A system of income  
programs to obtain  
should be established
2. Constructive and  
should be initiated
3. The government  
which would encourage  
aided self-help
4. Programs to improve  
developed and
5. There should be  
resettlement
6. Proposals to  
formulated,  
resettlement
7. An integral  
opportunity

#### Transportation Policies

1. A multi-modal  
support the
2. Ports and harbors  
effectively handle  
multi-purpose  
are adequate



### Housing Policies

1. A system of institutional financing for home-building, with programs to obtain sufficient money to loan for mortgages should be established.
2. Constructive and imaginative programs to stimulate savings should be initiated.
3. The government should undertake massive public housing, which would entail public subsidies, and more importantly, aided self-help.
4. Programs to lower the cost of building houses should be developed and implemented.
5. There should be a sound program of urban renewal and rural resettlement.
6. Proposals to help prevent squatting in the future should be formulated, in conjunction with the urban renewal and rural resettlement programs.
7. An integral part of any relocation project should be an opportunity for active citizen participation.

### Transportation Policies

1. A multi-modal system of transportation should be created to support the proposed strategy of "planned dispersion."
2. Ports and harbors should be improved and modernized to effectively handle the inter-island commerce, industry, and multi-purpose vessels should be used with accommodations that are adequate for cargo and comfortable for passengers.

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3. The proposed Pan-Philippine Highway that stretches from Aparri in northern Luzon to Zamboanga in southern Mindanao should be built.
4. The national government should encourage, if not actively participate in making use of new transportation technology in planning, and in creating an effective mass transit system in the large urban centers, especially in Metropolitan Manila.

These are the development policies, the goals, objectives and implementing policies that the Philippines must aspire and attempt to accomplish. When adopted and followed by the decision-makers, together with the support and participation of the citizens, these development policies could effectively guide the Philippines toward a more desirable and efficient pattern of growth and change in the future.

COMPREHENSIVE DEVELOPMENT POLICIES  
FOR THE FUTURE GROWTH  
OF THE PHILIPPINES

By

Jaime Uyvico Nierras

A THESIS

Submitted to  
Michigan State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

MASTER IN URBAN PLANNING

School of Urban Planning and Landscape Architecture

1971

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to my thesis advisor, Professor Donald Bradley, for his valuable comments and suggestions, and to my academic advisor, Professor Charles Barr, for his assistance and guidance during my stay at Michigan State University.

Sincere appreciation is also extended to the Philippine-American Education Foundation, for their financial aid, and to the staff of the Urban Designers Associates in the Philippines for their help and encouragement.

Most of all, I wish to express my gratitude to my professors, classmates, and friends, who, in a number of ways, have helped me toward the completion of this thesis and made my stay in M.S.U. a highly rewarding experience.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Tomorrow we shall be citizens of the Philippines, whose destiny will be a glorious one, because it will be in loving hands. Ah, yes, the future is ours! I see it rose-tinted; I see the movement that stirs the life of those regions, so long dead, lethargic. I see towns arise along the railroads, and factories everywhere . . . I hear the steam hiss, the trains roar, the engines rattle! I see the sweat of monsters busy at incessant toil . . . and commerce, industry, agriculture, the sciences, will develop under the mantle of liberty, with wise and just laws.<sup>1</sup>

Jose Rizal  
National Hero of the Philippines

#### The Need for the Study

Appropriately recorded in a chapter entitled "Dreams" in his novel El Filibusterismo,<sup>2</sup> the vision of Jose Rizal about the Philippines in the late 1800's was somehow fulfilled; and yet, ironically, somehow, it was not. The future of the Philippines is indeed in the hands of the Filipinos. However, with the present urban problems and the ominous environmental crisis, the future is far from being rose-tinted.

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<sup>1</sup>Jose Rizal, The Reign of Greed, trans. by Charles Derbyshire (Manila: Philippine Education Company, 1956), pp. 241-42.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid. [El Filibusterismo is the original Spanish title.]



Life did stir in those regions, but now, a few of them are deteriorating because of chaos and congestion, while the other areas around them continue to be "lethargic" because their able and ambitious men have left them. Some of the "towns along the railroads" have turned into slums and squatter settlements; and the "factories" are not everywhere. Heavy smoke continues to pollute the air, and the oil continues to contaminate the rivers and kill its fish. And commerce, industry, agriculture and the sciences, while all developing under a "mantle of liberty," are still desperately craving for the "just and wise laws."

The Philippines, however, have made significant progress since the time of Jose Rizal: it has struggled hard and freed itself from Spanish colonization in 1896, and it has earned its independence from the United States in 1946. The Philippines has survived two world wars, and though its capital, the City of Manila,<sup>3</sup> was one of the most devastated cities during World War II, it has slowly and painfully renewed itself.

Recently, however, in Manila's relentless attempt to assert its role as the primary city of the Philippines, it has evolved into an "overgrown" metropolis. Its unprecedented growth, mainly in terms of an uncontrolled increase of population, where the economy and the administrative machinery cannot cope with the growing numbers, was not without dire and serious consequences to its people, and dangerous repercussions for the entire nation. In only a few short

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<sup>3</sup>The capital of the Philippines was transferred to Quezon City in 1949, although most government offices are still in Manila.

years, the Philippines was confronted with massive and rapid urbanization in the urban areas, especially in the Metropolitan Manila Region, and deterioration and neglect in the rural countryside. This predicament, which is not unlike most metropolitan areas in the world today, created many primary and pressing national problems that cut across all facets of human life: chaos and congestion in the living areas and in the streets; inadequate basic governmental services such as water, sewage disposal and drainage; mass poverty and illiteracy, citizen apathy and massive rural-urban migration; rising prices, inadequate employment opportunities and inefficient economic systems; and an impotent governmental machinery, and graft and corruption in politics and administration.

The "push" of the countryside, where the traditional subsistence economy can no longer meet the growing demands for food in the rural areas; and the "pull" of the city, where modern mass media continue to create artificial needs among the rural population and cause the city to become the symbol of better jobs and a better life, are perhaps, the two most important factors that led to the uncontrolled and rapid urbanization. The push and the pull factors, however, interact in an endless continuum, and cannot be viewed as a dichotomy. In fact, "the real question would seem to be not so much whether the 'push' of the countryside or the 'pull' of the city are predominant, but rather whether urbanization policies are conceived on the basis of plans that provide for improvements of conditions in rural and urban areas together."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>International Union of Local Authorities, Urbanization in Developing Countries (The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1968), p. 13.

If the present exodus to Metropolitan Manila is allowed to continue, the increasing concentration of people in the region will make public and private consumption even more costly as a result of diseconomies of scale. It may also "take a net social and psychological toll in urban living conditions."<sup>5</sup>

The resulting "over-spill" will continue to create "urban sprawl," the disorderly and wasteful use of land. The gap between the economies of Metropolitan Manila and the rest of the country will continue to widen, deepening its complex problems, and aggravate its inability to provide for jobs and housing accommodations for its residents. At the same time, the rural areas will increasingly be bypassed by the economic mainstream, and suffer from a further siphoning off of its younger and able work force. Lastly, the political machinery will continue to be impotent, unable to quickly adjust to the growing needs and demands of a rapidly growing metropolis. These are consequences that can no longer be tolerated; that a nation can no longer afford.

It is the purpose of this study then, to explore possible solutions, through a systematic method of identifying the problems, the trends and the potentials in the (1) physical, (2) social, (3) economic, and (4) political environments of the Philippines. And, after a thorough analysis and synthesis of these, to recommend comprehensive policies to guide and direct its orderly growth and change in the future.

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<sup>5</sup>United States Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Urban and Rural America: Policies for Future Growth (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968), p. 124.

Recently, in the field of urban planning, policy plans have gained prominence.<sup>6</sup> These policy plans have increasingly shown a potential for filling the gap between plan formulation and plan implementation. They have likewise provided a vehicle with which the citizens can actively and meaningfully participate in the decision-making process. Most important perhaps, policy planning, by identifying the goals and objectives of a community, have not only guided development toward a desired growth pattern, but have provided answers to the most basic questions in planning: what is planning for, why and how?

It is felt by this author that policy planning, while it may not be a panacea to development problems, especially in a developing country like the Philippines, could at least provide an alternative way of solving the pressing problems. The national policies could provide a framework towards the preparation of a "master plan" or a "national strategy" for the Philippines. These might serve as general guidelines towards which, action-oriented, short-ranged programs in the local units of government may be directed. For whatever other purposes the national growth policies will serve (this will be discussed further in a later chapter of the thesis), the setting of national, long-ranged development policies for the orderly growth and urbanization of the Philippines, is sorely needed and a bold and sustained commitment must be made soon.

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<sup>6</sup>Some of the recent Policy Plans developed in the United States and in other countries are listed in the Bibliography.

### The Scope of the Study

In a field which is multi-disciplinary in nature, it is almost inevitable that a comprehensive approach be taken. In this study, therefore, the human environment is viewed as a complex system, composed of four major components: the physical, social, economic and political dimensions. These components may be separate and distinct, but they are also interrelated with one another, and they interact to create the totality of the human environment. It is easily seen that with this approach, no one planning dimension can stand alone. The "validity of an economic program is not proven by its internal consistency, but by its social and physical significance. In the same way, a physical plan will only be proven by its economic, social (and administrative) reality."<sup>7</sup>

However, limitations of time, data, and other resources prohibit such a broad and extensive approach. The scope of the present study is therefore focused on the physical aspects or on development planning, as it relates to the social, economic, and political planning dimensions. These dimensions, however, are also discussed, but they are limited to those problems and issues which have direct and significant ramifications with the physical aspects. Thus, the present study will not analyze such social concerns as health and education, or the maintenance of peace and order; nor will it discuss ways of expanding employment opportunities and productivity, or of increasing the gross national product and national income, which are

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<sup>7</sup>G. Nez, "Methodology for Integration of Economic and Physical Development," Ekistics, CXVII (May, 1964), 300.

the responsibilities of urban economists; nor will the thesis concern itself with new political theories or with the over-all national governmental machinery, which are the interests of political scientists, public administrators, and management experts.

Limited as the scope may be, it is still of a broad and deep concern. After all, physical planning cannot be realized without integrating it with the other planning dimensions:

For instance, the location of industry is a dual decision of economic and physical planning, beginning with functional requirements and ending with local optimum solutions. Physical planning faces its gravest questions in determining optimum locations of development for this means balancing economic requirements with social requirements; analysing existing centers of industrial convenience, versus new locations in the hinterland offering longer term social benefits. The physical planner must range over the whole map. He must think in terms of linkages of services and combined cost of plant, infrastructure and social overhead. He must assess the realities of population distribution, where great numbers are located near resources and where industries processing resources may actually yield the fastest growth within the limitation of capital, training and marketing.

In the spatial dimension, the present study will include the entire Philippines, but will deal only with those issues which are of national consequence, as opposed to those questions which are solely of the regional, provincial, municipal and metropolitan areas. Consequently, the thesis will concern itself only with those policies and actions that are executable at the national level. These national policies may filter down to the regional, provincial and municipal hierarchies, and must in fact, have corresponding policies set at these lower units of government.

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., pp. 297-98.

In the dimension of time, the study will focus on those problems and issues needing long-range policies. This is in consonance with the national scope of these policies. The Philippines need action-oriented, short-range programs, especially in the face of rapid and uncontrolled urbanization. Simultaneously, it needs long-range policies, to which those action programs may be put into proper perspective. The long-range policies would serve as a general guide or framework, and though its effects are not readily and immediately perceptible, they are an integral part of a national planning endeavor. Moreover, long-range policies are longer-lasting; they are more permanent, and in the long run, they are more beneficial.

#### The Review of the Literature

Five major sources of ideas, statistical data and other relevant information were used in this study. They are books, United Nations publications, articles from periodicals, agency reports and unpublished materials.

The books presented a variety of information ranging from general to particular topics, and from abstract to concrete ideas. Thus, Albert Waterston's Development Planning: Lessons in Experience<sup>9</sup> is an extensive study on the various methods and techniques of development planning adopted by the developing countries of the world; while Charles Abrams' Man's Struggle for Shelter in an

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<sup>9</sup>Albert Waterston, et al., Development Planning: Lessons in Experience (Baltimore, Md.: John Hopkins Press, 1965).

Urbanizing World<sup>10</sup> concentrated on the housing situation of the Third World. Similarly, J. Alger's and C. Hays' Creative Synthesis in Design<sup>11</sup> explored the various steps in the design process, while Urban Design Within the Comprehensive Planning Process<sup>12</sup> by M. R. Wolfe and R. D. Shinn focused on urban design as a major component of the planning process.

The United Nations publications furnished a substantial amount of information on the Philippines and other developing countries, especially those relating to the problems of urbanization. These reports are a compendium of seminars, symposia, conventions and workshops on urbanization and planning in the developing countries. They include case studies, working papers, summary of findings, as well as summary of discussions and comments.

Articles from periodicals may be divided into three categories: first, those articles taken from international magazines, such as Ekistics, which reprinted articles from Philippine periodicals that otherwise, would not have been readily available; second, those articles from United States planning journals, primarily the Journal of the American Institute of Planners, which provided articles on Policy Planning in general; and third, those articles from Philippine

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<sup>10</sup> Charles Abrams, Man's Struggle for Shelter in an Urbanizing World (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1964).

<sup>11</sup> John Alger and Carl Hays, Creative Synthesis in Design (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964).

<sup>12</sup> M. Wolfe and R. Shinn, Urban Design Within the Comprehensive Planning Process (Seattle, Wash.: University of Washington Press, 1970).



periodicals, principally the Philippine Journal of Public Administration, the Philippine Planning Journal, the Philippine Sociological Review, and the Economic Research Journal, whose articles proved very valuable in providing information regarding the current physical, social, economic, and political conditions in the Philippines.

The "agency reports" were numerous, especially those from the United States planning agencies, but they were brought down to the few national and region-wide policy plan reports. Although these studies have certain critical limitations for the present study, that is, they were prepared for a developed nation or region against a framework which is totally different from that of a developing country like the Philippines, they were nevertheless valuable in understanding the basic principles of policy planning and the nature of policy plans.

Some unpublished materials like theses works, mimeographed materials and especially notes on class lectures by the author on various planning courses, serve to support some of the main ideas contained in the study.

Due to an attempt at comprehensiveness, a voluminous amount of materials were available, but they were again, selected down to those that were most recent, and have immediate relevance to policy planning in the Philippines.

The above sources provided the basis for research on this thesis. They were extensively cited with regard to basic principles of policy planning, certain statistical data, and more importantly, on their current findings on the physical, social, economic, and

political environments in the Philippines. However, the conclusions derived from them were arrived at by this author, and the responsibility is his alone.

### The Organization of the Thesis

The importance and the need of the present study, the definition of its scope and the review of the major sources of information, are all reviewed above. In the next chapter, Chapter II, the current thinking on comprehensive policy planning and the planning process are discussed; the advent of policy planning is traced, and its nature is defined. Policy planning is then placed in its proper perspective in the total planning process. The chapter ends with a conceptual framework toward a "comprehensive policy planning process."

The formulation of policies start with an understanding of the total environment of the area. This includes the physical environment, the social setting, the economic resources and the political arena. These form the framework for policy planning, and are presented and discussed in Chapter III.

Chapter IV deals with the problems, trends and potentials of each of the components of the framework, which are then analyzed and synthesized, leading to the recommendations or policies contained in Chapter V. These policies are intended to ameliorate, if not, at least partially solve the present problems, by recognizing past and future trends, and by taking advantage of inherent potentials.

A summary of the recommendations, together with a recognition of areas needing further research and study, comprise the topics of

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*Chapter VI, which is the last chapter. A selected bibliography of materials used in the thesis and found relevant to the study of policy planning in the Philippines, concludes the thesis.*

## CHAPTER II

### POLICY PLANNING AND THE PLANNING PROCESS

Since the purpose of this study is the formulation of "policies," it becomes necessary to elaborate on the definition of the term "policy" or "policy plan," and to describe the nature and characteristics of policy planning, as well as the relationship of policy planning to the total planning process. For the purposes of this study, it is also important that the history of planning activities in the Philippines be traced. This would enable the reader not only to observe and understand the advent of policy plans in Philippine planning literature, but would at the same time, help one to appreciate more fully, the impact of the application of policy plans in the Philippines.

This chapter will then, (a) trace the evolution of planning efforts in the Philippines from its early beginnings in the pre-Spanish era to the more recent "new awareness" period in the late 1960's, which marked the feeble introduction of policy-oriented plans; (b) define the nature and the attributes of policy plans; (c) identify the place of the process of policy planning in the total design or planning process; and (d) propose a conceptual framework

for a comprehensive policy planning approach, integrating the physical, social, economic, and political components of planning with the time and space dimensions.

### The Evolution of Planning in the Philippines

#### The Pre-Spanish Period

The insular pattern of the land, together with the rugged topography and mountainous landscape, set the basic form of human settlement in the Philippines centuries ago: dwellings were widely scattered, following the lines of the coasts or hugging the river banks. These early settlements were almost isolated communities because of a thick forest on one side, and a vast ocean on the other. The "backyard" of these settlements was the forest or mountain or brush and bamboo thicket that lay behind, all of which provided materials for clothing, shelter, and tools, in addition to small game for meat.<sup>1</sup> The light but picturesque and airy bamboo and grass or palm hut was the typical dwelling in the countryside. There were no heavy tools and machines, therefore, there were no temples or churches and other large structures. The general absence of temples and churches for public worship suggest the level of religious development . . . and the absence of public buildings, such as town halls or specialized buildings for government administration, also indicates the low level of a political viable government<sup>2</sup> during this period.

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<sup>1</sup>Onofre Corpus, The Philippines (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 22.

### The Spanish Period

It was not until the late 16th century, when the Spanish colonizers headed by Ferdinand Magellan came to the Philippines, that some semblance of community planning was attempted. The Filipinos were organized for the purposes of local government, into towns (pueblos) and provinces (alcaldias). However, municipal organization was a very radical change from the pattern of dispersed settlements of the early settlers called "barangays."<sup>3</sup> It required a drastic, often socially painful and economically costly change in the relocation of the natives from their old homes.

The new pattern was based on the requirement that the Filipinos were to be resettled and brought "debajo de las campanas"--literally, "under the bells." This referred to the process and spirit of Spanish colonial town-making, which required that in every town there must be, in addition to the civil administration, the system of ecclesiastical administration. A parish church for the new townsfolk was therefore in the heart of the town plan, and the residential sites of the subjects were laid out in the regular grid-iron pattern, which was defined by radiating streets from a town plaza or square in the center. The parish church and the town hall (casa tribunal), stood by the plaza. The Filipinos were now gathered together, to live within hearing of the great church bells that tolled the hours of worship and prayer.<sup>4</sup>

In the next few decades, the "plaza complex" at the center of the town quickly evolved to become the center of social life in the "barrio"<sup>5</sup> and in the "poblacion."<sup>6</sup> The cultural impact of the plaza

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<sup>3</sup>A "barangay" is essentially a group of extended families or a kinship group that formed one community. The name was derived from the name of the boat that brought the original immigrants from their homes in Malaysia and Indonesia.

<sup>4</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, pp. 26-27.

<sup>5</sup>The "barrio" is a farming village which usually consist of from 10 to 1000 houses clustered together by the fields.

<sup>6</sup>The "poblacion" is the centrally located barrio and the one in which the municipal building is located.

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proved to be durable, and has endured even to the present time. Today, "the public plaza is ordinarily the center of public and religious celebrations, for around the plaza will usually be found located the church and the municipal buildings, and in the center, the statue of Rizal."<sup>7</sup> Frequently, there is a kiosk (bandstand) where politicians make speeches and bands play in various celebrations. The "kiosks were also used as a stage for 'zarauelas' and 'moro-moros' (a blood and thunder melodrama of combat between Christians and Moors with the former always victorious)."<sup>8</sup>

Meanwhile, the City of Manila on the Island of Luzon was founded by Miguel de Legaspi in 1571 and was declared capital of the archipelago. A few years later, after "suffering from various vicissitudes including insurrections and attacks by the Chinese pirates, the city undertook extensive fortifications"<sup>9</sup> around the city, which was later to be known as "intramuros" or the Walled City of Manila. While the plaza complex was incorporated into its design, the fortification, which is not unlike any European fortification during that time, introduced new concepts of planning in the Philippines. As one traveler described it:

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<sup>7</sup>George Malcolm, The Commonwealth of the Philippines (New York, 1959), p. 27.

<sup>8</sup>Donn Vorhis Hart, The Philippine Plaza Complex: A Focal Point in Culture Change (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1955), p. 4.

<sup>9</sup>Charles Moore, Daniel Burnham: Architect, Planner of Cities (Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1921), p. 179.

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The city which is surrounded by ramparts, consist of seventeen streets, spacious and crossing at right angles. . . . The palace fills one side of a public plaza in the fortress, the cathedral, another of the same location, resembling the squares of London. . . . The "calzada," a broad road a little beyond the walls of the fortress, is to Manila<sup>10</sup> what Hyde Park is to London and the Champs Elysses to Paris.

### The American Regime

Minimal transformation in the physical plans of the fortress in Manila and the pueblos in the surrounding rural areas of the country was to take place until the late 1800's, when the Americans took over the administration of the Philippines from Spain.<sup>11</sup> During that time, Daniel Burnham was commissioned by Howard Taft, then the

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<sup>10</sup> Sir John Bowring, A Visit to the Philippine Islands (London: Smith, Elder and Co., 1859), p. 11.

<sup>11</sup> The transfer of administration of the Philippines from Spain to the United States was formalized on December 10, 1898 in a Treaty of Peace in Paris, proclaiming that "Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands." But the transfer raised some questions. The United States agreed to give \$20,000,000 to Spain to pay for the Philippines, but this was done "actually to cover the Spanish-Cuban debt and thus to mollify the European powers' resistance to the peace treaty." In Article III of the treaty, "the payment of the \$20,000,000 is stated without clear specification of its purpose." At the same time, Felipe Agoncillo, the representative of the Philippine Government in Paris, sent a memorandum to the Peace Commission protesting that the peace treaty "cannot be accepted as binding by my government inasmuch as the Commission did not hear the Filipino people or admit them into their deliberations, when they have the undisputable right to intervene in all that might affect their future life." Moreover, the Philippines at this time, have already declared themselves independent from Spain (June 12, 1898), framed its own Constitution (Malolos Constitution) and elected its own president (President Emilio Aguinaldo). For further discussions, see Teodoro Agoncillo, Malolos: Crisis of the Republic (University of the Philippines Press, 1960) and William Pomeroy, American Neo-Colonialism: Its Emergence in the Philippines and Asia (New York: International Publishers Co., Inc., 1970).

War Secretary of the United States, to "prepare preliminary plans for the improvement of Manila and for the proposed summer capital at Baguio."<sup>12</sup>

The proposed plans of Burnham were submitted in 1905, and when "within three days after the plan of Manila was approved, work was began,"<sup>13</sup> the Philippines was not only introduced to the concepts of western planning, but at the same time pre-tested and pre-launched the "City Beautiful Movement" that was not to appear in the United States until later in 1908, when Daniel Burnham unveiled his plan for Chicago in the Exposition there.

In the tradition of Burnham's planning concepts, the aim of the proposed plan for the improvement of Manila was to provide:

1. Development of water-front and location of parks and park-ways so as to give proper means of recreation to every quarter of the city;
2. The street system securing direct and easy communication from every part of the city to every other part;
3. Location of building sites for various activities;
4. Development of water-ways for transportation; and
5. Summer resorts.<sup>14</sup>

It was a grand proposal, and was designed to make the City of Manila, a "unified city equal to the greatest of the Western world with unparalleled and priceless addition of a tropical setting."<sup>15</sup>

The proposals, however, were not fully realized, for reasons that were not easily accounted. It may have been due to the outbreak

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<sup>12</sup>Moore, Daniel Burnham, p. 177.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 178.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 180.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 195.

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of the First World War, that the execution of Burnham's plans with their emphasis on fountains, trees and extensive parkways, became increasingly difficult and impractical. Perhaps it was a question of raising enough funds to finance the grand projects; or perhaps the proposals were simply premature. The Philippines at this time was not yet prepared for such impressive designs. While the broad avenues and the system of parks were built, the entire plan, however, was not fully implemented. And for a while, planning was at a standstill.

#### The Pre-Independence Period

Interest in planning became active again as early as 1934, when the economic implications of impending independence was being discussed. In that year, the Philippine Economic Association issued a report advocating planned development of agriculture, the fishing industry, mineral resources, transportation, and trade. In 1935, two months after the establishment of the Commonwealth, the transitional stage before independence, a National Economic Council (NEC) was created to prepare development plans. Stimulated by the "New Deal" government in the United States, with its ideas of planned mobilization and redistribution of production facilities and purchasing power, as well as regional planning through the Tennessee Valley Authority, interest in planned development in the Philippines intensified through the late 1930's.<sup>16</sup> The outbreak of World War II again interrupted attempts to give significant effect to planning proposals.

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<sup>16</sup>Waterston, et al., Development Planning, p. 30.

### The Post-Independence Period

By the time World War II ended in 1946, Manila and its surroundings had been devastated by enemy bombing and destruction. The economic depressions and hardships which followed the war necessitated and introduced a new planning approach--the economic redevelopment plan. This type of planning effort began in 1947, one year after the Philippines earned its independence, when the Joint Philippine-American Finance Commission was established to recommend measures which would allow the Philippines to recover from the effects of the war and to attain a rapid rate of economic growth. The Commission's report, which was known as the Hibben Plan and was entitled "Philippine Economic Development: A Technical Memorandum," contained a five-year plan for the 1947-1951 period, and was to become the "first of a long series of development plans in the Philippines."<sup>17</sup> Other plans oriented towards economic development followed. This included, among others, a "Proposed Program for Industrial Rehabilitation and Development of the Republic of the Philippines" prepared by a National Development Company, and the "Government Program of Economic Rehabilitation and Development (1949-1953)" prepared by the National Economic Council.

Starting in the early 1930's and up to the present time, economic planning concepts dominated development orientations in the Philippines. The National Economic Council, now fully in charge of national development plans, continue to produce "Five-Year Socio-Economic Development Programs." The intensiveness and extensiveness

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<sup>17</sup>Ibid., p. 67.

of the preoccupation on the economic aspects of planning in the Philippines is attested to by the fact that literature in Philippine economic planning mentions many plans--some 20 in all--over a period of 35 years, including no less than 14 in the post-war period.<sup>18</sup>

It is unfortunate to note, however, that "almost all were little more than suggestion, proposals, opinions or platitudes designed to influence public policy."<sup>19</sup> Some made use of advance planning techniques and refined criteria for determining investment priorities. None had a substantial effect on the country's development. In 1961, the ECAFE (Economic Conference on Asia and the Far East) annual survey states that in the Philippines, "economic planning has tended to be more an intellectual exercise or a call to action than a specific blue-print to be implemented."<sup>20</sup>

There was also a sudden rush of Regional Development Authorities in the 1960's in a further attempt to encourage social and economic development. Inspired by the success of the Tennessee Valley Authority in the United States, the Philippine congress, in June 1961, established the Mindanao Development Authority (MDA), which seeks to "foster the accelerated and balance growth of a region rich in natural resources." Among its functions are "to coordinate and integrate the various public and private entities engaged in

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<sup>18</sup>Waterston, Development Planning, p. 100.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., pp. 105-6.

<sup>20</sup>United Nations ECAFE (Economic Conference on Asia and the Far East), The Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1960, p. 67.



projects involving power, manufacturing, mining, transportation and communications, conservation, resettlement, education, extension work, health and other activities;<sup>21</sup> and to "prepare a survey of the region and draw up a comprehensive plan for rapid social and economic development."<sup>22</sup> By 1966, as many as eleven (11) regional authorities have been established by law. However, due to lack of funds and of well-trained, competent managers and technicians for regional planning, only four have so far been actually organized. The ineffectivity of those regional authorities, despite their large numbers and broad powers, have led one study to conclude that:

The phenomenal rate by which these regional bodies mushroomed, in the absence of any careful study and actual adaptation of the regional development idea, provides support to the allegation that they are more the manifestations of a political fad than deliberate efforts towards an effective approach to regional development.<sup>23</sup>

While economic planning pervades during this time, the physical aspects of planning was not entirely overlooked. In 1950, a National Planning Commission (NPC) was established. Its main purpose was to prepare general plans, zoning ordinances, subdivision regulations, building codes and others, for the various local units of government. However, it had limited political or administrative powers, which, together with an inadequate technical personnel, only made its efforts "abortive."<sup>24</sup> Due to the autonomy of the local

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<sup>21</sup>Abelardo Samonte, "Regional Development Authorities: Role, Structure and Feasibility," Philippine Journal of Public Administration, XII (April, 1968), 111.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 111.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 119.

<sup>24</sup>Waterston, Development Planning, p. 386.



units of government, the National Planning Commission was placed in an advisory capacity, with practically no ability nor the power to integrate planning efforts in the local levels. In the words of its director in a conference in 1969: "If and when the local governments do not approve of the integration of plans, what will be our course of action? Our work will be meaningless."<sup>25</sup>

### The New Era

Despondent, and at the same time faced with a rapidly spreading urban crisis, the Philippines is offered its next planning approach alternative--the Policy Plan. This approach would be geared toward strategy, and combines both physical and program plans in a process content. It is a plan that is "explicit in goals statements and in recognition of informational feedback . . . (it) couples physical planning with program planning by deliberating on goals and the alternative physical configurations which are related to these formally stated goals."<sup>26</sup>

The seed of this new wave of planning thought germinated when a group of graduate students in Planning at the Institute of Planning at the University of the Philippines presented a paper entitled "Planning Strategy for Metropolitan Manila, AD 2000"<sup>27</sup> in 1969.

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<sup>25</sup> Mercedes Conception, ed., Philippine Population in the Seventies (Manila, Philippines: Community Publishers Corp., 1969), p. 305.

<sup>26</sup> Wolfe, Urban Design Within the Comprehensive Planning Process, p. 11.

<sup>27</sup> Institute of Planning, University of the Philippines, "A Planning Strategy for Metropolitan Manila, AD 2000," Ekistics, XXVIII (August, 1969), 142.

While the proposal was only implicit in its goals and objectives, its deliberations were strategy and policy oriented. The study recognized the present problems, as well as future trends, and analyzed and developed various alternatives. This included different planning approaches, financing schemes, and a number of administrative organizations to implement the proposals. Among its strategies or recommendations, for example, was a "policy" that today's pattern of urban sprawl be gradually changed to one of guided linear expansion within seven major transportation corridors radiating from Manila, with special emphasis on selected "growth poles" in the corridors, and with green wedges for recreation, forest, and agriculture in between the corridors. It recommended that a regional organizational framework be evolved, where the principal feature is the separation of planning (plan formulation) and development (plan implementation) functions and activities, while providing for their interrelationships.<sup>28</sup>

While still largely an academic exercise, and only in its beginnings, such strategy-oriented planning efforts has a great potential for setting a trend toward the creation of a viable policy planning approach. An urgent need is evident for the re-evaluation of the country's goals and objectives, and for the formulation of effective policies to guide the unprecedented rate of urbanization.

#### Summary of Background Periods

The history of planning in the Philippines may be traced then, as evolving from rural to urban planning, or from the "barrio"

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<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 147.

to a region-wide concern, and finally to a national planning effort. The growth of planning may also be viewed as having evolved through four (4) stages of development:

First: The pre-Spanish period, when the Filipino settlements were scattered and isolated, and life was relatively simple. Planning, therefore, was more a dictate of environmental conditions rather than a conscious and willful activity.

Second: The Spanish era, when rudimentary planning was first attempted. Its purposes, however, was to benefit the colonizers more than it would, the natives. The rural areas were laid out in simple grid-iron pattern with the plaza at its center, while the urban environment was contained in a fort or garrison.

Third: The American period, which was ushered in by Daniel Burnham's plan of improvements for the City of Manila, and the pre-independence planning activities which focused on economic development plans.

Fourth: The post-independence period, when economic planning continued and intensified in an effort to recover the ruins after the war. These plans were later augmented with the social concerns to form an integrated socio-economic program. This period also saw the creation of regional development authorities which proved ineffective, and the slow and "abortive" recognition of the physical aspects of planning through the creation of the National Planning Commission.

Fifth: The new era, a period that is just evolving now. It is growing out of the present disenchantment of short-sighted five-year socio-economic programs and the growing demand to effectively

respond to the increasing problems brought about by rapid urbanization. It hopefully will synthesize the social, physical, economic and governmental plans into policies for the future.

### The Nature of Policy Plans

In the current literature on policy planning, one hears of policy plans, policy implementation, policy statements, development policies, policy alternatives, policy determinations, and so on. If one were to use Webster's definition that a policy is "any governing principle, plan or course of action,"<sup>29</sup> the discussion on the nature of policy plans could be infinite.

### Different Views on Policy Planning

Disagreements on the nature of policy plans is well summarized by F. Stuart Chapin in his book Urban Land Use Planning:

Some view these policies as something akin to a statement of general principles for planning, and they are thus formulated before plans are developed. Others consider them to be embodied in the plans themselves, and when a plan is officially adopted, the proposals contained in the plan become official urban land use policies. Still a third usage considers them to be statements of the directions of, and implement the proposals contained in, the plan. For example, in this sense, policies might take the form of general specifications for zoning, urban renewal and such.<sup>30</sup>

Taking a different view, Henry Fagin considers the policy plan as "a unified document expressing the general goals, specific plans,

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<sup>29</sup>Webster New World Dictionary (New York: The Worlds Publishing Company, 1966).

<sup>30</sup>F. Stuart Chapin Jr., Urban Land Use Planning (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1965), p. 349.

and programs for urban growth and change."<sup>31</sup> He further elaborated this by stating that the policy should express, first: the social, political, economic, and physical policies intended to guide the evolution of a particular area of governmental jurisdiction; and second: contain physical plans coordinating spatial relationships, schedules coordinating time relationships, budget coordinating financial relationships, and narrative texts and tables describing and coordinating proposed activity programs. Maps, schedules and text also would set forth the physical, economic and social facts, assumptions, and goals underlying the policy.

A slightly different emphasis is used by William Goodman, who likened policies planning to "normative planning," which is the activity of establishing rational and reasonable ends. It involves determinations concerning the objectives or ends which will guide subsequent actions. It develops the broad, general basis for action, whereas technical planning is concerned with specific, established purposes and the procedures to be employed in achieving these purposes.<sup>32</sup> Policy planning then, becomes a process of establishing ends, and determining the means with which those ends will be established. A policy plan is also a statement of the general intentions of a community, and thereby serves as a guide to the

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<sup>31</sup>Henry Fagin, "Organizing and Carrying Out Planning Activities Within Urban Government," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXV (August, 1969), 114.

