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**Geography and Institutions: Insights
from Acemoglu, Robinson, and
Johnson in Analyzing Regional
Disparities in Agricultural Labor
Productivity in the Philippines**


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Geography and Institutions: Insights from Acemoglu, Robinson, and Johnson in Analyzing Regional Disparities in Agricultural Labor Productivity in the Philippines

By Annika Patrice G. Sia

Introduction

Nobel Prize-winning authors, Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson, emphasize the role of institutions in economic development. In their book *Why Nations Fail*, they argue that when a country has institutions that centralize power towards the small elite and discourage economic participation is bound to stay in poverty, while institutions that encourage citizens to participate in economic activities, promote equal rights and opportunities are the path towards economic development. Subsequently, the authors reject the role of geography, cultural customs, and ignorance, and instead shed light on colonization in shaping the types of institutions that were built in countries.

Although Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson were able to provide another viewpoint and possible strategies on how to encourage economic growth among nations, their framework is not free from criticisms and limitations. In the case of the Philippines, a country with regional and infrastructural inequalities due to its archipelagic nature, an argument that concentrates on a nation's institutions may disregard possible factors that can influence a nation's path towards development. The goal of this essay is to highlight the current state of the Philippine agricultural sector through a national and regional level analysis. As such, it intends to answer the following questions:

- What is the reason behind the extractive institutions present in the Philippines?
- What is the state of the agricultural sector as of the present?
- What caused the regional disparity among the Philippine regions, most especially in agricultural labor productivity?

This essay attempts to apply the perspective of Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson towards institutions in the agricultural sector of the Philippines.

The Historical Context: Colonialism, x2, x3

Greif (1994) defines institutions as the ‘rules of the game in a society’ which consists of two similar elements: a network of shared cultural beliefs and organizations that act as constraints to diminish the uncertainty of human behavior, regardless of its extractive or inclusive nature. In the case of the Philippines, institutions built were often shaped by colonialism, which included a flawed political system. Cruz (2014) argues that the nature of extractive institutions and widespread corruption and lack of stable property rights greatly benefited the elite, which resulted in hindered growth and investment, and eventually placed the Philippines in a position of underdevelopment. The Spanish Conquest, which lasted for 333 years, was seen to be the evidence behind the establishment of extractive institutions. They created an oligarchic system that reinforced class system divisions that ultimately benefited the elite. The *encomienda*, for example, was a system established that gave favor to the Spaniards. Under this, the *ecomendero* is given the power to control the natives who lived on the provided land grant. Although this gave them the power to control lands and the natives, the extractive nature of this system was eventually considered unprofitable (Cruz, 2014). This was against the beliefs of the indigenous people who considered land as sacred and communal property

Titling was initially against the beliefs of the indigenous people who considered land as a sacred and communal property, thereby reflecting the Spanish disregard towards the culture of the Filipinos (IFAD, 2023). The natives were already at a position of disadvantage, and by the time the Americans took over the Philippines, little to no work was done to address the injustice (Adriese, 2019). Individual landlords were allowed to supplement their assets by being granted the authority to buy

landed estates of the friars, while the farmers were left in the heat and had no choice but to sell their land to the elite and urban-based middle class (Francia, 2014, as cited by Adriesse, 2019). The Philippines, by this point, had a deep-seated issue with land because of its problematic colonial legacy, which resembled the great inequality of land distribution, similar to the situation of Latin America that was discussed by Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson (Baliscan and Hill, 2003). By the time the Japanese occupied the Philippines, the People's Liberation Army (formerly known as the Hukbalahap) fought against the pro-American elite through agrarian uprisings and assertion of land reform that resulted in an improvement of farmer livelihood (Adriesse, 2019). However, land tenure problems remained, as the 1946 Philippine Trade Act gave the Americans 100% land ownership in designated areas. In attempts to solve the land ownership disputes, the Philippine Congress enacted laws such as the Republic Act No. 34 and the Republic Act No. 55, which established the 70%-30% share tenancy contracts and helped in protecting tenants from being evicted from the land (Department of Agrarian Reform, n.d.). By the time President Diosdado P. Macapagal was able to enact a key law that freed farmers from the unjust class structure created in the past, Republic Act No. 3844 or the "Agricultural Land Reform Code", the Philippines was in a better position compared to its Southeast Asian neighbors. Rice production increased, and the country was eventually able to achieve self-sufficiency in the later parts of 1970, but unfortunately, the sector began to weaken. President Ferdinand Marcos was initially able to enact policies that prioritized the Green Revolution; however, this was considered unsuccessful. According to Adriesse (2019), the land reform programs under his administration did not cover large cash crop plantations, which led to the country's land being excluded from redistribution. Additionally, it did not account for all the agricultural groups. Alongside the loopholes and insufficient land grants given to the farmers, the benefits were limited only to the rural farmers. Ultimately, the Philippines lost its chance to attain self-sufficiency and did not benefit the poor and

