A Systematic Literature Review of the Drivers of Violence Affecting Children: the Philippines

Child Protection Network

THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH

UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES MANILA

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Contents

Abbreviations

ACADED	Anti-Abuse and Discrimination Division
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AO	Administrative Order
ARMM	Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
C4D	Communication for Development
CALABARZON	Cavite, Laguna, Batangas, Rizal and Quezon
CAR	Cordillera Administrative Region
CDWs	Child domestic workers
CET	Competency Enhancement Training
CIAC	Children involved in armed conflict
CICL	Children in conflict with the law
CIU	Crisis Intervention Units
CNSP	Children in Need of Special Protection System
CPCP	Comprehensive Programme on Child Protection
CPN	Child Protection Network
CPU	Child Protection Unit
CRIN	Child Rights International Network
CSEC	Commercial sexual exploitation of children
CWC	Council for the Welfare of Children
DRDF	Demographic Research and Development Foundation Inc.
DepEd	Department of Education
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DOH	Department of Health
DSWD	Department of Social Welfare and Development
EPCAT	End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography, and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes
EVRMC	Eastern Visayas Regional Medical Center
FDS	Family development session
FGM/C	Female genital mutilation/cutting
FSW	Family Support Worker
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIF	Governance Indicator Framework
HARP	HIV/AIDS and ART Registry of the Philippines
HIV/AIDS	Human immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Virus
IACACP	Inter-agency Council Against Child Pornography
IAC-VAWC	Inter-Agency Council against Violence against Women and Children
ICT	Information and communication technology
IHBSS	Integrated HIV Behavioral and Serologic Surveillance
INGO	International Non-governmental Organization
IPV	Intimate partner violence
JJWA	Juvenile Justice and Welfare Act
LCPC	Local Council for the Protection of Children
LGBT	Lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender
MACR	Minimum age of criminal responsibility
MDG	Millennium Development Goal

MDSW	Manila Department of Social Welfare
MIMAROPA	Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, and Palawan
MILF	Moro Islamic Liberation Front
MMDA	Metropolitan Manila Development Authority
MNLF	Muslim National Liberation Front
MPD	Manila Police District
MSM	Men who have sex with men
NBI	National Bureau of Investigation
NBS VAC	National Baseline Survey on Violence Against Children
NCR	National Capital Region
NDHS	National Demographic and Health Survey
NHTS-PR	National Household Targeting System for Poverty Reduction
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NPAC	National Plan of Action for Children
NSCB	National Statistical Coordinating Board
NSO	National Statistics Office
OFW	Overseas Filipino Worker
OPAPP	Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process
PCMPL	Philippine Code of Muslim Personal Laws
PD	Presidential Decree
PECK	Personal Experience Checklist
PES	Parent Effectiveness Service
PhilHealth	Philippine Health Insurance Corporation
PNP	Philippine National Police
PPAC	Philippine Plan of Action
R3P	Research to Policy and Practice Process
RA	Republic Act
CPC	Special Committee for the Protection of Children
SDG	UN Sustainable Development Goal
SOCCSKSARGEN	South Cotabato, Cotabato, Sultan Kudarat, Sarangani and General Santos
SLR	Systematic literature review
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
UN	United Nations
UNCRC	United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child
UNESCO	United Nations Organization for Education, Science, and Culture
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UP-PGH	University of the Philippines- Philippine General Hospital
VAC	Violence Against Children
VAW	Violence against women
VAWC	Violence against women and children
WCP	Webcam Child Prostitution
WCPU	Women and Child Protection Unit
WCST	Webcam child sex tourism
WHO	World Health Organization
YAFS	Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study

Acknowledgements

Executive Summary

Violence against children happens everywhere, across all social groups; and with the most violent acts carried out by people that children know or should be able to trust. The government has called for strong action to prevent Violence against Children, respond to and rescue victims, and prosecute the perpetrators.

- Former Department of Social Welfare and Development Secretary Corazon Juliano-Soliman

In 2016, the Philippines was identified as a potential Pathfinder Country within the Global Partnership on Ending Violence Against Children. It was selected after a National Baseline Survey on Violence Against Children was conducted in 2015, and the Government has committed to ending violence against children (VAC) by supporting this study and through other effective legislation and policy to protect children. A scoping mission was conducted by the Global VAC Partnership in April 2016,[1] putting a spotlight on the country as a pioneer of new and vigorous approaches to ending violence. Pathfinder countries will be at the forefront of the Global Partnership in preventing violence, protecting children and making society safer for them.[2] The Philippines, with its long history of evidence-based interventions such as the well-established Child Protection Units (CPUs) across the country, is well placed to join the Global Partnership as part of its contribution to the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Ending VAC is now included as a global target within the SDGs, (unlike under the previous MDGs) to "end abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence and torture against children" (SDG 16.2).

In order to best identify the innovative and pioneering interventions that can end violence, policymakers and professionals have been asking *what drives violence against children in the Phillippines?* The Research to Policy and Practice Process (R3P) Study on the Drivers of Violence Affecting Children is an action-research project. The Systematic Literature Review (SLR) carried out by the UNICEF Philippines Office with local academic partners, the University of the Philippines Manila and the Child Protection Network Foundation, with technical assistance from the University of Edinburgh, also supports evidence on the drivers of violence. The study seeks to understand the mix of factors that drive VAC and allow cycles of violence to continue.

Violence-related vulnerability evolves in complex socio-economic and cultural contexts. This research analyses how structural, institutional, community and individual factors interact to affect violence in children's lives and identifies causal pathways to better inform national strategies for prevention. It focuses on girls and boys at different stages of life, from the very young to older adolescents.

The purpose of this study is to translate quality research into evidence, and turn that evidence into effective and meaningful interventions (UNICEF OoR, 2016).[3]

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[1] "The Philippines; An Historic Opportunity to End Violence Against Children": Discussions Paper for Scoping Mission for Global VAC Partnerships David Stevens May 2016

[2] See: http://www.end-violence.org/

[3] See: https://www.unicef-irc.org/research/pdf/432-Understanding-the-Drivers-of-Violence-Guidelines.pdf

This report is the review outcome for the Philippines. A comprehensive systematic review identified 149 research studies (89 which are unpublished or grey literature [informally published written material such as research reports and research briefing papers] and 59 academic journal articles) to explore the risk and protective factors, and how they interact to create drivers of violence. This study also included a secondary analysis of the 2014 Demographic Health Survey to understand the risk factors for adolescent intimate partner violence and intergenerational violence. This report not only identifies trends in violence, and gaps and avenues for future research, but also illuminates how violence is locally understood. The findings will triangulate with evidence from the first ever nationally representative Violence Against Children survey in the Philippines conducted in 2015.[4] This report will also help policymakers and key stakeholders prioritize areas of potential intervention and future applied research to improve existing violence prevention efforts.