<sup>32</sup>William Goodman and Eric Freund, Principles and Practice of Urban Planning (Washington, D.C.: International City Managers Association, 1968), p. 330.

decision-making processes of the government officials, the administrators, and the citizens.

While there is a wide range of opinions on the nature of policy planning, it is in essence, the preparation of a set of general statements that define the direction and character of future development and set forth the actions necessary to attain a desired development. The policies set the broad framework for action and form the basis upon which more detailed development decisions are made.

#### The Hierarchy of Policies

An understanding of the nature of policy plans is better appreciated when viewed as a hierarchy that proceeds from the general to the particular, or from the abstract to the specific. If this hierarchy were organized as a pyramid, on top of it would be the general goals, next would be the objectives, and at the bottom, the specific implementing policies.

Webster defines "goals" as "the end to which a design trends; aim; purpose."<sup>33</sup> In this sense, a goal is an ideal and should therefore be expressed in abstract terms; it is a value to be sought after, not an object to be achieved. To use an analogy, goals give a traveler a direction, not a specific location. An "objective" on the other hand, is capable of both attainment and measurement. According to Webster, an objective is "an aim or end of action point to be hit, reached, etc."<sup>34</sup> The implementing policies becomes more

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<sup>33</sup> Webster New World Dictionary, op. cit.

<sup>34</sup> Ibid.





detailed and specific. They provide the traveler with a route and suggests the means of transportation. They specify in general terms the way the destination and the ideal goal may be reached. They indicate the kinds of actions that will, or can be used to achieve the objective. The implementing policies may still become more detailed and may be readily translated into specific design proposals or action recommendations.

In general, goals then are universal and lasting, while objectives change under varying conditions, more so with the implementing policies. Thus, the Philippines and the United States could pursue the same goal of providing a decent house for all of its citizens, but because of varying environmental and financial circumstances, this could not possibly be expressed under the same objectives, much less with identical implementing policies.

#### The Complexity of Goal Setting

The setting up of goals, objectives and implementing policies can easily become the most trying task for the policy planner. This is due to the complexity and the subjectivity of policy formulation. On the demands on the delineation of policies, Benjamin Handler wrote:

When planning was simply plan-making, the complexities were not so readily apparent. But with planning looked at in the (policy) sense, what emerges is a seemingly hopeless web of tangled interrelationships undergoing constant and endless transformation.<sup>35</sup>

Goals may also be viewed as a means and at the same time, as an end, which adds to its complexity. Goals are by their nature

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<sup>35</sup> Benjamin Handler, "What is Planning Theory?" Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXIII (August, 1957), 147.

"dichotomies in that they serve simultaneously as means and ends depending on how responsibilities and concerns are compartmentalized or how wide or narrow a view one wishes to take at a given time."<sup>36</sup>

Still adding to the ambiguity of formulating and identifying goals is the fact that "the act of selecting the goal combination to be introduced into the planning process is still a subjective matter."<sup>37</sup> Stuart Chapin further states that to devise goals meaningful to decision-makers, and at the same time bracket the many divergent planning goals that are held by the citizens, unquestionably involves an exercise of judgment. More importantly, when the policy planner goes down to the lower policy levels and identifies a series of "goal forms," say, a nucleated form, a diffused form or a compact form of development, as alternative approaches to satisfy goal preferences of the general public, he is imputing to these goal forms certain living qualities that match up with public goal preferences. Here again, value judgments are involved.

To summarize, policy plans may be presented as a hierarchy of goals, objectives, and implementing policies, which vary in degrees of specificity, from an abstract and ideal goal to an attainable middle-range objective, and finally, to an action-oriented implementing policy. Though the conception of policy plans may be simplified as a pyramid having three levels, their identification

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<sup>36</sup> Robert Young, "Goals and Goal Setting," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXXII (March, 1966), 79.

<sup>37</sup> Stuart Chapin, "Foundation of Urban Planning," in Urban Growth and Form, ed. by W. Hirsch (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963), p. 227.

and formulation, however, can be very complicated and intricate, largely because of the complexity of the interactions of factors that must be considered, and because of the involvement of value judgments on the part of the policy maker, which are highly subjective and are not readily resolved.

### Policy Planning Within the Planning Process

If policy planning involves the preparation of a set of general statements that define the direction and character of future development, and set forth the actions necessary to attain the desired development, then it is evident that policy planning is an integral part of the total planning process. In order to indicate this relationship, that policy planning is indeed contained in the planning process, whether explicitly or implicitly expressed, three general planning approaches are examined in more detail. These are; (1) the classical centralized planning process, (2) the systemic planning approach which is outlined by Catanese and Steiss, and (3) advocacy planning, which is gaining popularity and importance with the growing involvement of the citizens in the decision-making process (see Figure 1).

### The Classical Planning Approach

A centralized decision-making process, where conclusions are ultimately contained in a single master plan, is the core of the classical approach. It is largely oriented toward physical planning, and is in fact, a carry-over of such professions as architecture and

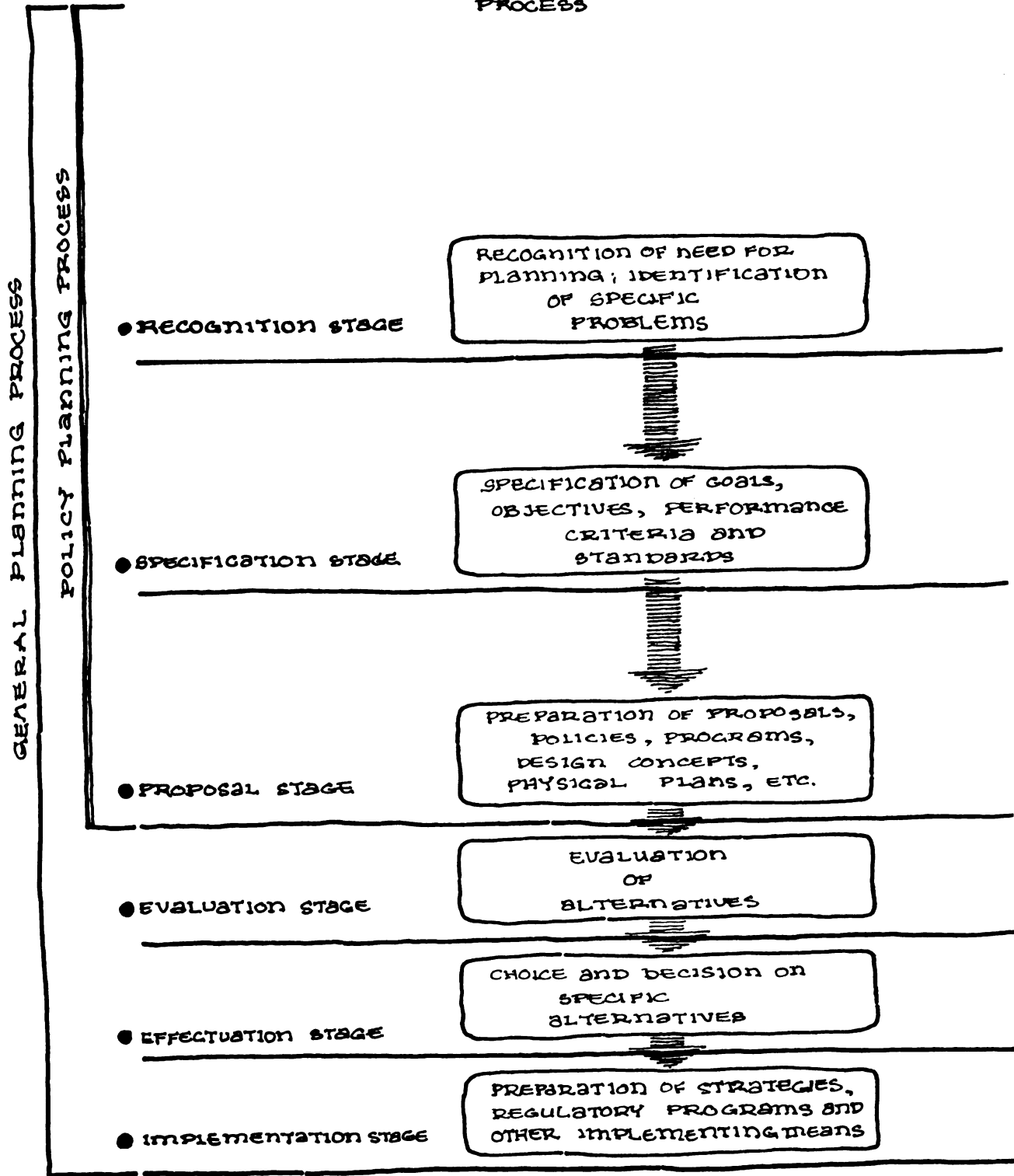
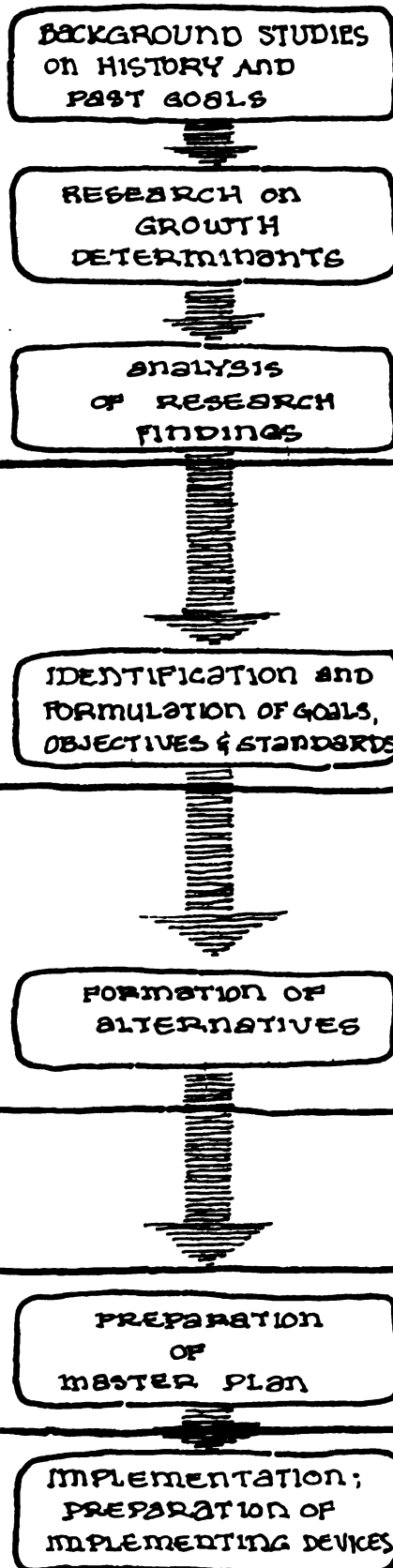


Figure 1.--The Policy Planning Process Within the Planning Process

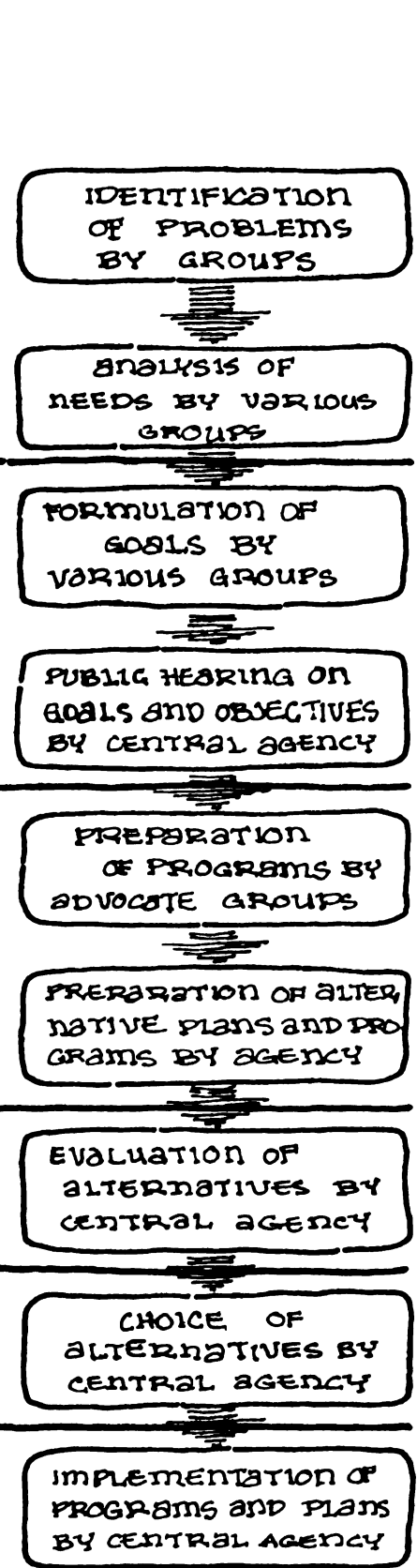
### ■ CLASSICAL PLANNING PROCESS



### ■ SYSTEMIC PLANNING PROCESS



### ■ ADVOCACY PLANNING PROCESS



engineering, whose concerns are focused on the physical environment.

The planning process according to this approach may proceed from:

1. Background studies on the history of the region and its past goals and objectives.
2. A research phase, where the major growth determinants such as land use, population, and economic resources are carefully assessed and recorded.
3. Analysis and synthesis of research findings and the determination of needs and demands.
4. The identification and formulation of goals and objectives, and the creation of standards for attaining those goals and objectives.
5. The planning and design stage, which evaluates the various alternative plans, and produces a final master plan.
6. An implementation stage, which involves the formulation of an administrative organization, as well as the preparation of implementative devices, such as zoning ordinances, subdivision regulations, and others.<sup>38</sup>

In the planning approach above, policy planning would cover the first four stages of the process, which starts with the preparation of background studies or inventories, to the formulation of goals and objectives, and the creation of standards from which the attainment of those goals and objectives may be measured.

#### The Systemic Planning Approach

Recently proposed by two urban planners, this approach is an integration of the methods of Systems Analysis and the procedures of traditional planning. The different stages may be described in the following manner:

1. Definition and clarification of current and future problems and the interrelationships among them.
2. Prediction of future conditions arising from identifiable problems.

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<sup>38</sup>From lecture notes, "The Planning Process," under Prof. Keith Honey (MSU, Fall Term 1969).

3. Identification of constraints and solutions to them
4. Determination of
  - (a) maximum
  - (b) optimum
  - (c) normal
5. Formulation of alternatives
6. Evaluation of alternatives and simulation of urban systems as well as
7. Recommendation of alternative

The use of the method of systemic analysis involves the use of a number of alternatives under consideration. In this process, it can be gained. In the process, it can produce important side effects that forms of evaluation create a singular would extend the stages: the definition of future conditions; the definition of constraints; the definition of formulation of a



3. Identification of parameters, boundary conditions, or constraints which determine the range of possible solutions to the totality of problems.
4. Determination of goals, objectives at varying levels:
  - (a) maximal and minimal levels
  - (b) optimal levels
  - (c) normative or utopian levels
5. Formulation of alternatives.
6. Evaluation of qualitative and quantitative cost-effectiveness, and simulation of alternatives in the environment of the urban system in order to understand overall performance, as well as by-products and spill-over effects.
7. Recommendation of minimal, maximal, optimal, and normative alternatives.<sup>39</sup>

The use of simulation techniques to test proposals is the forte of systemic planning. Through modern methods, which usually involves the use of computers, "more can be learned from the various alternatives under evaluation, and some notion of overall performance can be gained. In addition, a simulation of alternatives would produce important leads to determining the possible by-products and side effects that could not be uncovered through more conventional forms of evaluation."<sup>40</sup> This approach, which does not propose to create a singular master plan, rather a series of alternatives, would extend the policy planning process through the first five stages: the definition of current and future problems; the prediction of future conditions; the identification of parameters and constraints; the determination of goals and objectives, and lastly, the formulation of alternatives.

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<sup>39</sup>Anthony Catanese and Alan Steiss, "Systemic Planning: The Challenge of the New Generation of Planners," Journal of the Town and Country Planning, LIV (April, 1968), 172-76.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 174.

## The Advocacy Planning

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### The Advocacy Planning Approach

Advocate planners take the view that development solutions or policies should be a joint effort of the administrative decision-makers as well as of the citizens or the client groups. Underlying this approach is the idea that certain groups in the region or community are, in fact, not represented in the decision-making processes, or if they are, it is not with the equal weights of the others. Since these various groups have interests at stake in the community, then they should have those interests articulated in the planning process.

The planning process and the decision-making patterns become decentralized and initial decisions are distributed among various advocate groups. The planning process would have the following stages:

1. Identification of problems by various advocate groups.
2. Analysis of the needs of the communities by the different groups.
3. Formulation of goals by each group.
4. Arrangement of public hearing by a central coordinating agency to decide on the goals of the total community.
5. Preparation of programs by each group in accordance with the defined overall community goals and objectives.
6. Preparation of alternative plans and programs by the central agency, derived from the programs submitted by the different advocate groups.
7. Evaluation of alternatives through citizen participation by the central agency.
8. Implementation of programs and plans by a centralized implementing authority.<sup>41</sup>

The focus of advocacy planning is grass-roots participation of the citizens or client groups in the decision-making processes.

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<sup>41</sup>Paul Davidoff, "Advocacy and Pluralism in Planning," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXXI (March, 1965), 334-36.

This is made possible by the creation of groups headed by advocate planners who will serve as their spokesman. The formation of advocate groups and of a centralized coordinating agency distributes and integrates decisions at various stages in the planning process. The process also becomes prolonged, with the policy planning process extending over six stages. This includes all the activities of the advocate groups: the identification of problems, analysis of needs, formulation of goals and preparation of programs, and the setting of public hearings by the central coordination agency, as well as the preparation of alternative plans and programs by the same coordinating agency or body.

From the analysis above, it becomes evident that policy planning is not only an integral part of the total planning process, but it also sets the initial stages of the series of planning activities and provides the basis of the entire planning process. While the three planning approaches above may vary considerably in their strategies and methods of decision-making, a definite pattern or sequence of planning stages emerges. In fact, using the basic steps in the design process postulated by J. Alger and C. Hays, it can be demonstrated that the three planning approaches above may be synthesized into one general planning process. The six basic steps in the design process are as follows:

1. Recognition Stage: The need for planning and design activity is recognized at this stage. The specific problem areas and their contextual elements are identified, and assumptions about the future, available resources, etc., are made.

2. **Specifications Stage:** Alternative ends are identified, and specific ends are chosen. These are then specified in terms of goals, objectives, performance criteria, and standards.
3. **Proposal Stage:** Means for attaining the specified ends are identified. These are often expressed in terms of policies, programs, design concepts, physical plans, etc., depending on the scope of a particular problem.
4. **Evaluation Stage:** Relative merits of alternative means are evaluated against the criteria specified earlier.
5. **Decision Stage:** Choice of a particular alternative is made, depending on particular circumstances.
6. **Effectuation Stage:** Once a decision on a particular solution is made, it is developed and refined and means for effectuation and staging are formulated. These are expressed in terms of broad strategies and policies, regulatory measures, capital programs, and other implementation means.<sup>42</sup>

The first three stages--recognition, specification, and proposal--in the generalized planning process above comprise the steps in the policy planning process. It involves first, the recognition and identification of problems; second, the specification of goals, objectives, and standards; and third, the formulation of proposals for attaining the specified ends as expressed in implementing policies.

Once again, it is shown that policy planning is indeed, inherent in the planning process and in fact, sets the initial stages from which the total design process may be continued and consummated.

#### A Conceptual Framework for a Comprehensive Policy Planning Approach

The need for a comprehensive approach in the formulation of policies to guide the urbanization and growth of a developing country like the Philippines is a necessity. At a time when everything

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<sup>42</sup>Alger and Hays, Creative Synthesis in Design, p. 39.

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appears to depend on everything else, the only alternative is to view the environment from an overall perspective. It is the purpose of this section, then, first, to identify and define the characteristics and the roles of the economic, physical, social and political components of planning, revealing their uniqueness as well as their inter-relatedness; and second, to propose a conceptual scheme where all such dependence and interdependence may be viewed in its entirety.

The scheme as conceived is composed of three dimensions:

(1) the activity dimension, (2) the spatial dimension, (3) the time dimension.

#### The Activity Dimension

The activity dimension in the horizontal plane contain the four (4) different types of planning activities: (a) physical planning, (b) social planning, (c) economic planning, and (d) administrative (or political) planning (see Figure 2). Each of these planning "types" have their own fields of activities which makes them unique, yet related and separates their functions and responsibilities.

Thus, physical planning is concerned with such activities and topics as land use planning, transportation and communications, patterns of human settlements or housing, community facilities and utilities, open space, industrial location, the location of new towns and large-scale developments, architectural forms and aesthetics. Economic planning which would be prepared in conjunction with the physical plans, would be concerned with such issues as the gross national product and national income, financing schemes, credits and

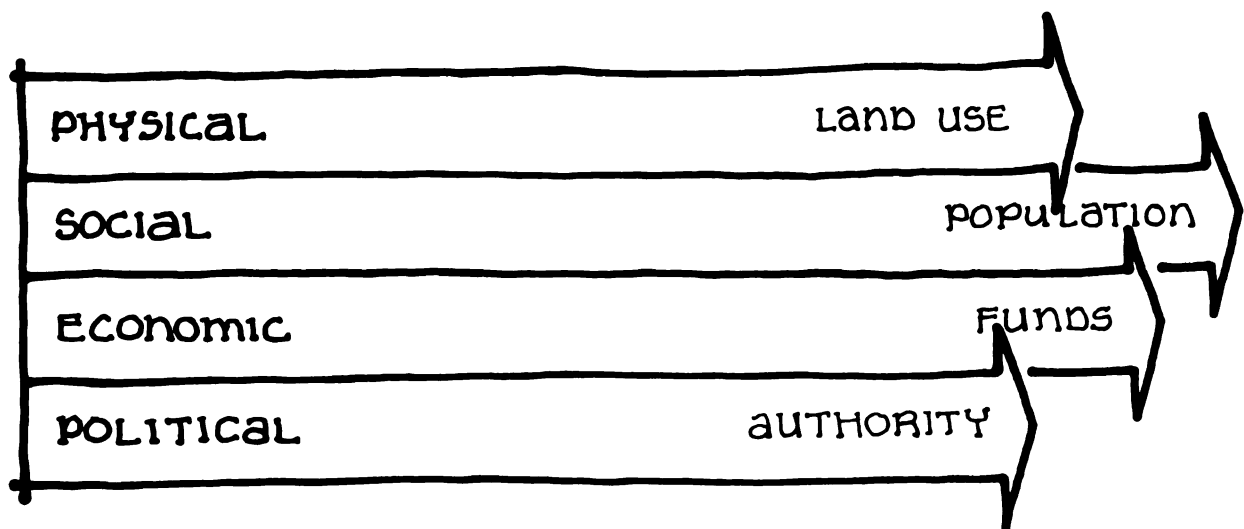


Figure 2.--The Activity Dimension in the Horizontal Plane



loans, employment and the labor force, generation of capital, balance of payments, the growth of industry, commerce and agriculture, etc. The physical and economic plans are then given meaning and relevance by the activities of social planning, which includes among others, the areas of education, food and nutrition, social welfare, the creation of public awareness on environmental issues, the maintenance of peace and order, community change, collective behavior, the creation of housing standards to ensure public safety, individual freedom and responsibility, and the maintenance of a balanced distribution of population. The physical, economic and social plans and programs are then integrated and implemented through an administrative or governmental plan. The political or administrative aspect would cover such issues as the creation and operation of an organizational structure, governmental processes, where functions and responsibilities are defined and delineated; the setting of priorities for implementation and methods of funding, the distribution of materials, and manpower.

While these four (4) planning activities listed above are distinct and separate, in reality, however, they become integrated, and their interactions often become highly complicated and intricate. The provision of housing facilities, for example, would simultaneously involve all the planning "types." Thus, a housing project is first of all, a group of dwelling units (physical), whose planning involves architectural designs, landscaping, site planning, the provision of facilities and utilities, etc. Secondly, it also refers to the people who reside in them (social), which may involve such issues as

the integration of dwelling units with families of different income levels, and the relocation of displaced families. Thirdly, the housing project is definitely a business proposal (economic), which would require financing, labor, loans, etc. Finally, the successful implementation of the housing plans would depend on an efficient administrative structure (political), which would also handle such issues as governmental subsidies, and more importantly, inter-governmental relations, if the housing project extends over several political jurisdictions.

#### The Spatial Dimension

The spatial dimension in the vertical plane includes the geography of the planning areas, and their corresponding administrative units (see Figure 3). These planning areas are actually overlapping: it proceeds from a "barrio" and municipality, to a province and city, then to a region, which contains all the "barrios," municipalities, provinces and cities; then finally, to the national level, which embraces all of the planning regions. Each of these planning sectors would have their own governmental entities, and because of the overlapping nature of their particular jurisdictions, it becomes imperative that there is proper and effective cooperation and coordination of planning activities. It has been shown many times that the planning of a particular area goes beyond its political boundaries and does not respect such artificial limits. Critical environmental issues such as sewage disposal, storm drainage and flood control, and transportation and traffic problems, for example, cannot be solved effectively by any form of sectorial planning. Such

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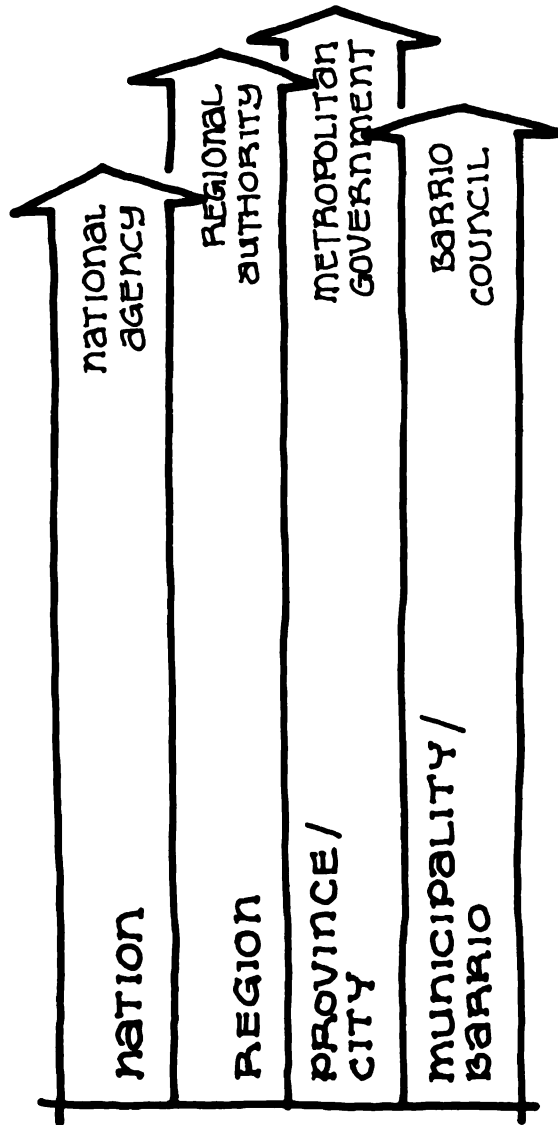


Figure 3.--The Spatial Dimension in the Vertical Plane

region- and nation-wide problems have to be perceived as a whole and be extended to the limits of their environmental spatial influence.

### The Time Dimension

The time dimension in the depth plane (see Figure 4) inject a crucial element into the planning scheme, and that is, dynamism and future change. It is important to recognize that all planning activities move through time. This awareness is better appreciated when we realize that the time required to achieve the goals and objectives of the plans in the Activity Dimension vary considerably. G. Nez wrote that "significant economic improvements require at least half-decades; social changes require generations. The administrative unit goes to the people and to the legislature periodically to marshal funds, materials, manpower and authority."<sup>43</sup>

The immediate consequences of a dynamic planning process is the creation of development programming or program timing done by a responsive and dynamic administration. Governmental units are becoming increasingly aware that they themselves must change and develop in form and in function, and expand in experience and training while adjusting to the growing progress of the development programs. If the administrative structural form does not evolve with the continuous change and growing program, it simply becomes static and obsolete, and will ultimately cease to exist because of inefficiency. Another consequence of a dynamic process is the development of a hierarchy of policies--implementing policies, objectives and goals (as previously

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<sup>43</sup>Nez, "Economic and Physical Development," p. 302.



Figure 4

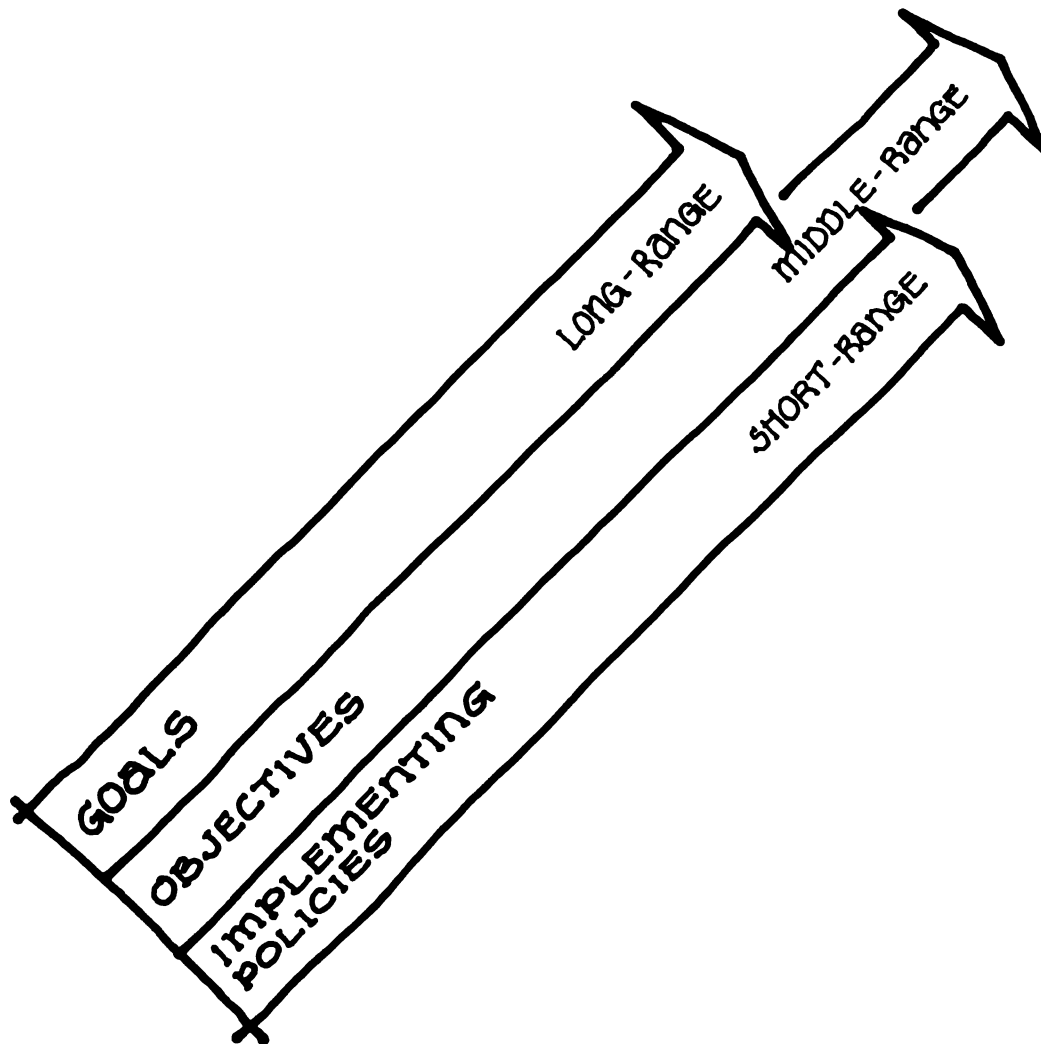


Figure 4.--The Time Dimension in the Depth Plane

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discussed)--which would correspond to the short-range, middle-range and long-range planning schemes. The implementing policies are the action-oriented programs formulated for immediate execution. The objectives are the middle-range policies to which all short-range implementing policies are oriented. The middle-range policies are programmed over a longer period of time in an attempt to reach a desired ideal state or set of goals. These goals, in turn, make up the long-range policies or objectives. These goals, as previously cited, are often expressed as values, such as happiness, peace and health, which are not immediately capable of measurement nor of total attainment. Their approximation, however, or the attempt to reach them, is deemed desirable.

The interrelatedness of the three planning dimensions, therefore, make it only logical that they be put together or interlocked to form an integrated concept of planning activities occurring in time and space. Their fusion creates a three-dimensional conceptual cube, which has the activity dimension in the horizontal plane, the spatial dimension in the vertical plane, and the time dimension in the depth plane (see Figure 5). Utilizing this concept, it becomes evident that any one planning activity, for example, the physical planning dimension, while it may be regarded as separate and distinct entity, is at the same time closely related to the social, economic, and political planning activities. Any planning effort must also cover the entire range of spatial areas from the smallest unit, the "barrio," to the broad national level. There must also be

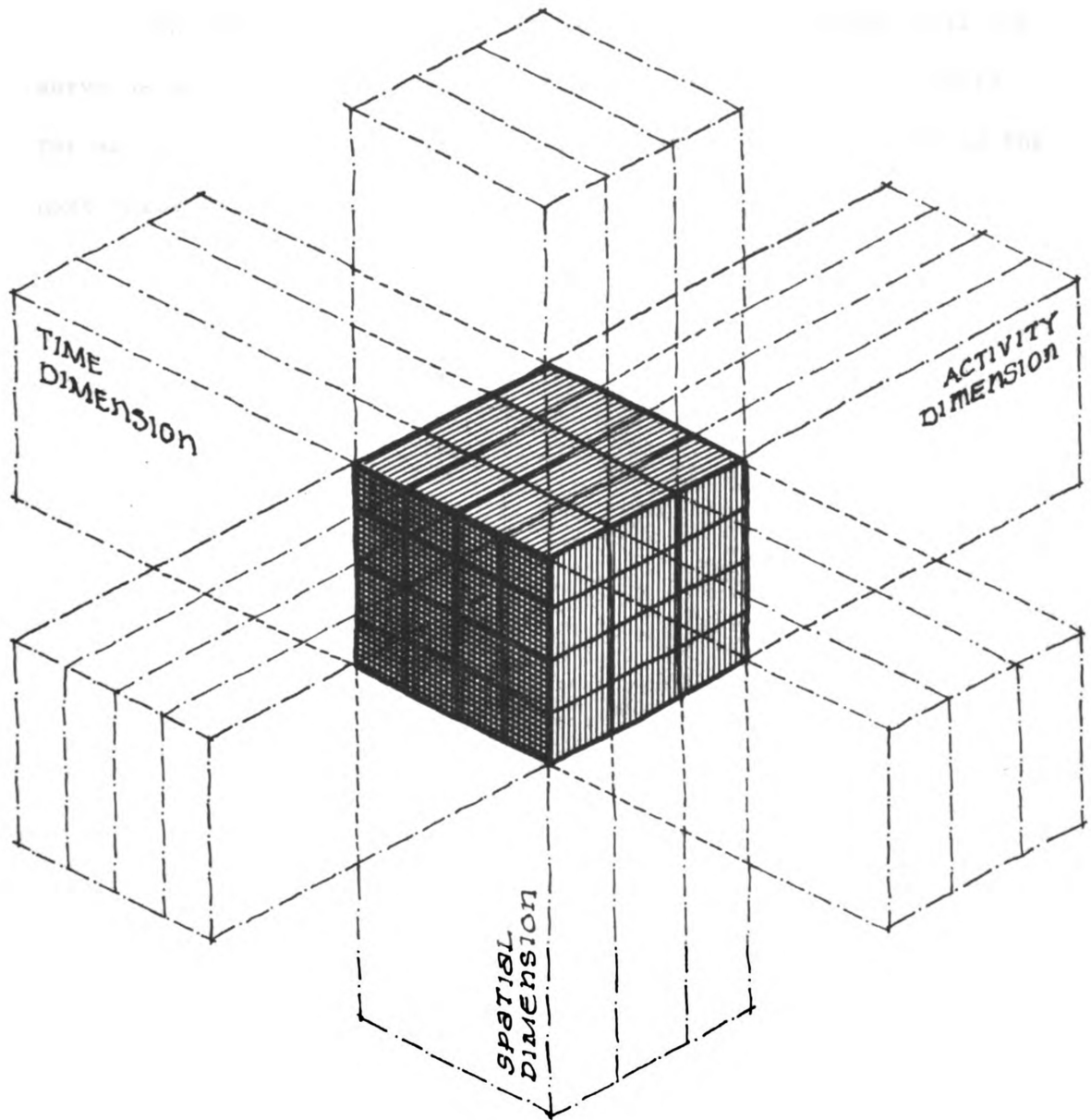


Figure 5.--Proposed Conceptual Framework for a Comprehensive Policy Planning Process

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corresponding policies and plans staged in time to achieve short-range, middle-range and long-range targets.