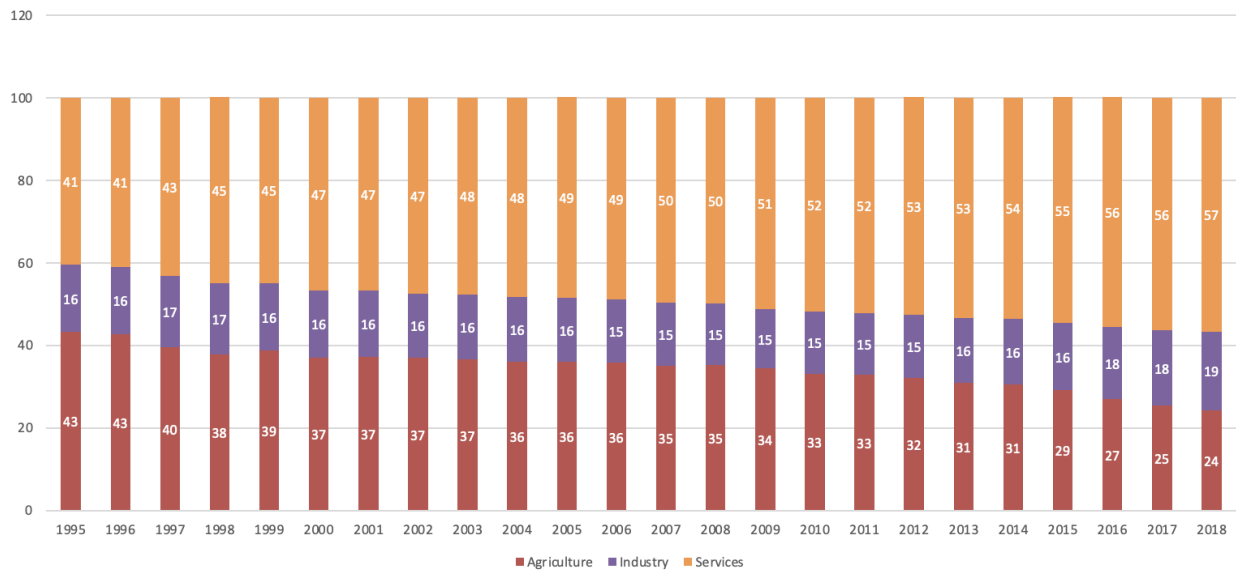
landless farmers (Ulack, 2000). Upon President Corazon Aquino's Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program (CARP) being constituted in 1988, it generated both positive and negative outcomes. Borras (2001) mentioned that by 2004, approximately three million households were helped by CARP, and 7.4 million hectares of land had been redistributed to 4.6 million farmers. Despite the persistent law loopholes, it was generally regarded as both a success and a failure.

As of the present, the Philippines continues to struggle with the process of moving towards manufacturing because of the lack of structural transformation (IFAD, 2016). Custodio and Sombilla (2025) argue that rural transformation has been regarded as sluggish and take into consideration the importance of institutional reforms, policies, and investments (IPIs) as a key factor towards structural transformation. Furthermore, Tullao (2025) adds that the Philippine economy jumped towards the service sector before manufacturing, which may be connected to poor law implementation and low quality of infrastructure, which pushed workers in the agriculture sector to move towards the service sector immediately.

The State of the Philippine Agricultural Sector

a. GDP and Employment

According to the World Bank (2019), the Philippines is considered one of the fastest-growing

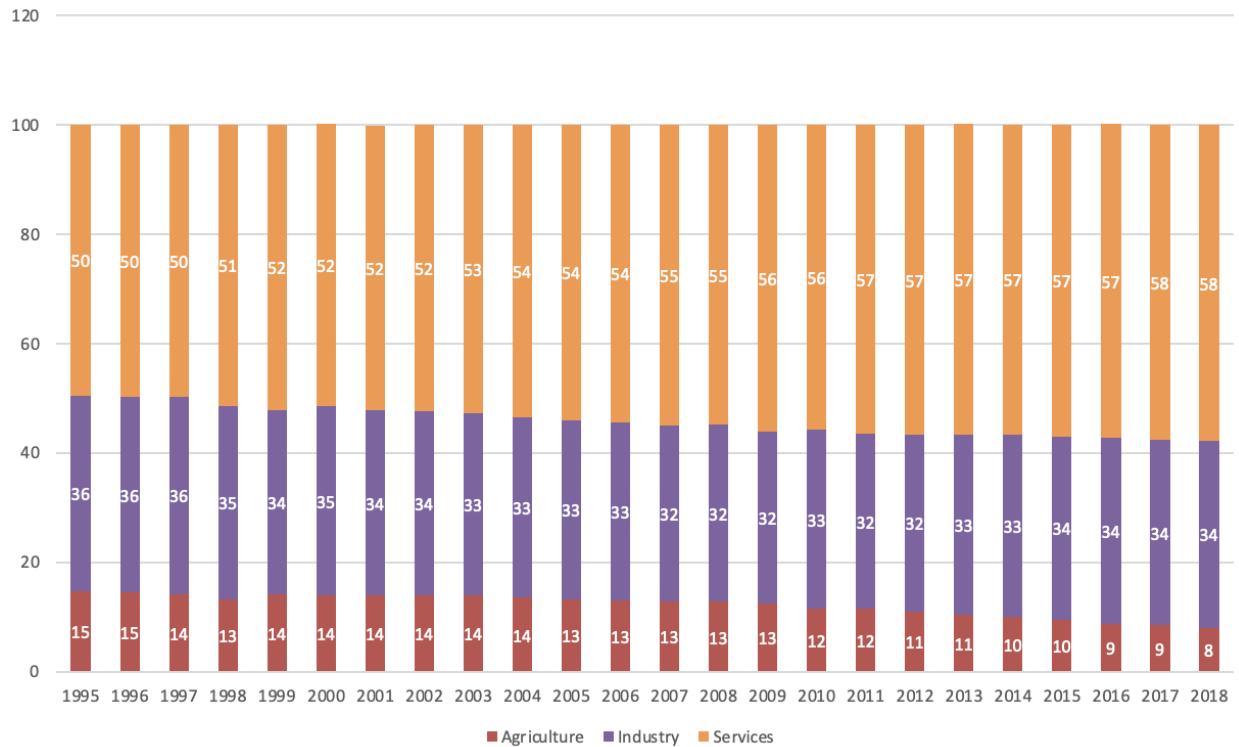


and developing countries, with its annual growth rate at 6.4% because of its high consumer demand, increasing remittances, and flourishing business activities found in the service industries.

Figure 1. Employment by Branch of Economic Activity, % Distribution: 1995 to 2022. Source of basic data: OpenSTAT

Agriculture had the biggest share in terms of employment from 1995 to 1996 until it was overtaken by the service sector from 1997 onwards. While it can be observed that the agriculture’s employment share is still at a considerable level, *Figure 1* showcases that the decrease in the employment share in agriculture corresponds to an increase in employment in the service sector. Comparing the share of employment in the sectors, it can be seen that the agriculture sector decreases from 43% to 24%, while industry increases by 3 percentage points, and the services sector increases

from 41% to 57%. Briones (2017) explains that the reason behind this is the expansion of the nation,



and as the country grows, the structure begins to change, leading to a shift from agriculture to services.