Findings

Violence against children in the home

Sixty-four studies were included, with findings on prevalence, risk and protective factors related to VAC in the home, including two longitudinal studies (the 'Parenting Across Cultures' study and the Cebu Longitudinal Study), and a secondary analysis of the most recent Demographic Heath Survey commissioned specifically for this report.

Physical: Findings show that violent discipline is the most frequent form of violence against both boys and girls in the home, driven by factors including **social norms around the use of and effectiveness of discipline, authoritarian parenting, and parent's levels of education.** Other forms of physical violence are also common. Studies show that the combination of **parental histories of physical abuse** when they were growing up combined with **financial stress** and **substance misuse** create a 'toxic trio' of risk factors for physical violence in the home.

Sexual: The lack of supervision, single headed households and absent parents increases the vulnerability of children to sexual violence at home. Migration is a significant driver of absentee parenting, which increases children's risk of exposure to sexual violence at home.

Emotional: Longitudinal data has shown that emotional violence from parents increases children's negative behaviour, which increases their risk of experiencing violent discipline and perpetrating aggressive behaviour towards others. **Parenting practices** that include the use of coercion, threats, insults, and a frightening tone increase the risk of child maltreatment and set the stage for similar patterns of behaviour in parent/child and other relationships.

There is very robust data on the nature of intergenerational violence in the Philippines. Longitudinal and large household survey data show that **violence often begins at home** and impacts on violence in other settings and relationships. **Alcohol misuse** is a driver of family violence and has been found to be a significant risk factor in every study where the two variables have been measured. **Experiencing childhood or familial sexual violence** is also a driver of all forms of intimate partner violence victimization for females. Experiencing or being exposed to violence in the home also increases the risk that children will use or experience violence against partners, peers and family members.

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[4]   At the time that the systematic literature review was being written the NBS VAC was conducted and data analysis proceeded including a preliminary launch in March 2016 and plans for the final launch at end November 2016.

Violence against children in school

UNICEF conducted a comprehensive national study on VAC in schools in 2009 in partnership with Plan International and the Council for the Welfare of Children (CWC). The study provides comprehensive information on the scope and nature of physical, sexual and emotional VAC at school. The Philippines also participated in the Global School Based Health Surveys,[5] which measure bullying. This review identified only 16 studies on violence in schools.

Physical: This was the most prevalent form of violence in schools perpetrated by adults, with verbal violence the second most frequent. Drivers of this violence include **social norms around the use of corporal punishment in school settings** as well as the family context. Both children and adults state that corporal punishment in schools is closely linked with violent discipline and family circumstances in the home.

Sexual: Sexual harassment is the most frequent form of sexual violence in school settings, occurring in both primary and secondary schools, with girls being particularly vulnerable. Grey literature has also highlighted that lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) youth may be particularly at risk of sexual violence at school; often from peers.

Emotional: Violence at the hands of other children and young people at school is more common than violence perpetrated by adults. Trend data shows that bullying victimisation is increasing among 13- to 15-year- olds, while physical fights in schools are decreasing for both boys and girls (the opposite trend is found in some European countries and the United States). A secondary analysis of the 2003-2004 World Health Organization (WHO) Global School Based Health Survey[6] found that bullying victimisation and being involved in physical fighting were associated. Parental supervision was associated with less fighting. There is no clear evidence to determine if this is the reason for the decreasing trend in physical fighting, however, it does give some indication of the importance of the home-school link, and that **parenting approaches** may impact on children's behaviour, even in school settings. **Children's previous experiences of violence**, especially in the home, also drives bullying behaviour in schools.

Violence against children in the community

Children involved in child labour, in conflict with the law, and street-involved children are especially vulnerable to violence, and these factors are recognized as drivers. Sixty-two studies in this review found that sexual exploitation and trafficking (as particular forms of violence), are particular risks faced by those engaged in hazardous labour and living and working on the street.[6]

Family expectations and poverty are recognized drivers of violence, particularly through condoning child labour, including to a certain extent, commercial sexual exploitation and trafficking. Traditional cultural values emphasize the importance of meeting family duties and obligations. Therefore, children may feel obligated to become involved in child labour, including commercial sexual exploitation, in order to fulfill these familial expectations. Efforts to stop these forms of abuse and exploitation of children must address the norms and traditions that underlie this practice. This means having a viable alternative to child labour by creating alternative livelihoods for families and making it affordable to keep children in school.

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[5] See http://www.who.int/chp/gshs/philippinesdataset/en/ for datasets
[6] A recent study entitled 'They didn't help me, they shamed me', a baseline study on the vulnerabilities of street-involved boys in Manila, by Davis and Miles (2015), highlights the risk of sexual violence faced by boys in particular.

Migration due to land reform policies, lack of employment and displacement due to conflict are drivers of the commercial sexual exploitation of children and trafficking.

A "culture of migration" was reported to exist among families and communities in the Philippines, particularly in source areas for trafficking.[7] In these areas, there is cultural pressure for girls to support their families by migrating to urban areas (or overseas for work), potentially leading to victimization, often through illegal immigration.[8]

The studies identified that **VAC in the home** was a risk factor for experiencing violence in the community – suggesting that violence starts at home. This was found in relation to street-involved children, sexual exploitation and children in conflict with the law.

Lastly, the studies in this section point to a **culture of silence around issues of VAC** in the community. This reluctance to speak about VAC is combined with a lack of support services, shaming of survivors and weak law enforcement. In some cases, for example with street-involved children and children in conflict with the law, the role of law enforcement as a perpetrator of violence creates a confluence of drivers for the perpetuation of exploitation and VAC in the community.

Sexual Violence Against Children

Experience of Violence Across Settings: Children experience sexual violence in a variety of settings, perpetrated by family members, partners, peers and strangers. This review examined 22 articles and reports of studies on sexual violence against children in the Philippines. The prevalence of sexual violence in childhood ranged from 4.5 per cent to 65 per cent (Ramiro et. al, 2010; Serquina-Ramiro, 2005), reflecting the variety of questions asked, how sexual violence was measured, the methods used and the type of respondents involved in research.

The only nationally representative data on child sexual violence is from the National Demographic Heath Survey (DHS); a population-based survey with over 16,000 respondents that is conducted to provide information on fertility, family planning and health for use by the Government in monitoring progress against the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The DHS shows an increasing trend in childhood sexual abuse in the Philippines between 2008 and 2013. The soon-to-be released National Baseline Survey on Violence Against Children (NBS VAC) findings will significantly add to our knowledge of the prevalence of sexual violence against children in the Philippines.