The proposed conceptual framework described above, will now serve as a guide in the development of policy plans and proposals for an orderly growth of the Philippines, which are discussed in the next three (3) chapters.

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## CHAPTER III

### THE FRAMEWORK FOR POLICY PLANNING

#### IN THE PHILIPPINES

In all of the planning approaches discussed in the previous chapter, the first stage in the process of policy planning involves the most thoroughly possible understanding of the total environment. This includes a recognition of existing problems, past trends and future potentials in the physical, social, economic, and political planning dimensions. This initial stage is perhaps the most crucial and the most important in the entire planning process. A failure to understand and comprehend the existing situation, and to fully appreciate the implications of future trends and potentials has too often led to inconsistent and inefficient policy recommendations and actions. It is therefore important that the discussion of such topics be presented in more detail. This chapter will explore the prevailing physical, social, economic, and political conditions in the Philippines, while the problems, trends and potentials in the planning components will be discussed in the next chapter.

The analysis of the framework for policy planning in the Philippines is divided into four planning components: (1) the physical setting: the land and its location, climate, and natural

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resources; (2) the social environment: the people and their origins, their racial, religious and language groupings, the family and the existing social structure, and the population, which includes its present number and characteristics, nature of spread and distribution; (3) the economic resources: the agricultural economy, the industrial economy and other economic resources that form the economic base, and the transportation system; and (4) the political institutions: the system of national government, the system of local government, and the national organization for planning.

### The Physical Setting

The Philippines is located only slightly north of the equator, and it is about the size of the State of Arizona when compared with the United States. The thousands of islands, which range in size from less than a square mile to about 30,000 square miles; the warm breeze and torrential rains; the rich tropical resources that make up the physical environment of the Philippines, display an infinite variety of contrast and beauty that earned the nation's title as "Perlas ng Silangan" (Pearl of the Orient).

### Physical Geography

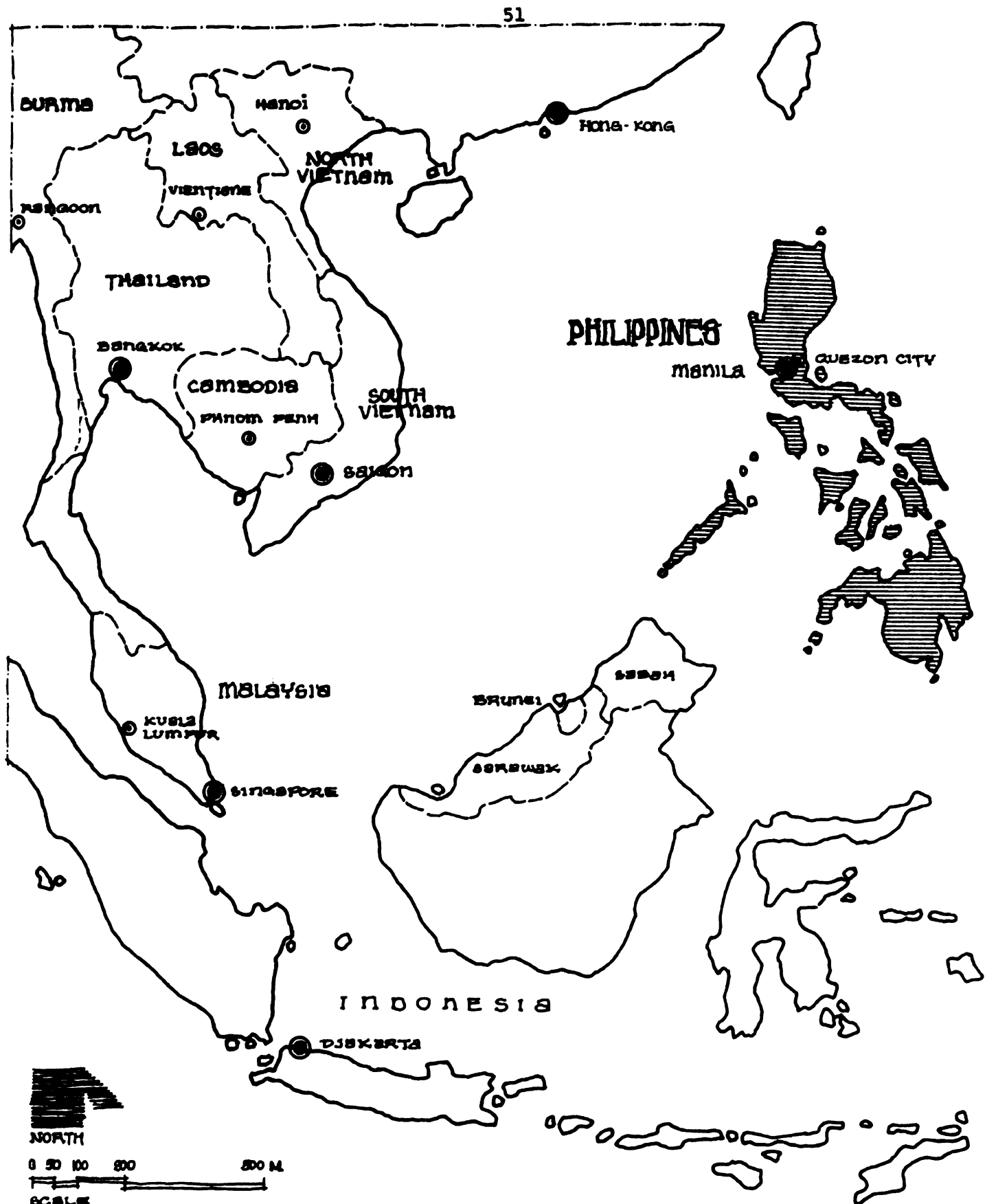
The Republic of the Philippines is an archipelago of approximately seven thousand (7,000) islands stretching for nearly one thousand (1,000) miles between the southern tip of Formosa and the northernmost parts of Borneo and Indonesia (see Figure 6). It is bounded on the East by the Pacific Ocean, and in the West by the South China Sea. The total land area is about 115,700 square miles,



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Source: Stanley Karnov and the Editors of Time-Life, Southeast Asia (New York: Time-Life Books, 1967), frontispiece.

Figure 6.--Map of Southeast Asia

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<sup>1</sup> Raymond M  
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with an extremely rugged coastline that extends for a distance of about 21,700 miles. In the Pleistocene Era, the islands of the Philippines were connected by land bridges to Borneo, Java, Sumatra and Mainland China. However, now the old land bridges are submerged, while their peaks survive in the Palawan and Sulu Island groups.

Despite the large number of islands, however, "only 462 are a square mile or more in area. Only 2,773 have names and the eleven largest islands occupy some 95 percent of the total land area."<sup>1</sup> These islands may be grouped into four natural regions: (1) Luzon, (2) Mindanao, (3) Visayas, and (4) the Sulu Archipelago (see Figure 7).

The Island of Luzon is the largest and leads the nation in wealth, population and political leadership. It has the nation's historic capital Manila, and the present official capital Quezon City. The island of Luzon also shelters more than one-third of the 33 million Filipinos, and has the concentration of more than one-half of the factories and industrial workers.

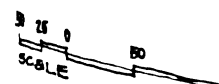
The second natural region is the Island of Mindanao in the South. Mindanao, in contrast to Luzon, is comparatively empty, unexplored and untapped; although by 1965 it already held five million people. It is potentially the richest of all the islands and is frequently called the "land of promise." The island's main port of Davao is the third largest in the country.

The cluster of small islands in the central part of the country form the Visayas--the third natural region. This includes

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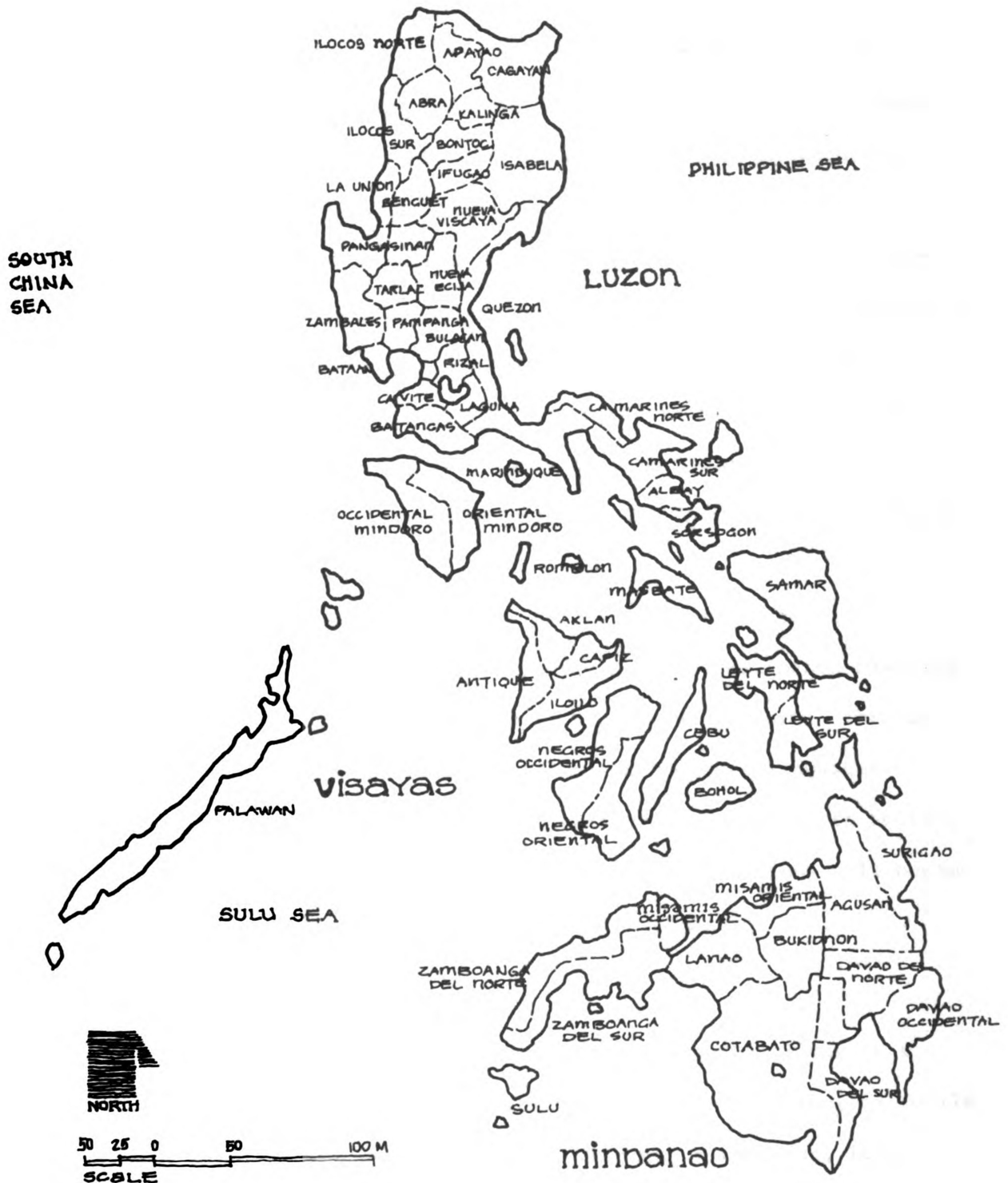
<sup>1</sup>Raymond Nelson, The Philippines (London: Billing and Sons, Ltd., 1968), p. 14.

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Source: H. A. Aver  
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Source: H. A. Averch et al., Crisis of Ambiguity (California: The Rand Corporation, 1970), p. 78.

Figure 7.--Map of the Philippines

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<sup>2</sup> Ferdinand  
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the economically important island of Cebu and six (6) others of respectable size: Mindoro, Palawan, Leyte, Samar, Negros and Panay. The City of Cebu, which is the provincial capital, is an industrial center and seaport second in importance only to Manila.

Southward from Mindanao, a miniature archipelago called the Sulu Islands stretches like "stepping stones" to Borneo. Historically, these islands were famous as trading centers and pearl fishing harbors. They are also the site of the first foothold of Islam in the Philippines. Today, these islands house a "closed" community of Muslims, who have largely remained outside the "mainstream" of Philippine cultural life.

The island geography of the Philippines offers an "idyllic" tropical setting. However, only recently have the Filipinos realized that the geography is more than merely a physical pattern. Through the years, the fragmented form has "promoted regional languages, cultures and loyalties"<sup>2</sup> that created serious consequences to social planning and political administration. These implications will become evident later in the following chapters of the thesis.

### Climate

The nearness of the Philippines to the equator gives it a "monsoon" type of climate, particularly in its northern regions; while typhoons occur in the north and east. Throughout the year, it is warm and humid with the temperatures ranging between about sixty degrees Fahrenheit (60°F) and around ninety degrees Fahrenheit (90°F). The mean temperature is approximately eighty degrees Fahrenheit (80°F).

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<sup>2</sup>Ferdinand and Delia Kuhn, The Philippines: Yesterday and Today (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967), p. 7.



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There are three seasons: "Hot-Dry" from March through May; "Hot-Rainy" from June to the end of October; and "Cool-Dry," beginning in November and lasting until sometime in March. The end of the hot-dry season is usually marked by violent thunderstorms and torrential rains. Typhoons, locally called "bagyo," become prominent in the later half of the year, with winds sometimes exceeding one hundred miles per hour (100 m.p.h.) and rains bringing six (6) to twelve (12) inches in twenty-four (24) hours (see Figure 8).

#### Natural Resources

Blessed with constant warmth and abundant rain, the Philippines is rich in natural resources. A sizable part of its wealth is in the forest which covers more than forty per cent (40%) of the land. The farmlands are also extensive and yield rice and corn which are the most important crops for domestic consumption. Sugar, coconuts, and abaca are grown for commercial export. In addition to the forests and farmlands, another source of natural wealth of the Philippines are the fish that lurk in the waters around the islands and the wide rivers, flooded rice fields and man-made ponds. According to some estimates, Filipinos have access to about 2,000 types of edible fish.

The rivers do not only provide fish, but many are also well suited to harnessing for flood control and electric power, as well as for irrigation. The mountains are not only covered with forests and timber, but at the same time, hide vast mineral wealth which await exploitation. The richest known, but still untapped, mineral resources are iron and nickel in northeast Mindanao and the islands off its coast.

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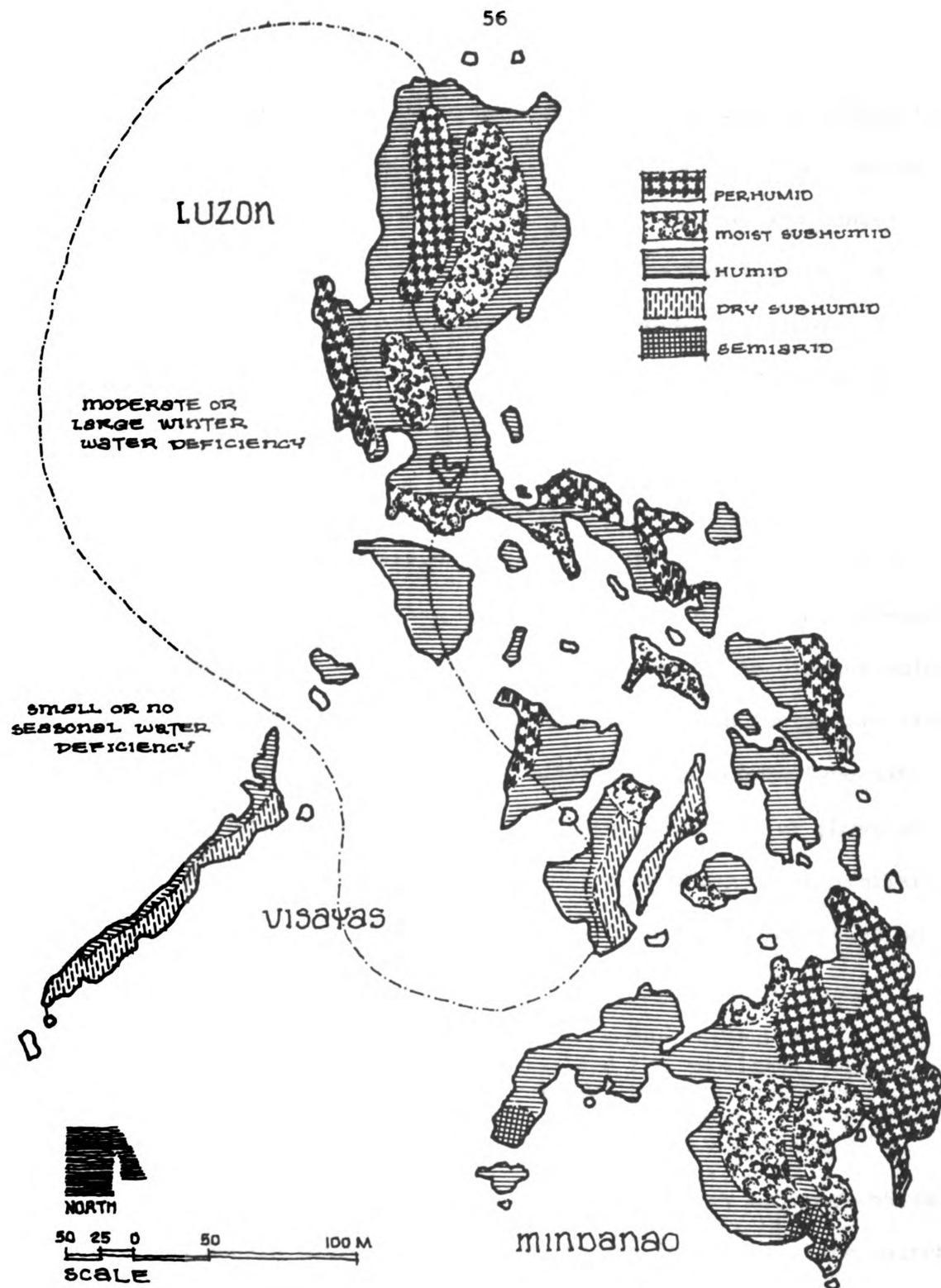
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Source: Frederick  
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Source: Frederick Wernstedt, The Philippine Island World (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1967), p. 31.

Figure 8.--Philippine Climate

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The Philippines has rich natural resources that it offers to the Filipino. However, its abundance and lushness has also exacted a negative toll on the people's attitudes and customs, and consequently, on their national economic growth. The implications of this rich surroundings, which made life for the rural Filipino comparatively easy, will become clear in the next chapter when the problems that beset contemporary Philippine society is discussed.

### The Social Environment

There are over thirty-seven million (37,000,000) Filipinos in 1970, and the two words that would best describe their culture are diversity and contrast. Professor H. Otley Beyer, a leading ethnologist in the Philippines, has identified no fewer than forty-five (45) different "ethnographic groups" each consisting of people "who have sufficiently unique economic and social life, language, or physical type to mark them off clearly and distinctly from any other similar group in the Philippine Islands."<sup>3</sup> Carlos P. Romulo, commenting on the Filipino culture, observes that:

Basically, the modern Filipino is the product of three influences--the Malayan, the Spanish and the American. The result is an unusual social and cultural pattern that fits into neither an Oriental nor an Occidental straight jacket.<sup>4</sup> In the Philippines, the East and West have met and blended.

Still, a traveler once wrote that "though the country is geographically in Asia, one should not be surprised to find a beautiful stone church

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<sup>3</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 25.

<sup>4</sup>Carlos P. Romulo, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7 (Washington, D.C., 1946).

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with a baroque facade in a tropical setting, or a smiling individual with Chinese features and a Spanish name conducting business in an American way."<sup>5</sup> Though basically an Asian, a long period of historical ties with the West has influenced his fundamental perspectives, which in turn, continued to sustain the East-West dualism of his ideologies and social orientations that are evident now. The heterogeneity that typifies the Filipino people may be classified and divided into groupings by race, religion and language for the purposes of this study.

#### Racial Groupings

The Filipino is basically Mongoloid with a Malay culture modified by centuries of contact with the Chinese, Japanese, Hindus, Arabs, Spaniards, and more recently, the Americans. However, there are indigenous racial groups, which have become diminutive both in number and status. These are the Aetas, Negritos and Igorots in the northern parts of Luzon, who are still found to live mainly by the bow and arrow or blowgun. There are the Manobos and Bagobos of Mindanao, whose ways of life have scarcely changed since the Stone Age. Another minority group, which is perhaps the most debated and the most controversial, are the Chinese, who are presently estimated to be three hundred thousand (300,000) in number. They constitute the largest number of aliens in the Philippines. Still another small group are the "cacique" or the "mestizo," the Spanish name for people of mixed Spanish-native parentage and now used to denote people of

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<sup>5</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 17.



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mixed race. They comprise a considerable portion of the wealthy and the educated class. They are now less of a dominant social and land-owning class, however, they remain an influential and important part in the economic and political changes in the Philippines.

### Religious Groupings

More than ninety per cent (90%) of the Filipinos are Catholics,<sup>6</sup> which is largely the result of colonial efforts by the Spaniards. Approximately four per cent (4%) are Muslims;<sup>7</sup> a few are Protestants, while others belong to local religious groups; the remainder are mostly pagans. While the majority of the Filipinos are Christians, care must be taken in analyzing their religious inclinations. When the Spaniards came to "christianize" the Filipinos, the native was constantly torn between his indigenous belief in "Bathala" (god) and the Christian Deity. In the end, he has neither fully rejected one, nor blindly accepted the other. Instead, he evolved a workable synthesis of Hispanic Christianity and their folk beliefs. The Filipinos "went to Mass in church, and chanted prayers to the ruler's God, but in their fields and streams, they continued to acknowledge the guardianship of the "anitos" (lesser gods). They wore their rosary beads in town, but in the hunt, they replaced these with a necklace of charms or "anting-anting" to insure success.<sup>8</sup> In the urban areas, still

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<sup>6</sup> Bureau of the Census and Statistics, Republic of the Philippines, Census of the Philippines, 1960: Population and Housing (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1962).

<sup>7</sup> Ibid.

<sup>8</sup> Corpus, The Philippines, p. 55.

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struggling to free himself of his "anitos," he has found the dainty statues and attractive medals of saints as substitutes, and has allowed himself to be mesmerized by the lavish rituals of the Church.

The Protestants, whose beliefs were introduced by the Americans, are relatively few in number, but similarly with the local religious groups, they are growing. The "Aglipay Church" and the "Iglesia Ni Kristo" for example, which, like the Protestants, veered from the Roman Catholic Church in Rome, have swelled its membership to almost 2.0 million according to the 1960 census. Recently, because of their "bloc vote," where members vote unanimously on an issue, they are increasingly gaining political influence as well.

The Muslims constitute the largest minority group among the non-Christians. They are reputedly fierce and brave like the rest of the non-Christian population, and have succeeded in preserving their indigenous culture and ways of life. They have resisted all attempts by the Spanish and the American colonizers, and now, even of their fellow Filipinos, to subdue and Christianize them. Thus, though Philippine law does not recognize divorce, among the Muslims and other native religious groups, it is allowed. The Muslims "live by their own code, according to which the Datu (Chieftain) or Sultan is the constituted ruler and judge."<sup>9</sup> Another significant minority group which is non-Christian and who have retained their customs and native folklore are the Igorot tribe. They live in the high mountains in northern Luzon. Altogether numbering nearly one-half (1/2) million, they are a virile, hard-working people who in earlier days, were

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<sup>9</sup>Nelson, The Philippines, p. 19.

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notorious for tribal warfare and head-hunting. Additionally, there are the Manobos and Bagobos in the South, and other non-Christian minority groups scattered all over the islands, though the majority are mainly in the northern and southern parts of the archipelago.

### Language Groupings

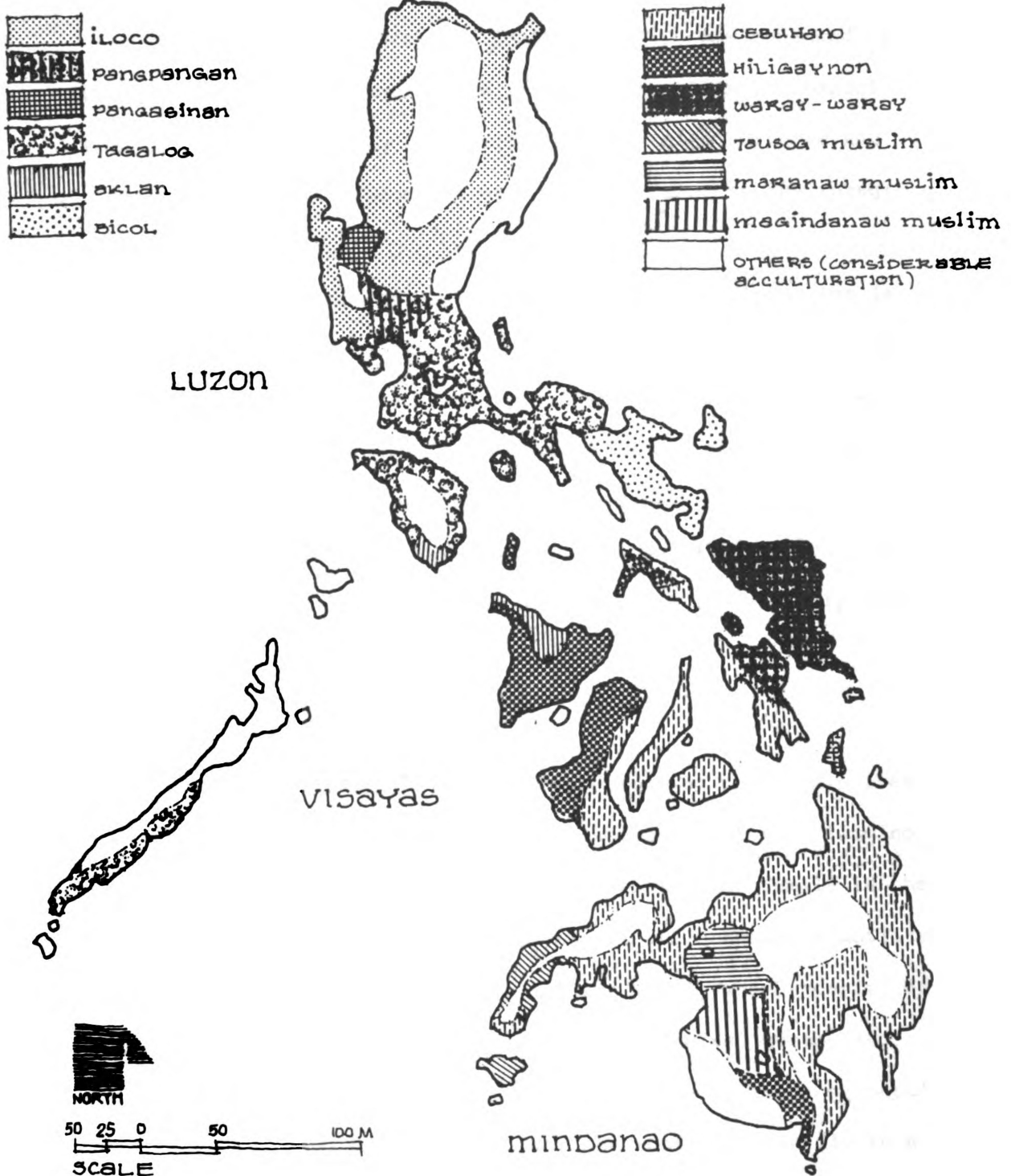
The Filipinos may also be classified as to the language or dialect they speak. It is here that the diversity of his culture is best appreciated, because today, the Filipino is identified not so much by his racial features and faith, but from the region he came from, and consequently, by the language he speaks. The native languages or dialects are variations of the Malayo-Polynesian linguistic stock. Professor Otley Beyer counted sixty (60) dialects and seven (7) major languages possessing printed literature.

The two largest dialect groups (see Figure 9), are the Cebuanos (24.1%) and the Tagalogs (21.0%). The Tagalogs are concentrated in and around Manila and have not migrated to any great extent. The Cebuanos live in Central Visayas, though large numbers have moved to northern Mindanao and to Davao Province in southern Mindanao.

Other important ethnic and language groups may be identified in the island of Luzon: the Ilocanos in the north, the Pangasinans and Pampangans in the center, and the Bicolanos in the extreme south. In the Visayas are found the Ilongos on Panay and western Negros, and the Warays on Samar and northeastern Leyte. Mindanao and Sulu Islands shelter the bulk of the Cebuanos and other migrants, and the Muslim ethnic group.



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Source: H. A. Averch, et al., Crisis of Ambiguity (California: The Rand Corporation, 1970), p. 11.

Figure 9.--Major Ethnic Linguistic Groups



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The different dialects or languages which are enhanced by the island pattern of the country have presented problems in communications, administration and education. It has also nurtured the idea of "regionalism," which become a serious constraint to any integrated national planning effort.

The language difficulty was recognized as early as the late 1930's at which time a policy was adopted by the government to develop a national language based on Tagalog called "Pilipino." Besides Pilipino, English and Spanish were adopted as official languages. The growth of a national language was necessarily slow, and by 1960, only 44.5 per cent of the people spoke Pilipino, although this was better and higher than the 39.5 per cent for English and only 2.0 per cent for Spanish.<sup>10</sup>

#### The Filipino Family Structure

A description of the social environment of the Philippines is not complete without a discussion of the structure of the Filipino family. As in most rural societies of the world, the family is the domestic organizational framework for social and economic stability. The average Filipino lives in an "extended" family which consist of the parents and their children, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins on both the paternal and maternal sides. Contrary to popular belief, however, they do not live under one roof, but usually in a number of households that are often clustered in one village or urban neighborhood.

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<sup>10</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, p. 77.

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The Filipino family has been accurately described as "a bank, an insurance agency, and a welfare organization."<sup>11</sup> From the moment a Filipino is born, his family is his security and his refuge:

The family offers him job and security in it; it cares for him during illness, oversees his marriage, consults on his own family problems, and deals with them in emergencies. The family cares for him in old age, buries him decently and tends his grave.<sup>12</sup> Each member receives these services and renders them.

The extended family is further stretched by the "compadre" or godfather. Every christian Filipino is supposed to acquire a godfather in Baptism. The couple who stands at their wedding, or the wedding sponsors, similarly become their "compadres" and "comadres."

There are sociologists who would claim that, in the face of rapid modernization, the Filipino family is changing. This social change, however, is extremely slow. Although the influence of the "nuclear family" is already being felt in the urban regions, the rural areas, where most of the Filipinos reside, have retained the local attitudes and customs of the traditional "life style."

#### The Social Structure

The Filipino family have exerted a strong influence in shaping the social structure of Philippine society: a "pyramid" with an extremely broad base and rising to an exceedingly sharp point. At the top of the pyramid are the ruling class or families. Many of them are direct descendants of the early "datus" and the later "caciques." Their power was derived first, from ownership of large tracts of

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<sup>11</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 173.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 174.

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land, and second, from the resulting access to wealth and local influence. Thus, as might be expected, only "about 13 families own more than 150,000 acres of land, and only two per cent (2%) of Filipino families account for 47 per cent of the national personal income."<sup>13</sup>

The bottom of the pyramid is found 80 per cent of the Filipinos who live in poverty. They live by subsistence farming in the countryside or by menial occupations in the city slums. Their poverty however, is not simple to measure. The rural family largely manages without cash, and a monetary value cannot be placed on his poverty. He has no newspaper, telephone, plumbing, electricity and television sets. However, the rural family does not relate to these on their farms. Perhaps, as one writer concluded:

What is most relevant to poverty in the Philippines is to be found in the farmer's relationship to his land, the terms in which he works on it, the methods he uses, and the depth of his indebtedness.<sup>14</sup>

These are the circumstances which determine how much the family can earn and produce, how free it is to move and at what point it will occupy on the social pyramid.

Separating the rich at the top and the poor at the bottom of the pyramid, is the thin and narrow strip of the middle class. This short segment harbors not one but two: (1) the native Filipino, and (2) the Chinese. As early as the first half of the century, the Chinese community have virtually taken over the retail and wholesale

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<sup>13</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 195.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 197.

trades in the Philippines. Most of them have become Filipino citizens now, but they still educate their children in their own Chinese schools, and surround themselves with protective associations. Conversely, the Filipinos with enough resourcefulness have gone into the professions and the government jobs in the cities, while most have remained in the farms.

The middle class is steadily growing, but they are still relatively few. One estimate placed their number at only twelve per cent (12%) of the population. While viewed as likely to be the chief agents of social and economic change in the Philippines, the middle class has thus far channeled their energies into their own personal advancement and that of their families, instead of into the efforts of national social reform.