Figure 2. Percent Distribution of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by Branch of Economic Activity at Constant 2000 Price: 1996 to 2018. Source of basic data: OpenSTAT

In terms of GDP, the service sector continues to have the highest contribution among the economic sectors. Examining *Figure 2*, from 1995 to 2018, the services sector contributed the most to the Philippines' GDP, at 50% to 58%. It is also noteworthy to mention that the sector has been steadily increasing, while the other sectors have decreased, most especially agriculture. Starting at around 15% in 1995, it gradually decreased until its contribution was only 8% of the nation's annual GDP. While agriculture initially had the highest employment share, the service sector was already a leading contributor to the Philippines' GDP, which means a larger portion of economic output is generated in the services sector, despite the higher number of workers in agriculture.

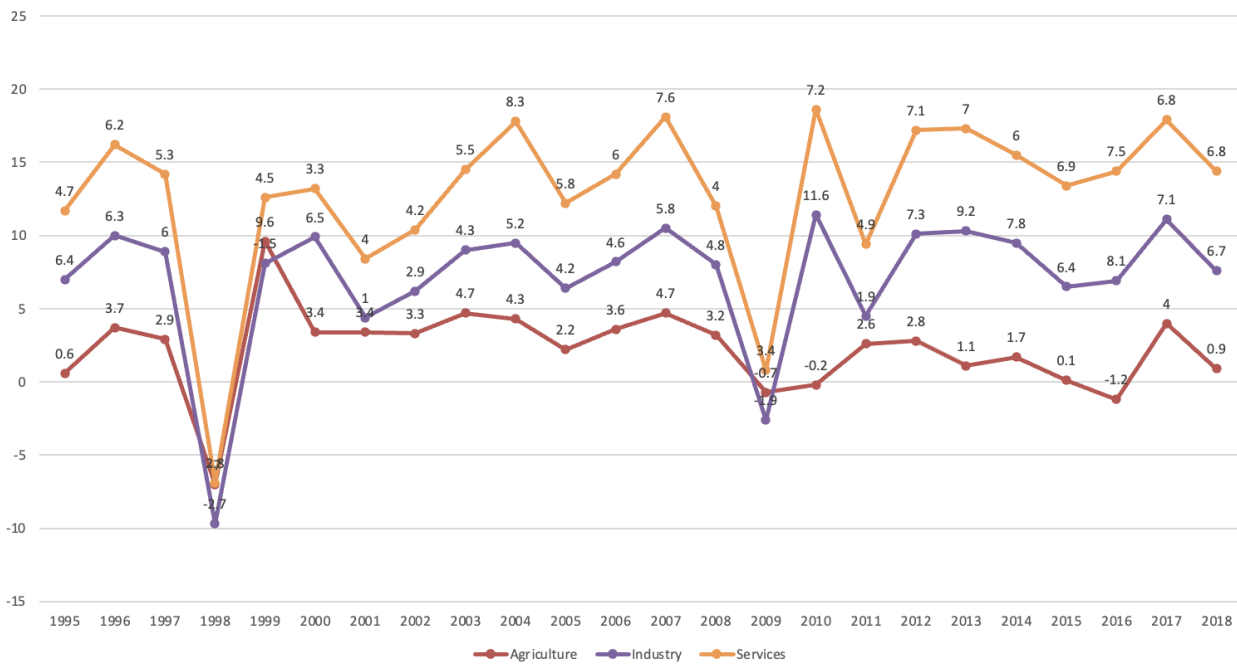


Figure 3. GDP by Branch of Economic Activity, Constant (2000) Prices, Growth Rates (%): 1995 to 2018. Basic source of data: OpenSTAT

Examining Figure 3, although it can be seen that growth rates are somewhat volatile because of the sudden decrease in 1998 and 2009, services remain the highest-growing sector. Similar to *Figure 1*, services have the highest growth rate among the other sectors consistently, while agriculture is seen to have the lowest growth rate. Despite its initial higher employment share in the Philippines, its growth rate remains low, which is in line with its contribution to GDP.

Overall, the data shows that the service sector is the main driver of growth in the Philippines. The industry sector is seen to be on the stable side, and agriculture is seen to be decreasing in both employment and GDP contribution. It is imperative to investigate the conditions that drive the workers out of agriculture.

b. Education as a Factor of Employment

To further understand the migration of workers towards other sectors outside agriculture, we will investigate the educational background of the agricultural workers. In the Philippines, the majority of the workers in the Philippines have finished secondary school at the least, as workers with higher levels of education tend to work in other sectors outside agriculture.