EMERGING THEMES The three main drivers of sexual violence emerging from the studies reviewed are:
1) **A culture of silence and a fear of reporting**, including taboos against discussing sexuality and reproductive health with children, as well as talking about sexual violence, and thus limiting young people's access to information on protection and prevention mechanisms that might limit their risk of exposure to sexual exploitation/violence.[9]

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[7]   The Visayas, Cebu, and Mindanao are historically known as areas with higher rates of trafficking, partly due to poverty, and access to ports for migration, including easy access to Indonesia through Mindanao. There are recognized links between high rates of migration and trafficking.

[8]   When the war in Syria broke out in 2010, nearly 100 Filipino domestic workers were stranded in the conflict zones. Most were undocumented, having arrived in Syria illegally. Frequent news reports from Hong Kong and Middle Eastern countries have documented cases of the abuse and exploitation of Filipino domestic workers.

[9]   It is important to note that plans for conducting the NBS VAC were delayed due to a refusal by the Ethical Review Board in the Philippines to approve research concerning children and sexuality without parental approval. This again emphasizes the cultural reluctance to support research on children and sexuality, and in particular without the parents' involvement.

2) **The need to strengthen implementation of existing legislation** that provides protection for children,[10] but has not been able to effectively prevent or limit violence, **including the minimum age of sexual consent and statutory rape laws that contribute to legal impunity** for sexual violence against both boys and girls.

3) **Vulnerability, especially of children with disabilities.** More research is needed to identify further the risk and protective factors for children. In addition, an important emerging theme for the Philippines is the dramatic rise of HIV in recent years, particularly amongst adolescents.[11] A 2013 UNICEF report indicated a 79 per cent increase in new cases. This rise is partly linked to the lack of reproductive health information and services for young people. It is also linked to the increase in the use of information communication technology, especially smart phones and dating apps.

There has also been a significant rise in rates of teen pregnancy in recent years (2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study [YAFS]), which is also linked to limited access to reproductive health services designed for young people. In the latest YAF survey, 13 per cent of 15- to 19-year-olds were pregnant, doubling the number of the previous 10 years.[12]

Physical Violence Against Children

This review explored over 68 studies on physical violence. Physical violence against children occurs in every setting – the home, school and community – yet, globally and in the Philippines it is most frequently found in the home in the form of violent discipline (UNICEF, 2014). Physical violence outside of discipline also occurs in the same forms (including hitting, kicking and shaking) with prevalence ranging from 30 per cent to 79 per cent, reflecting the wide range of studies and methods of measuring physical violence. Physical violence in schools in the form of bullying appears to be increasing among 13- to 15-year-olds in the Philippines, based on eight years of WHO Global School Based Health Survey data Several hospital studies have also been conducted which highlight abusive head trauma as a significant concern, primarily as a result of shaking children under the age of two. Most of the studies on physical violence in the Philippines focus on violent discipline and violence between partners and peers. This section focuses on findings on physical violence in different settings and relationships.[13]

Children and young people perpetrate most of the physical violence against other children and young people. When physical violence is used by adults it is often in the form of punishment, and it is **viewed as the most effective form of discipline and necessary to control a child's behaviour**. There are **social expectations that parents and teachers will use corporal punishment** against children.

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[10] It is important to note that a 2015 UNICEF-supported analysis of laws in ASEAN member states concerned with protecting children from violence, entitled 'Legal Protection from Violence', noted that the Philippines emerged as exemplary in terms of its very good legislation designed to better protect children from violence. The weak link remains the implementation of this legislation, and the remaining challenge of the very low age of sexual consent.

[11] A 2015 USAID report identified the Philippines as one of seven countries with a more than 25% increase in HIV infection, while globally a decline in cases was reported between 1999 and 2009. It is estimated that more than 50% of cases are attributed to Men who have Sex with Men.

[12] The 2013 YAFS notes a "dramatic rise in teen pregnancy, more than doubling in the past 10 years, from 6 per cent to 13 per cent of 15- to 19-year old-women who have begun childbearing in 2002 and 2013, respectively".

[13] It is important to note that efforts to pass legislation that bans corporal punishment have failed in recent years. A law on positive discipline that would make all forms of corporal punishment in the home and school illegal faced strong opposition in 2014 and 2015. Efforts by Save the Children and others to revive this bill have not moved forward because of cultural objections and concerns that parents would no longer have authority over their children.

Emotional Violence Against Children

In the Philippines, emotional violence is referred to as 'psychological violence' under the Anti-Violence against Women and Children Act, which refers to "acts or omissions causing or likely to cause mental or emotional suffering of the victim … It includes causing or allowing the victim to witness the physical, sexual or psychological abuse of a member of the family to which the victim belongs, or to witness pornography in any form or to witness abusive injury to pets or unlawful or unwanted deprivation of the right to custody and/or visitation of common children (see definitions section)." In the Philippines, the most frequently studied types of emotional violence include verbal abuse and psychological aggression as a form of violent discipline.

This systematic review explored 15 studies that included measurements of emotional violence. Key risk factors include **children's negative behaviours, parents' own histories of violence** and the **belief that forms of emotional violence are "natural reactions" to situations and not seen as violence, particularly by teachers**. Further research is needed to identify the risk and protective factors of emotional violence in the Philippines, especially as this form of violence is responsible for the largest burden of mental illness and self-harm in the region (Fang et al., 2015).

Emerging Issues: Online Child Sexual Abuse and Exploitation

The online abuse and exploitation of children, including webcam sex tourism, is a growing global concern, and is a particular threat in the Philippines, which is recognized as one of the top ten countries producing child pornography material globally. Cybercrime dens have been operating in many parts of the country since 2012.[14] In spite of legislation passed in 2009 (The Anti Child Pornography Act RA 9775) success in prosecuting perpetrators and thus providing deterrents to this multi-billion dollar crime has been limited.

A systematic literature review of online child protection conducted in 2015 found 15 papers on online child sexual abuse and exploitation in the Philippines (UNICEF, unpublished). Composed mainly of grey literature, these papers found that Filipino children commonly engage in risky online behaviour and are largely unsupervised when they use the Internet, putting them at risk of online sexual solicitation and grooming.

Poverty is a recognized driver of online sexual exploitation. **Broken homes, poor parenting, consumerism, peer influence, family values and socio-cultural beliefs and norms** have been tied to live streaming of online sexual abuse. The Philippines has become a hub for online exploitation of children primarily because of **local English proficiency, and an existing sex industry, including trafficking. Easy access to the internet, with nearly half of the population online, is another contributing factor. The online exploitation of children is a multi-billion-dollar industry, thus there is an enormous demand** for materials, and their production can easily be hidden in remote locations.

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[14] UNICEF Philippines Fact Sheet on Child Online Sexual Exploitation. August 2016.