### Population

Lastly, a concise statement regarding the population of the Philippines: its present number, the extent of its spread, and the nature of its distribution. These are the factors that perhaps, have the most important influence in determining the direction of the nation's growth and change in the future.

Present Number.--A rapid and constant increase of population have characterized the growth rate of population in the Philippines. In 1877, when the first national census was taken under the Spanish Administration, there were only 5,568,000 Filipinos. A decade later, it increased to 5,985,000 with a 1.6 intercensal rate of growth. When the next census was taken in 1903, the population rose to 7,635,000; and fifteen years later, to 10,314,000 in 1918. By 1939, with a 2.2

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yearly rate of growth, the population increased to approximately 16,000,000 people. The intervening World War II in the early 1940's had some significant effect on the rate of population growth of the country. After a decade since the last census was taken in 1939, only about 3 million Filipinos were added in 1948. But after the war, the population of the Philippines sharply increased to 27,088,000 and the rate of growth was a high 32.3 per 1000 population. Present estimates have placed the figures at roughly 37,000,000 people in 1970 (see Table 1). Demographers have observed that while it took little more than 90 years from the time of the first Spanish census to the most recent count in 1960 to have a 386 per cent change, it will only take 20 years to have a 100 per cent increase in population.

Distribution.--The population in the Philippines, similar to most developing countries, is relatively young (see Table 1). As of the 1960 census, 46.2 per cent were under 15 years old; 51.2 per cent were between the ages of 16 and 64; and only 2.6 per cent were over 65 years old. Later, it will be shown that as the nation matures, the population is growing even younger.

Using the traditional geographic subdivision of the Philippines into the three zones, that is, Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao, an overview of the population distribution as of 1960 yields the following generalizations (see Table 2). Somewhat less than one-half of the total population (46%) resided on and near Luzon on just over one-third (35%) of the total land area; about one-third (30%) lived in the Visayas on about one-fifth (19%) of the area; and slightly under one-fifth (19%) lived on or near Mindanao on almost one-third (31%) of the total land area.

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TABLE 1.--Philippine Population by Age and Sex 1960 and 1970 (in thousands)

| Age (years)      | 1960 (census)   |         | 1970 (estimate) |         |
|------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------------|---------|
|                  | Male            | Female  | Male            | Female  |
| 0-4              | 2555.3          | 2462.4  | 3561.4          | 3441.3  |
| 5-9              | 2072.5          | 2001.1  | 2860.4          | 2774.3  |
| 10-14            | 1740.7          | 1680.1  | 2411.8          | 2329.2  |
| 15-19            | 1460.8          | 1409.2  | 2018.7          | 1948.6  |
| 20-24            | 1216.5          | 1174.4  | 1682.9          | 1625.8  |
| 25-29            | 1008.1          | 974.1   | 1396.4          | 1350.4  |
| 30-34            | 834.4           | 806.7   | 1156.7          | 1118.9  |
| 35-39            | 650.1           | 666.7   | 955.2           | 925.1   |
| 40-44            | 526.6           | 459.4   | 784.5           | 739.3   |
| 45-49            | 444.3           | 444.3   | 601.6           | 624.4   |
| 50-54            | 531.1           | 363.9   | 474.6           | 505.7   |
| 55-59            | 271.8           | 288.8   | 384.3           | 402.2   |
| 60-64            | 206.4           | 222.2   | 285.2           | 310.6   |
| 65-69            | 145.8           | 162.1   | 200.4           | 227.5   |
| 70-74            | 94.1            | 108.3   | 130.6           | 152.7   |
| 75-79            | 54.5            | 62.7    | 73.0            | 89.4    |
| 80+              | 29.9            | 43.0    | 45.3            | 59.6    |
| Totals           | 13662.9         | 13424.8 | 19023.0         | 18648.2 |
| Total Population | 27,087.7 (1960) |         | 37,671.2 (1970) |         |

Source: F. W. Lorimer, "Analysis and Projections of the Population of the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1966), p. 295.

TABLE 2.--Philippine Population by Region 1960 and 1970 (in thousands)

| Region <sup>a</sup> | 1960 (census) | 1970 (estimate) |
|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| A                   | 1,139         | 1,332           |
| B                   | 981           | 2,307           |
| C                   | 279           | 450             |
| D                   | 196           | 292             |
| II                  | 1,470         | 1,831           |
| III                 | 1,036         | 1,504           |
| IV                  | 3,691         | 4,694           |
| V                   | 2,776         | 3,885           |
| VI                  | 2,363         | 3,177           |
| VII                 | 3,210         | 2,771           |
| VIII                | 4,564         | 5,204           |
| IX                  | 3,273         | 6,183           |
| X                   | 2,111         | 3,041           |
| Total               | 27,089        | 37,671          |

Source: Second Conference on Population, ed. by Mercedes Conception. (Manila, Philippines: Community Publishers, Inc., 1969), p. 141.

<sup>a</sup>A = The City of Manila.

B = Areas included in Greater Manila in the 1960 Census: Caloocan City, Makati, Mandaluyong, Paranaque, Pasay City, Quezon City and San Juan.

C = Additional areas to be included in Greater Manila: Las Pinas, Malabon, Marikina, Navotas, Pasig, Pateros and Taguig.

D = Rest of Rizal Province.

II = Ilocos Region: Abra, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, La Union, and Mountain Province.

III = Cagayan Valley Region: Batanes, Cagayan, Isabela, Nueva Viscaya.

IV = Central Luzon Region: Bataan, Bulacan, Nueva Ecija, Pampanga, Pangasinan, Tarlac and Zambales.

V = Southern Tagalog Region: Batangas, Cavite, Laguna, Marinduque, Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Palawan and Quezon.

VI = Bicol Region: Albay, Camarines Norte, Camarines Sur, Catanduanes, Masbate, and Sorsogon.

VII = Western Visayas Region: Aklan, Antique, Capiz, Iloilo, Negros Occidental and Romblon.

VIII = Central and Eastern Visaya: Bohol, Cebu, Negros Oriental, Leyte and Samar.

IX = Southern Mindanao and Sulu: Cotabato, Davao Oriental, Davao del Norte, Davao del Sur, Zamboanga del Norte, Zamboanga del Sur, and Sulu.

X = Northern Mindanao: Agusan, Bukidnon, Lanao del Norte, Lanao del Sur, Misamis Occidental, Misamis Oriental, and Surigao.

At the regional level, slightly less than one-third of the total population (29%) resided in Central Luzon, in and around the central plain, Manila Bay and Laguna de Bay, in an area comprising about one-tenth (10.6%) of the total area. Within the Visayas, about 5 per cent of the total population lived on or near Cebu on 1.6 per cent of the total area. In Mindanao, there are fewer zones of high population concentration, although parts of the north coast already suffer pressure in this respect.

At the provincial level, the most populous province is Rizal, in Central Luzon, adjoining the political district of Manila. Here, 1,463,500 people (5.3% of the total) occupied only 899 square miles (1.77% of the total area) by 1960 in what has become largely as urban landscape forming the sector of the Manila Metropolitan Region. The least populous province is Batanes, a group of islands north of Luzon having only 10,300 people occupying some 74 square miles of land. In addition to Rizal Province, the other populous provinces are, in their rank order: (1) Cebu, (2) Negros Occidental, (3) Leyte, (4) Pangasinan, and (5) Cotabato, each having more than one million people in 1960.

The population in the cities is increasing. More recently, the cities have become the focus of problems that arise out of a rapid rate of in-migration and consequent urbanization. Metropolitan Manila rises as the focal center of urbanization within the Philippines. The population of the metropolitan Manila region in 1960 approached 2,200,000 of which about one-half resided in the City of Manila itself. There are 39 chartered cities outside the City of Manila and

only a few of these cities showed a significant increase in urban population. These are Cebu City in Cebu, with an urban population of 25,200; Ilo-ilo City in Panay Province, with 151,200 people; and Davao City in Davao, with 93,100 urban residents.

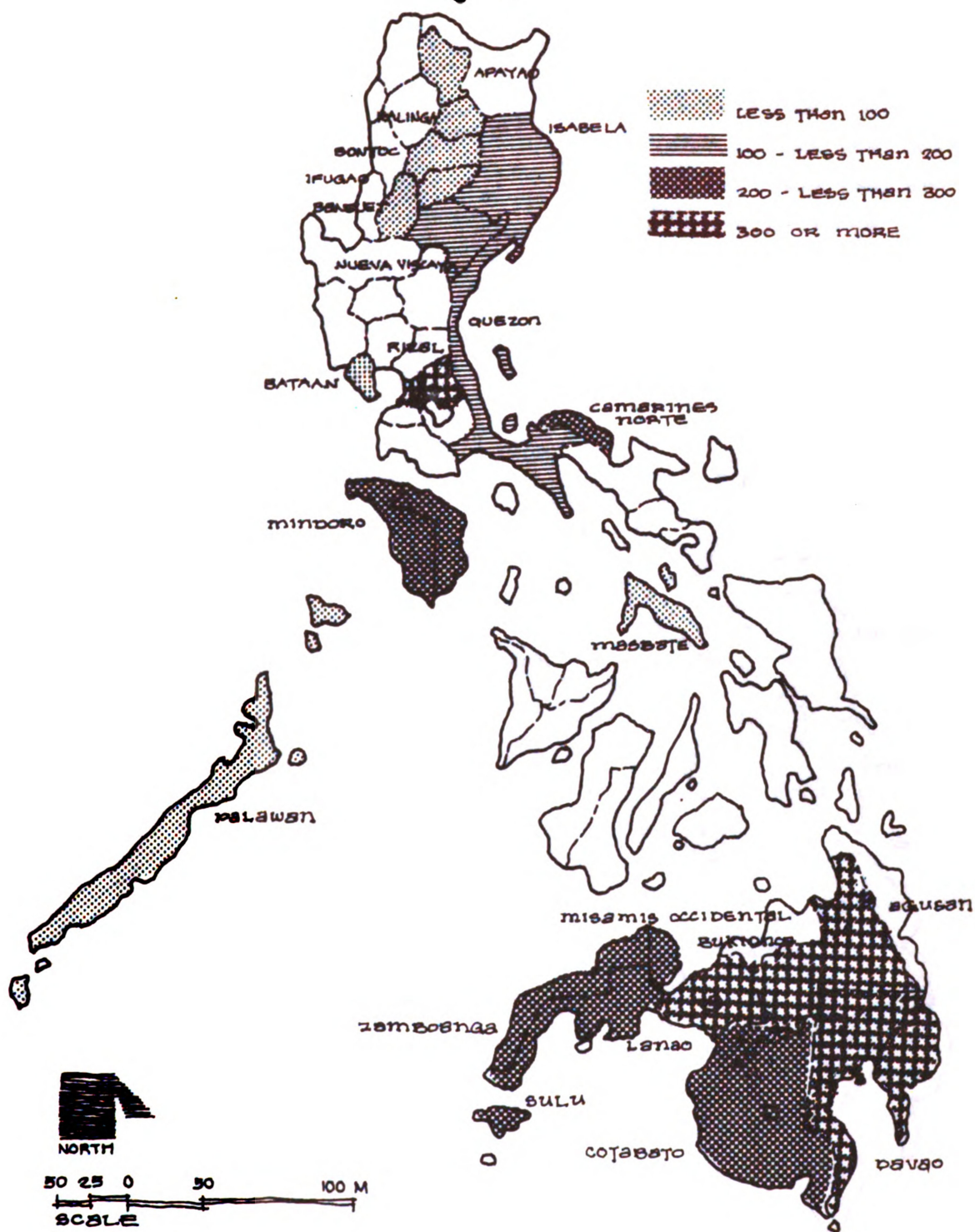
A United Nations study placed the annual percentage rate of increase of population residing in cities with population of 100,000 or over at 3.75.<sup>15</sup> In 1960, the urban population of the Philippines was composed of 3.9 million or 14.2 per cent of the total population. However, the majority of the Filipinos (23.3 million or 85.8 per cent) resided in the rural areas. As to sex distribution, 13.8 per cent of the total males were living in the urban areas, and of the total females, 14.6 per cent were urban dwellers.<sup>16</sup> This aspect of the population have recently become increasingly significant in planning studies.

Internal Migration.--Migration to urban areas within the country is an appreciable proportion with the figure placed at 39 per cent. Recent studies indicate that there is extensive immigration to relatively few provinces (see Figures 10 and 11). The bulk of the immigrants are concentrated in Rizal Province (703,329) which include Metropolitan Manila, Cotabato Province (523,037), Davao Province (397,666), and Zamboanga del Sur (374,805). Other provinces with more than 100,000 immigrants are Camarines Sur, Lanao del Sur, Lanao

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<sup>15</sup>United Nations, Compendium of Social Statistics, United Nations Publications (Sales No. 63.xvii.3), 1963, p. 86.

<sup>16</sup>The population living in cities in 1960 was used as the definition of urban population.



Source: Elvira Pascual, "Internal Migration in the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: IM Press, 1966), p. 350.

Figure 10.--Intensity of Net In-Migration by Provinces 1948-1960



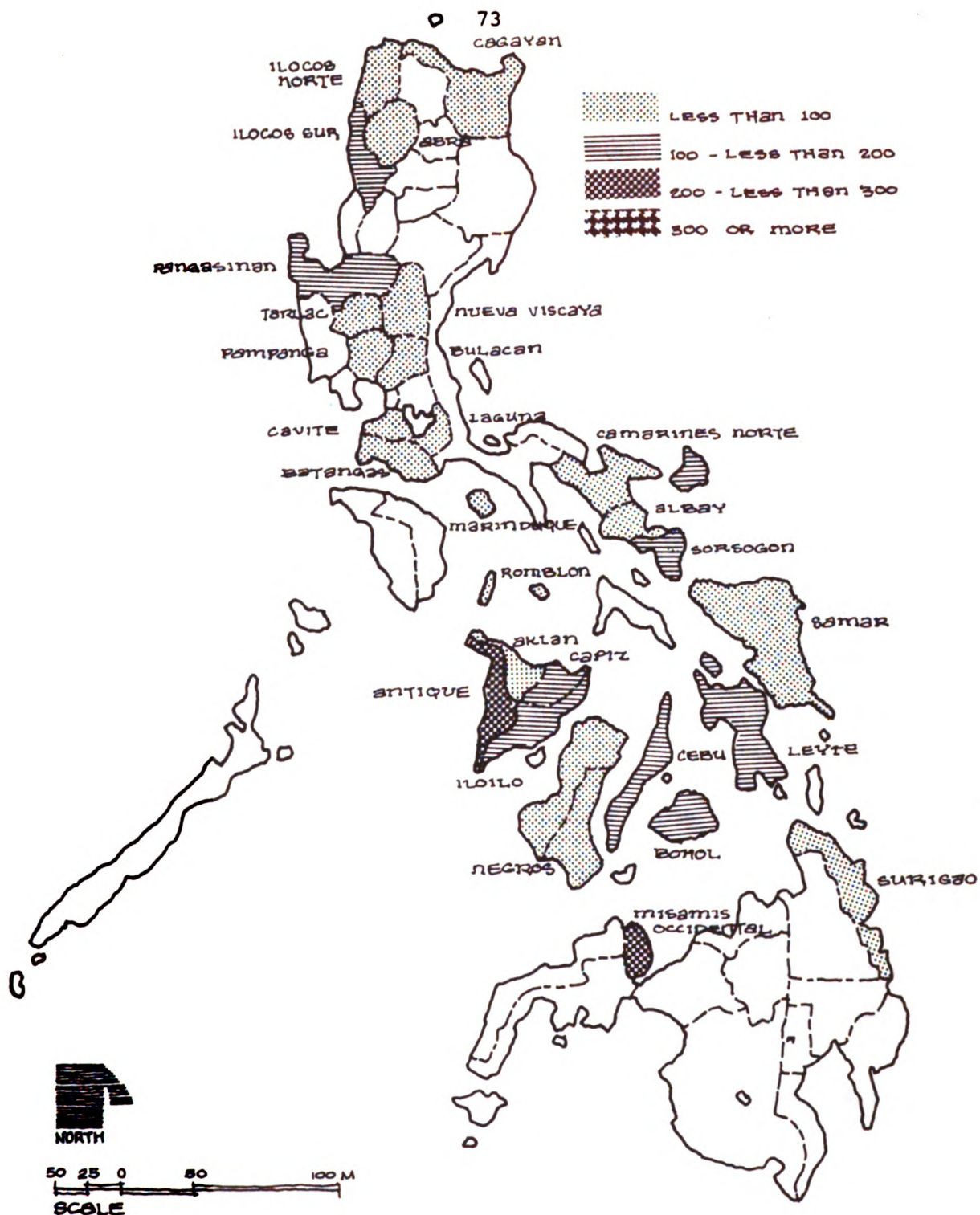
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Source: Elvira Pascual, "Internal Migration in the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: IM Press, 1966), p. 350.

Figure 11.--Intensity of Net Out-Migration by Provinces 1948-1960

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del Norte and Agusan.<sup>17</sup> The places of origin is also concentrated in a few provinces, especially in the Visayas region: Cebu (475,356), Leyte (377,521), Ilo-ilo (293,326), and Bohol (240,074). Other provinces with more than 100,000 out-migrants in the period 1948 to 1960 are Pangasinan, Ilocos Sur, Ilocos Norte and Misamis Occidental.<sup>18</sup>

It is interesting to note, from a recent demographic study, that "for some of the regions, the basic stream of in-migration headed for the urban areas, but for the other regions, a good proportion of the in-migrants moved to the rural areas."<sup>19</sup> The study revealed, further, that in Western Visayas, 59 per cent of the migrants were residing in the urban part of the region, although the region is only 11 per cent urban. On the other hand, in Central Luzon and North-eastern Mindanao, among other regions, a good portion of the in-migrant population was located in the rural areas.

The "pull" of the place of destination appears to be the dominant cause of internal migration. The primary motive is still that of putting one's self at a better earning advantage by relocation.<sup>20</sup> The minor reasons include population pressures at place of origin, hope for better living standards at place of destination,

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<sup>17</sup> Frederick Wernstedt, Philippine Island World: Physical, Cultural and Regional Geography (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1967), p. 637.

<sup>18</sup> Ibid., p. 637.

<sup>19</sup> Elvira Pascual, "Internal Migration in the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1966) 345.

<sup>20</sup> Ibid., p. 353.

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as well as the promise of farm land ownership. A number of recent improvements have also caused these displacements, among which are better and more extensive system of transportation, better knowledge of the heretofore unexplored and insecure South, and the rise of some industries in the rural areas of the country.

The characteristics of the population of a country is probably the single most important factor that determines the direction of its growth and change. The nature of its distribution and the characteristics of its spread or internal migration have crucial ramifications on the form of settlement patterns. More importantly, the nature and characteristics of a nation's population play an important role in influencing the administrative policy decisions regarding the proper and equitable distribution of development resources, their utilization and their conservation.

#### Economic Resources

To discuss the complex economic institutions of the Philippines would require volumes. However, for the purposes of this study, the topics will be limited to the following: (1) the agricultural economy, (2) the industrial and other economic resources, and (3) the transportation system. These three factors consistently exert considerable influence in the economic growth of the country.

The Philippines is characterized by a dualistic economy. On one hand is the modern monetized sector typified by Manila and its factory-suburbs, and on the other, the traditional non-cash economy of the rural farming sector. The latter is predominant of the two. After more than 20 years of political independence, the Philippines

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is still burdened with a colonial-type and predominantly agricultural economy. This is evident in the fact that farming employed more than 60 per cent of the work force, and earned more than one-third of the national income. Industry employed only 12 per cent of the work force, and accounted for less than one-sixth of the national income.<sup>21</sup>

#### The Agricultural Economy

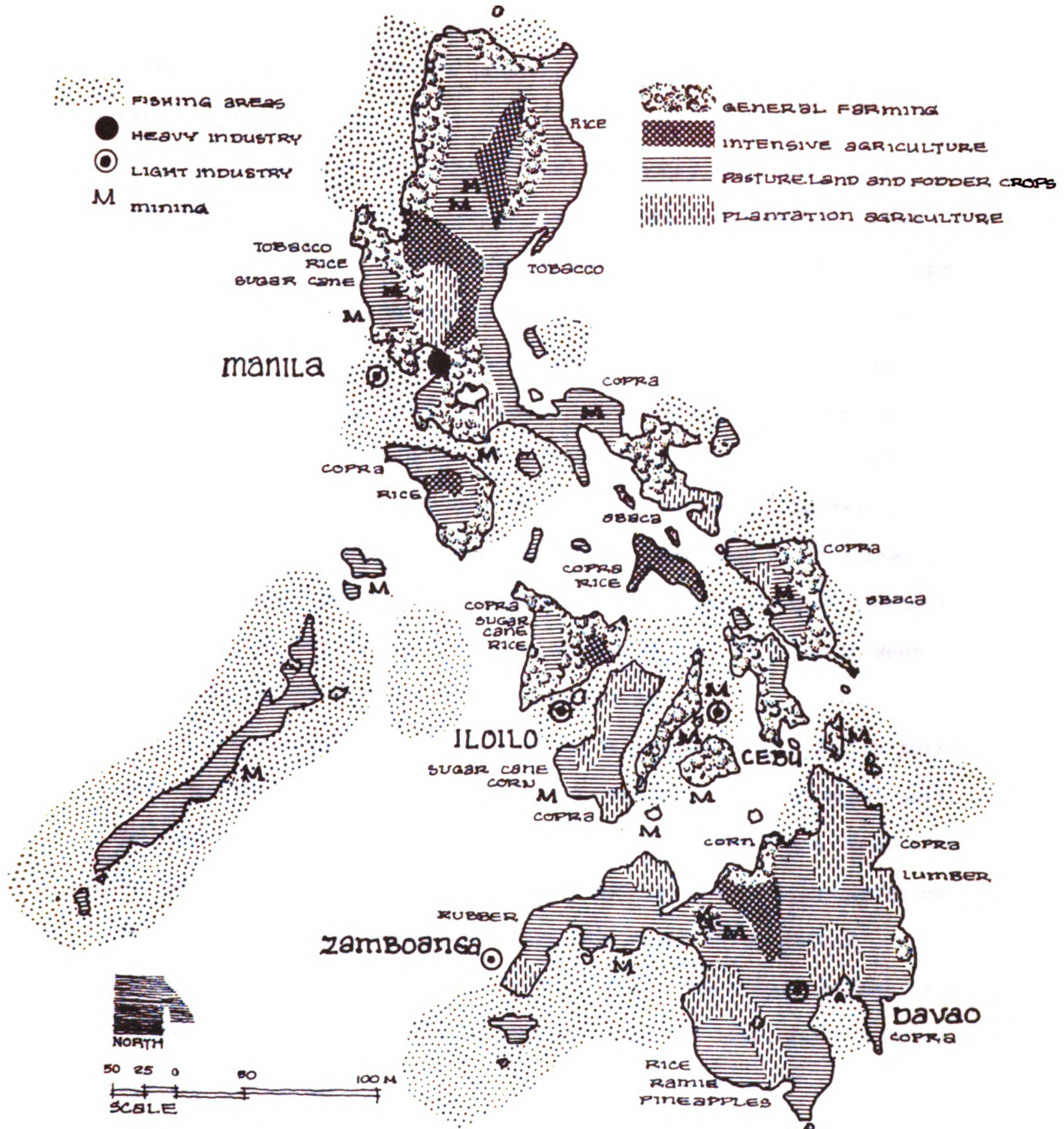
As of 1953, "of the total Philippine land area of 29.7 million hectares (a hectare is equal to 2.47 acres), 6.1 million hectares were under cultivation in land and tree crops and an additional 5.7 million hectares were classified as 'unused but potentially productive'"<sup>22</sup> (see Figure 12). Although these figures are nearly two decades old, it can be projected that agricultural production could be doubled.

Agriculture in the Philippines may be divided into two major categories: (1) crops consumed domestically, and (2) the export crops. Of the export crops, abaca, copra and sugar are among the most important. The production of sugar is concentrated mostly in the Negros province, which produces about 65 per cent of the total. The rich soil and a favorable climate combined there to make the region the most productive crop area in the Philippines. Philippine sugar is marketed almost exclusively in the United States, where it

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<sup>21</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 143.

<sup>22</sup>United Nations, FAO, Yearbook of Food and Agricultural Statistics, 1957, Vol. XI, "Production" (Rome, 1958), p. 5.



Source: "Philippines," Collier's Encyclopedia, 1968, XVIII, p. 168.

Figure 12.--Philippine Economy



enjoys a preferential tariff treatment until 1974 under the Laurel-Langley Agreement.<sup>23</sup>

The second export crop that rivals sugar is "copra" or the meat of the coconut fruit. Being a native tropical palm, it is not surprising that the coconut trade is one of the oldest in the Philippines, dating back to pre-Spanish times. Coconut palms are widely distributed throughout the islands, occupying about 1,000,000 hectares or 16 per cent of the total cropland. The most important are the areas southeast of Manila and parts of eastern and southern Luzon. Other regions are found in the Visayas and Mindanao. A harvest of some 7,000 million coconuts make the Philippines "the world's leading supplier of coconuts and coconut products"<sup>24</sup> especially dried coconut meat or copra, which, together with coconut oil is supplied to meet the demand in the United States and in Europe.

Abaca fiber, commercially known as "Manila hemp," is the third most important export crop. It thrives best in a rich and moist soil, and requires rain throughout the year, conditions which are found in the eastern part of the Philippines. Abaca is therefore concentrated in southeastern Luzon, eastern Visayas and southeast Mindanao. Recently, abaca growing has slowly declined in importance because of a number of problems, including plant disease and competition from metallic and synthetic fibers.

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<sup>23</sup>The Agreement provides that from 1956 to 1958, the Philippines would pay 5 per cent of the regular customs duties; thereafter, the proportion would double every three years, until in 1974, the Philippines would pay the same duties as any other country.

<sup>24</sup>Nelson, The Philippines, p. 145.

The domestic crops of rice and corn are the most important in the country. As of 1957, rice was planted on 2.8 million hectares or 40 per cent of the total land area planted to crops. However, while the Philippines has adequate land area and the proper climate and an ample supply of labor force to produce rice, the country is still plagued each year with shortages, resulting in yields which are "the lowest in the world."<sup>25</sup> Recently, the International Rice Research Institute near Manila discovered a "miracle rice" or the IR-8 hybrid which is capable of producing "fifteen times the average yield in the tropics."<sup>26</sup> However, acceptance by the rural farmer of modern farming methods and the innovative techniques that are required related to the "new seed" remained a problem. Even though the "miracle rice" has helped to cut down imports, production for domestic use is still insufficient.

Next to rice in importance as a food crop is corn, which accounted for 25 per cent of the cropland or 1.8 million hectares in 1957. Corn is cheaper to grow than rice and is the main item in the diet of about 25 per cent of the population, mainly in the Visayas and northern Mindanao.

#### The Industrial and Other Economic Resources

The Philippines is also one of the world's largest lumber producing countries, ranking first in the ratio of forest to total

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<sup>25</sup> Frank Golay, The Philippines: Public Policy and National Economic Development (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1961), p. 78.

<sup>26</sup> Nelson, The Philippines, p. 145.



land area. In recent years, with commercial forest covering 34 per cent of the total land area of the country, "exports of logs, timber, and lumber have accounted for approximately 12 per cent of the export proceeds."<sup>27</sup>

The country is richly endowed with mineral wealth and currently produces substantial amounts of gold, copper, chromite, iron ore, manganese and mercury. These minerals are found in rich deposits in Luzon and Mindanao islands.

With fish coming next to rice in importance in the Filipino diet, fishing as an industry has grown markedly and ranked next to dairy and livestock raising in the number of persons depending upon it for their livelihood.

The most rapidly growing sector of the Philippine economy is manufacturing, which accounted for 17.7 per cent of the national income in 1958 as compared to 7.9 per cent ten years earlier.<sup>28</sup> Though the present manufacturing industries are largely devoted to food processing, they are gradually becoming diversified. Immediately after independence in 1946, the Philippine economy has undergone rapid modernization and industrialization. A number of new and modern industries and factories have developed during this period.

#### The Transportation System

A dominant characteristic of the Philippine economic environment is the physical fragmentation of the country. The insular

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<sup>27</sup> Golay, The Philippines, p. 45.

<sup>28</sup> Corpus, The Philippines, p. 13.

pattern has created distinct spatial areas, and development of the internal market is restrained by the "high cost of transportation and inadequate services."<sup>29</sup> Rail transportation systems and services have experienced limited development on Luzon, with a line extending from La Union Province in the North, through Manila, to Legaspi in the extreme south, a distance of 1,150 miles. Preliminary work is underway which would extend this system to the large and fertile Cagayan Valley in northeastern Luzon. There is also a 72-mile railroad on Panay Province connecting the cities of Capiz and Ilo-ilo, and a 50-mile line on Cebu Province (see Figure 13).

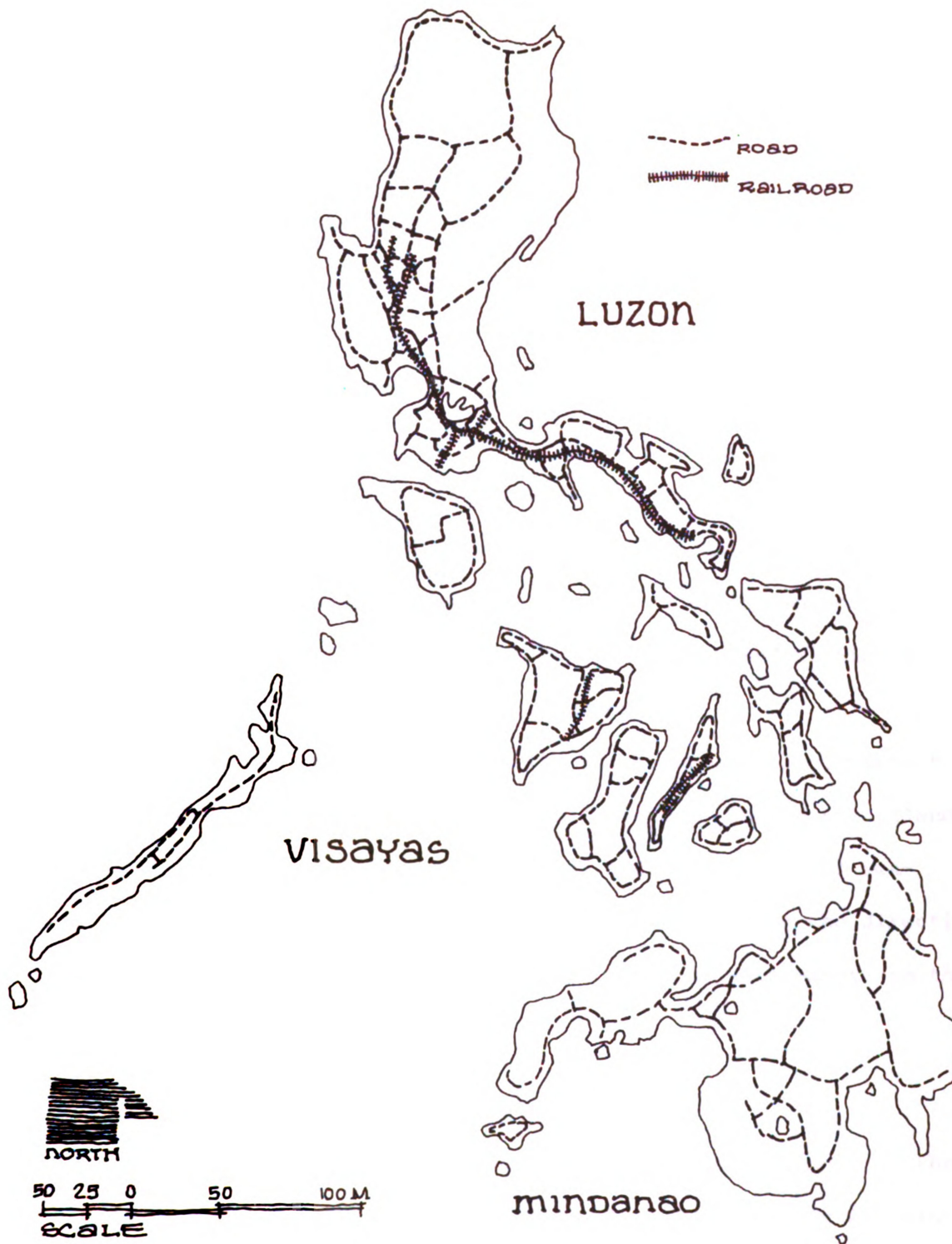
Highway transportation, also handicapped by island configuration, is the principal means of intra-island communications. Road construction and maintenance are centered in the Bureau of Public Highways and the provincial Bureau of Public Works. The road system as of 1965 consisted of approximately 34,582 miles of roads to service 124,000 registered passenger cars and nearly 100,000 buses,<sup>30</sup> about one-third of which cars and buses are registered in Manila. An ambitious Pan-Philippine Highway that stretches from Aparri in northern Luzon to Zamboanga in southern Mindanao, is being proposed. However, funds still have to be raised to start the project.

Inter-island shipping compensates, to a limited extent, for inadequacies of land transportation, and all ports of economic significance receive regular service. A core fleet of about 150

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<sup>29</sup> Joseph Spencer, Land and People in the Philippines (California University of California Press, 1954), pp. 74-85.

<sup>30</sup> Leonardo Casper, "The Philippines," Encyclopedia Americana, Edition, XXI, p. 757.



Source: New World Atlas (Tokyo: Zenkokukyoikutosho Co., 1969).

Figure 13.--Major Highways and Railroad Lines

vessels maintains regular schedules to the major cities in the Philippines (see Figure 14). In addition, nearly 7,000 other vessels, including barges, fishing fleets, special cargo ships, and others, which constitute coastline shipping. Although present facilities may be considered as adequate, the inter-island fleet is rapidly becoming obsolete and many vessels are uneconomical to operate.<sup>31</sup>

Internal air transportation has expanded rapidly since World War II, and all the important islands and population centers receive relatively efficient domestic air service (see Figure 15). Domestic air transportation revenues have been adequate to maintain steady equipment and modernization programs, as well as extensions of services.<sup>32</sup> Air fares also have been relatively low and within the reach of the majority of the urban population.

The transportation system in the Philippines will continue to influence development patterns in the Philippines. Due to the island configuration of the country, the location and improvement of sea-ports and airports will rival the highways in influencing the direction of economic growth, as well as the pattern of human settlements in the future.