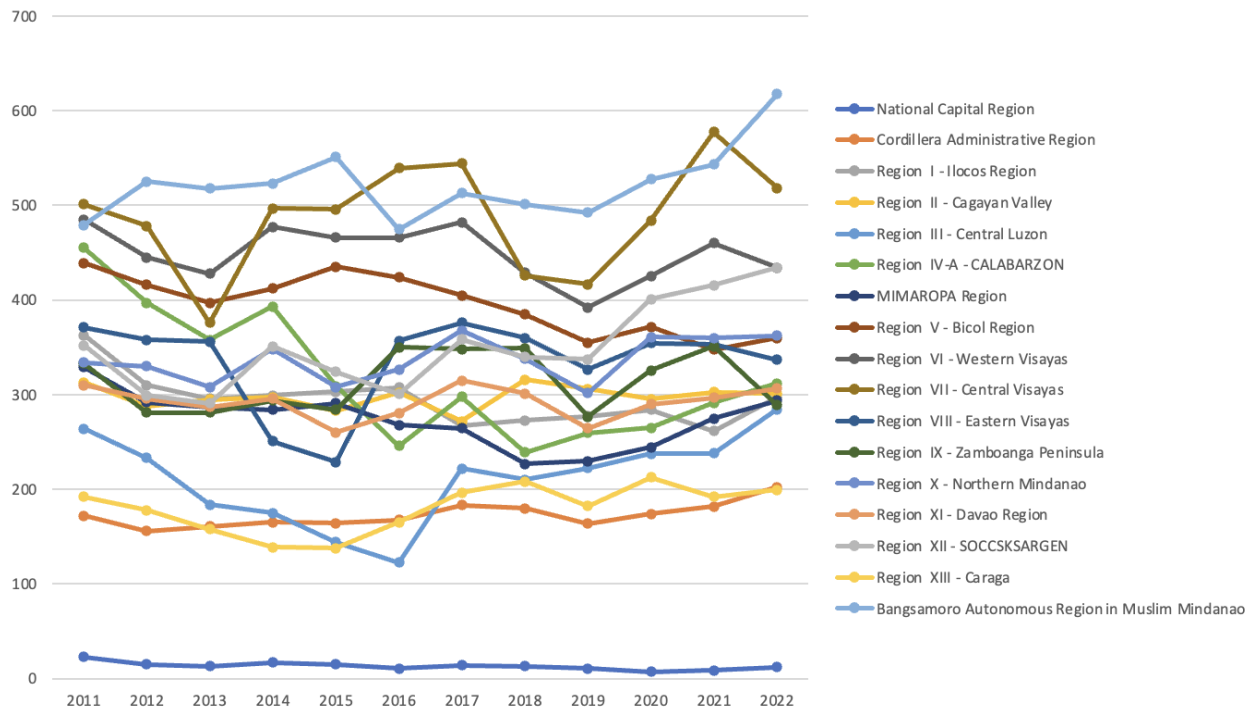
| | All sectors | Agriculture | Industry | Services |
|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2015 | | | | |
| Undergraduate, primary | 24 | 34 | 17 | 11 |
| Undergraduate, secondary | 35 | 38 | 36 | 29 |
| Undergraduate, tertiary | 36 | 25 | 43 | 50 |
| Tertiary graduate workers | 5 | 2 | 4 | 10 |
| All workers | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| | | | | |
| 2008 | | | | |
| Undergraduate, primary | 26 | 34 | 18 | 13 |
| Undergraduate, secondary | 39 | 42 | 41 | 33 |
| Undergraduate, tertiary | 30 | 22 | 38 | 44 |
| Tertiary graduate | 5 | 2 | 3 | 11 |
| All workers | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 1. Distribution of Visibly underemployed workers by educational attainment, and sector, 2015 and 2008 (%). Source: Briones (2021)

Analyzing *Table 1*, workers from the agriculture sector tend to have the least education. Although there is an improvement from 2008 to 2015, unfortunately, the majority of the educated workers are allocated to the services sector and industry subsequently. While Briones (2021) adds that underemployment in both the services and industry sectors is put at an advantage, schooling levels for agricultural workers do not significantly affect status as fully employed or visibly underemployed. However, poverty is still a present problem that is associated with underemployment.

Regional Disparities in Agriculture

Besides the differences in educational attainment among the workers, Tullao (2025) argues that the jump from the agricultural sector to the service sector can be explained by the weak implementation of policies and low quality of infrastructure, which forced agricultural workers towards the service sector because of the limited opportunities offered by manufacturing. This aligns with Acemoglu, Robinson, and Johnson's explanation, wherein institutions are responsible for such outcomes. However, the role of geography must be considered given the archipelagic nature of the Philippines. While the agricultural sector has experienced a decrease in employment and contribution to GDP on a national level, exploring this sector at a regional level may provide nuances to the initial argument toward the role of institutions. In order to determine if there is a significant difference among the regions, employment, nominal wage rates are to be examined as labor productivity per region will be analyzed.

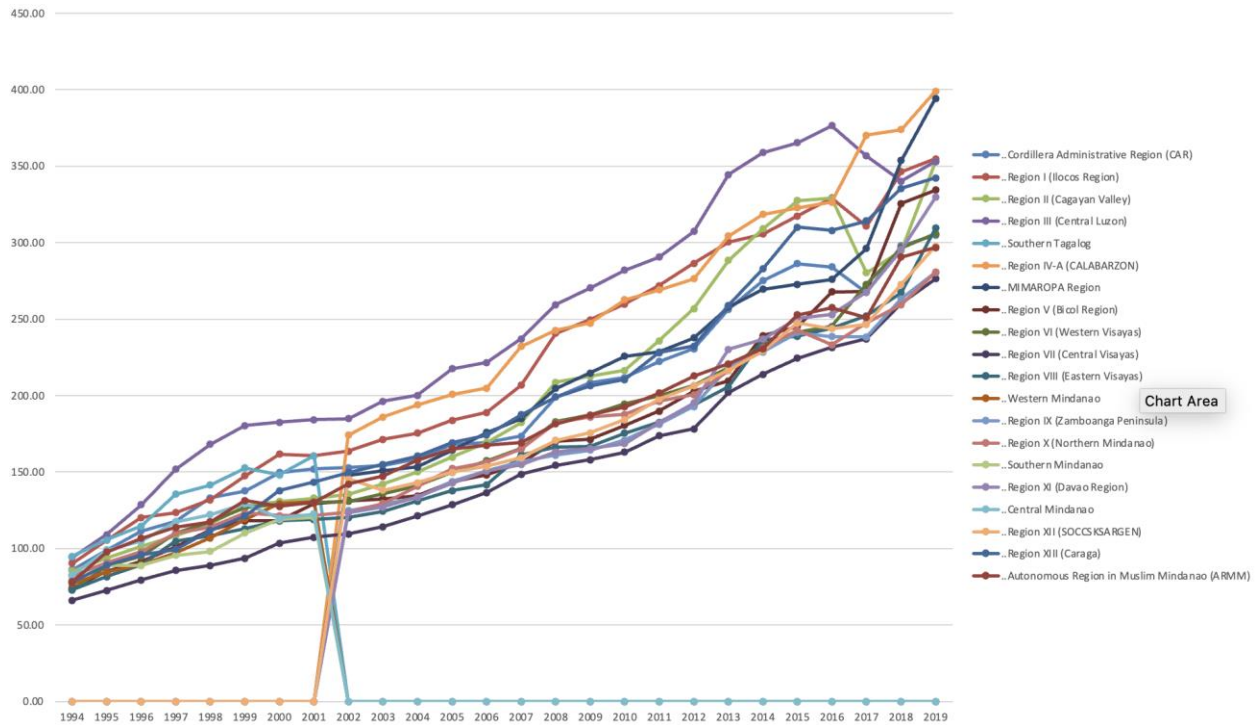


A. Employment per Region

Figure 4. Employed Persons by Region and Major Occupation Group (in thousands) (Skilled Agricultural, Forestry, and Fishery Workers) Philippines: 2011 to 2022. Source of basic data: PSA¹

Figure 4 illustrates the number of skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers across the 17 regions in the Philippines. The Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (BARMM) is shown to have the highest number of workers in this sector, followed by Region VII, Central Visayas. As it can be observed that employment levels for this sector fluctuate for almost all regions, the National Capital Region (NCR), in particular, has a consistently low level of employment for skilled

¹ Data from major industry groups aggregates agriculture, hunting, and forestry. Data gathered for Figure 4 utilizes the major occupation group instead of the industry classification for a more specific focus on the Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing sector.



agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers. Unlike the other regions, it has remained significantly low from 2011 to 2022.