Emerging Issues: Migration

Fourteen papers, including published studies, literature reviews and agency reports, addressed the impact of migration on children and families left behind by overseas Filipino migrants. These studies describe the changes that transnational families undergo, while migrant mothers continue to nurture their children from a distance and the extended family, particularly women, assume caregiving roles. New communication technologies, including *Skype*, assist in maintaining transnational families, but fail to provide children with proper care and protection. The studies show mixed results with regard to the education and psychosocial status of left-behind children, and suggest that **migration** may be a driver of violence against them – particularly neglect and sexual violence (as a result of increased vulnerability from having a missing caregiver). Recent news articles (including "The cost of caring," New Yorker, April 2016) have profiled the plight of Filipino domestic workers in particular, who often may not see their children for years due to the high cost of return voyages. Older children are left to care for others, and thus adult care and protection are lacking.

Emerging Issues: Disaster

The Philippines ranks fourth among the top 5 countries with the highest number of weather-related **disasters**, and among the top 10 countries with the highest number of people affected by weather-related disasters in the past 20 years (1995-2015). Post-disaster violence against Filipino children has rarely been studied. However, local agency reports clearly showed an increase in the number of rape and sexual abuse cases after Super Typhoon ("Yolanda") Haiyan, the terrible natural disaster that hit the country in 2013. A needs assessment conducted as part of international humanitarian response to the disaster also showed behavioural changes, involvement in harsh or dangerous labour, sexual violence, and an increase in the number of out-of-school children.

Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Research

CP Systems:
- o Strengthen inter-agency coordination to ensure implementation of child protection laws, under one coordination body
- o Develop/establish an integrated inter-agency child protection information system
- o Ensure functionality of the referral pathway on responding to child abuse, neglect and exploitation. Increase tertiary prevention (women and child protection units) and early intervention for families affected by domestic violence.

VAC at Home, School and in the Community
- o Promote parenting support interventions
  - • Strengthen child protection messages in existing Family Development Sessions (FDS) provided to families who are beneficiaries of the Government's conditional cash transfer programme, the *Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program* (4Ps) (in English, the Bridging Programme for the Filipino Family), and ensure monitoring of the impact of FDS to understand how parents/families have embraced these messages for positive social change, and reduction of VAC
  - • Promote the adaptation of proven/effective methods of good parenting (i.e. 'Parenting for Lifelong Health') for the Philippine context, thus encouraging the implementation of measurable tools for social change
- o Explore alcohol abuse prevention and brief interventions (relate to World Health Organization [WHO] work in this area)

Laws and Policies
- o Advocacy for improved legislation and policy to prevent and respond to VAC
  - • Support legislation that stops corporal punishment in schools and homes
  - • Advocate to increase the age of sexual consent through multi sectoral partnerships with the judiciary, social welfare, education and health sectors.
- o Support strengthened implementation of existing laws and policies that protect children from violence, including those on cybercrime and child pornography.
- o Address the gaps in the judicial system that cause child abuse cases to be delayed indefinitely

Social Norms and Gender
- o Promote positive social norms that do not involve violent discipline – utilize findings from the strategic literature review to suggest potential positive norms that could be enhanced.
- o Promote development of research capacity on social norms, encourage research to better understand how social norms may condone VAC, and what researchers can do to raise awareness, including development of communication for development (C4D) approaches for social/behavioural change
- o Support further research on violence against boys, noting that service delivery currently focuses on services for girls and women, and recognizing that boys may be equally or more vulnerable to violence than girls
- o Support efforts to tackle the increasing threat of HIV infection amongst adolescents, noting that men who have sex with men (MSM) account for a high proportion of cases, and that social norms continue to limit access to information and prevention
- o Address social norms that discourage adolescent access to information on sexual and reproductive health

Emerging Issues:
- o **Natural Disasters**
  - • Ensure the implementation of the child protection mechanisms stated in the Children in Emergencies Law by developing standardized monitoring systems
  - • Ensure greater attention to data collection and monitoring and evaluation of VAC during emergencies and natural disasters to better understand the magnitude of the problem and potential mitigation of risk and improve response

- o **Online Child Protection**
  - • Use outcomes of planned National Study on Child Online Protection to guide development of policy and legislation
  - • Use outcomes of Capacity Gap Analysis (2016) on online child protection to develop training/skills development for key stakeholders/partners on online child protection
  - • Pursue regional and global partnerships on online child protection to share experiences and further develop knowledge, tools and resources, particularly around data management and development of technical skills, and building partnerships in the private sector

Definitions of Types of Violence Against Children

According to the United Nations on the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), 'violence against children' refers to "all forms of physical or mental violence, injury and abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse."

UNICEF also defines violence in the following ways in their publication that explores global data on child protection:

"**Physical Violence** against children includes all corporal punishment and all other forms of torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment as well as physical bullying and hazing by adults or by other children. 'Corporal' (or 'physical') punishment is defined as any punishment in which physical force is used and intended to cause some degree of pain or discomfort, however light. Most involves hitting ('smacking', 'slapping', 'spanking') children with the hand or with an implement – a whip, stick, belt, shoe, wooden spoon, etc. But it can also involve, for example, kicking, shaking or throwing children, scratching, pinching, biting, pulling hair or boxing ears, caning, forcing children to stay in uncomfortable positions, burning, scalding or forced ingestion.

Sexual Violence comprises any sexual activities imposed by an adult on a child against which the child is entitled to protection by criminal law. This includes: (a) The inducement or coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful or psychologically harmful sexual activity; (b) The use of children in commercial sexual exploitation; (c) The use of children in audio or visual images of child sexual abuse; and (d) Child prostitution, sexual slavery, sexual exploitation in travel and tourism, trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation (within and between countries), sale of children for sexual purposes and forced marriage. Sexual activities are also considered as abuse when committed against a child by another child if the offender is significantly older than the victim or uses power, threat or other means of pressure. Consensual sexual activities between children are not considered as sexual abuse if the children are older than the age limit defined by the State Party.

Emotional Violence is often described as psychological maltreatment, mental abuse, verbal abuse and emotional abuse or neglect. This can include: (a) All forms of persistent harmful interactions with a child; (b) Scaring, terrorizing and threatening; exploiting and corrupting; spurning and rejecting; isolating, ignoring and favouritism; (c) Denying emotional responsiveness; neglecting mental health, medical and educational needs; (d) Insults, name-calling, humiliation, belittling, ridiculing and hurting a child's feelings; (e) Exposure to domestic violence; (f) Placement in solitary confinement, isolation or humiliating or degrading conditions of detention; and (g) Psychological bullying and hazing by adults or other children, including via information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as mobile phones and the Internet (known as 'cyber-bullying').