#### The Political Institutions

The rural-urban dualism that characterizes the economy of the Philippines and the east-west orientations that dominate the Filipinos'

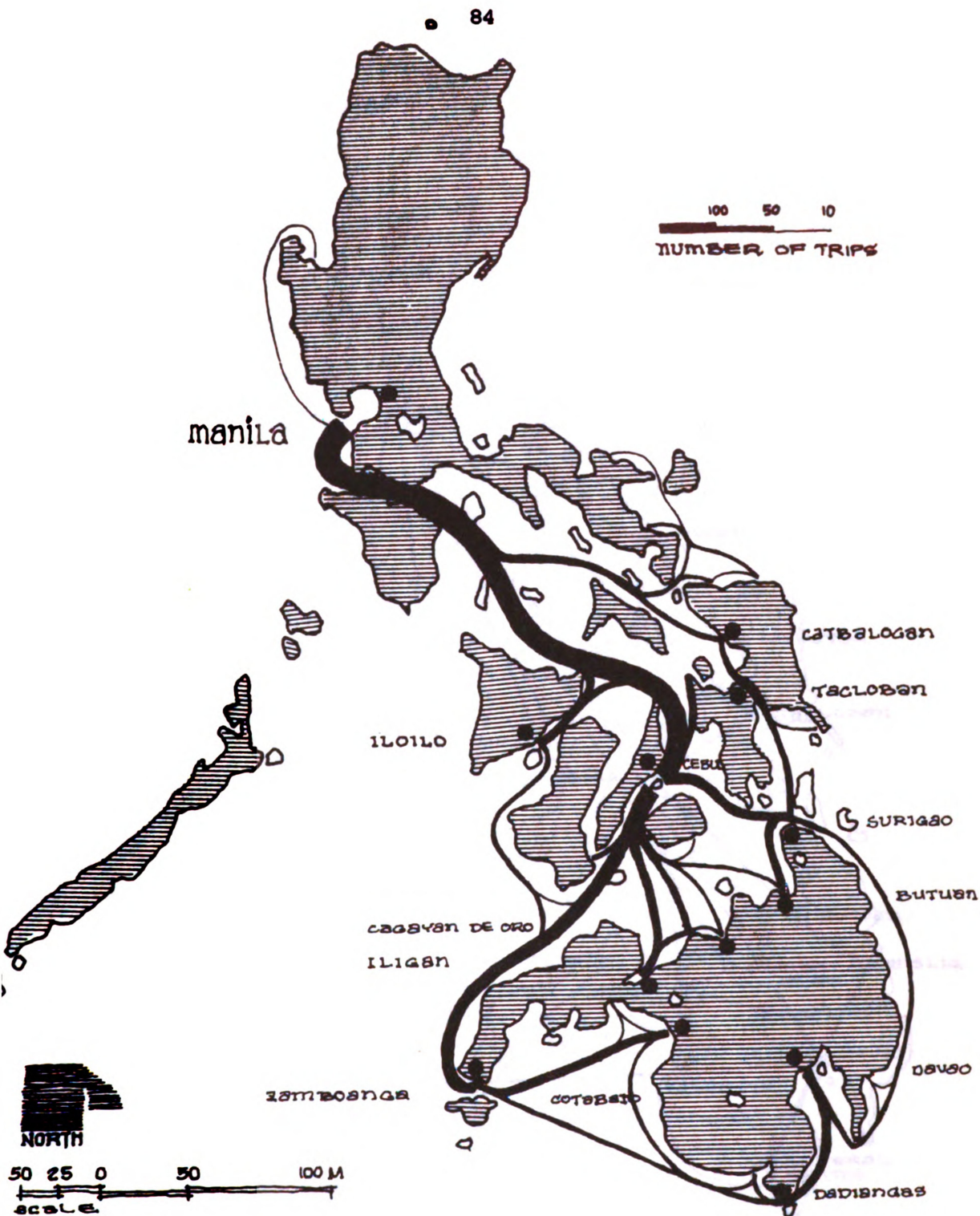
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<sup>31</sup> Frederick Wernstedt, The Role and Importance of Philippine Inter-island Shipping and Trade (Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Press, 1957), p. 130.

<sup>32</sup> Golay, The Philippines, p. 80.

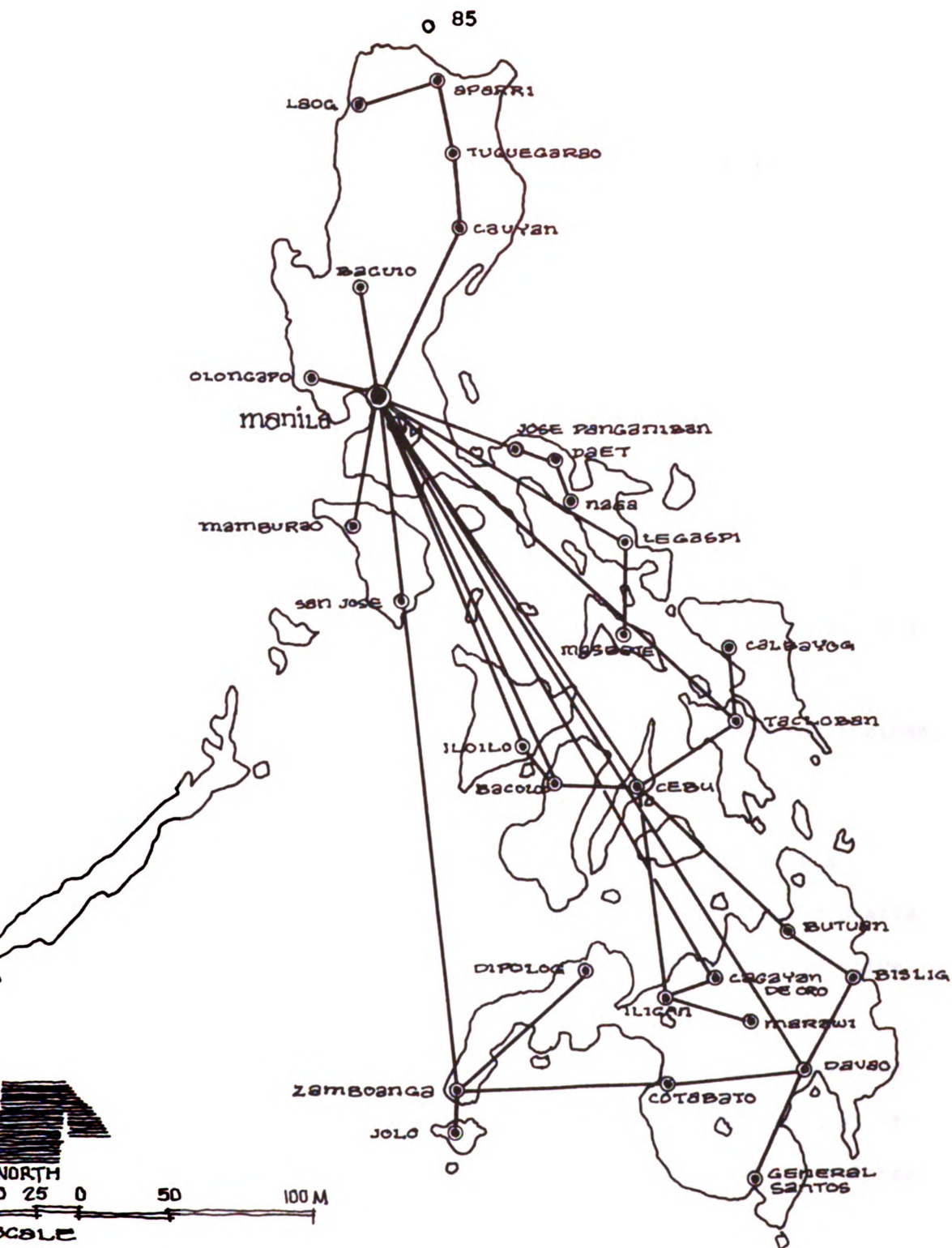






Source: Frederick Wernstedt, The Role and Importance of Philippine Inter-Island Shipping and Trade (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1957), p. 128.

Figure 14.--Routes and Frequency of the Inter-Island Core Fleet



Source: Frederick Wernstedt, The Philippine Island World (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1967), p. 125.

Figure 15.--Routes of the Philippine Air Lines

perceptions and social attitudes extend into the political institutions as well. The system of government in the Philippines blends many of the institutional and dynamic characteristics of the Oriental, the Spanish and the American. Among those characteristics are the highly centralized system of Spain, and in sharp contrast, the American concept of local autonomy. What results is a system that provides, in theory, a significant degree of local autonomy, but in reality, converts the local subdivisions into mere administrative units of the central government. This section will attempt to further elaborate on the system of government in the Philippines by discussing (a) the system of national government, (b) the system of local government, and (c) the national organization for planning. These three entities comprise the political framework for policy planning in the Philippines.

#### The System of National Government

The Philippine government is unitary in structure with a constitution that is closely patterned after that of the United States and which provides for the separation of powers between the executive and the legislative branches of government.

The executive power is vested in the President who is elected for a term of four years and may be re-elected once. The approval of the Commission on Appointments is required after the President selects heads of government department. As Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, he is capable of preventing and suppressing insurrections, national law disobediences, and invasion; and if necessary, to place any part of the country under martial law. The President of

the Philippines has exceptionally broad powers as he also appoints provincial governors and mayors, or may suspend them. He may also grant pardons and commute sentences.

The Vice-President is similarly elected for a term of four years and has more or less a ceremonial role; although in the event of the President's death, he assumes the presidential powers during the unexpired term of office.

The Legislative power is vested in a bicameral congress composed of an Upper House or Senate, with 24 members elected by general suffrage for six-year terms, with one-third of the seats being contested every two years. The House of Representatives or Lower House, has 120 seats apportioned among the different provinces according to population. However, all provinces have at least one representative.

The power of the judiciary is vested in the Supreme Court and in the many minor courts established by law. The Supreme Court is composed of a Chief Justice and 10 Associate Justices who rule upon the constitutionality of many legislative and executive acts, thus providing a check against illegal executive orders and regulations. The judicial system is similar to that of the United States, except that a jury system is not used. Instead, cases are heard by justices.

#### The System of Local Government

At present, the Philippines is divided into 46 provinces, each consisting of cities and municipalities. The provinces are essentially administrative units of the national government. Every

province has its own Governor, heading a "provincial board" with two other members. This board is the legislative organization of the provincial government. Their main functions are to approve the provincial budget, approve minor appointments of the Governor, and review municipal ordinances for their legality. The Province, however, has only a limited degree of autonomy. The central government appoints the heads of departments of the provincial government, who are all serving under their respective departments in the central administration. The Province has no power to tax and is dependent for revenue on allotments allocated to it by the national and municipal governments.

The municipality is a public corporation formed by an act of Congress. It consists of a town center called "poblacion" and a surrounding area separated into the village units called "barrios." It has a Mayor, Vice-Mayor, Counsilors and assistants called "teniente del barrio" or barrio lieutenants who are responsible for the maintenance of peace and order in their respective barrios. All other officials in the municipal government are appointed by the central administration. Similar to the provinces, the municipalities have extremely limited fiscal powers. Thus, the municipality also depends on the allocation of funds by the central administration for a major portion of its revenue. The responsibility of the municipal department heads is to their provincial counterparts, and ultimately to the central departmental offices.

Cities are former municipalities which are relatively more developed, that is, they have reached a certain level of income.

Most of the cities are chartered cities, which are created by a special act of Congress. At present, there are 39 chartered cities, including Manila and the official capital, Quezon City. Each of these cities has a City Council, which levies and collects taxes in accordance with the law, and also makes by-laws. In addition, it maintains a local police force and is responsible for public works. However, like the provinces and municipalities, the city also has exceedingly little autonomy and serves merely as an administrative agency of the national authorities. The President, for example, has the power to appoint and remove many of the Councilors and Mayors. The Mayor of the city, moreover, does not have the power to appoint department heads; rather, they are named by the corresponding heads of the national departments to whom they are directly responsible.

The barrio, the smallest unit of local government, is headed by a barrio lieutenant (teniente del barrio) who is assisted by one or more deputy barrio lieutenants. They become ex-officio members of the barrio council, together with three other councilmen. While the barrio government is given certain functions to perform, it is not granted the authority to raise revenue, reducing its role to a passive participant in government affairs, a fate that befalls all the other local political units.

#### National Organization Planning

The national organization for planning in the Philippines is presently in considerable confusion. This is largely due to the serious overlapping and gaps in their functions and responsibilities.

Dubious administrative powers that heavily rely on presidential and congressional support, which, in turn, are highly dependent on political and party affiliations, add to the dilemma. For the purposes of this study, four bodies or agencies may be singled out as having direct or should have direct influence in the formulation of development policies (see Figure 16). These are: (1) the National Economic Council (NEC), (2) the National Planning Commission (NPC), (3) the Program Implementation Agency (PIA), and (4) the Regional Development Authorities (RDA).

The National Economic Council.--The National Economic Council, established in 1935, is responsible for long-range economic development planning in the Philippines. This statutory body consists of a full-time chairman and 10 members. Three of the members are appointed to represent business, agriculture, and labor, respectively; three are heads of government agencies who serve as ex-officio members; two of the members are appointed from the Senate and the remaining two are from the House of Representatives. Among its responsibilities, the NEC is empowered "to establish goals for public and private investments, to fix priorities for development projects and to make recommendations on national economic policies."<sup>33</sup> In order to fulfill its varied functions, the NEC has three staff offices: (1) the Office of National Planning, (2) the Office of Foreign Aid and Coordination, and (3) the Office of Statistical Coordination and Standards. The Office of National Planning is the more important office in terms of

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<sup>33</sup>Clair Wilcox, The Planning and Execution of Economic Development in Southeast Asia, Occasional papers in international affairs, no. 10 (Center for International Affairs, Harvard University, 1965), p. 9.



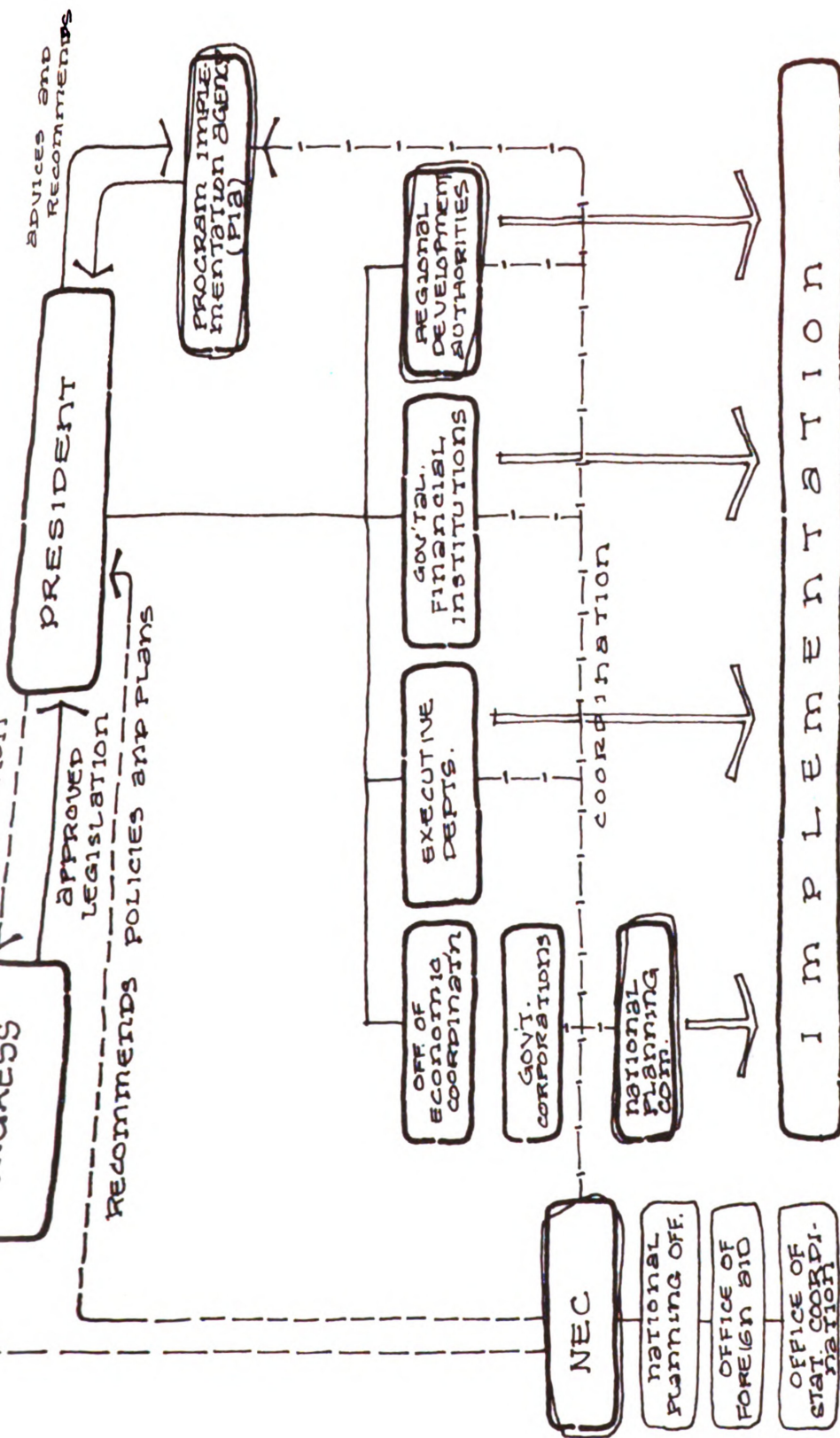


Figure 16.--Organization for Planning in the Philippines



developing national policies. It is responsible for the planning of agricultural resources, industry, trade and commerce, finance, services, including public utilities, and social welfare programs.

The National Planning Commission.--The National Planning

Commission, established in 1950 as a government corporation, is the central physical planning body in charge of the preparation of the general plans, zoning ordinances, subdivision regulations and building codes for the cities and other local units of government. At present, it is in charge of about 2,000 planning areas composed of municipalities and townsites, and about 50 cities.<sup>34</sup> As of May, 1965, the NPC has received requests for local planning assistance from 49 local units of government, and has 100 towns, 17 cities and 8 provinces having planning boards under it.<sup>35</sup>

The Program Implementation Agency.--The Program Implementation

Agency or the Presidential Economic Staff, whose authority was set forth in an Executive Order in August 1962, was established as a technical staff agency. Its main function is advising the President regarding the decision he must make affecting the allocation of development resources.<sup>36</sup> The PIA or PES was to establish criteria to govern investment in both the public and private sectors. This included the analysis, evaluation, coordination of department and agency

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<sup>34</sup>Conception, Philippine Population in the Seventies, p. 305.

<sup>35</sup>R. P. Poethig, "Needed: Philippine Urban Growth Centers," Statistics, CXVII (May, 1964), 385.

<sup>36</sup>Wilcox, The Planning and Execution of Economic Development,

programs and projects, the initiation of additional projects, the determination of priorities and the allocation of resources among them.

The Regional Development Authorities.--The Regional Develop-

ment Authorities are the planning agencies at the regional level.

These are patterned after the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) in the United States. They were established by Congress to prepare "comprehensive plans" for regional social and economic development. As mentioned earlier, however, they have predominantly remained dormant and ineffective. There are 11 regional authorities established by law, but only four are operational. Of these four, "only the Laguna Lake Authority appeared to have exerted any degree of influence in the direction of regional growth."<sup>37</sup>

While the functions of the agencies mentioned above are defined by legislation, their powers are vague and largely uncoordinated in practice. The NPC, for example, has remained in the dark, far from the arena of any national decision-making. It is seldom mentioned in any Philippine planning literature. Planning is equated almost solely with economic planning. The PIA has practically usurped the powers of the NEC due to the PIA's proximity to the President. The PIA was supposed to implement plans, but it turned out to be a misnomer; "it is interested in annual planning and budgeting, not with implementation."<sup>38</sup> The implementation of plans is now left to the various agencies and executive departments.

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<sup>37</sup> Samonte, "Regional Development Authorities," p. 115.

<sup>38</sup> Wilcox, The Planning and Execution of Economic Development,

Additional administrative and other related problems will be discussed in the next chapter. At the moment, it may be said that planning in the Philippines is the responsibility of a number of agencies, with the final decision-making focused at the chief executive level in the Office of the President.

The four planning components, forming the structural framework for policy planning, have thus far been presented without emphasizing their problems, except for the political aspects, which introduced some conflicts. The failures of development planning in the Philippines, however, has been caused by problems which are not the monopoly of inefficiencies in the administrative machinery. Rather, they encompass all of the four planning dimensions, stressed in Chapter II of this thesis. The congestion in the cities and the spread of slums and squatter settlements, the negative social attitudes and unfavorable consequences of traditional values, the widespread poverty and inefficient economic systems, as well as the administrative inefficiencies and deficiencies, these are a few of the disturbing problems that will be discussed in the next chapter. They are the seemingly hopeless and inextricable dilemmas that confront the policy planner and the planning process in the Philippines in the decade of the 70's.

## CHAPTER IV

### PROBLEMS, TRENDS AND POTENTIALS

In order to more fully comprehend the framework for policy planning in the Philippines, the problems that beset the contemporary society of the country must be recognized. Future trends must be realized, as well as the potentials or the changes that could somehow create a more livable environment for the Filipinos in the future. The problems are not difficult to find. There is the squalor and the misery of the slums and squatter settlements in the urban areas. There is the constant struggle within the Filipino, of dualistic, ambiguous and conflicting values--one is inherent and traditional, while the other is foreign and imposed by the rapid rate of urbanization and technological changes. There are the inequities in the distribution of economic resources and an economic system where the rich get richer and the desperately poor get poorer. There are the innumerable administrative inefficiencies--graft and corruption, incompetence, nepotism, conflicting functions of an inefficient bureaucracy. However, the existing problems can also become future opportunities. A discussion on trends and potentials, which include the increasing population, the shifting economy, the changing social

structure and the dawn of national awareness all promise to offer some hope for a coming renaissance.

### Problems

By 1990, the world will be on the verge of becoming predominantly urban. But it is not so much the growing numbers as the distribution of population or the shift from rural to urban areas that complicates the development process today. "Whereas only 100 million people were urban in the developing region in 1920, 930 million people are expected to be urban in 1980, a nine-fold growth in only 60 years."<sup>1</sup> In only 20 years, between 1960 and 1980, the developing world "will more than double its urban population."<sup>2</sup> The houses, power systems, sanitation, schools, the whole urban structure, together with the people's attitudes and values, the economic resources and the administrative machinery, will all have to change and grow proportionately, if development is to be beneficial. This is where the root cause of the problem is found. However, prior to discussing the nature of this crisis, it is necessary to put these problems in their proper perspective by considering the causes that bring about urbanization in the developing countries similar to the Philippines.

Comparisons between the developed countries and the developing nations have suggested that "there has been, in the past, considerable

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<sup>1</sup>United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Urbanization in the Second United Nations Development Decade, United Nations Publications (ST/ECA/132), 1970, p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 8.

variation in the course of urbanization and its relationship to economic and social development, not only between countries at different periods of history, but also within a given period of history, and that future social and economic trends in the lightly urbanized, economically emerging countries may be very different from those observed in the now urbanized, highly developed ones.<sup>3</sup>

Four major differences between the move toward an urban society in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in the developing nations as against the developed countries may be identified:<sup>4</sup>

1. Pre-industrial urban growth: Many large cities in the developing countries grew up ahead of any systematic movement toward modernization. The economic and political climate during their past growth were colonial, and they have failed to grow, as the cities of Europe and North America, in the wake of local diversification and sustained development. In a sense, they were larger than and ahead of the economy sustaining them.
2. Rapid population growth: The growth of population in the developing nations had been explosive and was followed by lower death rates and higher birth rates, due to the conquest of major epidemics and other health hazards and better sanitation facilities. Again, these happened ahead of full

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<sup>3</sup>United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Urbanization: Development Policies and Planning, United Nations Publications (ST/SOA/Ser. x/1), 1968, p. 25.

<sup>4</sup>United Nations, Urbanization in the Second Development Decade, pp. 10-15.

economic diversification, so now, the population have outgrown the resources of the economy they were supposed to expand.

3. Lagging transformation in agriculture: The decisive changes in agricultural structure, productivity and food production which created the vital surpluses above subsistence level and preceded the growth of industrial nations in Europe and North America, have begun to occur on a sufficient scale only in the past three or four years in the developing countries. In the Philippines, for example, despite the abundance of tropical resources, the country still has to import rice and fish, the people's staple food.
4. Rapid urbanization and low industrialization: Comparison between a number of developed countries in their earlier stages of development and developing countries at this time make clear in any case that the percentage of people living in cities is much lower than that of the working force in industry. In the developed countries, the percentage of the working force in industry is always higher than that of the population living in the cities. The profile in the developing countries is the contrary; urbanization is ahead of industrialization.

These are the four unique conditions that formed the background of changes and growth of a developing country at this time. Realizing this, the problems in the Philippines can now be viewed in their proper perspective. This understanding is imperative if

decision-makers are to develop appropriate and sound policies and programs to solve the pressing problems that confront contemporary Philippines.

#### The Physical Problems

With a high rate of population increase, together with a sudden surge of rural migrants to the urban centers, Philippine cities are slowly turning into huge, congested and deteriorated slums.

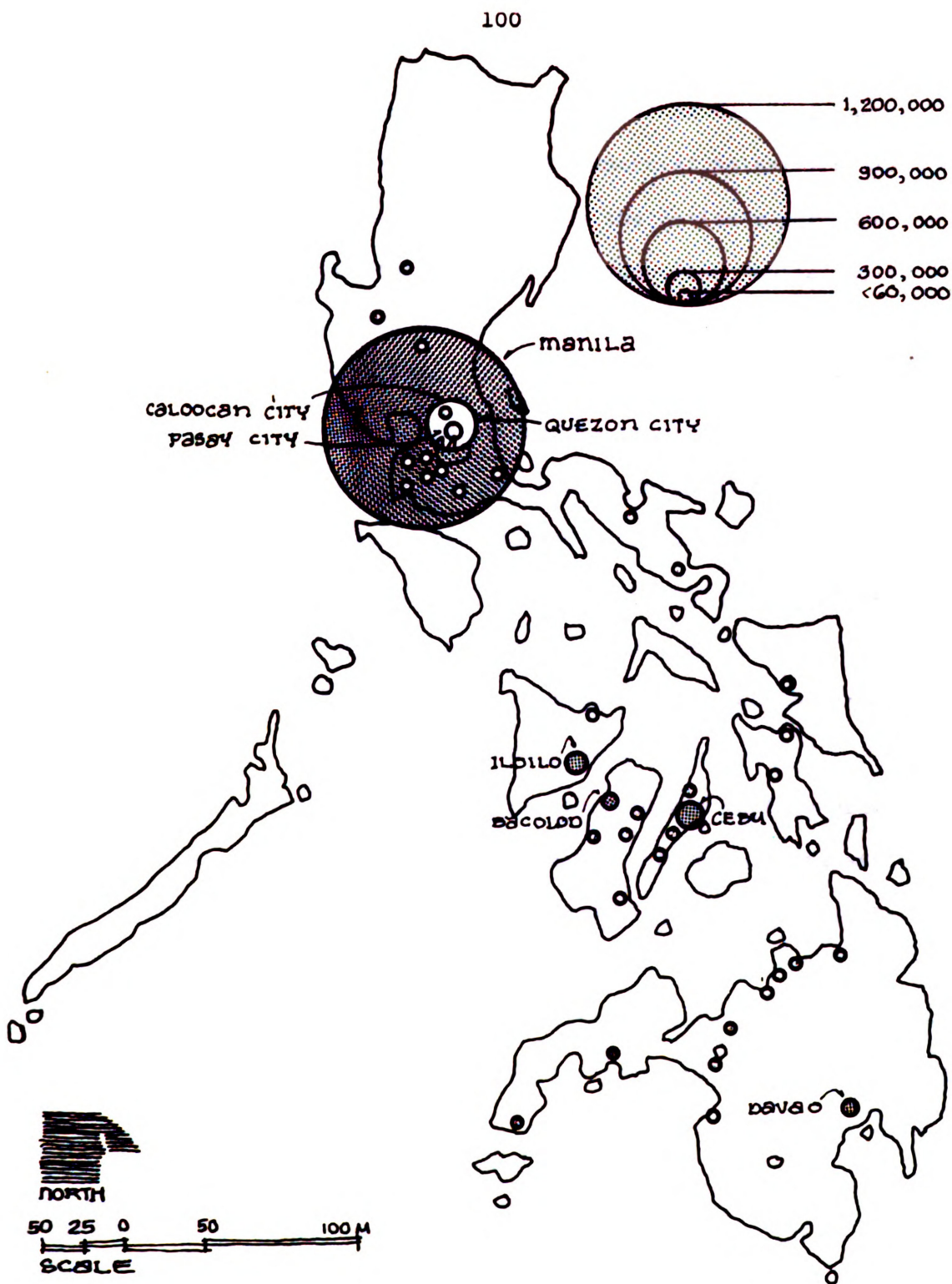
Crisis in the Primate City.--The sudden and massive influx of rural migrants into cities have produced in the developing nations, the phenomenon of the "primate city." In the Philippines, the Metropolitan Manila Region has become the "primate city." Roughly, the boundaries of metropolitan Manila extend to a radius of about 80 miles from the center of the City of Manila. Covering an area of only about 90,500 acres. Its population increased from 898,211 in 1939 to 1,366,840 in 1948 and to 2,135,705 by 1960, half of which reside in the City of Manila itself. An observation of the comparison of the urban populations in the cities clearly show the dominance of Metropolitan Manila over the entire Philippines (see Figure 17).

Metropolitan Manila is the country's economic, educational, political and cultural center. It employs 40 per cent of the country's nonagricultural labor force and provides more than one-half of the total manufacturing payroll.<sup>5</sup> Within Metropolitan Manila are 90 of the country's 100 largest corporations, 50 of these are in the City of Manila alone. All but one of the major Philippine and foreign

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<sup>5</sup>Bureau of Census and Statistics, Annual Survey of Manufacturers, Vol. 1-V, 1956-1960 (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1962).





Source: Adopted from data from Frederick Wernstedt, The Philippine Island World (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1967), p. 635.

Figure 17.--Population Estimates of Urban Areas of Chartered Cities

banks have their main offices in the area. All of the major newspapers, most of the radio stations, and commercial television stations are located in it. Metropolitan Manila is the nation's port and the hub of all transportation facilities.<sup>6</sup> Metropolitan Manila is, of course, also the seat of the national government and the nerve-center of the country's political life. One study found out that "the majority of the senators and administrators trace their birth or origin to Metropolitan Manila and the immediate provinces."<sup>7</sup>

The concentration of commerce and trade and of the political elite in one locus have created an uncontrolled and rapid concentration of social and economic resources leading to "over-urbanization,"<sup>8</sup> a condition that has created serious consequences in the metropolitan areas of the developing countries:

There is first of all, the uncontrolled and rapidly growing demands and needs of the people that strains the whole infra-structure. Public facilities and services such as health care, education, transportation, electricity, roads, sanitation, police and fire protection, will all have to be constructed, improved and maintained and expanded. The exceedingly limited financial and administrative resources, faced

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<sup>6</sup>Laquian, The City in Nation Building, p. 2.

<sup>7</sup>Jose V. Abueva, "Social Background and Recruitment of Legislators and Administrators in a Developing Country: The Philippines," 1963. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>8</sup>"Over-urbanization" is defined as involving a situation in which "larger proportions of (a country's) population live in urban places than their degree of economic development justifies." See Philip Hauser, "The Social, Economic and Technological Problems of Rapid Urbanization," in Industrialization and Society, ed. by Bert selitz and Wilbert Moore (Paris: UNESCO and Morton, 1963), p. 203.

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with their own internal problems, are often simply reduced to inefficiency or inaction.

Secondly, the urban center cannot create enough productive jobs to support the surge of migrating population, in addition to its own natural urban growth. As a result, the least skilled, usually the most recent migrant, are forced into a marginal, service-type of occupation of low productivity and at barely subsistence wages.

Thirdly, although in the initial stages, economic activities in large urban centers may be the beneficiaries of various "external economies," in the long run, "an over-concentration of people and urban activities lead to diseconomies, such as poverty, disease, slums, economic inefficiencies, traffic congestion, social problems, political discontent, rising costs of public welfare, separation of residential from work areas, land speculation and misuse, poor conditions of work and a feeling of hopelessness in the idle migrant population."<sup>9</sup>

Slums and Squatter Settlements.--The most urgent and the most disheartening consequence of over-concentration of population is perhaps the failure to provide adequate shelter for the people. Housing may well be the most pressing problem that confronts contemporary urban centers. In the Philippines, one housing expert has predicted that "if the present growth rate of family households maintains its 2.5 per cent increase per year, about 120,000 new dwelling units would be needed annually, and most of them in the urban areas."<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>United Nations, Urbanization: Development Policies and Planning, p. 52.

<sup>10</sup>People's Homesite and Housing Corporation, "Preliminary Report on Housing Needs: Metropolitan Manila, Quezon City," (1963), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

The failure to meet the housing demand of a rapidly growing urban population have led to the creation of slums and squatter settlements<sup>11</sup> in the crowded cities. In metropolitan Manila, squatting and slum-dwelling are inseparable aspects of the housing problem. They usually occur together, that is, the slums are usually in the squatter areas and the squatter areas are normally slums.

Based on the most recent data available (1968 survey), there are about 127,852 squatter families (767,112 persons) and about 55,907 families (335,442 persons) living in slum conditions in the Metropolitan Manila Region, a total of 183,759 families or 1,102,554 persons.<sup>12</sup> Of the total in Metropolitan Manila, 27.6 per cent of the squatters and 80.7 per cent of the slums are in the City of Manila itself.

The growth of slums and squatter settlements have also spread, and are now rapidly growing in other major cities in the Philippines. In a study by Charles Abrams on the housing situation in the Philippines, it was found out that in Davao, "the squatters have taken possession of the whole parkway area running from the City Hall to the retail center."<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>11</sup>A distinction must be made between squatting and slum-dwelling. Squatting is primarily a legal concept and involves the occupancy of a piece of land or building without the consent of the owner. Slum-dwelling is more a socio-economic concept. It is living in homes that are dilapidated and/or congested, where the conditions pose a health, fire, vice and/or crime hazard not only to those who live in the slum, but to the whole urban community as well.

<sup>12</sup>People's Homesite and Housing Corporation, "Preliminary Report on Housing Needs: Metropolitan Manila," p. 29.

<sup>13</sup>Charles Abrams and Otto Koenisberger, "Report on Housing in the Philippine Islands," (Manila, 1959), p. 12. (Mimeographed.)

The problems caused by a large slum population in the midst of an urban center are fairly obvious. The structures are potential fire hazards, the unhygienic conditions endanger the health and life of the residents of the city, and the misery and frustration of slum dwelling causes a breakdown in morals and socially accepted behavior. The presence of slums and squatter settlements have also seemed to have been generally related to the lowering of land values and the high incidence of crimes.