B. Nominal Wage Rates

Figure 5. Nominal Wage Rates (All farmers: Both Sexes): 1994 to 2019. Source of basic data: OpenSTAT²

Figure 5 depicts the nominal wage rates across all regions from 1994 to 1995. It is observed that as the regions gradually increase in terms of wage rates for both male and female farmers, regions such as Region III, Central Luzon, and Region IV-A, Calabarzon, are areas with a relatively higher nominal wage rate compared to the other regions. In contrast, Central Mindanao initially started with

² Figure 5 utilizes the regional classification of the dataset. These have not been changed to maintain consistency with the dataset

nominal wage rates ranging from 100 Php to 150 Php until it fell to 0 Php. This may be a case of underreporting or no agricultural activity in the region. Similarly, Region IV-A, Calabarzon starts with 0 PHP as its nominal wage rate from 1994 to 2001 and has a sudden increase by 2002, eventually becoming one of the Philippine regions with the highest nominal wage rate as of 2019.

C. Labor Productivity

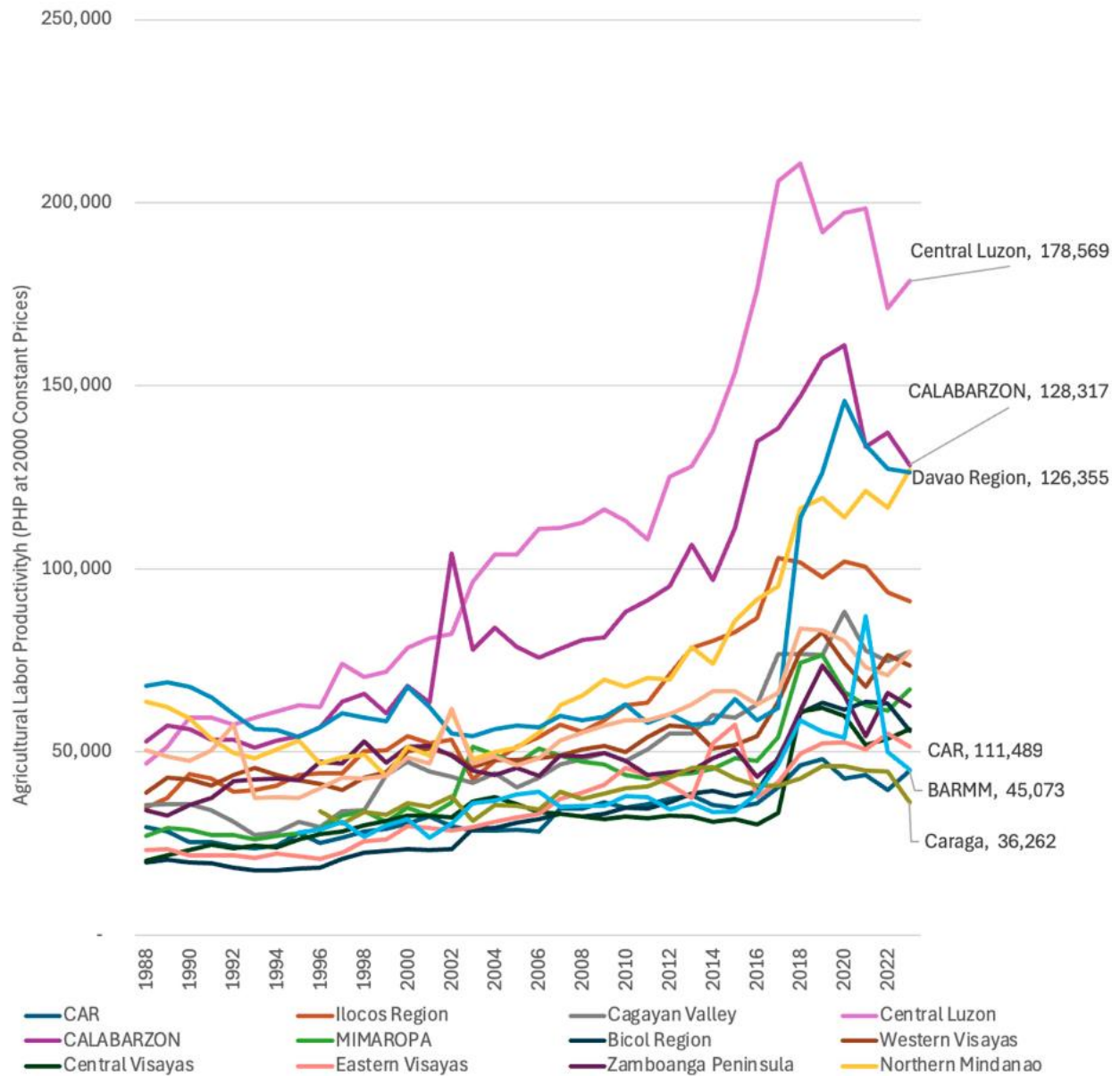


Figure 6. Agricultural labor productivity by region (at 2000 constant prices), Philippines, 1988–2023.
Source: Custodio and Sombilla (2025)³

³ According to Custodio and Sombilla (2025), NCR is excluded because of its lack of agricultural economic activities, high economic performance and it is considered advanced in terms of urbanization and industrialization compared to the other regions.

Agricultural labor productivity from 1988 to 2022 is highest in Region III, Central Luzon, followed by Region IV-A, CALABARZON, and Region XI, Davao Region. Custodio and Sombilla (2025) mention that regions with relatively high labor productivity are an indicator that it has made significant progress in terms of rural transformation. Additionally, it can be observed that agricultural labor productivity is continually increasing from 1988 to 2022, which suggests that there might be progress in rural transformation among the regions.