Neglect means the failure to meet children's physical and psychological needs, protect them from danger or obtain medical, birth registration or other services when those responsible for their care have the means, knowledge and access to services to do so. It includes: (a) Physical neglect: failure to protect a child from harm, including through lack of supervision, or to provide a child with basic necessities including adequate food, shelter, clothing and basic medical care; (b) Psychological or emotional neglect, including lack of any emotional support and love, chronic inattention, caregivers being 'psychologically unavailable' by overlooking young children's cues and signals, and exposure to intimate partner violence or drug or alcohol abuse; (c) Neglect of a child's physical or mental health: withholding essential medical care; (d) Educational neglect: failure to comply with laws requiring caregivers to secure their children's education through attendance at school or otherwise; and (e) Abandonment."

Source: UN CRC (1989) and UNICEF, 2014

CHAPTER 1.

Introduction:
The Research to Policy and Practice Process

The Research to Policy and Practice Process (R3P) is a series of activities that explore existing data that the UNICEF Office of Research–Innocenti with technical assistance from the University of Edinburgh developed for UNICEF Country Offices working in collaboration with governments and national academic partners. The goal is to explore what is already known about the scope, nature and risk factors of violence in order to make evidence-based decisions on violence prevention programming and policy based on local evidence.[15]

Understanding what drives violence is premised on the understanding that vulnerability to violence evolves in complex socio-economic and cultural contexts engaging a cast of siblings, peers, parents, caregivers, the wider community, professionals and authorities. A sound analysis of the issues will lead to better informed action. Depending on national resources, the R3P begins with a secondary analysis of relevant existing national data sets nested within a qualitative and quantitative literature review and interventions mapping. Countries can analyse what drives violence customizing the analysis to topical areas of national concern (such as schools, parenting, adolescents, etc).

- UNICEF Office of Research–Innocenti, 2015

The Drivers of Violence Study in the Philippines

The R3P Study on the Drivers of Violence Affecting Children is a systematic literature review carried out by the UNICEF Philippines Office with local academic partners, the University of the Philippines Manila and the Child Protection Network Foundation, with technical assistance from the University of Edinburgh. The study seeks to increase understanding of what drives violence affecting children and how best to address it.

This report is the product of this review for the Philippines. It identifies violence trends, gaps and avenues for future research in the Philippines, and its findings triangulate with those from the first ever nationally representative Violence Against Children survey in the Philippines.

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[15]   The R3P methodological approach was developed by the UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, in collaboration with the University of Edinburgh as academic partner. A step-by-step guide to the R3P methodology is available at: https://www.unicef-irc.org/research/pdf/432-Understanding-the-Drivers-of-Violence-Guidelines.pdf.

Socio-Ecological Framework by Age and Gender

According to the UNICEF Office of Research–Innocenti conceptualization of the R3P: "Most violence against children occurs in families, communities and schools and is committed by people known to the children affected by it. This report views violence against children not merely as an issue of personal behaviour, but as a socio-ecological phenomenon in which inter-personal violence is situated within a number of larger contextual factors that influence individual behaviours. Such contextual factors may be located largely within the individual, interpersonal or community spheres, such as: the quality of interpersonal relationships within families; the family's social connections with others in the community; the family's level of financial security and/or education level; and community social norms (including assumptions and beliefs regarding the discipline and supervision of children, expressions of warmth and other behaviour). Social cohesion – meaning the willingness of unrelated people to offer informal help to others – has also been found to protect children from violence" (Sampson and Raudenbush, 1997). Factors at the institutional and structural levels are also important to consider when analyzing what makes children more vulnerable to violence and what protects them from it. For example, the quality of formal institutions such as social services, the police, and the judiciary also influence the level of violence experienced by children, as do the economic and political situation of a country, and the commitment of its policymakers to protect children. The diagram below illustrates these various socio-ecological levels (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Heise, 1998):

Figure 1: The Socio-Ecological Framework

Another framework employed by the study looks at the intersection of age and gender (Figure 2), and examines different risk and protective factors and different relationships as a child grows from infancy to adulthood (Maternowska and Fry, 2015).

Figure 2: The Age and Gender Framework
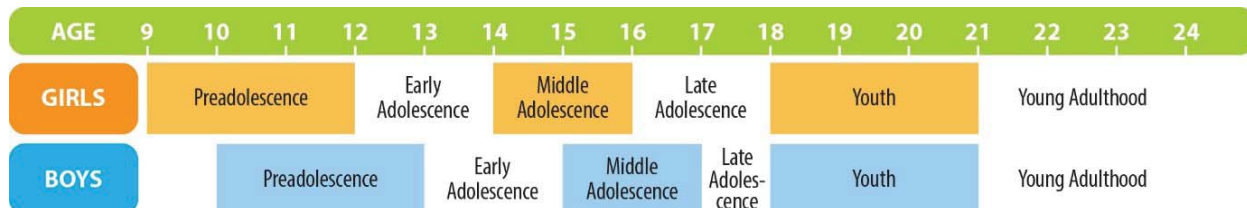
The study explored peer-reviewed journal articles, grey literature (informally published written material such as research reports and research briefing papers), reports and other resources in both Tagalog and English on violence against children to identify the prevalence, risk and protective factors of emotional, phyiscal and sexual abuse of children in the Philippines. A secondary analysis of the 2014 Philippines DHS was also conducted and other secondary datasets such as the Child Protection Network Foundation's Case Management System were explored. A detailed description of the methodology of the review is presented in Appendix A.

This report will first cover the context of the Philippines by exploring the historial, political, social, health and economic circumstances that underpin the findings. The third chapter details the child protection system in the Philippines to better situate findings within the existing systems. Chapter four explores violence by settings including homes, schools, communities and online. The fifth chapter will explore the data through a different lens by focusing on type of violence – physical, sexual and emotional. The sixth chapter explores findings by relationships including children in relation to their mother, father, siblings, partners and peers, among others. This is further disentangled in chapter seven, which looks at the age and gender nexus. Chapter eight presents information on evaluated prevention interventions with a discussion about prevention programmes not addressing the drivers of VAC. Chapter nine explores key emerging themes and issues that are unique to the Philippines. Finally, chapter ten presents conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2.
The Political Economy of the Philippines

Geographic and Demographic Profile

The Philippines is an archipelagic nation in Southeast Asia. It consists of 7,107 islands with a total land area of approximately 300,000 square kilometres. It is commonly divided into three main island groups: Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2011).

Figure 3. Map of the Philippines

(Source: Google Earth)

Source: Google Earth

The estimated population of the Philippines according to the 2013 census was 99.384 million, 33.3 per cent of whom were aged 0-14 years old. In 2010, more than half of the population was younger than 24,[16] and 40 per cent were under 18. There were 64.2 million people aged between 15 and 64, and 41.32 million in the labour force. Figure 4 is a population pyramid showing a young population with a dependency ratio of 60.3 per cent (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2015).