The inherent problems of slums and squatter settlements are further aggravated by numerous factors that contribute to their formation and proliferation. First, a developing country like the Philippines does not have enough funds nor the proper administrative machinery to adequately cope with the worsening situation. Throughout the entire country, "the responsibility for squatters and slums is a confused, bureaucratic tangle."<sup>14</sup>

Secondly, adding to the need for more public funds is the abject poverty of the slum dwellers and the squatters themselves, the majority of whom are in no position to build a decent and adequate shelter for an often large family.

Thirdly, one of the commonest cliches about slum life is that slum people are disorganized, alienated, rootless and suffering from "anomie." In the Philippines, however, a study revealed exactly the opposite: the squatters and slum dwellers were highly organized and have developed their own identities. In a study on Barrio Magsaysay, a squatter and slum colony in Metropolitan Manila, researchers

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<sup>14</sup>Laquian, The City in Nation Building, p. 54.

discovered "a community of about 2,625 families, closely knit together through more than 20 organizations set up to achieve various purposes."<sup>15</sup> While these organizations decidedly have its advantages, especially with regards to carrying out social work and in encouraging citizen participation, it has also its disadvantages. The organized squatters and slum dwellers have become a strong political bloc, and the politician who obviously need their votes, often wants to maintain the status quo. A United Nations report pointed out that, " . . . a stern policy in the City of Manila on squatters and slum dwellers is often offset by political recognition of the rights of squatters, sympathetic indulgence and compensation."<sup>16</sup> The protection that the squatters receive in return for their votes have become common to a point of being accepted. In the City of Davao, for example, Charles Abrams observed that "a number of squatters are building costly houses. (Many) lawyers, physicians, dentists, and managers of clinics and well-financed enterprises have boldly hung out their signs."<sup>17</sup> The squatters become entrenched in their location, and, with the increasing confidence in the uninterrupted enjoyment of possession of the land, the enterprising Filipino have even "made squatting a business as well as a way of getting shelter . . . some squatters have sublet their quarters; others have even sold them."<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>15</sup> Aprodicio Laquian, Slums are for People (Manila: IM Press, Inc., 1969), p. 87.

<sup>16</sup> Constantino Guerero, "Social Aspects of Housing and Urban Renewal," (Manila, 1963), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>17</sup> Abrams, Man's Struggle for Shelter in an Urbanizing World, p. 16.

<sup>18</sup> Ibid.

Fourth, the greatest detriment in solving the housing problem, and for that matter, the development problems in the Philippines is probably the question of land. Three aspects need to be mentioned in this area: (1) due to the Spanish practices in the past, ownership of large tracts of land or "haciendas" and large agricultural estates are concentrated in only a few; (2) much of the acreage in the urban and urbanizing districts is controlled by owners with no present intentions of developing it. The land problems in the Philippine cities is not one of scarcity, but of refusal to sell;<sup>19</sup> (3) among those who are willing to sell, the prices are, in most cases, exorbitantly high. One of the greatest obstacles in the replanning of developed areas is the high cost of land. In many cases, the cost has been found to be incompatible with the reasonable use of land.<sup>20</sup>

The population in the Philippines is increasing at a rapid rate and more alarming is the massive and rapid shift of population from the rural countryside to the urban centers. The problems they create are numerous, and in turn produce a chain of other problems, each demanding urgent attention and solutions. The crisis of "over-urbanization" and the formation of slums and squatter settlements are only two of them. The causes also are numerous, and most are not easily identifiable. The question of housing, for example, is not a simple matter of putting a roof over one's head. It is closely concerned with the issues of equities in the distribution of economic

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<sup>19</sup> Ibid., p. 56.

<sup>20</sup> National Planning Commission, The Master Plan of Manila (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1956).



wealth, of an efficient and responsive public administration, and most importantly, of changing social attitudes and values. The Filipino is now in a constant struggle to break the social dilemma that past colonization and present industrialization has brought about.

The Social Dilemmas.--The dualism of religious faith in the Filipino previously mentioned are significant. In the past, he was primarily a pagan, wearing a necklace of charms or "anting-anting" and offering sacrifices to his "anitos" or gods. Mention has also been made of the existence of various religious groups and racial groups within the society, that serve to divide it into distinct and conflicting factions. The diversity and contrast of his culture is compounded by the many dialects and languages that pose problems in communication and education. For example, Pilipino, the national language, has been injected into the school system in the following manner:

Grades I and II are taught in the local language or vernacular. At the same time, children are introduced to Pilipino in Grade I and to English in Grade II. In Grade III, the teaching medium switches into English, while Pilipino and the vernacular remain as "auxiliary media" . . . the addition of Spanish in the latter <sup>21</sup>grades imposes a four-fold burden on most youngsters.

Aside from the complexity of his culture that the Filipino must resolve and adapt to, he has developed indigenous customs or Concepts that are often detrimental to the progress that he constantly seeks. One such concept is "utang na loob" (indebtedness or reciprocity). The mechanism of "utang na loob" occurs when someone

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<sup>21</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 181.

does another a favor and the recipient feels obliged to return that favor, but not in terms of money. There is no fixed value attached to the "indebtedness" and therefore, it can become practically unrepayable. While it has its use, it is also often abused. The politician, for example, use it occasionally to win elections:

A practically fruitful occasion for reciprocity is an election. Political leaders . . . exploit it by deliberately cultivating "utang na loob" debts toward themselves, so that when voting time comes, they can reclaim these by requesting the debtors to vote for them . . . in general, the debtor's sense of honor and propriety forces him to comply regardless of the quality of the candidate involved.<sup>22</sup>

Another local concept practiced by the Filipino is "pakikisama." Pakikisama means getting along well with others, by not being snobbish or aloft, but being "one with the fellows." There may be nothing wrong with this, until one has to stand up with a group, whether right or wrong, and whether one likes it or not, all in the name of "pakikisama." The Filipino has also been fatalistic. When faced with a seemingly unsoluble situation, there is a tendency to say "bahala na" (leave it to God). It is not surprising then, that in starting a project, he is full of enthusiasm and eagerness, but when problems arise, he quits (ningas cogon), or at the most, he will plan to continue the work the next day (manana habit).

These are only some of the local concepts or practices that have further hindered the Philippines from attaining its goals. Two other local concepts that merit closer attention are: (1) the

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<sup>22</sup>Mary Hollensteiner, "Reciprocity in the Lowland Philippines," in Four Readings on Philippine Values, ed. by Frank Lynch (Quezon City: Institute of Philippine Culture, 1964), p. 34.

"revolution or rising expectations" which was ushered in by the advent of modernization; and (2) the Filipino family orientation, which is deeply engrained in his traditions.

The Revolution of Rising Expectations.--The educational system, which has opened up broader horizons to the minds of more and more people, and the increased number and range of physical contact with the consumer goods and consumer patterns of the more advanced nations in the West have largely been responsible for the "revolution of rising expectations." Many new commodities and types of services are now evolving into the essentials for day-to-day living. "Everybody wants more and more things that were considered luxuries only a few years ago, from the urban middle-class housewife who dreams of a refrigerator, to the housemaid who feels quite naked without a cheap brassiere."<sup>23</sup> The "revolution" would then demand that the economy must perform at a higher level of efficiency that it has so far demonstrated. Improving the economy would in turn, require an extremely efficient and responsive government. At the same time, the government would be required to run massive new welfare and service programs, and to conduct them more adequately and more efficiently than done earlier. Faced with an already inefficient system of economic policies, and a deficient political machinery, the Philippines is indeed in the midst of a dilemma.

The Consequences of Extended Family Loyalties.--Another challenge that has yet to be resolved is the conflict between a

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<sup>23</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, p. 131.

cherished tradition, the extended family, and the demands of a modernizing society, with its notions of independence and individuality. The security and comfort that the family provides is universally accepted, but the importance and emphasis that the Filipino has given the extended family system has in a number of ways, distorted his social, economic and political progress.

The average urban Filipino, for example, being family-oriented, dreams of a house on a land that is his own. Some Filipino sociologists, objecting to low-cost apartments and cluster housing, have given this dream an academic seal of approval by stating that "apartment dwelling is 'unnatural' and that the true destiny of a family is a single house with its trimmed lawn."<sup>24</sup>

The intense family loyalties of Filipinos also result in minimum identification of individual welfare with activities of a group larger than the family. Security and status are attributable to family membership and basic loyalties are directed toward the family. Aside from "regionalism" which is loyalty based on regional culture and language, there is no identity toward a larger group. National awareness is yet practically non-existent. The urge to do something for one's kinsfolk or oneself still is more compelling than the urge to do something for the country as a whole.

Family loyalties also influence the distribution of wealth in the country. "The family wealth, the communal estate managed under the informal trusteeship of the family head, is managed conservatively. The trusteeship is basically a responsibility to preserve the wealth

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<sup>24</sup>Laquian, The City in Nation Building, p. 53.

intact. This responsibility cuts the freedom to use family wealth as venture capital."<sup>25</sup> Further, this is compounded by the fact that the wealth, to start with, is held by only a relatively few "landed" families.

Intense family loyalties and responsibilities have resulted in "widespread nepotism in public office."<sup>26</sup> Employment and advancement in business and government are often dependent upon family loyalties, a system which is not only inefficient in the allocation of human resources, but is a significant deterrent to individualism.

An extended family system also encourages parasitism to the family and stifles individual initiative. There is a great temptation to depend on the family and not contribute to it.

This is not to advocate a breakdown in family loyalties and responsibilities. On the contrary, the advantages of social and economic security that family solidarity provides may well offset its disadvantages. However, certain emphasis on extended family loyalties should be reformed and redirected if the family and the individual are to meet the challenge of a changing, growing, and modernizing society.

#### The Economic Imbalance

If a family has to squat on a piece of land and suffer the privations of the slums, it is because the family is poor. If there are slums on one side of the street, and mansions on the other, or a

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<sup>25</sup> Golay, The Philippines, p. 15.

<sup>26</sup> Nelson, The Philippines, p. 101.

modern and active urban center, surrounded by a vast underdeveloped countryside, it is because of serious inequities in the distribution of development resources. If a nation has to export practically half of its crops into only one country, there is definitely some distortions in its economic policies. Indeed, poverty in the Philippines is a direct consequence of economic imbalance that extends from the rural family to the whole nation, and even to the Philippines' economic relations with other countries.

Problems of Subsistence Farming in the Rural Areas.--During the pre-Spanish period, with the abundance of tropical resources, the Filipino lived at subsistence level, and it was all he needed. After the Spaniards arrived, the Filipino now has to produce not only enough for their own subsistence, but an increment for the newcomers have to be produced as well. Beyond this, however, there was no further incentive for them to produce more. "The Filipinos produced only what was necessary to cover their tribute obligations and to meet the quota of provisions that they were to sell to the government supply store."<sup>27</sup> Today, that same family is still living in subsistence level, but his needs have greatly changed. Not only that, he now has to produce more for the millions of Filipinos in the new urban centers. But the evils of a predominantly subsistence economy, that is, the lack of surplus, is still there. The reason behind the persistent rural economy is not difficult to find: the Filipino farmer, burdened for centuries by a destructive land tenure system

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<sup>27</sup> Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 160.

propagated by the Spaniards, would have nothing left, after he has paid his debts. One writer summed up his plight in this manner:

Although the (tenancy) law is supposed to protect the tenant, he cannot protect himself from eviction. He is usually too ignorant and too poor to defend his rights. Another condition is the crop payment which the landlord can exact on pain of eviction. The usual terms leave the tenant little after he has paid half his crop and half the cost of transplanting and harvesting. Few share-croppers can get through the crop year without borrowing money and rice to feed their families. Thus the fruits of their labors are already heavily mortgaged in advance to the landlord and the money-lender, who may be the same man. Such conditions make it virtually impossible for the tenant to produce a surplus, or to save, to make capital improvements, or to move.<sup>28</sup>

A series of land reform laws have, of course, been passed; but almost all have been inactive. In 1963, the ambitious Land Reform Code was pushed through. It opened with this statement of policy: share tenancy was to be abolished; the tenant was to be transformed step by step into a landed proprietor. But the Code was never implemented. Wolf Ladejuský, a leading authority of agrarian problems in Asia, put the blame on the politicians. He wrote that

there is no country in Asia, however underdeveloped, which does not know how to write a land reform law, or what its implications might be. They have written them, and many have not been carried out--precisely because the political decision-makers understood their implications and the inevitable repercussions . . . the fact is that national and state legislatures in Asia do not represent the interests of the peasantry.<sup>29</sup>

The Philippines is no exception to this. A sense of national concern, especially among the decision-makers, is still sadly lacking. Today, the Reform Code is being reactivated by the new administration, but results still have to be seen.

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<sup>28</sup>Ibid.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 89.

Unequal Distribution of Economic Opportunities.--The rural-urban dichotomy of the economy of the Philippines is clearly seen in the distribution of family income. In 1957, there were an estimated 3,959,000 families in the Philippines, each family consisting of an average of 5.7 persons. However, as mentioned earlier, the wealth of the country is concentrated in a few families. Only 4 per cent of all families accounted for 25 per cent of the total family income in 1957. The average for rural families was a low ₱989 (one peso [₱] is equal to four dollars), while that of the urban families was ₱2,427. The average for the entire nation was ₱1,471.<sup>30</sup> Thus, the urban family income was two and one-half times the rural family income. An even greater contrast is seen when the average for the family income in Metropolitan Manila is considered, which is ₱4,255. If the incomes of the slum dwellers in Manila were compared with that of the non-slum dwellers, the disparity would even be more staggering.

The rural-urban economic disparity is also reflected in the fact that, although two-thirds of all families lived in areas classified as rural, they received less than one-half of the total family income.<sup>31</sup> The inequities in the distribution of family income clearly demonstrates the disparities in the distribution of economic resources. The destructive consequences of the over-concentration of social changes, economic activities and political decisions have been

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<sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 63.

<sup>31</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, pp. 76-77.



expounded in the previous chapter and cannot be over-emphasized. The decision-makers are now torn between two hard choices: either to distribute its meager resources to aid the debt-ridden farmers, or to save the congested and troubled cities, and especially, the primate city. The solution to this dilemma is not yet clear. Meanwhile, the rural farmers, pushed by the unbearable hardships of subsistence farming, and pulled by the promise of a better life in the cities, continue to migrate to the urban centers, only to be disillusioned, and ultimately, to join the squatters and crowd among the slum dwellers.

Imbalance in International Trade.--After more than 20 years of political independence, the Philippines realized that economic independence do not go with it. The Philippines is still highly dependent on the United States for exports and imports. Figures for the period of 1956-1958 show 53.9 per cent for exports and 55.2 per cent for imports from the United States.<sup>32</sup> Despite an agricultural economy, the Philippines could not feed its own people. As mentioned earlier, rice and fish, the staple food of the people, still have to be imported. This inadequacy of domestic food is further aggravated by an insistent emphasis on producing export crops such as sugar, coconut and abaca.

Other economic imbalances have created an economic crisis, which is seen in "high employment, an unsatisfactory and uneven rate of growth of the gross national product (GNP), and the periodic

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<sup>32</sup>Kuhn, The Philippines, p. 160.

balance of payments difficulties."<sup>33</sup> At the same time, foreign exchange crisis "recurs with disturbing frequency."<sup>34</sup>

These are only a few of the economic problems that challenge the growing nation. The destructive land tenure system, the dangerous concentration of very limited economic wealth and the distortions in its import-export relations all contribute toward a crisis. The situation becomes more distressing when it is realized that many of these disparities are condoned by the traditional values and customs of the Filipinos, and that the success in resolving these economic discrepancies depend to a significantly large extent, on how well the Filipino society can correct the administrative inefficiencies and deficiencies in its public offices.

#### The Administrative Inefficiencies

The "utang na loob" way of winning an election, and the widespread nepotism in the public offices only serves as a background to the more serious problems that obstruct the effective rendering of administrative responsibilities in the local government, the national offices, and in the national planning agencies.

Problems of the Local Government.--Studies on local government in the Philippines agree on the one major point regarding the state of local government administration: they are not able to carry out effectively the many duties and responsibilities placed on them by

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<sup>33</sup>H. Aversh, F. Denton, and J. Koehler, A Crisis in Ambiguity: Political and Economic Development in the Philippines (Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, 1970), p. xv.

<sup>34</sup>Ibid.

their local constituents and the nation as a whole.<sup>35</sup> The reasons for these inefficiencies are summarized as follows:

One: Legal Deficiencies--as mentioned earlier, the local units of government have extremely limited authority, and while they can exercise autonomy as prescribed by law, most political decisions are actually made in Manila. Even the local executives have little authority over their own line officials; the heads of departments report directly to their corresponding departments in the central administration.

Two: Lack of Funds--local financing powers are sharply restricted; some local units of government like the provinces, do not have the power to tax on any basis. Most units depend on national allotments which are often inadequate to meet local needs. The locally raised funds are also completely inadequate, partly due to the failure to collect taxes and to correct defective assessment systems.

Three: Inadequate Personnel--with the low salaries and a frustrating bureaucracy, qualified persons are not often attracted to local government service. Moreover, choice of personnel is often dictated more by patronage and family considerations than through merit.

Four: Poor Coordination--this is not only a question of lack of authority, but also of lack of qualifications or the ability to

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<sup>35</sup>Institute of Public Administration, University of the Philippines, "Research Findings on Problems of Local Government," Philippine Journal of Public Administration, III (January, 1959), 11-14.

properly communicate, coordinate and cooperate in the preparation and execution of plans.

Five: Absence of National Direction--without defined national policies and guidelines that would filter down to the local units to give direction and leadership to their own plans and projects, the result is chaos.

The defects in the local government are, of course, carried over to the national offices: poor coordination, absence of defined national goals and objectives, inadequate personnel, etc. But a bigger obstacle is met at the national level--graft and corruption.

Graft and Corruption in the National Government.--Graft and corruption are the terms applied to the behavior of individuals and groups acting in favor of personal and private interests contrary to the public or national interests. This definition is familiar to Filipino family orientations. However, family loyalty is not the only factor responsible for the widespread practice of graft and corruption. They cut across all cultural and economic directions and pervade the whole range of Filipino society. The behavior and psychology that support them "had strong historical roots that were merely reinforced by the circumstances of national life in the post-war period."<sup>36</sup> During the Spanish era, for example, it was common for colonial offices, privileges and gainful position, which were all regarded as "property," to be sold. There was a "De La Venta de Oficios"<sup>37</sup> which governed the sale of offices. When the sale of

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<sup>36</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, p. 79.

<sup>37</sup>Ibid., p. 79.

offices was stopped, traditional customs and values, family loyalties, "pakikisama," "utang na loob," and others all contributed to the continuation of the practice. More recently, graft and corruption ranges from the ordinary "barrio man" who sells his vote, to the politician who peddles influence and the party leader who misuses public funds for partisan purposes.

Sociologists invariably note that in a developing society similar to the Philippines, some degree of graft and corruption appears to be inevitable. The unfortunate aspect in the Philippine political environment, however, is that wholesale graft and corruption have been condoned, in fact, tolerated and accepted. The Filipinos, especially in the urban areas, would often argue that "politicians are in the 'game' because they enrich themselves. Thus, they do not feel guilty when they fleece the candidates because it is expected that they will recoup later."<sup>38</sup>

When the national planning agencies are considered, it can be expected that all the deficiencies in the local and national offices are reflected within these circles. Enumerating these again would be repetitious, however, two deficiencies need elaboration as they particularly describe the condition of the organization for planning in the Philippines now. These are (1) lack of coordination, and (2) lack of authority.

Lack of Coordination.--It is not that the planners do not want to coordinate; rather, it is that they are not given the proper framework to do so. There is serious overlapping of functions and

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<sup>38</sup>Laquian, The City in Nation Building, p. 133.

responsibilities. The National Economic Council (NEC), for example, was designated as the central planning body for the Philippines, but in 1950 the National Planning Commission (NPC) was established to prepare national plans, in spite of the fact that NEC had an office of National Planning as one of its departments, which could very well have done what the NPC was supposed to accomplish. Later, in 1964, the Program Implementation Agency (PIA) was created. It was to fulfill the short-term programming and budgeting functions that was not being undertaken by the NEC or its Office of National Planning. However, the divisions of authority between the PIA and the NEC were vague and the PIA was assigned functions which overlapped with the long-range duties of the NEC. The Program Implementation Agency was empowered "to make the macro-economic projection of outlays and resources, of foreign exchange requirements and earnings that would be needed in planning the financing of development."<sup>39</sup> The PIA then became a misnomer; it was concerned with annual budgeting, not with the implementation of plans. Moreover, the NEC had no authority to control or even to influence the annual programming process of the PIA. The PIA, on the other hand, was completely free to ignore any plans that the NEC might make.

Another cause of poor coordination or total lack of coordination in the planning organization is the relation of the NEC with the other departments of the government related with planning, such

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<sup>39</sup> Wilcox, The Planning and Execution of Development Plans, p. 13.

as the Budget Commission, and the government banks and corporations.

Coordination among these various agencies was practically nil:

The policies and programs of the government departments and agencies up to the 1960's bore no relation to the provisions of the country's development plans. The Budget Commission prepared fiscal programs with priorities that differed from those included in the plans. The Central Bank ignored the plans in controlling credit and in allocating foreign exchange. The Development Bank adopted its own lending program; the other departments and agencies proceeded as if the plans did not exist.<sup>40</sup>

Lack of Authority.--The other deficiency in the structure of planning in the Philippines is the lack of authority of the central planning body. This stems largely from the fact that the policy recommendations of NEC have not been influential in directing development patterns in the Philippines. The main reason for this is its position in the planning organization (see Figure 16). The NEC was to coordinate with the departments under the President, and with the PIA; moreover, it was to recommend policies and plans to the Congress and the President. But the lines for coordination among departments were very vague, and both the Congress and the President himself have not given the NEC the political support it deserves. The President, in fact, "can call for economic advice from the Monetary Board, the Budget Commission, the Department of Finance, the Fiscal Policy Council, the Cabinet, the Council of Leaders or from ad hoc Cabinet committees."<sup>41</sup> A former member of the Council has stated that it was

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<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>41</sup>Robert Milne, ed., Planning for Progress: The Administration of Economic Planning in the Philippines (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1960), p. 30.

"the disregard by the President alone of policy recommendations of the Council which undermined the effectiveness of the Council."<sup>42</sup>

The four congressional members on the Council were assigned the responsibility to facilitate the approval by Congress of the economic policies and programs which the Council recommended, however, "these recommendations by the Council have not been sponsored in Congress by any of the congressional members serving in the Council."<sup>43</sup> It cannot be argued that for planning to be successful, it must first of all, have the full participation and support of those who are going to implement it.

Another factor, which also clearly shows how the concept of planning is viewed in the Philippines, is the peculiar organization of the NEC itself. In formulating the conceptual framework for a comprehensive policy planning approach in Chapter I of this thesis, the importance of a dynamic process was underscored. Planning is a continuum, and do not end with a Plan, or after a five-year period. It requires continuity, consistency, and constant attention. It is ironic, therefore, that NEC has "only one full-time member . . . the chairman."<sup>44</sup> The rest of the members are all ex-officio members who have their own primary duties and responsibilities to attend to.

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<sup>42</sup>Salvador Araneta, "The Planning, Approval, and Implementation of Economic Policy," in Planning for Progress: The Administration of Economic Planning in the Philippines, ed. by Robert Milne (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1960), p. 144.

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 43.

<sup>44</sup>Robert Milne, "Commentary--The National Economic Council and Its Relation to Other Government Agencies," in Planning for Progress, ed. by Robert Milne (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1960), p. 187.



The failures of planning in the Philippines, however, cannot be attributed wholly to the administrative deficiencies. The problems cut across all cultural barriers and cover the entire range of the four planning dimensions. As in the Filipino family, the problems are a combination of physical, social, economic, and political entities. A member of the NEC summarized the failure to obtain acceptance and implementation of policies this way:

We as a people, including many of our leaders, are not yet conditioned to accept in our minds the necessity and urgency of country programming in the Philippines. Many of us are still provincial in our thinking; many of us are individualistic or partisan in our approach to things in general. Our own individual and group interests loom large in our views, and we are prone to consider that what is good for us individually or as a group should also be good for the country.<sup>45</sup>

#### Trends and Potentials

Thus far, the problems and dilemmas of the Philippines have been exposed: the poverty and squalor of the slums and squatter settlements; the conflicts and ambiguities of Filipino traditional values; the disparities in the economic system; and the inefficiencies and deficiencies of the government. However, after the centuries of exploitation by colonizers and of seemingly unbearable hardships, the Filipino has endured them all. He has been patient, even tolerant of the ills and inequities in his society. His capacity to wait, together with a closer and an optimistic look at the future trends and potentials offer a hope of positive change. The increasing population, shifting economy, changing social structure, and the

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<sup>45</sup>Filimon Rodriguez, "The National Economic Council, Past and Present," in Planning for Progress, ed. by Robert Milne (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1960), p. 46.

advent of a new national awareness all promise to transform a nation that aspires "to be great again."<sup>46</sup>

### The Increasing and Changing Population

The population of the Philippines is increasing at a rapid rate. In 1948, there were only about 19.2 million people, with an average annual rate of increase of 3.06 per cent since 1939. Then the population grew to about 27.1 million in 1960, and to 37,000,000 in 1970.<sup>47</sup> The present growth rate is 32.0 per 1000 population, which is about twice the average rate for the world. This rate of growth must be checked if economic growth is to coincide with the increasing population number.

As the Philippines mature, its population is expected to change to a younger average age (see Table 3). By the year 2000, 39.6 per cent are expected to be under 15 years old; well over half, 56.9 per cent, would be between the ages 15 and 64, while those over 65 years old would constitute only a low 3.4 per cent.

The birth rate (see Table 4) shows a steady decline from 45.6 per 1000 population during the 1960-65 period to 38.7 by 1980-85 and to 33.5 by the year 2000. During the same periods, the death rate is also expected to decrease from 13.3 to 8.6 and finally to 6.8 per 1000 by AD 2000. Surprisingly, the growth rate per 1000 population is projected to drop from 32.3 in 1960 to 30.1 by 1980, and finally, to 27.0 by the year 2000. However, the population will still increase

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<sup>46</sup>From President Marcos' slogan: "This Nation shall be great again."

<sup>47</sup>Leonard Casper, "The Philippines," Encyclopedia Americana, 1971 ed., XXI, p. 759d.

TABLE 3.--Age Distribution (per 1000 population)

| Ages              | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 2000 |
|-------------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Per cent under 15 | 46.2 | 45.7 | 44.3 | 42.1 | 39.6 |
| Per cent 15-64    | 51.3 | 51.6 | 52.8 | 54.9 | 56.9 |
| Per cent over 65  | 2.6  | 2.6  | 2.7  | 2.9  | 3.4  |

Source: Frank Lorimer, "Analysis and Projections of the Population of the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1966), p. 303.

TABLE 4.--Rates of Birth, Death, and Natural Increase (per 1000 population)

|             | 1960-<br>1964 | 1965-<br>1969 | 1970-<br>1974 | 1975-<br>1979 | 1980-<br>1984 | 1985-<br>1989 | 1990-<br>1994 | 1995-<br>2000 |
|-------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Birth Rate  | 45.6          | 43.9          | 42.4          | 40.4          | 38.6          | 36.6          | 34.9          | 33.7          |
| Death Rate  | 13.3          | 11.8          | 10.6          | 9.4           | 8.5           | 7.7           | 7.2           | 6.7           |
| Growth Rate | 32.2          | 32.0          | 31.8          | 30.9          | 30.1          | 28.9          | 27.6          | 27.0          |

Source: Frank Lorimer, "Analysis and Projections of the Population of the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1966), p. 304.

appreciably in the future. The total population is expected to increase to 51.3 million by 1980 (see Table 5), and to 91.1 million by the year 2000. In the same year, the distribution of the total population by sex will almost be equally divided at 46.5 million males and 45.3 million females.

The population projections for the Philippines are impressive. However, as mentioned earlier, while the present rate of population increase should be checked, it is not so much a question of growing numbers, but rather of a balanced distribution. Fortunately, the massive migration to Metropolitan Manila has recently been accompanied by a steady movement of people to the south, away from the congestion of Metropolitan Manila in the north, and to rural areas, away from the crowded cities.<sup>48</sup> If this trend continues, the present over-concentration in the few major urban centers could be eased. As one study revealed (see Figure 18), a possible pattern of "ecumenopolis" (world city) in the Philippines in the future is not a sprawling growth around Metropolitan Manila, but a string of settlements that stretch from Aparri in the north to Zamboanga in the south.<sup>49</sup>

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<sup>48</sup>Pascual, "Internal Migration in the Philippines," p. 350.

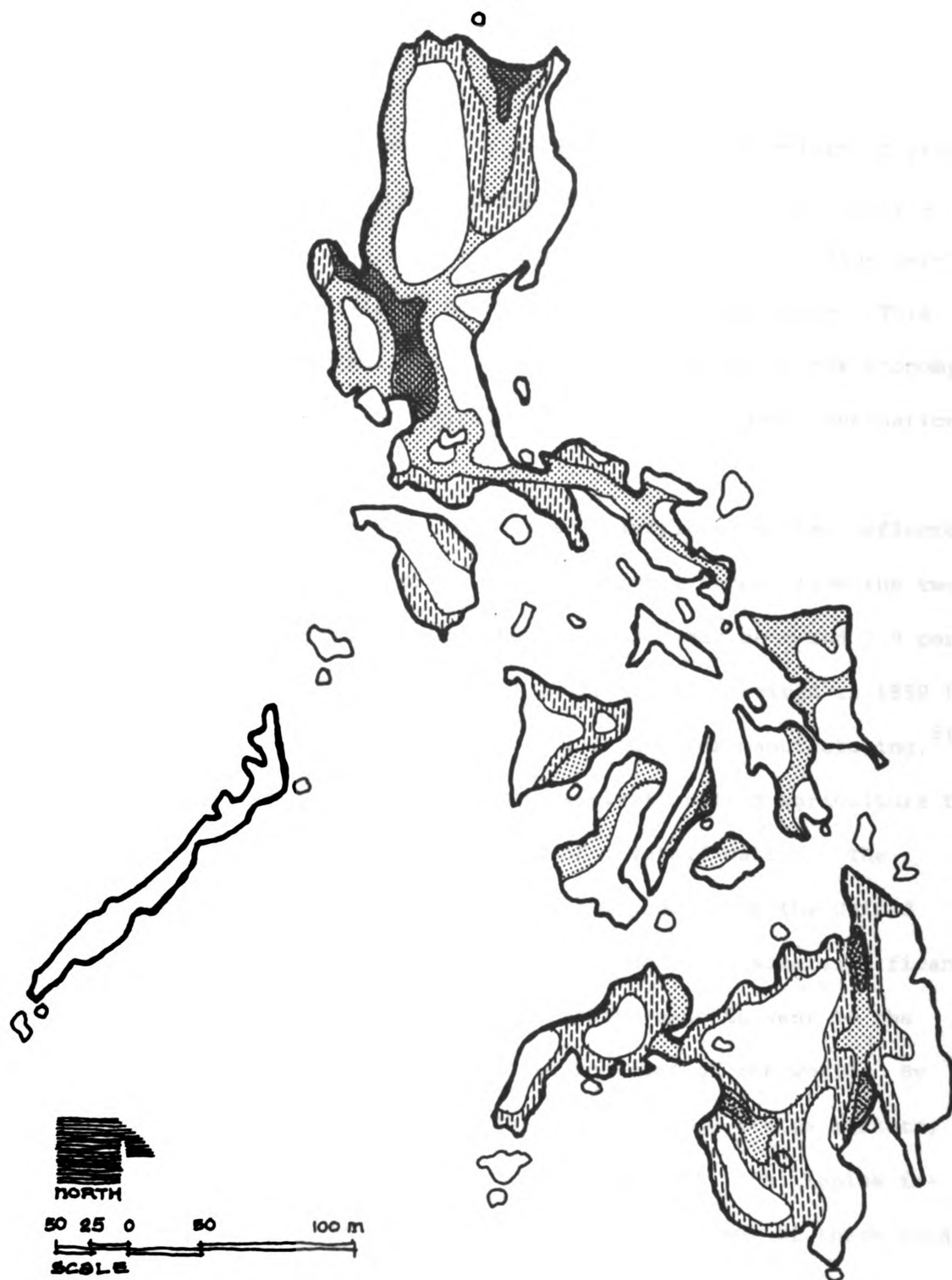
<sup>49</sup>J. R. Stewart, "Patterns of Ecumenopolis in the Philippines," Ekistics, CLXIII (June, 1969), 437. The growth pattern is based on habitability rating with the following used as major criteria: (1) location in relation to a future central land axis; (2) land level (not necessarily coastal); and (3) exposure to typhoons.

TABLE 5.--Population Projections--1960-2000<sup>a</sup> (in thousands)

| Ages         | 1960     | 1970     | 1980     | 1990     | 2000     |
|--------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 0-4          | 5,017.7  | 6,733.7  | 8,770.0  | 11,168.0 | 14,233.9 |
| 5-9          | 4,073.6  | 5,634.7  | 7,534.2  | 9,729.9  | 12,289.8 |
| 10-14        | 3,420.8  | 4,741.0  | 6,450.2  | 8,485.4  | 12,976.2 |
| 15-19        | 2,870.0  | 3,967.3  | 5,520.3  | 7,412.8  | 9,003.2  |
| 20-24        | 2,390.9  | 3,308.7  | 4,318.2  | 6,415.9  | 8,342.0  |
| 25-29        | 1,982.2  | 2,746.8  | 3,832.7  | 5,369.7  | 6,231.5  |
| 30-34        | 1,630.1  | 2,275.6  | 3,182.6  | 4,476.2  | 6,156.3  |
| 35-39        | 1,316.8  | 1,880.3  | 2,634.4  | 3,704.9  | 5,330.5  |
| 40-44        | 1,076.0  | 1,547.0  | 2,170.2  | 3,060.1  | 4,329.5  |
| 45-49        | 894.0    | 1,226.0  | 1,772.8  | 2,505.8  | 3,546.7  |
| 50-54        | 715.0    | 980.3    | 1,429.2  | 2,025.1  | 2,876.3  |
| 55-59        | 560.6    | 786.5    | 1,097.5  | 1,605.3  | 2,288.8  |
| 60-64        | 428.6    | 595.8    | 834.8    | 1,234.1  | 1,967.8  |
| 65-69        | 307.9    | 427.9    | 616.6    | 877.5    | 1,300.6  |
| 70-74        | 202.4    | 283.3    | 408.4    | 587.5    | 883.7    |
| 75-79        | 117.2    | 162.4    | 236.8    | 353.1    | 515.8    |
| 80+          | 72.9     | 104.9    | 157.2    | 239.4    | 361.6    |
| Total Male   | 13,663.0 | 18,999.0 | 25,912.0 | 34,978.0 | 46,483.0 |
| Total Female | 13,425.0 | 18,516.0 | 25,354.0 | 34,173.0 | 45,367.0 |
| Grand Total  | 27,088.0 | 37,402.0 | 51,266.0 | 69,151.0 | 91,851.0 |

Source: Frank Lorimer, "Analysis and Projections of the Population of the Philippines," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1966), pp. 200-314.