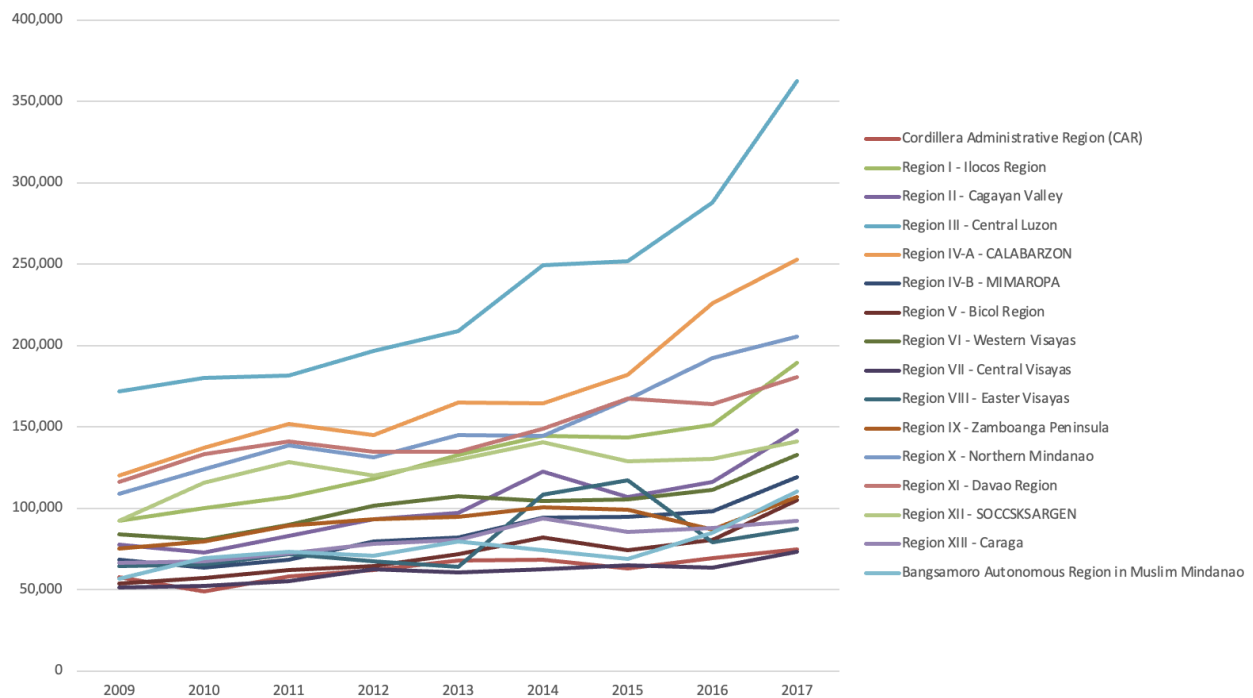


Figure 7. Agriculture labor productivity by region, (all regions, excluding NCR): 2009 to 2017. Basic source of data: PSA

Figure 7 includes NCR and all regions in the Philippines. Besides the fact that Region III, Central Luzon, and Region IV-A, CALABARZON, are considered to have one of the highest wage rates in agriculture in the country, these regions have the highest level of labor productivity.

Although Central Luzon and CALABARZON are not as urbanized and industrialized as NCR, it is highly productive in Agriculture. A possible reason behind their advantage is the endowment of natural resources in their region. Structural change is seen to have a positive relationship to labor productivity in the regions in the Philippines; the natural resources and mineral reserves present in each region are seen to contribute to its labor productivity as well (Laurente, 2022). Central Luzon remains one of the largest regional producers in the country (Department of Agriculture, n.d.). Alongside the abundant supply of timber, mineral resources (metallic and non-metallic), and the presence of the largest aquaculture production in the Philippines, it is also heavily supported by the Department of Agriculture (DA) in Central Luzon. According to Quiambao (2024), the Department of Agriculture in Central Luzon has allotted a budget of 9.04 billion for programs and projects, the majority of which is allocated towards rice programs in the region. Additionally, provision for the agricultural machinery and irrigation networks, investments in various projects that support rural infrastructure, were included in attempts to boost production in the Central Luzon region (Cooperative Development Authority, 2024). CALABARZON, on the other hand, is a much more industrialized region in the country (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2024). This region currently has all four types of climate that allow crop production as well as accessible transportation, a large range of telecommunication and network providers, and research institutions (Department of Agriculture, n.d.). As of 2024, CALABARZON, the National Irrigation Administration (NIA), has announced that part of their initiative to boost the productivity of farmers is through modern technology and equipment (Trinidad, 2024). Additionally, the DA - Agriculture Training Institute (ATI) in partnership with Local Government Units (LGUs) has started programs to promote sustainable farming practices through encouraging them to build technical and scientific skills in growing crops using newer technology (Department of Agriculture, n.d.).

In line with Acemoglu, Robinson, and Johnson's perspective on the historical background that led to the extractive nature of the Philippine institutions, the role of geography must be recognized. Assessing the regions with the highest labor productivity, it can be observed that despite the advantage of having natural resource endowments such as land, climate, and precious minerals, the accompaniment of institutions, such as the DA, research institutes, LGUs, and its investment in programs that promote rural infrastructure, agricultural productivity, and sustainable agriculture is seen to be the main drivers towards productivity. As such, it could be inferred that the region's geography could provide leverage towards productivity; however, its major determinant lies in the infrastructure and strategies of the institutions.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the longstanding history of the Philippines' underdevelopment can be traceable to the presence of extractive institutions. Analyzing the decline in the agricultural sector on a national and regional level through employment, nominal wage rates, and labor productivity, regional disparities in agriculture are present in the country. Additionally, regions with the highest labor productivity, such as Central Luzon and CALABARZON, are seen to have an advantage because they endow natural resources, accompanied by institutional strategies that promote productivity and sustainability. Moreover, as geography provides an advantage towards growth, the institutions responsible for policies, investments, and programs are the key to agricultural productivity and long-term growth.