Figure 4. Population Pyramid of the Philippines
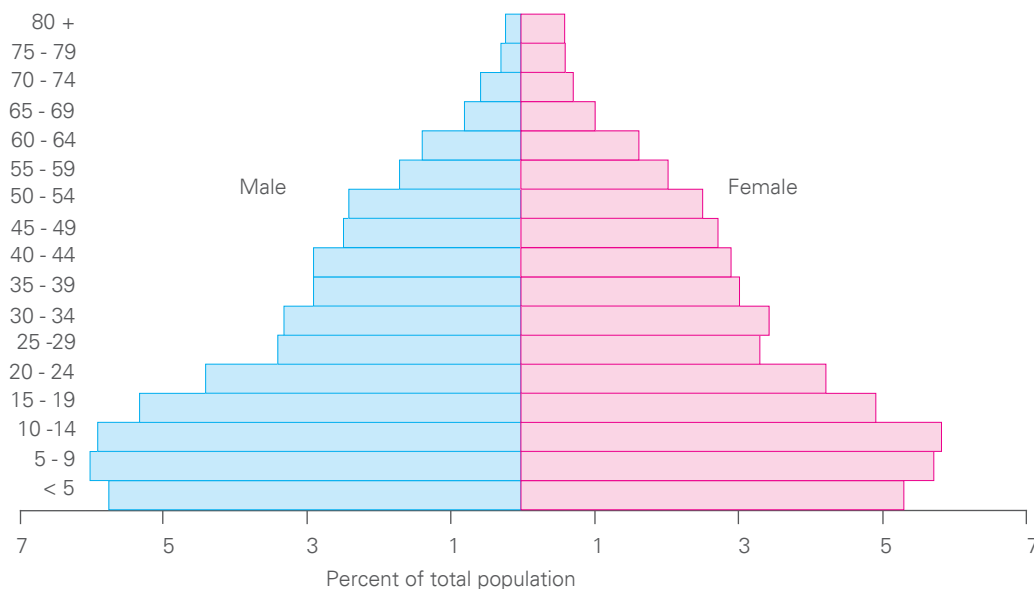
Source: Philippine National DHS 2013

There are nearly 4 million out-of-school children and youths (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2013).

Unemployment is estimated at 6 per cent. Population growth averaged 1.73 per cent between 2010 and 2015. The population is projected to reach 111.78 million by 2020 and 128.11 million by 2030. Life expectancy for males is 71 years and 76.5 years for females (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2011).

The Philippines has the 39th largest economy in the world with a GDP of $284.556 billion, mostly from the services and agricultural sector. It had an average GDP growth rate of 6.3 per cent between 2010 and 2014 and is classified as a newly industrialized country (International Monetary Fund, 2015).

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[16] Philippine Statistical Authority, Age and Sex Structure August 2012.

A Short History of the Philippines

The earliest evidence of habitation of the islands is estimated to be 22,000 years ago. Contact and trade relations with other neighbouring sovereignties were established around 500 years prior to the arrival of the Spanish in 1521. The Philippines was under Spanish control for 333 years (1565-1898), Spanish influence can still be felt today in all aspects Philippine life: names, food, culture, laws. The Philippine Revised Penal Code is based on the Spanish *Codigo Penal*; the age of statutory rape (12) originated from this penal code. The Philippines is the only Christian country in Asia. The church and state were not separate during Spanish rule, with the state having responsibility over the church.

Spain relied heavily on religious orders to manage its distant colony. The religious orders converted natives to Catholicism and governed through a network of parishes and monastic orders. The proselytizing was so successful that by the ti me the Americans arrived at the turn of the last century, 91.5 per cent of Filipinos were Roman Catholic (Pangalangan, 2015).

The Philippines was ceded to the Americans as part of the Treaty of Paris, which ended the Spanish-American War in 1898. The revolutionary government was defeated by the Americans and the country came under American occupation. The United States influenced all aspects of Filipino life, including the education system, the constitution and system of government. Hundreds of thousands of Filipinos have immigrated to the United States and today, they are allowed dual citizenship. Food, media, entertainment, clothes and lifestyle continue to be influenced by the United States. Anthropologists refer to this as the effect of internalized oppression and what some would call a 'colonial mentality' (David & Okazaki, 2006; Singson, 2015). Taken further, Teresita del Rosario in *Marriage, Migration and Gender* (2008) looks at this history between the Filipinos and Americans as the basis for the appeal of American males as spouses of Filipinas: "Marriage to a white man, particularly an American man, is considered an improvement over marrying a local, regardless of class affiliation."

Inequity

An estimated 30 per cent of Filipinos live in poverty. Children are extremely vulnerable to poverty, and poor children are more at risk of exploitation and abuse. According to the Association of the Rights of Children in South East Asia, nearly three quarters of poor children have experienced some kind of abuse or exploitation.[17]

The Philippine Institute for Development Studies reports that the Philippines' Gini coefficient – the accepted measure of inequality – is one of the highest in the region. Inequality has not declined despite recent economic growth. The largest inequity occurs between rural and urban areas.

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[17] Pinoy Weekly "The Girls of Manila: Sexual abuse of Filipino girls" June 2013.

Children and Conflict

Children in the Philippines have been recruited by armed groups, both as combatants and non-combatants (United States Department of Labor, 2008), and are impacted by conflict where their communities are affected by violence.

Armed conflict is a chronic problem in the southern part of the Philippines, and is a factor in overall inequity, including access to health services and education. Conflict prevents the establishment of a stable health system, and does not allow for regular school attendance, as evident in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM), which has the worst health indicators in the country, and comparatively low rates of school attendance and completion. In many areas of conflict, health care and other services are only available in areas of military control, or where there is a concentrated humanitarian effort.

The national average for birth registration in the Philippines is 90 per cent, but lower than 40 per cent in ARMM. Not being registered at birth presents particular disadvantages in terms of access to education and other social services, and also increases the risk of underage recruitment into the military.

Children's vulnerability to conflict and war is acknowledged by Republic Act No. 7610, which protects children by declaring them as 'Zones of Peace'. The law ensures that children and their needs are kept safe even in areas of conflict. In 2014, only six cases of victims from armed conflict were reported to the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD).

Constant conflict prevents the establishment of a stable systems such as child protection, health and education in the ARMM. Over the past three decades, government forces (the AFP) have struggled with non-state actors, including the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF), Abu Sayuf, and communist insurgents (the NDF), resulting in instability and a constant threat of violence.

According to Yacat (2011), increased militarization in the countryside has resulted in thousands of children and families being displaced from their war-torn communities or harmed after being caught in crossfire. Children are also either recruited to take up arms or victimized and subjected to physical and emotional violence for being suspected agents of the insurgents.