<sup>a</sup>Averaged from projections based on three hypotheses: (1) constant fertility as in 1960-65; (2) progressive decline in fertility beginning with 1965, with an accelerated downward trend during the years 1975-95; and (3) the age-specific fertility rates in each five-year period after 1965 are the arithmetic means of the rates of hypotheses 1 and 2.



Source: J. R. Stewart, "Patterns of Ecumenopolis in the Philippines," Ekistics, CLXIII (June, 1969), 437.

Figure 18.--Patterns of Ecumenopolis in the Philippines

### The Shifting Economy

Although the prospects for a radical agrarian reform is yet remote, the economy of the Philippines, however, is not entirely a pessimistic perspective. One recent study concluded that "the perception of economic crisis in the Philippines is inaccurate. This point can be demonstrated if one examines information on the economy in detail, going behind the aggregates on which the usual evaluation are based."<sup>50</sup>

The shift in the economy of the Philippines is also reflected in the comparative contributions to the national income from the two sectors of agriculture and manufacturing: 43.3 per cent and 7.9 per cent respectively in 1948, which was substantially revised in 1958 to 33.7 per cent for agriculture and 17.7 per cent for manufacturing.<sup>51</sup> This shows a growing shift of economic activities from agriculture to manufacturing, which is a healthy sign of diversification. The nation's foreign trade, while it is still dependent on the United States for some of its exports and imports, has seen some significant trends. In 1948, 71.0 per cent of Philippine exports went to the United States and only 29.0 per cent to the rest of the world. By 1958, however, while 56 per cent went to the United States markets, a big increase, 44 per cent, went to other countries. Philippine imports from the United States accounted for 80 per cent of these total imports in 1949 and 13.3 per cent in 1958.<sup>52</sup> These shifts indicate

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<sup>50</sup>Averch, Crisis of Ambiguity, p. xv.

<sup>51</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, p. 13.

<sup>52</sup>Golay, The Philippines, p. 48.

that the Philippine products are actively seeking other markets, establishing new trading channels, and making different financial arrangements. The pattern of almost total dependence upon the vicissitudes of the United States market is slowly being modified.

The changing economic growth patterns mentioned above will help to disperse and balance the distribution of economic resources in the country. This will accelerate the rise of the middle class, which will not only ease the tensions between the rich and the poor, but will eventually partially equalize the present disparities in the distribution of incomes, by at least bringing it to a tolerable level.

#### Changes in the Social Environment

It is not only the steady increase of a middle class that gives some hope for a brighter future; it is the betterment of the whole social fabric itself. As noted earlier, the death rate is decreasing and life expectancy is increasing from an average figure of about 12 years in 1902 to about 55 years in 1965.<sup>53</sup> In 1960, the literacy rate of persons 10 years old and over stood at about 72 per cent. With the traditional high valued placed on education, more and more Filipinos are going and staying longer in schools. If not for anything else, the students are at least brought to a level of awareness and concern for public and national problems.

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<sup>53</sup>Wilfredo Reyes, "Philippine Population Growth and Development," in First Conference on Population, 1965 (Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, Population Institute, 1966), pp. 425-26.



The Philippines has often been regarded as a nation that is unstable. This view, however, is somewhat inaccurate. A study revealed that "the crisis of crime has been overstated. It is Greater Manila, not the entire Philippines, that has a crime problem."<sup>54</sup> The study further stated that the country appears to be politically stable. This stability rests in the rural sector voting along traditional lines with politicians responding primarily to rural demands. The HUK<sup>55</sup> dissidence was regarded by the study as "a major nuisance . . . however, it does not appear to pose a revolutionary threat to the government."<sup>56</sup> The study concluded that the Philippines have been viewed as a nation of crisis partly because of the kind of information produced by Philippine reporting systems. Thus, the notion of a national crisis turned out to be partly a crisis of information systems.

The most significant change in the social environment in the Philippines is perhaps, the "loosening of family ties,"<sup>57</sup> especially in the urban areas. Sociologists are divided in this controversial situation. There are those who believe that a breakdown in family ties would result in social and personal disorganization. On the other hand, some sociologists hold the opposite view:

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<sup>54</sup>Averch, Crisis in Ambiguity, p. xviii.

<sup>55</sup>HUK is a short form for HUKBALAHAP (Hukbo ng Bayan Laban sa Hapon or People's Japanese Army). The HUK's were organized in 1942 and started as a guerrilla group fighting against the Japanese. Now they are identified with the communist movement.

<sup>56</sup>Averch, Crisis in Ambiguity, p. xviii.

<sup>57</sup>Laquian, The City in Nation Building, p. 208.

The evils of anomie and apathy or the opposite reaction of members of the "lonely crowd" losing themselves in ideological and messianic movements happen but they are the exception and not the rule. The more common reaction to loosening family ties is an exhilarating sense of liberation and ambition, for as people learned long ago, "city air makes man free."<sup>58</sup>

Whichever is more accurate, it might be postulated that for the Filipino, who traditionally have intense extended family ties, a slight loosening of family loyalties might have some positive and beneficial effects. Indeed, for those in the urban centers, in their struggle to attain material and cultural well-being through education and hard work, they encounter demands which conflict with the values of a closely knit extended family system. Under this stress, they often choose to sacrifice the traditional values especially when the extended family becomes a burden on personal advancements. The breaking away from extended family ties exposes the Filipino to wider horizons. This freedom, augmented by education and hard work, could steadily enkindle in him a sense of individuality, and hopefully, to a sense of national identity.

#### The Advent of National Awareness

Together with an improving and spreading education, and a slight loosening of family ties, there are other forces which shaped the current trends toward national unity. On one hand is the Filipino's constant struggle to free himself of his colonial past. Recently, he has succeeded in reducing the number of credits of

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<sup>58</sup> Ibid., p. 209. See also Oscar Lewis, Five Families: Case Studies in the Culture of Poverty (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962), for a discussion of "urbanization without breakdown."

Spanish that a student is required to take at universities.<sup>59</sup> Filipino is slowly being recognized as the national language and there was even an attempt to have it replace English as the medium of instruction in the universities.

There are also a number of "irritants" in Philippine-American relations which serve to keep the Filipinos together. Among them is the system of "parity rights," or the rights of Americans to engage in business in the Philippines on equal terms as the Filipinos. This was required of the Philippines by the United States Congress of 1946 before the latter would legislate special treatment for Philippine exports to the United States. There is also the matter of the United States military bases, which has bred annoying controversies over conflicts of jurisdiction. These "irritants" have served to make the Filipino realize that "the interests of his country are best protected and promoted by the Filipinos themselves, rather than being entrusted to the benevolence of 'special ties.'"<sup>60</sup>

The results of these trends have so far been very encouraging. The Filipinos are becoming more aware of the plight of his less fortunate brothers. Attempts at relocation and rehousing squatters and slum dwellers in Metropolitan Manila have been made with encouraging success.<sup>61</sup> Programs to reorganize the present administrative

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<sup>59</sup>Under some special agreement with Spain, 24 credits of Spanish was required for graduation in college. This has been reduced to 12 credits for those pursuing a Bachelor's Degree.

<sup>60</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, p. 98.

<sup>61</sup>See Morris Jupenlatz, Cities in Transformation: The Urban Squatter Problem of the Developing World (Queensland: University of Queensland Press, 1970); T. G. McGee, The Southeast Asian City (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1967), and "Tondo Foreshore Urban Renewal Project: The Philippines," Ekistics, XXI (May, 1971).

structure have been made.<sup>62</sup> Most recently, starting in the summer of 1971, the Philippines will launch an ambitious attempt to amend the entire Constitution. Already, the planned Constitutional Convention has produced stimulating controversies and debates. It will still be a considerable period of time before results and conclusions will be made. The nature of these conclusions are not yet known; they might not even materialize. However, if there is one thing that will result out of the proposed Constitutional Convention and the future trends, it is that in the process the Filipinos will discover their problems, realize their own potentials, and recognize that the solutions to their problems lie not in external forces, but will depend almost solely on themselves, on their own initiative, their own resources, and their own efforts.

It is with this prospect that the policy recommendations in the next chapter were formulated.

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<sup>62</sup>See the Special Issue on Government Reorganization, Philippine Public Administration, XIII (April, 1969).

## CHAPTER V

### POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS: GOALS, OBJECTIVES, AND IMPLEMENTING POLICIES

The framework for policy planning in the Philippines, which includes the physical setting, the social environment, the economic resources and the political institutions, have been discussed. These four planning dimensions are the dynamic forces that constantly mold the changing conditions of the nation. The diverse and complex problems in each of these planning dimensions have been disclosed, the trends in the future have been concisely assessed and the inherent potentials, recognized. How these problems may be solved or ameliorated will now require the thoughtful formulation of guidelines or policies. This phase, which represents the culmination of the synthesis of the existing framework for planning, the problems, trends and potentials, will constitute the final stage in the policy planning process. These policy statements or plans, will in turn, form the background for the Comprehensive Plan, the preparation of which, together with Implementation, constitute the last stages of the general planning process.

The following policies, presented in a hierarchy of goals, objectives and implementing policies, are intended to effect an orderly and desirable growth and change in the Philippines.

### Goals

Goals are universal values, and in effect, constitute the highest aspirations of a society. They are the ideals which men have been aspiring, albeit, through different means. In pursuing an orderly and desirable growth for the Philippines, the Filipinos should, in this author's opinion, recognize, uphold, and aspire to adopt and implement the following goals:

GOAL ONE: THE RIGHT TO EQUALITY, JUSTICE AND LIBERTY.

GOAL TWO: THE PRIVILEGE TO SEEK HAPPINESS, SECURITY, WEALTH, CREATIVITY, HEALTH, BEAUTY AND DIGNITY.

GOAL THREE: THE FREEDOM FROM HUNGER, FEAR, IGNORANCE, MISERY, AND HOPELESSNESS.

These goals are difficult to measure; most of them are non-quantifiable, and all are certainly difficult to attain. In fact, being abstract and somewhat ideal human values, they are not completely attained. Nevertheless, they need to be incessantly pursued. After all, like Sir Galahad's quest for the Holy Grail, "it is the pursuit of the goal that ennobles us, not its attainment."<sup>1</sup>

### Objectives

The pursuit of any goal requires measureable and attainable targets to be formulated. These are stated as objectives. They provide the guidelines and the destinations through which these goals

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<sup>1</sup>Robert Young, "Goals and Goal Setting," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXXII (March, 1966), 78.

are pursued. In order to guide the development of the Philippines toward a desirable pattern of development, the following objectives must be realized:

OBJECTIVE ONE: IN CONSIDERATION OF THE DISECONOMIES OF URBAN CONGESTION, THE RAPID INCREASE OF SLUMS AND SQUATTER SETTLEMENTS, AND THE INEFFICIENCIES IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY, A NATIONAL URBAN GROWTH POLICY SHOULD BE ESTABLISHED WHICH WOULD GUIDE THE LOCATION AND CHARACTER OF FUTURE GROWTH CENTERS IN THE MOST EFFICIENT MANNER.

The absence of a national policy to guide urbanization has resulted in the present congestion and chaos in the urban centers, and decline in the rural areas. While the Philippines has developed national economic development plans, the solution to urban problems have been relegated to the cities and other local units of government which are not given the necessary political powers and financial resources to do so. The rural areas, on the other hand, have been ignored to a very significant extent.

The need for the establishment of a national urban growth policy is being felt. Almost all the international conferences on urban problems held during the past seven years have recommended that national policies, programs and budgets be established to urban and regional development as an integral part of a general strategy for development.<sup>2</sup>

There are a number of reasons that support the creation of national growth policies, among which are:

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<sup>2</sup>International Union of Local Authorities, Urbanization in Developing Countries, p. 19.

One: At present, the national government of the Philippines already practically exerts the sole influence in the location of population and economic growth and the character of urban development. The establishment of national policies would serve to give over-all direction to future growth programs of local units of government, and make them more consistent and integrated, instead of overlapping and duplicating functions and responsibilities.

Two: The national government have influenced urbanization and economic growth, but each of these are directed at only a segment of the overall problem. The location and character of urbanization is frequently ignored. There is also no comprehensive linkage of the kind that a national urbanization policy would supply. A publication from a seminar on new towns sponsored by the United Nations in 1964 stated that "national development policies in the developing countries do not fully recognize the spatial and locational aspects of economic growth, and as a consequence, these aspects are generally neglected in development programs."<sup>3</sup>

Three: The serious consequences of allowing urbanization and economic growth trends to continue their present haphazard development is itself a strong argument for a concerted national policy to provide more conscious overall direction.

Four: The meager economic resources of the country dictate that national long-range policies are essential to insure the wisest possible use of national resources for the economic and social health

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<sup>3</sup>United Nations, Planning of Metropolitan Areas and New Towns, p. 31.



of the entire nation, rather than sparsely dispersing these resources through "pork-barrel" funding and other piece-meal approaches, which are both wasteful and inefficient.

OBJECTIVE TWO: IN THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPING A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH, THE NATIONAL POLICIES AND PLANS SHOULD BE FORMULATED TO BRING TOGETHER ALL PROFESSIONS INVOLVED IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE ENVIRONMENT, AND TO INTEGRATE THE PHYSICAL, SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL DIMENSIONS IN PLANNING.

The conceptual approach outlined in the second chapter of this thesis was developed to achieve this objective. The target for comprehensiveness is twofold:

One: That a multi-disciplinary team-approach be undertaken. This would mean that the physical planners--the architects, engineers, and designers should realize that they are involved in the routine activities of government. They have tended to dominate the limited sphere of urban development and have too often "failed to conceive of the significance of the city as a socio-economic tool or as a stimulus for growth and change."<sup>4</sup> Their emphasis lies in the techniques of design, on the static form of an environment, on location and construction of facilities without sufficient reference to potential and dynamic activities which the facilities must house. The economic planners, conversely, have tended to dominate the sphere of national development, concerning themselves with such broad aggregates as national income, per capita expenditures, the gross national product, and others. They have "paid surprisingly little attention

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<sup>4</sup>United Nations, Urbanization: Development Policies and Planning, p. 79.

to urbanization and the importance of organizing in harmony, the functions and activities which are juxtaposed in the urban context."<sup>5</sup> Moreover, the fallacy that economic planning is merely economics has resulted in "the underestimation of the critical roles to be played by administration and political leaders in both the formulation and implementation of economic goals,"<sup>6</sup> which have social and physical implications.

Countries have moved to supplement the traditional design-oriented planning process by adding skilled economists, and sociologists into the process of planning and related organizational structures. As yet, neither the designers nor the economists know precisely how their various skills will relate effectively in physical planning for complex environmental conditions.<sup>7</sup> However, efforts are being made, in an increasing number of countries, to recognize that the physical planning process can be a significant tool for a nation's economic development.<sup>8</sup>

Two: That the physical, social, economic, and political planning dimensions be integrated and synthesized into one coherent and comprehensive plan. This is corollary to number one above. In this instance, it would mean the integration of physical planning

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<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>6</sup>Bertram Gross, The Administration of Economic and Development Planning: Principles and Fallacies, United Nations Publications (ST/TAO/M/32), 1960, p. 10.

<sup>7</sup>United Nations, Urbanization: Development Policies and Planning, p. 79.

<sup>8</sup>See Resources for the Future (Baltimore, Md.: Johns Hopkins Press, 1966).

with the socio-economic plans that have so far dominated planning efforts in the Philippines. National planning has been concerned more with the allocation of funds to various sectors than with the location of projects and their impact on regional and national development.

It was stated previously that while the physical, social, economic, and political dimensions are separate and distinct, they are actually interrelated with each other. Nowhere is this interdependence more evident than in the Philippines. Comprehensive policies and plans, therefore, would mean that in all levels of government, in a hierarchy of authority and responsibility, development policies and plans must be expressed graphically in terms of land use and physical infra-structure, economically in terms of financial investments and activities, and socially in terms of people and social infra-structure.

OBJECTIVE THREE: IN AN ATTEMPT TO REGULATE THE RAPID RATE OF URBAN-RURAL MIGRATION, WHICH HAS CAUSED DISECONOMIES OF URBAN CONGESTION AND RURAL DECLINE, THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT SHOULD ACTIVELY INFLUENCE THE LOCATION OF NEW INDUSTRIES AND THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLE, AS WELL AS THE UPLIFTMENT OF THE DISADVANTAGED RURAL AREAS, THROUGH THE CREATION OF "URBAN GROWTH CENTERS," WITH A DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY OF "PLANNED DISPERSION."

This development policy is twofold: one is directed toward urban development, in order to minimize the "pull" factors of Metropolitan Manila and more importantly perhaps, to create alternative points of attraction to stimulate and set in motion a series of social and economic changes; the other is directed toward rural development, in order to minimize the "push" factors of the

countryside and encourage the rural population to remain in the agricultural sectors of the nation. Industrialization and rural development must be considered together. Excessive stress is often laid on the urban-rural dichotomy, and agricultural development in modernizing countries tends to be neglected in favor of rapid industrialization.<sup>9</sup> As a result, agriculture has come to be a symbol of backwardness, while industrialization, as a means toward prosperity, and an end in itself.

The national urban growth strategy to be implemented is "planned dispersion." This would mean the selection of "growth centers" or loci of concentration which has great potentials for physical, social and economic developments. The criteris for selecting these growth centers would be varied. One criterion is the rural-urban migration patterns within the various regions of the Philippines, or the migration patterns of slum dwellers and squatters. A number of studies to decentralize Metropolitan Manila have been done. Proposals have been made to build a ring of "counter-magnets" around the Metropolitan Manila region.<sup>10</sup> These proposals, however, would only serve as pallative measures from a national standpoint. As seen from the migration patterns of the entire country (see Figures 10 and 11), and the places of origins of the squatters and

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<sup>9</sup>International Union of Local Authorities, Urbanization in Developing Countries, p. 21.

<sup>10</sup>See Yoland Vicente-Goli, "The Development of Counter-Magnets to Manila," Economic Research Journal, XVI (March, 1970); and the Institute of Planning, "A Planning Strategy for Metropolitan Manila, AD 2000," EKistics, XXVIII (August, 1969).

slum dwellers, the immigrants come from places far from Metropolitan Manila. This would suggest that growth centers at these regions or places of origin are needed. The criteria of migration patterns used in a study by Richard Poethig<sup>11</sup> concluded that Cebu City in the Visayas, Iligan City and Davao City in Mindanao are the most promising centers. The places of origin of the slum-dwellers of Metropolitan Manila would seem to indicate that a growth center is also needed in the Leyte-Samar region (see Figure 19).

Additional criteria may be used, such as industrial feasibility, in which case the Iligan area would be a desirable site due to the existing Maria Christina Falls, which could provide adequate electrical power. Agricultural feasibility could also be a criterion, in which case Davao City with its extensive abaca and coconut plantations, or Negros Province, with its sugar plantations, and the Cagayan Valley Region, with its fertile valleys, would offer suitable potential sites for a growth center. There may be other criteria to be applied in the selection of these growth centers, however, the over-riding yardstick should be "the progress of the human condition with regard to income, social and individual welfare, and the ease, comfort, and convenience of the physical environment."<sup>12</sup>

A number of government incentives may also be used to encourage the location of industrial firms in these growth centers. An

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<sup>11</sup>Richard Poethig, "Needed: Philippine Urban Growth Centers," Ekistics, XXX (November, 1970).

<sup>12</sup>United Nations, International Social Review No. 2, United Nations Publications (ST/SOA/Ser. x/2), 1970, p. 14.

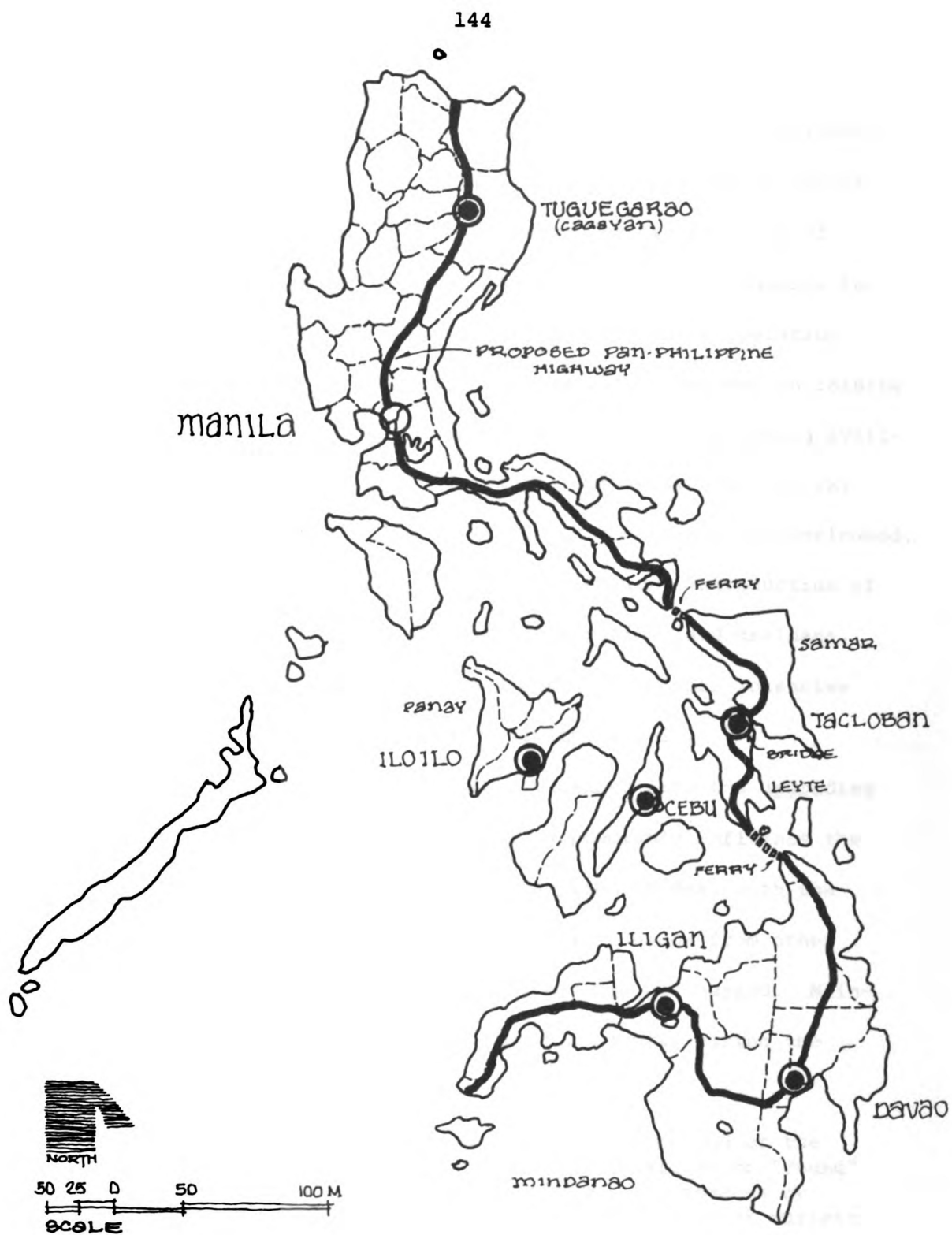


Figure 19.--Possible Growth Centers for the Philippines

array of fiscal measures is available as inducement to entrepreneurs, such as tax abatements or exceptions for various excises or import taxes. The government might also undertake massive building of physical and social infra-structure and other positive measures to stimulate the advantages of industrial or agricultural operation.

The strategy of rural development would be focused on raising agricultural output, both by increasing yield and by expanding available arable land. In a country with a predominantly agricultural economy, the improvement of the rural sector should not be overlooked. Such measures as the improvement of seed selection, introduction of fertilizers, mechanization of farmwork, irrigation, and drainage, among others, may be applied. These projects are labor-intensive programs and can, therefore, use the existing skills.

The creation of growth centers, together with the upgrading of the rural or agricultural areas could appreciably influence the relocation of people. Measures must be applied to deal with the problem of excess migration to large cities. Lessons from other countries which have attempted such programs may be learned. Mainland China, for example, used the following measures during the decade of 1950 to 1960:

Mainland China . . . has carried out over the period of the decade a systematic and intensive campaign designed to "round" and return rural migrants to their villages and reverse or halt the blind movement of peasants to towns. A great variety of measures, some of them drastic, have been employed, including, for example, the transfer of "surplus population of cities" to the countryside and to "hilly areas" to engage in agriculture, forestry and other projects requiring the mass application of labor; requirements of prompt registration by peasants and rural migrants upon entering cities; instructions to agricultural producers' cooperatives to welcome migrants back to villages

and to facilitate their readjustment to rural life through the provision of food and housing and other assistance; the application of peasants in order to avoid costs of transshipment; instructions to urban workers not to flaunt the attractions of urban life during their periodic visits to villages: "ideological education" in villages to help the rural population to understand the importance and significance of agricultural production; revision of various subsidies and social service provisions in cities which had tended to encourage rural-urban migration (for example, subsidized housing for workers, payment of one-half of the medical expenses of workers' dependents, the issuance of food and clothing ration coupons, etc.); the granting by civil affairs departments in cities of travel and subsistence allowances to enable peasants to return to their villages.<sup>13</sup>

Some of these extreme measures would not apply in the Philippines. Instead, more positive incentives may be attempted, such as increasing income from agriculture, land reform or redistributing land to farmers, expanding employment opportunities in rural areas and providing facilities for health, education, welfare and recreation. Programs to improve commutation from rural areas to the "poblacion" may also be proposed as alternatives to migration to the cities.

OBJECTIVE FOUR: IN THE FACE OF ADMINISTRATIVE INEFFICIENCIES AND DEFICIENCIES, SUBSTANTIAL REORGANIZATION SHOULD BE MADE TO CREATE A VIABLE AND DYNAMIC ADMINISTRATIVE FRAMEWORK THAT WILL IMPROVE THE MACHINERY FOR THE FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND PLANS, AND TO ACHIEVE MAXIMUM COORDINATION AMONG VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS, AS WELL AS INSURE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES AND PLANS.

Although proposals may be formulated where only minor changes in the administrative set-up may be made, no less than a total and overall change of the whole administrative planning structure is

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<sup>13</sup>United Nations, Report on the World's Social Situation, United Nations Publications (Sales no. 1.63.iv.4), 1963, p. 98.



essential to promote effective and efficient planning in the Philippines. This is not to propose a new body, rather, an integration and differentiation of functions and responsibilities, in order to avoid costly and inefficient overlapping of authorities and activities.

It is proposed that four departments be created to correspond to the four planning dimensions (see Figure 20): (1) the Department of Human Settlements, which would be responsible for rural and urban development; and (2) the Department of Natural Resources, in charge of the improvement and maintenance of environmental quality, both departments being under physical planning; (3) the Department of Human Resources, under social planning, which would be concerned with such issues as health, education, manpower, etc.; and (4) the Department of Economic Resources, under economic planning, which would be responsible for business development, trade, commerce and industry.

All these departments should be located at the cabinet level, directly under the President, like the other executive departments such as the Department of Defense and the Department of Justice.

The Department of Human Settlements might incorporate existing agencies concerned with rural and urban development, such as the Presidential Assistance on Community Development (PACD) and the Office of National Planning of the NEC and the National Planning Commission. The Department of Human Settlements could even be the existing National Planning Commission, with its powers and authorities extended to include:

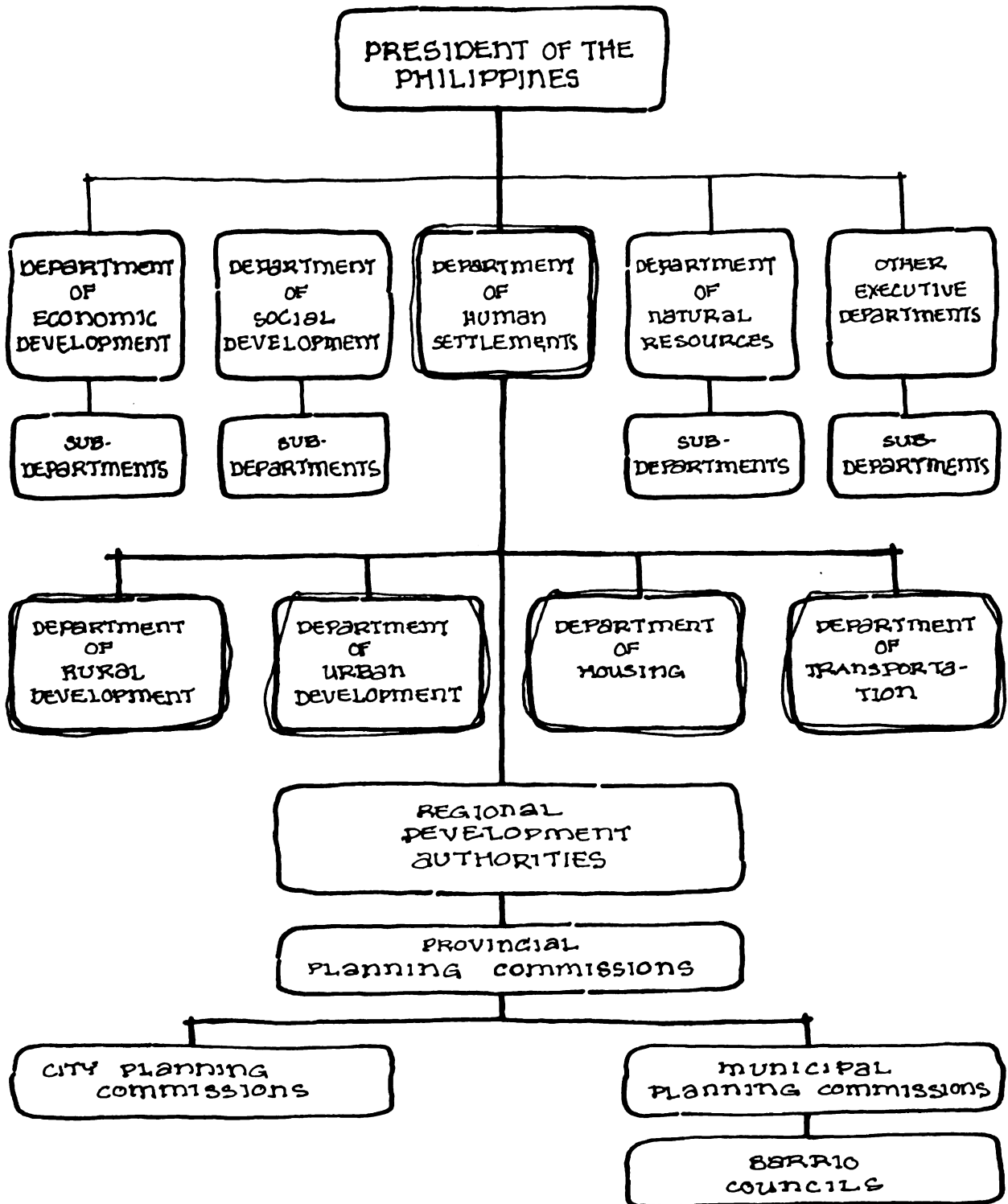


Figure 20.--Proposed Administrative Framework for Planning in the Philippines

One: Assisting and strengthening the public and private planning institutions by providing financial and technical assistance to regional authorities and local planning agencies in their planning activities in the rural and urban sectors.

Two: Undertaking the planning, financing, constructing, rehabilitation, maintenance and management of government housing for the entire nation and overseeing the housing activities of the private sector.

Three: Assisting in the development of a balanced, efficient and integrated transportation system which would include the highways, seaports, and airports.

In order to carry out the above responsibilities, the Department of Human Settlements would have four sub-departments under it: the Departments of Rural Development, Urban Development, Housing and Transportation. The Department of Rural Development would, of course, cover assistance at the rural level, while the Department of Urban Development would be responsible for the urbanized areas. Due to the difficulty of delineating the separate but related rural and urban areas, these two sub-departments would need to be closely coordinated. Both would be concerned with land use planning, community facilities planning, open space, and the planning of utilities such as sewers, water, electricity, drainage and refuse collection and disposal.

The Department of Housing would integrate all the existing departments and government corporations concerned with housing. This would include the existing Presidential Assistant on Housing and

Resettlement Agency (PAHRA) which acts as a coordinating body among the various agencies in housing; the People's Homesite and Housing Corporation (PHHC) whose primary objective is to provide low-cost housing for the low-income group as well as provide community and institutional houses for the destitute individuals and families; and the CITRUS or Central Institute for the Training and Relocation of Urban Squatters, which is responsible for the promotion of economic security and social stability of former urban squatters.

The Department of Transportation would cover the three modes of movement: land, air, and sea. It would be responsible for such transportation issues as mass transit systems, national highways, harbors or seaports, and major and minor public and private airports.

Coordination must be accomplished horizontally among the various cabinet departments at the national level, and vertically, among the different planning agencies from the national to the local levels. A two-way process is sorely needed, whereby the main direction of development strategy and priorities decided on the national level will be used in planning on the lower levels and individual projects should influence planning decisions at the national level. Thus, the line of influence in the formulation of policies and plans would proceed from the Department of Human Settlements, with its four sub-departments, to the Regional Development Authorities, which would act as the link between national and local policies and plans; then to the provincial planning agencies, which would have the city and municipal planning agencies, the latter also responsible for the "barrio" or community development agencies. The lines of influence

should then revert back from the "barrios" to the national planning agency.

The reorganization proposed above will have definite advantages:

First: The important role of physical planning in the planning process is recognized. It is deplorable that in the developing countries, up to the present time have solely concentrated their planning efforts on socio-economic programs and have somehow ignored their locational aspects. Their planning methodologies, like in the Philippines, "do not as a rule, include a plan for land use, (on the) . . . assumption that if an appropriate allotment of capital is obtained, management, labor and land will follow automatically."<sup>14</sup> The fallacy of such a concept is reflected in the haphazard and drastic development of urban centers. The proposed reorganization would not only give physical planning the proper recognition it deserves, but would also give it the authority and influence it needs.

Second: Placed at the cabinet level, the new Department of Human Settlements will have more authority and presidential support which are so important if it is to influence the centralized decision-making process in the Philippines, and if policies are to be adopted and implemented.