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Appendix:

Labor Productivity: 2008 to 2017

| REGION AND SECTOR | Labor Productivity (₱) | | | | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |
| Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR) | 57,940 | 48,731 | 58,112 | 62,191 | 67,770 | 68,606 | 980,415 | 912,000 | 928,824 |
| Region I - Ilocos Region | 92,580 | 100,300 | 106,785 | 118,216 | 132,874 | 144,510 | 1,265,773 | 1,036,229 | 1,288,413 |
| Region II - Cagayan Valley | 77,837 | 72,995 | 83,324 | 93,405 | 97,077 | 122,417 | 381,330 | 407,259 | 433,284 |
| Region III - Central Luzon | 171,995 | 180,302 | 181,565 | 196,568 | 208,869 | 249,628 | 277,235 | 265,462 | 267,342 |
| Region IV-A - CALABARZON | 120,029 | 136,999 | 151,966 | 144,994 | 165,198 | 164,468 | 597,962 | 583,177 | 623,048 |
| Region IV-B - MIMAROPA | 68,365 | 63,371 | 68,262 | 79,554 | 82,317 | 94,215 | 915,513 | 789,390 | 882,073 |
| Region V - Bicol Region | 53,847 | 57,055 | 61,918 | 64,381 | 72,069 | 82,127 | 384,056 | 343,876 | 374,266 |
| Region VI - Western Visayas | 83,952 | 80,455 | 89,811 | 101,844 | 107,253 | 104,441 | 185,669 | 198,242 | 187,331 |
| Region VII - Central Visayas | 51,413 | 52,528 | 55,228 | 62,745 | 60,818 | 62,467 | 334,307 | 342,794 | 361,514 |
| Region VIII - Eastern Visayas | 64,582 | 65,342 | 71,948 | 67,438 | 63,907 | 108,415 | 485,656 | 557,697 | 550,347 |
| Region IX - Zamboanga Peninsula | 75,376 | 79,774 | 89,432 | 93,363 | 94,866 | 100,519 | 874,386 | 528,588 | 498,212 |
| Region X - Northern Mindanao | 108,906 | 124,083 | 138,686 | 131,259 | 145013 | 144435 | 618,010 | 606,890 | 599,159 |
| Region XI - Davao Region | 116,102 | 133,247 | 141,276 | 134,754 | 135020 | 149108 | 663,067 | 684,442 | 681,767 |
| Region XII - SOCCSKSARGEN | 92,299 | 115,702 | 128,415 | 120,270 | 130014 | 140505 | 621,831 | 678,545 | 804,435 |
| Region XIII - Caraga | 66,766 | 67,276 | 72,286 | 78,345 | 80862 | 93743 | 647,604 | 599,303 | 649,179 |
| Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao | 56,548 | 69,461 | 73,518 | 70,931 | 79690 | 74462 | 245,876 | 268,785 | 279,507 |

Employment per Region (in thousands) (Skilled Agricultural, Forestry, and Fishery Workers): 2011 to 2022

| | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | 2022 |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| National Capital Region | 23 | 15 | 13 | 17 | 15 | 11 | 14 | 13 | 11 | 7 | 8 | 12 |
| Cordillera Administrative Region | 172 | 156 | 161 | 165 | 164 | 167 | 183 | 180 | 164 | 174 | 182 | 202 |
| Region I - Ilocos Region | 363 | 310 | 296 | 299 | 303 | 307 | 267 | 273 | 277 | 284 | 262 | 297 |
| Region II - Cagayan Valley | 313 | 288 | 295 | 297 | 283 | 302 | 272 | 316 | 306 | 295 | 303 | 301 |
| Region III - Central Luzon | 264 | 233 | 184 | 175 | 144 | 123 | 222 | 210 | 222 | 238 | 238 | 284 |
| Region IV-A - CALABARZON | 455 | 397 | 358 | 393 | 309 | 246 | 298 | 239 | 260 | 265 | 291 | 312 |
| MIMAROPA Region | 329 | 292 | 287 | 284 | 291 | 268 | 264 | 227 | 230 | 244 | 275 | 294 |
| Region V - Bicol Region | 439 | 416 | 397 | 412 | 435 | 424 | 405 | 385 | 355 | 371 | 348 | 360 |
| Region VI - Western Visayas | 485 | 445 | 428 | 477 | 466 | 466 | 482 | 429 | 392 | 425 | 460 | 434 |
| Region VII - Central Visayas | 501 | 478 | 376 | 497 | 496 | 539 | 544 | 426 | 417 | 484 | 577 | 518 |
| Region VIII - Eastern Visayas | 371 | 358 | 356 | 251 | 229 | 357 | 376 | 360 | 327 | 354 | 354 | 337 |
| Region IX - Zamboanga Peninsula | 333 | 281 | 281 | 294 | 284 | 350 | 348 | 349 | 277 | 326 | 351 | 289 |
| Region X - Northern Mindanao | 334 | 330 | 308 | 348 | 308 | 326 | 368 | 338 | 302 | 361 | 360 | 362 |
| Region XI - Davao Region | 310 | 296 | 287 | 296 | 260 | 281 | 315 | 301 | 265 | 290 | 297 | 307 |
| Region XII - SOCCSKSARGEN | 352 | 299 | 291 | 351 | 324 | 301 | 358 | 340 | 337 | 401 | 415 | 434 |
| Region XIII - Caraga | 192 | 178 | 158 | 139 | 138 | 165 | 197 | 208 | 182 | 213 | 192 | 199 |
| Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao | 479 | 525 | 518 | 523 | 551 | 475 | 513 | 501 | 493 | 528 | 543 | 618 |