Since 2007, the Philippines has been listed by the UN Secretary General for the reported recruitment of children into the military, along with other grave child rights violations, indicated in Security Council 1612. In order to comply with the UN Security Council 1612 requirements, a Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism has been established, whereby annual reports are submitted that document the status of grave child rights violations and efforts by the Government and non-state actors to mitigate and eliminate these violations.

The Armed Forces of the Philippines, for example, has been challenged in recent annual reports because of their occupation of schools, thus putting children at risk during their military operations. The MILF has an Action Plan in place and has made substantial progress in recent years to eliminate child recruitment in their ranks, and to release all children currently associated with their armed forces.

In a survey of the wellness of 24 children affected by armed conflict in Lanao del Norte, two confided that they had difficulty concentrating in their studies, while one had stopped schooling. Difficulties in dealing with emotions were noted among some children. This research provides an important insight into the particular emotional and psychological violence that children experience in conflict situations (Labadisos, 2012).

Culture and Religion

The Philippines is a culturally diverse country with an estimated 14-17 million Indigenous Peoples (IPs) belonging to 110 ethno-linguistic-groups. They are mainly concentrated in Mindanao (61 per cent) and Northern Luzon (Cordillera Administrative Region, 33 per cent), with some groups (6 per cent) in the Visayas area (UNDP Philippines, 2010). The Summer Institute of Linguistics estimated that there are 171 different languages in the Philippines (Hendrickson, 1991). Indigenous people in the Philippines generally face discrimination and have poor access to basic services. Their health indicators are also poor. Filipinos identify and align themselves to groups defined by geographic area, ethnicity or religion, such as the Muslims of Mindanao. The existence of severe socio-economic and political inequality between groups can lead to conditions ripe for political mobilization and conflict (Langer and Stewart, 2013).

The Influence of the Catholic Church

In the Philippines, 81 per cent of the population are Roman Catholic, 12 per cent Protestant and 5.1 per cent Muslim. While the separation of the church and state is enshrined in the constitution of the Philippines, the Catholic Church wields considerable political power, which has a significant impact on social norms, laws, polices, and access to social and health services that affect the protection of children from sexual abuse, exploitation and violence. The Philippines is the only country in the world that does not allow divorce. The Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act of 2012 (Republic Act No. 10354), was passed after years of contentious debate. The Catholic Church waged a very visible campaign against this legislation, which increased access to reproductive health services. The law now guarantees universal access to methods of contraception, fertility control, sexual education and maternal care. Debates on who has the responsibility to educate children about sex caused the Supreme Court to delay implementation of the law. In response to challenges, eight provisions were struck down partially or in full, including: healthcare providers can deny reproductive health services to patients based on their personal or religious beliefs in non-emergency situations; spousal consent for women in non-life-threatening circumstances will be required to access reproductive health care; parental consent will also be required for minors seeking medical attention who have been pregnant or had a miscarriage (Center for Reproductive Rights, 2014).

The influence of the Catholic Church on laws, social norms and behaviour is particularly evident in the very limited access that children and young people have to sex education and reproductive health services. This has implications for the awareness of sexual exploitation, abuse and violence in the home and the community, including an understanding of rights and access to services.

Muslims in the Philippines

The Philippine Muslims, once a dominant group the country, now make up only 5 per cent of the total population. Arab and Gujarati traders introduced Islam to the Philippines in the 14th century long before the arrival of the Spaniards; Mindanao and Sulu are the original homeland of the Philippine Muslims.

The Spanish tried to subdue the Muslims in Mindanao but were never successful. Spain's negative portrayals of Islam and Muslims influenced perceptions of each other among Muslims and Christians (Angeles, 2013). The Spanish used the term Moro (Moors) in a derogatory way but today this is used with a positive meaning by the Philippine Muslims who call themselves *Bamgsamoro*. The American colonizers eventually established civilian colonial rule in "Moroland", the U.S. term for Philippine Muslim territories in 1914.

After World War II and the independence of the Philippines, the Government encouraged immigration to Mindanao, creating a demographic shift in the region, which saw the Christians outnumber the Muslims, and led to dislocation and disparity between Christians and Muslims, and fueled unrest. This unrest led to the formation of the underground Muslim National Liberation Front (MNLF). With the declaration of Martial Law in 1972, the MNLF started an armed separatist insurgency. The war was costly for both sides and in 1976, an end to the war was negotiated, leading to the creation of an autonomous region in Mindanao (ARMM).

In 1977, Presidential decree No. 1083 was promulgated, which recognized the system of Filipino Muslim law, codifying Muslim personal law and providing for its administration and other purposes. The Philippine Code of Muslim Personal Laws (PCMPL) covers all laws relating to personal status, marriage and divorce, matrimonial and family relations, succession and inheritance, and property relations among Muslim Filipinos.[18] Under Article 16 of the Muslim Code, the minimum marrying age is 15 for both males and females. However, upon the petition of a male guardian, the Sharia district Court may order the solemnization of marriage of a female who has attained puberty although she is younger than 15, but not below 12 years old (Padilla 2009). The PCMPL also allows divorce from marriages between Muslims, which is not allowed in regular Philippine law.

ARMM is the poorest region in the Philippines. Under different administrations, different policies and strategies have been implemented with regards the MNLF and MILF. Meanwhile, clashes between the different groups have led to children and families being dislocated and killed. The Report of the Secretary-General to the Security Council[19] noted different groups recruiting children and damaging schools. The Comprehensive Agreement on the *Bangsamoro* was signed by the Government and MILF on March 27, 2014 after 17 years of negotiation, engendering hopes of ending armed conflict in Mindanao (Office of the President, 2014).

The Philippines has always been mentioned as a country that practices female genital mutation/cutting (FGM/C) but there is not much knowledge or data about it. Most Filipinos, including physicians, do not know that it occurs in the country. However, there have been three published researches on FGM/C among Muslims in Mindanao. These describe the practice of *Pag-Sunnat/Sunnat* among the Yakans in Basilan (Calsalin, 2008), the Meranaos of Lanao del Sur (Manalocon-Basher, 2014) and the Muslim women of Zamboanga City, mainly Tausugs (Belisario, 2009). The type of FGM/C could take the following forms: 1) bathing of the genital area; 2) swabbing the clitoris with cotton; 3) rubbing a knife gently over the anterior portion of the labia majora or

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[18] Cases are heard in The Philippine Shari'a Courts or Courts for Muslims.
[19] Issued on 5 June 2015, (A/69/926–S/2015/409)

stroking the clitoris two or three times; 4) scrapping of the labia majora with an unpointed knife until it is erythematous; assuring that there is no bleeding; or 5) pricking and removing some tissue from the clitoris. The latter is called *turi* by the Meranaos. All of these forms of FGM/C are done in a ritualistic manner which includes special prayers, special dress and gift offerings. The practice is justified using the hadiths (words of Mohammad S.A.W.) written in one of the ayat (pages) of the Qu-ran (Calsalin, 2008). The ages of the children range from 5 to 9. Only specific persons in the community can perform the circumcision, such as the *Kah Dayang* among the Yakans and the *Manunuri* of the Meranaos. They hold a high standing in the community for this duty.