Third: Problems of coordination and overlapping functions will be minimized, if not eliminated due to the centralized and

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<sup>14</sup>C. Haar, B. Higgins and L. Rodwin, "Economic and Physical Planning Conditions in Developing Areas," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXXIV (July, 1958), 167.

integrated nature of the Department. The formulation of policies and plans and the advising of the President on matters of community development will come only from one source, eliminating the questions of conflicting interests among various agencies in the present structural organizations.

Fourth: The need to simultaneously develop both the rural and urban sectors is recognized, thus allowing for more balanced and complementary allocation of resources to both of these areas.

OBJECTIVE FIVE: IN ORDER TO GUIDE THE FORMULATION OF SOUND POLICIES AND THE PREPARATION OF EFFECTIVE PLANS, AS WELL AS TO FACILITATE THEIR IMPLEMENTATION, THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD EMBARK ON MASSIVE EDUCATIONAL AND RESEARCH PROGRAMS, WHICH WOULD INCLUDE CONTINUING RESEARCH, INFORMATION SYSTEMS, AND DATA GATHERING ON RURAL AND URBAN ISSUES; SUSTAINED AND INTENSIVE PUBLIC EDUCATION TO ELICIT INFORMED AND ACTIVE CITIZEN PARTICIPATION; AND A GENEROUS PROGRAM TO TRAIN COMPETENT TECHNICIANS AND PROFESSIONAL PLANNERS.

The value of research and information systems in planning cannot be overemphasized. Effective planning for urban development depends largely on the availability and analysis of information. Adequate basic information is essential for the formulation and implementation of plans and policies for urban development. Improving the information system will in many cases mean improving the process of decision-making.<sup>15</sup> This would also mean improving the methods used in the information and data gathering. The need for an improved information system is critical in the Philippines. A recent study

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<sup>15</sup>International Union of Local Authorities, Urbanization in Developing Countries, p. 31.

on the economic and political development in the Philippines arrived at a conclusion which differed sharply from the conventional views and perceptions about the country. In its conclusion, the study stated that:

. . . information generated by the Philippine reporting system is sometimes wrong, sometimes inconsistent, often ambiguous . . . if the reporting is bad, policy-makers are ill-informed and policy may be inappropriate. Policy-makers do perceive the Philippines through media other than the official reporting systems--personal observation, the press and acquaintances . . . personal observations are often limited to Manila, which is vastly different from the rest of the country by practically any measure. Similarly, the Manila press provides a dubious characterization of the state of the nation as a whole.<sup>16</sup>

Correct information is needed for sound decision-making and it seems equally important to generate informed and active citizen participation. The current awareness in the field of planning today is that plans are made not for people, but with people. This means that the public, who are supposed to be the benefactor of the plans, must have their interests articulated in the decision-making process. Unfortunately, in the Philippines, the majority of the people who are affected by national policy decisions have largely been apathetic and unresponsive. They have also been largely neglected. For example, the present atmosphere of impending "revolution" embraces a confused majority that does not know what will happen. This includes the poor, who mutter over rising prices, and life's miseries, "but virtually none has joined demonstrations and other mass protest actions."<sup>17</sup> On the part of the decision-makers "in the making of

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<sup>16</sup> Averch, Crisis of Ambiguity, p. 223.

<sup>17</sup> The State News, February 24, 1970, p. 4.

governmental policies . . . the compromises only produce bargains that are based on personal arrangements among the leaders, and not decisions that are derived primarily from the relationships between national resources and national needs."<sup>18</sup>

The greatest potential of active citizen participation lies in its ability to considerably contribute to the successful execution or implementation of plans. Moreover, in the process, the citizens become better informed about the services that are available to them and at the same time, in identifying the community needs and demands, the decision-makers become aware of the needs of the people.

Participation by the citizens may be carried directly through involvement in the planning process, especially during the preparation of policies and plans, through public hearings, or in direct execution of projects and self-help programs. Indirectly, the citizens may participate through his vote and through the mass media. All possible means of communication should be used, including the press, radio, television and lectures, not only to inform the citizens, but to elicit interest in planning and awareness of what they can do to improve their environment. Direct participation should be encouraged in the local levels where citizens are easily accommodated and heard.

The highly organized slum and squatter organizations in the country have perhaps found the way for the possibilities of active citizen participation. Due to the squatter's realization that their survival depends on their strength, they have "learned to organize

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<sup>18</sup>Corpus, The Philippines, p. 139.



and barter their votes for political protection."<sup>19</sup> A broadening of concerns is now needed, from purely local interests to those which have a broader or national consequence.

In terms of indirect citizen participation, especially in national politics, since public participation is limited to periodic elections and referendums, what is needed is a guarantee that each citizen is free to participate whenever he wants to, unencumbered by external forces, and that the interests of the minority are never denied the opportunity to be heard, and for the leaders and decision-makers to offer the citizens their choice of goals and decisions.

The training of planners to formulate plans and draft policies become equally as important as the education of the citizens and the building of accurate information systems. However, this would not necessarily mean the training of more planners. While the Philippines, like most developing countries, does need more physical and social planners, what is perhaps more needed at this time are administrative planners trained to implement plans. These would serve to complement the many professional planners presently in the country, who are trained mostly in western schools of architecture, engineering and urban planning, and acquiring techniques of urban design and physical planning. It has been shown that the failure of planning in the Philippines is not so much the absence of plans as it is the absence of implementing devices and techniques, as well as the lack of support from the politicians. The administrators and public officials at the

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<sup>19</sup> Laquian, City in Nation Building, p. 55.

higher echelon of government, such as the Regional Development Authority officers and top officials at the various executive departments should become more involved in planning activities, and the politicians should be motivated to become engaged to a much higher degree in the preparation and execution of development plans.

The training of professional comprehensive planners cannot be overlooked, of course, but it should be emphasized that their training should be highly suited and responsive to the unique and peculiar needs and demands of the Philippine environment, even though they attend professional schools in other nations and cultures.

#### Implementing Policies

Implementing policies form the third group in the hierarchy of development policies. They are more specific and are action-oriented. They are formulated in consonance with the defined goals and objectives. Due to limitations in time and other resources, this study is concentrated on implementing policies for physical planning, and the relationship to the overall growth strategy of "planned dispersion," as well as ramifications on the social, economic and administrative aspects of planning in the Philippines.

Three aspects of the physical environment that could effectuate desirable "planned dispersion" growth in the Philippines and that would need implementing policies at the national level are: (1) land use, (2) housing, and (3) transportation. Similar to the four planning dimensions, these three physical aspects of the planning environment are separate and distinct, but each is interrelated with each other.

The massive rural-urban migration and the resulting urban crisis has influenced land use patterns in the country and has sharply brought into focus the need for national guidelines on land use developments. Similarly, transportation developments have altered land uses. In fact, there is a continuous and cyclic relationship between land use and transportation. This cycle begins with any land use: commercial, industrial, residential, or recreational use. These activities on the land generate trips which are shown on planning maps as straight lines called "desire lines." These lines link points of origin to the point of destination which constitute the bases for determining transportation needs. The construction of a highway or other transportation facilities to meet these needs creates accessibility which permits people to get to a site, and allows the land to develop and acquire land value. These values, in turn, complete the cycle by contributing to the process of determining land uses.<sup>20</sup>

Housing, the other aspect, is highly dependent on transportation facilities. One solution to the housing crisis, for example, lies in the opening up of new land, away from the crowded urban centers, or by activating the existing urban centers themselves, by making them accessible through an effective national and regional transportation system. Housing also influences land use patterns. The shortage of the housing supply has caused "major changes in urban land tenure, urban land patterns, and urban land policy."<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>20</sup>"Transportation and the City," Architectural Forum (October, 1963), 89.

<sup>21</sup>United Nations, "Urban Land Problems and Policies," Housing and Town and Country Planning, Bulletin no. 7, United Nations Publications (ST/SOA/Serc. C/7), 1953, p. 55.

The following are the implementing policies designed to carry out the "planned dispersion" strategy:

#### National Land Use Policies

Land is a basic resource; it is perhaps, also the most valuable resource. However, an increasing population, with its related rapid urban development and expansion have put unexpected pressures on the use of land. The nature of the development of land has previously been left to the arbitrary nature of the free market or to the narrow and short-sighted decisions of local units of government. The current development crisis is partly due to this practice. The local units are limited by the confines of their jurisdiction. Critical development areas and ecological systems are rarely viewed by the locality in terms of their regional importance. Cooperation with adjoining governmental units are often stunted by economic competition, which is fostered by the dependence of local governments upon development related property tax revenues. A national land use policy is needed that will seek to control major developments and facilities, accommodate vital development needs, and protect important conservation areas on a national and regional basis.

The following are the inherent components of a national land use policy:

1. POLICIES FOR LAND USE SHOULD BE FORMULATED ON A REGIONAL SCALE.

Soundness of local urban land policies can in the final analysis, be measured largely in the context of regional conditions. A region may be designated as an area which is connected or related

by large-scale or major facilities, large scale developments and comprehensive systems, that are of more than local significance in their impact upon the environment. Major facilities to be dealt with include, but are not limited to, airports, regional and national recreational lands and facilities, large-scale developments, conversely, may be measured by the amount of land coverage, number of dwelling units, amount of water use or waste water effluent, number of employees and residents and/or visitors.

2. IN CONSONANCE WITH THE GROWTH STRATEGY OF "PLANNED DISPERSION," LAND USE POLICIES SHOULD BE FORMULATED TO EFFECTIVELY INFLUENCE THE LOCATION OF INDUSTRIES AND THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLE OR THE SHIFT OF POPULATION CENTERS.

Economic development programs should take into account the implications of the resulting population movements to urban areas. These industries and population centers can effectively be controlled either by selective re-vitalization of existing growth centers or cities, or by building large-scale developments such as planned unit developments and planned "new towns," at selected strategic locations. The latter is particularly effective in controlling and directing growth patterns. Growth centers located outside metropolitan areas provide a near-at-hand destination for low-income out-migrant job-seekers from rural poverty areas. These persons and their families would otherwise move to the cities. The proximity of new towns to rural areas will also likely enable these communities to attract those rural jobless who are reluctant to leave their native communities. This portion of the population constitute the hard core rural

poor. New towns also have the potential of attracting out-migrants from the central cities in search of jobs.<sup>22</sup>

3. STRATEGIC USE OF TAX LEVIES, PUBLIC LOAN AND SUBSIDIZATION SHOULD BE MADE IN ORDER TO DISCOURAGE IMPROPER DEVELOPMENTS OR MIS-USE OF LAND AND TO ENCOURAGE PROPER AND MORE DESIRABLE DEVELOPMENTS.

Public loans and subsidization may be contingent upon compliance by the developers with the requirements of sound planning policies, thus directly influencing development patterns to conform to the defined and adopted policies.

4. LAND USE CONTROL MEASURES SUCH AS ZONING ORDINANCES, BUILDING REGULATIONS, SUBDIVISION CONTROLS AND HOUSING CODES, AND OTHERS, SHOULD BE ENCOURAGED FOR USE AT THE LOCAL UNITS OF GOVERNMENT, WITH GUIDANCE FROM THE PROPOSED DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN SETTLEMENTS.

Most local units of government, as yet, do not have land use control devices. A set of uniform ordinances should be prepared for these local units, and should be coordinated with and complemented by national land use policies. It should include a policy to reserve tracts of land for urban growth in order that urban development may be guided toward more desirable patterns. The policy should provide for easy acquisition of public land, for taxation of land owners in furtherance of a definite land policy and for the control of land use according to adopted plans.

Public lands are needed for a number of public uses and institutions and for government projects, such as low-income housing,

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<sup>22</sup>United States, Advisory Commission of Intergovernmental Relations, Urban and Rural America: Policies for Future Growth (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 140.

where families have no legal ways of acquiring land under the present conditions. At the same time, public ownership of land will reduce land speculation.

5. THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT SHOULD EXERCISE ITS POWERS  
TO CONTROL URBAN LAND ALLOCATIONS, PUBLIC LAND  
ABUSE AND MISUSE.

The police or regulatory powers, eminent domain and taxation should be used to control land or regulate its use, to acquire land for public purposes and to subsidize land development and regulate or influence land use through tax levies. While it is generally recognized that the power of eminent domain does not carry with it the right to take land from one person and turn it over to another, land may be acquired in a compulsory manner from one private owner and sold to another if the sale is incidental the main purpose of slum clearance, urban redevelopment or other purposes declared to be a proper public benefit.

6. PROGRAMS MUST BE DEvised AND UTILIZED TO CONTROL  
PRIVATE LAND COST SPECULATION.

In the Philippines, it is land, more than building costs, that deprives the lower-income group of home ownership. In some areas of the country, a small house made of bamboo and wood would cost only about \$100, but a 400 square meter lot in town would run to \$3000, thirty times the cost of the house.<sup>23</sup>

Among various methods which may be utilized to control land costs are: (1) confiscation during periods of upheaval; (2) prior

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<sup>23</sup> Abrams, Man's Struggle for Shelter, p. 57.

regulation on sale of land and resale; (3) rent controls; (4) building regulations; (5) zoning; (6) control of subdivisions; (7) requisition or control of development rights; (8) acquisition and sale of reserve lands; (9) tax incentive policies; (10) use of public subsidies with expropriation; (11) public acquisition of land in advance of industrial or residential settlement; (12) regulation by government agencies and the implementation of mandatory referrals of plans to these agencies; (13) reparceling of plots; (14) building of new towns; and (15) control of development through various financing schemes.

7. IN THE PROCESS OF LAND DEVELOPMENT, NATURAL AREAS SHOULD BE CONSERVED AND DIMINISHING NATURAL AND SCENIC AREAS SHOULD BE PROTECTED PERMANENTLY.

The Philippines is still relatively sufficient in natural and scenic regions. However, land is a very limited resource. There will never be any appreciable addition to the existing inventory. These natural and scenic regions must therefore be identified and delineated in the national land use plans, and all necessary actions must be taken immediately to preserve them, in anticipation of the diverse effects of rapid urbanization and the current movement to the suburbs.

8. THE LAND REFORM CODE MUST BE IMPLEMENTED.

This is a crucial element of the national land use policy. The implementation of land reforms will not only influence land development patterns, especially in the rural areas, but will also alter land tenure systems. It could free the farmer of his debts and will make him a landholder. Consequently, land reform could



have special ramifications on the economy of the nation, and to a large extent, on the socio-economic life of the tenants.

Land is still an abundant resource in the Philippines, but the rapid increase of population and the massive rural-urban migration have put tremendous pressures on land, that it can easily become a relatively scarce resource. These national land use policies must, therefore, be adopted in the near future, in order to correct and control the use, misuse, abuse, non-use and re-use of land.

#### National Housing Policies

The growing shortage of the supply of housing units, the rapid increase of squatter settlements and the proliferation of slum dwellers make the provision of adequate shelter one of the most crucial problems that now confronts the Philippines. The housing need is threefold: new houses are needed, first, to remove the existing housing shortage and deficit; second, to replace the large quantity of slums and sub-standard housing now being occupied; and third, to meet the demands of the additional population increase, including both the natural increase and, in the urban areas, that created by the rural migrants.

The provision of sufficient housing units to satisfy the tremendous demand, given limited administrative, technical and economic resources, is a challenge that requires no less than a combined national effort that will involve all sectors of society and the economy--the government officials, the citizens, the rich and the poor, the laborers, the entrepreneurs, the private developers, the builders, and the land owners.

It should be indicated that there are four primary groups in the Philippines that all require housing. These are: (1) the upper socio-economic group that needs no assistance; (2) the new and growing middle-income group that has sufficient income to arrange for better housing if the necessary financing and credit mechanisms are established; (3) the relatively large lower-income group that could obtain better housing if its earnings through regular wages and possible small family savings could be augmented through more financial and other assistance; and (4) the large sector of extremely low and irregular income. The latter group, by virtue of its size and meager financial resources, constitutes the most serious problem.<sup>24</sup>

The four housing groups must be recognized, and appropriate policies must be formulated to meet their unique and different needs. The following are therefore recommended to become integral policies of the proposed Department of Housing:

1. A SYSTEM OF INSTITUTIONAL FINANCING FOR HOME BUILDING, WITH PROGRAMS TO OBTAIN SUFFICIENT MONEY TO LOAN FOR MORTGAGES SHOULD BE ESTABLISHED.

This policy is primarily addressed to the steadily increasing middle-income families. These mortgages should have low equity (down payments), long amortization periods, and moderate interest rates. Financial institutions such as the Government Security Insurance System (GSIS), the Social Security Service (SSS), and the Development Bank of the Philippines (DBP) are already established and operational in the Philippines. These institutions help home-builders secure

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<sup>24</sup>Glenn Beyer, Housing and Society (New York: MacMillan Co., 1965), p. 415.

various forms of financial assistance. However, their programs and interest rates need reexamination. Their functions and responsibilities need to be clarified, coordinated and integrated. A Home Financing Commission (HFC), modeled after the FHA in the United States, was established in 1957 and undertook to insure loans of up to 95 per cent of appraised value. Other loan associations of lesser importance offer financial assistance, such as the Agricultural Credit and Cooperative Financing Administration, which made loans available to small farmers and tenants, and the Philippine National Bank, which made loans to prospective home-builders. In spite of these institutions, however, there is still a "shortage of mortgage money, and as elsewhere, it is hard for the average worker to borrow the money with which to build his house."<sup>25</sup> The interest rates have been from 8 to 13 per cent, and frequently, even higher.

2. CONSTRUCTIVE AND IMAGINATIVE PROGRAMS TO STIMULATE SAVINGS SHOULD BE INITIATED.

This policy is primarily designed for the middle- and low-income families needing housing. Various programs to encourage savings should be promoted, and the savings should all be channeled for housing developments. This may be done through the existing Savings and Loans Associations. Governmental encouragement of savings should also be done through favorable legislation, the control of inflation, and under some circumstances, through the provision of initial capital.

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<sup>25</sup> Abrams, Man's Struggle for Shelter, p. 227.

3. THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD UNDERTAKE MASSIVE PUBLIC HOUSING, WHICH WOULD ENTAIL PUBLIC SUBSIDIES, AND MORE IMPORTANTLY, AIDED SELF-HELP.

This program would be concentrated on the large lower-income group and the even larger group with extremely low and irregular incomes. Subsidies, because it is necessarily limited considering the financial state of a developing country, must be guided by clear and objective principles. These subsidies might include capital financing, deficit subsidies, cash subsidies, interest rebates and write-downs of land and building costs.<sup>26</sup>

The limited economic resources and government subsidies would have to be supplemented by the next best alternative, which is aided self-help. This would require the labor of the individual family, as well as assistance of various kinds from the government. This assistance may simply be financial, or it may take the form of assisting with the provision of building materials. It may provide aid in the development of building sites, with roads, water and sanitation facilities. Further, the assistance might be loans of building equipment and machinery or it may provide either technical or physical assistance for the construction of all or part of the house. It might also include the pre-construction of units, such as sanitary facilities; or it may provide for any combination of these above-listed forms of assistance.<sup>27</sup>

4. PROGRAMS TO LOWER THE COST OF BUILDING HOUSES SHOULD BE DEVELOPED AND IMPLEMENTED.

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 223.

<sup>27</sup>Beyer, Housing and Society, p. 566.

Aided self-help would considerably lower the cost of home building, but other programs, to complement self-help should be carried out. Among these programs are:

- a. Standardization of building processes and mass manufacture of structural, non-structural and other elements.
- b. The use of local materials and local building methods, especially in the rural areas, where such materials are abundant. Native tradition have been thoughtlessly dismissed as outmoded. However, "sometimes, one sees strong flat roofs made of local soil, and in the most primitive tribal villages, one often finds houses that are better examples of indigenous building craftsmanship than those found in some of the more developed countries."<sup>28</sup>
- c. Imaginative and practical housing regulations and design. This would include the revision of zoning ordinances and subdivision regulations, and allowing innovative housing designs such as planned unit developments and cluster housing. This would also entail the rewriting of building codes to bring housing standards and dimensions to reasonable proportions. Ceiling heights in the Philippine houses, for example, are "frequently excessive."<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>28</sup> Abrams, Man's Struggle for Shelter, p. 227.

<sup>29</sup> Ibid.

5. THERE SHOULD BE A SOUND PROGRAM OF URBAN RENEWAL AND RURAL RESETTLEMENT.

An important element of housing programs should be sensible relocation of squatters and slum dwellers. A number of squatter relocation programs have been attempted in the Philippines,<sup>30</sup> but most have been unsuccessful largely due to the unconcern, on the part of the agencies, of the welfare of the residents, together with an uncoordinated system of eviction and relocation.

In 1954, the Philippine authorities attempted to relocate squatters in Manila, 12 miles from where they lived, but the squatters returned, having sold their subsidized plots at a profit. In 1963, a more attractive resettlement plan was produced. Based on the assumption that one-half of the squatters wanted to be resettled rurally if given the agricultural land, 1000 families were to be relocated at Sapang Palay, about 50 miles and a two-hour bus ride from Manila. The project has met a number of problems and difficulties, and despite the distance, almost one-half of the residents commute to Manila for work.<sup>31</sup> Better programs of relocation and resettlement are needed, at the core of which should be an understanding and concern of the welfare of the squatters and the slum dwellers.

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<sup>30</sup> See Morris Jupenlatz, Cities in Transformation (Australia: University of Queensland Press, 1970); and Approdicio Laquian, Slums are for People (Manila: IM Press, 1969).

<sup>31</sup> United Nations, Urbanization: Development Policies and Planning, p. 123.

6. PROPOSALS TO HELP PREVENT SQUATTING IN THE FUTURE SHOULD BE FORMULATED, IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE URBAN RENEWAL AND RURAL RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMS.

Programs such as rent controls, new land and housing tenures, cooperatives and condominiums and other forms of home ownership should be forwarded as viable alternatives and critically necessary measures.

7. AN INTEGRAL PART OF ANY RELOCATION PROJECT SHOULD BE AN OPPORTUNITY FOR ACTIVE CITIZEN PARTICIPATION.

No housing agency can ever begin to make an impression on the housing problem without the active participation of the people themselves. The crucial difference between "working for" and "working with" the people should be understood by anyone who wishes to relocate or resettle families.

The above policies are meant to ameliorate or solve the housing crisis in the Philippines. It must be remembered, however, that as emphasized earlier in the previous chapters of this thesis, housing involves the physical, social, economic, and political aspects of the planning environment. Therefore, a more viable long-range policy might be programs which are directed toward raising the economic levels of the population to an adequate level, to organize a responsive and stable administration, and to educate the people, so that they can effectively participate in the government programs and become involved in the continuing process of improving their environments.

#### National Transportation Policies

In the Philippines, because of its mountainous and rugged landscape, and because of its insular pattern, transportation acquires

added significance in development strategies. Transportation also becomes a vital link in influencing the location of industries and the movement of people, by creating accessibility and by opening new land.

Transportation policies that could influence the character and direction of growth and change to a desirable development pattern would include the following:

1. A MULTI-MODAL SYSTEM OF TRANSPORTATION SHOULD BE CREATED TO SUPPORT THE PROPOSED STRATEGY OF "PLANNED DISPERSION."

This would mean the coordination and integration of air, water, highway and railway transportation systems. Up to the present time, these transportation systems have been built and maintained relatively independently by all levels of government and by private enterprise. As a result, this has created dysfunctions, not only in their individual operations, but also seriously affected the direction of growth of the country. It is now time that these transportation modes be planned and, perhaps, operated as one total system designed to contribute to economic and social development.

2. PORTS AND HARBORS SHOULD BE IMPROVED AND MODERNIZED TO EFFECTIVELY HANDLE THE INTERISLAND COMMERCE INDUSTRY AND MULTI-PURPOSE VESSELS SHOULD BE USED WITH ACCOMMODATIONS THAT ARE ADEQUATE FOR CARGO AND COMFORTABLE FOR PASSENGERS.

Interisland transportation, in a nation made up of 7000 islands, cannot be over-emphasized. Air transportation, as discussed in Chapter III of this thesis, seems adequate at present and even in the immediate future. But this mode of transportation is not appropriate for movement of large numbers of people. Moreover, it is not within



easy reach of the common people in the rural areas, where the majority of the people reside. The next best alternative is water transportation, which, while it is perhaps the most needed, is unfortunately, also the most neglected.<sup>32</sup>

The expansion and improvement of ports and harbors to meet passenger and freight needs in the future should be located and designed so that they encourage development consistent with the proposed land use and settlement patterns of "planned dispersion."

3. THE PROPOSED PAN-PHILIPPINE HIGHWAY THAT STRETCHES FROM APARRI IN NORTHERN LUZON, TO ZAMBOANGA IN SOUTHERN MINDANAO, SHOULD BE BUILT.

When constructed and completed, this national highway (see Figure 19), will have considerable influence in the movement of people and the location of industries. It will not only provide access among various cities in the Philippines, but will at the same time open new land for urban development. Care must be taken, however, to design the highway system so as to preserve natural areas, good ecological systems and natural beauty. Already in its final stage of design, it still has the opportunity to learn of the experiences of the more developed nations, of the conflicts of highway building and the natural environment and human settlements.

4. THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT SHOULD ENCOURAGE, IF NOT ACTIVELY PARTICIPATE IN MAKING USE OF NEW TRANSPORTATION TECHNOLOGY IN PLANNING, AND IN CREATING AN EFFECTIVE MASS TRANSIT SYSTEM IN THE LARGE URBAN CENTERS, ESPECIALLY IN METROPOLITAN MANILA.

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<sup>32</sup>See Frederick Wernstedt, The Role and Importance of Philippine Inter-island Shipping and Trade, Data Paper No. 26 (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, Southeast Asia Program, Department of Far Eastern Studies, 1957).

The railroad has limited potentials for interisland travel, because of the rugged landscape and the insular character of the Philippines. It is, however, best suited for intra-island, and especially intra-metropolitan transportation. Technology suggests that a rail type of ground transportation may be the best solution to short- and medium-distance inter-city travel. The use of monorails, for example, seem to be the best alternative in Metropolitan Manila, where the roads are already congested with automobiles, jeepneys, and buses, but cannot be widened because of heavy developments on both sides of the street.

These are the development policies--the goals, objectives and implementing policies that the Philippines must aspire and attempt to accomplish. Some of these policies are already being adopted and desirable results being obtained. Others, however, will require more time, more effort and more sacrifices on the part of the Filipinos. Still others will demand drastic changes in existing Philippine institutions and require of the Filipino, fundamental and radical changes in his present attitudes and values.

When adopted and followed by the decision-makers, together with the support and participation of the people, these development policies could effectively guide the Philippines toward a more desirable and efficient pattern of growth and change in the future.

The adoption and execution of these development policies is a significant decision to make. However, something which is more important and something which should become an integral part of the development policies listed above, is a strong and sustained

commitment by the Filipino people and their decision-makers, to work hard, this time not so much for themselves or their families, but more importantly for their country and their fellowman. National goals cannot be attained with purely personal or family interests. This crucial decision can no longer wait . . . the commitment must be made now.

## CHAPTER VI

### CONCLUSION

The Philippines is a developing nation and the process of urbanization that is taking place is similar to those in other developing countries. However, at the same time, the Philippines, in many respects, is unlike other growing nations today. The framework within which this urbanization takes place is unique, and is seen in the country's land, its people, its economy and its system of government.

The land is insular in configuration; it is a group of 7000 islands. The climate is tropical, the landscape is mountainous, and the natural resources are varied, rich, and abundant. The people are similarly varied. Converging from all over Asia, and literally isolated into distinct regions by mountains and seas, the Filipinos formed groups that drastically differed in language, customs, and beliefs. The contact with foreign powers in the past, the presence of Spain for 300 years and of America for 48 years, have only served to sever their indigenous ways and widen the gaps in their contrasting traditions.

The economy is predominantly agricultural, although industrialization and diversity of economic activity is slowly being

realized. The system of government is patterned largely after that of the United States, but its practice has inevitably given way to the Filipino customs and traditions.

The Philippines, as a growing nation, shares the problems and dilemmas of most developing countries: a high birth rate and population increase, which is coupled with a sudden and massive surge of rural migration into the urban centers and to the overcrowded "primate city;" congestion in the streets and in the residential areas; slums and squatter settlements; poverty, and mounting crime rates. Simultaneously, given a unique Philippine setting, the Filipino is confronted with problems that are uniquely his own: the ambiguities of his dualistic beliefs and traditions that are constantly challenged by the demands of modernization; the sharp and disturbing contrast between the poor and the rich; the gross inequities in the distribution of economic wealth; and the inefficient administrative machinery and rampant graft and corruption in the public offices, all stem from his singular past history and present culture and temperament.

The vast resources and the complex problems that confront the Philippines are uniquely indigenous. It is, therefore, only logical that solutions peculiar to these conditions are required. These solutions--policies and plans--must be responsive not only to the complex problems of a developing country, but more importantly, be receptive of the unique needs and demands of the physical, social, economic, and administrative environments in the Philippines.

### Summary of Policy Recommendations

A careful assessment and analysis of the Philippine physical, social, economic and administrative resources, together with a serious recognition of the nation's problems, as well as the future trends and inherent potentials, all reveal that in order to effectively guide the future growth and changes of the country toward a more desirable development pattern, the following policies, presented in a hierarchy of goals, objectives and implementing policies, should be adopted:

#### Goals

1. The right to equality, justice and liberty.
2. The privilege to seek happiness, security, wealth, creativity, beauty and dignity.
3. The freedom from hunger, fear, ignorance, misery and hopelessness.

#### Objectives

1. In consideration of the diseconomies of urban congestion, with its related rapid increase of slums and squatter settlements and the inefficiencies in the administrative structure, a national urban growth policy must be established which would guide the location and character of future growth centers, development patterns, and conservation areas in the most efficient manner.
2. In the process of developing a comprehensive approach, the national policies and plans must be formulated to bring together all professions involved in the improvement of

the environment and to integrate the physical, social, economic, and political dimensions in planning.

3. In an attempt to regulate the rapid rate of rural-urban migration, which has caused diseconomies of urban congestion and rural decline, the national government should actively influence the location of new industries and the movement of people, as well as the upliftment of the disadvantaged rural areas, through the creation of "urban growth centers" with a development strategy of "planned dispersion."
4. In the face of administrative inefficiencies and deficiencies, substantial reorganization should be made in order to create a viable and dynamic administrative framework that will improve the machinery for the formulation and implementation of development policies and plans, and to achieve maximum coordination among various departments, as well as insure the implementation of the defined policies and plans.
5. In order to guide the formulation of sound policies and the preparation of effective plans, as well as to facilitate their implementation, the government should embark on a massive education and research program which would include continuing research, information systems studies and data gathering on rural and urban issues; sustained and intensive public education to elicit informed and active citizen participation; and a generous program to train more competent technicians and professional planners.

Implementing PoliciesLand-Use Policies.--

1. Policies for land-use should be formulated on a regional scale.
2. In consonance with the growth strategy of "planned dispersion," land use policies should be formulated to effectively influence the location of industries and the movement of people or the shift of population centers.
3. Strategic use of tax levies, public loan and subsidization must be made in order to discourage improper developments or mis-use of land and to encourage proper and more desirable developments.
4. Land-use control measures such as zoning ordinances, building regulations, subdivision controls and housing codes, and others, should be encouraged for use at the local units of government, with guidance from the proposed Department of Human Settlements.
5. The national government should exercise its powers to control urban land allocations, public land abuse and mis-use.
6. Programs should be devised and utilized to control private land cost speculation.
7. In the process of land development, natural areas should be conserved and diminishing natural and scenic areas should be protected permanently.
8. The land reform code must be implemented.



Housing Policies.--

1. A system of institutional financing for home-building, with programs to obtain sufficient money to loan for mortgages should be established.
2. Constructive and imaginative programs to stimulate savings should be initiated.
3. The government should undertake massive public housing, which would entail public subsidies, and more importantly, aided self-help.
4. Programs to lower the cost of building houses must be developed and implemented.
5. There should be a sound program of urban renewal and rural resettlement.
6. Proposals to help prevent squatting in the future should be formulated, in conjunction with the urban renewal and rural resettlement programs.
7. An integral part of any relocation project should be an opportunity for active citizen participation.

National Transportation Policies.--

1. A multi-modal system of transportation should be created to support the proposed strategy of "planned dispersion."
2. Ports and harbors should be improved and modernized to effectively handle the inter-island commerce and industry, and multi-purpose vessels should be used with accommodations that are adequate for cargo and comfortable for passengers.

3. The proposed Pan-Philippine highway that stretches from Aparri in northern Luzon to Zamboanga in southern Mindanao should be built.

4. The national government should encourage, if not actively participate in making use of new transportation technology in planning, and in creating an effective mass transit system in the large urban centers, especially in Metropolitan Manila.

These are the development policies, the goals, objectives, and implementing policies that the Philippines must aspire and attempt to accomplish. When adopted and followed by the decision-makers, together with the support and participation of the citizens, these development policies could effectively guide the Philippines toward a more desirable and efficient pattern of growth and change in the future.

#### The Need for Further Study

The development policies proposed above are by no means complete. As mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, the focus of the present study is necessarily restricted because of certain limitations. Further studies, therefore, will have to be made to supplement the present work. Such studies would concentrate on the social, economic, and administrative planning aspects in the Philippines. Issues like public health and education, the regulation of population growth, the maintenance of peace and order, and other social concerns are all important in guiding the growth of a nation. And since the Philippines is also an industrializing country, further studies will have to be done on ways to expand employment

opportunities, increasing productivity and the gross national product, raising the local, regional and national revenues and incomes, and raising the standard of living. Additional research and analysis is also required of the administration of public agency activities, and the functions and services of the total governmental framework, in order to make them more effective, responsive and efficient.

Lastly, the policy recommendation above will have to be refined in order to become operative. Detailed programs that will carry out these general policies will have to be formulated and implemented. Planning is a continuous process, therefore, these programs will need to be constantly refined, to become responsive to the changing needs and demands of the planning environments of the country. And the questions as to who, where, when and how, will all have to be answered through continuous research and education.

In conclusion, Jose Rizal is quoted again. This time, however, it is addressed to the 1970's, to a new people with new moods, new problems, and new aspirations; but nevertheless, with as much optimism and hope as Jose Rizal had when he wrote these words over a century ago:

Tomorrow we shall be citizens of the Philippines, whose destiny will be a glorious one, because it will be in loving hands. Ah, yes, the future is ours! I see it rose-tinted; I see the movement that stirs the life of those regions, so long dead, lethargic. I see towns arise along the railroads, and factories everywhere . . . I hear the steam hiss, the trains roar, the engines rattle! I see the smoke rise--their heavy breathing; I smell the oil--the sweat of monsters busy at incessant toil . . . and commerce, industry, agriculture, the sciences, will develop under the mantle of liberty, with wise and just laws.

Jose Rizal

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