Nominal Wage Rate per Region: 1994 to 2019

| | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |
|---|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| ..Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR) | 86.04 | 99.01 | 111.50 | 117.56 | 133.10 | 137.53 | 149.60 | 151.90 | 152.82 | 154.32 | 158.40 | 168.18 | 169.24 | 173.50 | 199.00 | 208.17 | 211.68 | 222.34 | 230.70 | 256.31 | 275.10 | 286.25 | 284.02 | 267.30 | 297.75 | 304.83 |
| ..Region I (Ilocos Region) | 90.47 | 105.45 | 120.26 | 123.48 | 131.90 | 147.54 | 161.63 | 160.70 | 163.61 | 171.33 | 175.51 | 183.81 | 189.05 | 206.81 | 240.71 | 249.60 | 259.89 | 271.95 | 286.53 | 300.41 | 305.46 | 317.29 | 329.16 | 310.82 | 346.35 | 354.65 |
| ..Region II (Cagayan Valley) | 85.12 | 93.69 | 101.31 | 108.40 | 115.98 | 128.01 | 130.74 | 132.96 | 135.57 | 142.09 | 149.97 | 159.79 | 169.43 | 182.21 | 208.79 | 212.54 | 216.54 | 215.87 | 216.85 | 228.46 | 309.03 | 327.45 | 329.05 | 280.16 | 294.63 | 352.76 |
| ..Region III (Central Luzon) | 94.19 | 109.11 | 128.53 | 151.88 | 168.13 | 180.40 | 182.56 | 184.26 | 184.84 | 196.23 | 200.20 | 217.56 | 221.57 | 237.11 | 259.40 | 270.37 | 282.00 | 290.46 | 307.36 | 344.50 | 358.75 | 365.37 | 376.50 | 356.71 | 340.14 | 353.12 |
| ..Southern Tagalog | 94.82 | 105.63 | 114.61 | 135.55 | 141.46 | 152.63 | 148.14 | 160.51 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Region IV-A (CALABARZON) | | | | | | | | | 174.21 | 185.95 | 193.88 | 200.80 | 204.74 | 232.02 | 242.69 | 247.36 | 262.53 | 269.15 | 276.45 | 304.26 | 318.39 | 322.79 | 326.44 | 370.14 | 373.92 | 399.08 |
| ..MIMAROPA Region | | | | | | | | | 147.68 | 150.85 | 153.22 | 164.21 | 175.80 | 184.94 | 204.71 | 214.72 | 225.64 | 236.36 | 237.67 | 257.85 | 269.55 | 272.65 | 275.97 | 296.11 | 351.71 | 394.27 |
| ..Region V (Bicol Region) | 74.08 | 85.02 | 91.42 | 101.13 | 112.29 | 118.14 | 118.38 | 129.47 | 131.22 | 132.53 | 134.30 | 143.49 | 148.07 | 156.13 | 170.09 | 171.35 | 180.67 | 189.85 | 202.60 | 209.61 | 239.20 | 245.05 | 267.79 | 267.88 | 325.63 | 334.27 |
| ..Region VI (Western Visayas) | 72.66 | 88.63 | 94.84 | 110.11 | 117.20 | 126.61 | 129.09 | 130.07 | 130.77 | 135.86 | 141.03 | 149.96 | 157.31 | 165.45 | 182.83 | 187.16 | 194.60 | 199.64 | 206.62 | 218.16 | 233.50 | 241.26 | 245.14 | 272.80 | 296.56 | 305.83 |
| ..Region VII (Central Visayas) | 65.99 | 72.56 | 79.36 | 85.69 | 88.88 | 93.64 | 103.52 | 107.40 | 109.46 | 114.18 | 121.25 | 128.63 | 136.57 | 148.49 | 154.37 | 158.05 | 162.92 | 173.76 | 178.22 | 202.06 | 213.83 | 224.31 | 231.47 | 236.97 | 260.22 | 276.43 |
| ..Region VIII (Eastern Visayas) | 73.03 | 81.57 | 89.57 | 104.75 | 108.40 | 112.97 | 118.01 | 118.85 | 120.20 | 124.30 | 131.02 | 137.85 | 141.77 | 161.15 | 166.09 | 166.55 | 175.47 | 182.58 | 193.57 | 205.70 | 236.40 | 238.80 | 244.18 | 251.98 | 267.36 | 309.36 |
| ..Western Mindanao | 77.12 | 84.61 | 89.27 | 97.25 | 106.84 | 119.25 | 129.27 | 130.54 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Region IX (Zamboanga Peninsula) | | | | | | | | | 124.63 | 129.06 | 133.38 | 143.91 | 150.61 | 156.68 | 161.12 | 164.20 | 170.93 | 181.29 | 192.79 | 218.78 | 228.44 | 241.10 | 238.63 | 238.30 | 263.25 | 280.39 |
| ..Region X (Northern Mindanao) | 82.25 | 90.50 | 97.98 | 110.10 | 113.90 | 123.13 | 121.40 | 121.80 | 123.70 | 129.45 | 140.55 | 152.24 | 156.23 | 165.19 | 182.03 | 185.91 | 187.68 | 196.32 | 200.51 | 216.27 | 231.26 | 242.70 | 233.14 | 247.39 | 259.36 | 280.73 |
| ..Region XI (Davao Region) | 79.24 | 88.99 | 88.88 | 95.46 | 97.99 | 110.02 | 119.00 | 120.35 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Region XII (SOCCSKSARGEN) | | | | | | | | | 123.50 | 127.11 | 133.43 | 142.74 | 150.94 | 154.90 | 163.07 | 165.34 | 168.53 | 182.03 | 195.17 | 230.16 | 236.88 | 250.38 | 253.03 | 267.46 | 295.34 | 329.71 |
| ..Central Mindanao | 82.68 | 98.90 | 104.73 | 117.34 | 122.13 | 129.21 | 119.72 | 122.56 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Region XIII (Caraga) | 78.24 | 88.97 | 96.03 | 99.39 | 111.78 | 121.31 | 137.89 | 143.32 | 145.61 | 138.00 | 143.04 | 149.89 | 153.74 | 159.28 | 170.77 | 175.58 | 184.24 | 197.75 | 206.38 | 216.45 | 229.16 | 247.27 | 243.64 | 246.55 | 272.73 | 297.60 |
| ..Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) | 78.05 | 97.63 | 106.73 | 113.74 | 117.34 | 131.45 | 127.48 | 130.11 | 142.13 | 147.19 | 157.53 | 165.12 | 167.57 | 169.22 | 181.39 | 187.22 | 192.61 | 201.63 | 212.77 | 220.65 | 230.69 | 252.70 | 257.53 | 250.92 | 290.54 | 296.84 |