There is a wide acceptance of this practice among the women, men, children and leaders of the community, especially among those where the practice does not involve bleeding of the clitoris. However, among the men and religious leaders of the Meranaos, the males and religious leaders expressed the need to eradicate the practice of *turi* (Manalocon-Basher, 2014). The Meranao men have seen its effects on their wives, who have reduced sexual desire in marriage. The women have also experienced pain, bleeding, infection, anxiety and trauma after the *turi* was performed when they were children. The many reasons cited as to why the tradition will continue include: 1) religious reasons; 2) rite of passage and acceptance of society; 3) sign of purity and ensuring a good marriage; and 4) dignity and honour for the child and family (Calsalin, 2008: Manalocon-Basher, 2014; Belisario, 2009).

Family and Kinship

The Filipino family revolves around the principle of kinship. It recognizes relationships with remote cousins and takes them into the household as family members if called upon (Andres, 1989). The size of the family is even extended further by the "*compadre system*"; godparents in marriage, baptism and other religious rites. Godparents take on the role of a second father/mother of the child. The reputation of the family is very important to all its members. The Filipino family is strongly characterized by cohesiveness among its members and extended kin, respect for elders, and deference to parental authority, and fulfillment of mutual obligations (Alampay, 2014). "*Hiya*" or shame is a value that is upheld by family members. The family protects its member's interest and welfare. "No Filipino starves to death because there are always relatives who will lend a helping hand" (Medina, 2015).

The family serves as the safety net for all its members. The most common source of support for families comes from relatives. As part of its social protection function, the family is also expected to take care of its elderly. Parents expect their children to support them in their old age. De Guzman (1976) found that aged parents would rather live with daughters because they believe that daughters "provide better care for parents and possess more positive characteristics" than sons.

Socialization of Children: Gender and Age

Female and male children are reared differently, with different expectations based on their gender. When the child is 7 years old, there is an increased demand in relation to household responsibilities. Chores are divided according to traditional gender roles, with daughters engaging in cooking, cleaning, and taking care of younger siblings, while sons take on tasks that require physical strength and distance from the home. It is not uncommon to have an elder sibling left alone in the house to take care of younger siblings while the parents are out at work (Liwag et al, 1999). Responsibility training varies according to birth order with greater responsibilities and expectations from first-borns, especially females, who take on more household and child care tasks than even the father (Liwag et. al, 1998; Parrenas, 2006).

Children are fully expected to help the family and in poor families they are expected to assist in their families' subsistence activities (Alampay, 2013). In a 1976 study by Boulier, fathers in poor farm families supplied about 65 per cent of work time, mothers about 20 per cent and children 15 per cent. According to the 2011 ILO Survey on Child Labor in the Philippines, there are 5.49 million working children of which 2.99 million are engaged in hazardous labour. The reasons for engaging in hazardous labour were: help in own household-operated farm or business (42.2 per cent); supplement family income; and important to family well-being (30 per cent).

Younger siblings are taught to respect and obey their older siblings. Older siblings in turn are expected to sacrifice for the sake of the younger (Aguilar et al, 2009). Restrictions are made more on daughters than sons during adolescence (Jocano, 1988; Mendez and Jocano, 1979). Traditional norms of a woman being pure and chaste before marriage are still the general rule even though sexual attitudes and behaviour are changing. Males are given more freedom and leeway in behaviour, even in sexual transgressions (Tan et al, 2001; Medina, 2001).

Filipino parents value education both for boys and girls and see it as a legacy for their children. Literacy rates are higher for girls (97 per cent) than for boys (96 per cent) in the Philippines. Parents work hard and sacrifice for the education of their children and this is one of the major reasons cited for seeking overseas work (Philippine Institute for Development Studies, 2008). Among the cultural values taught to children by parents include "kapwa" (the other person) and the regard for the needs of others (pakikipag-kapwa), which places more importance on the collective goal rather than the individual; utang na loob (debt of one's being) is a life-long debt owed to another person. Children are expected to possess a sense of "utang na loob" to their parents for having given birth to them and supporting them as they grow up (Alampay, 2014).

The Philippines ranks seventh out of 145 countries included in the 2015 World Economic Forum Gender Gap Report. The report recognizes that females have very high rates of literacy, more females are enrolled in both secondary and tertiary education than their male counterparts, and females also have high levels of employment and hold positions of political power. Fifty-seven per cent of legislators, senior officials and / or managers are female, while 63 per cent of professional and technical workers are female. Health indicators for women are, however, less positive. Abortion is illegal, access to reproductive healthcare and health services is restricted and maternal mortality remains a challenge.

Gender issues in the Philippines and their implications for VAC have not been well researched. Boys face particular challenges and risks, with data showing that more boys are out of school at primary and secondary age, and that more boys are living or working on the streets and are in conflict with the law, and are thus exposed to violence.

Chapter Summary

The political economy of the Philippines gives rise to a number of factors that may drive VAC. All aspects of life in this demographically young country are affected by its colonial past, including its legal framework. An estimated 30 per cent of the population lives in poverty, and there is a high level of inequality, which has a knock-on effect on the risk of child exploitation and abuse. Children in in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao are vulnerable to conflict, which prevents a stable system of child protection. The influence of the Catholic Church on social norms is evident in the limited access that children and young people have to sex education and reproductive health services, which has implications for their awareness of sexual exploitation, abuse and violence, and their understanding of the rights they hold.

Violence in all its forms has pervaded the lives of the Filipino people as a result of the Philippines' history of colonialism, political upheaval, and armed conflict, worsened by inequity and poverty. Understanding this historical context is important as it complements this study's ecological framework. The interaction of the different systems and how history and culture affect systems and the individual are underscrored. The framework facilitates understanding the drivers of violence that affect children.

CHAPTER 3.
The Child Protection System

'Child protection' is widely defined as preventing and responding to violence, abuse and exploitation as part of upholding and fulfilling children's rights. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN CRC) includes several Articles that ensure the protection of children from discrimination and all forms of violence and exploitation in various situations. It is important to note that all State Parties that have ratified the Convention are committed to developing and strengthening a National Child Protection Systems. Child protection systems are integral to providing child protection services, preventing abuse from occurring in different settings, and to manage information on child protection issues.

Defining the Child Protection Systems Approach

The 2006 report of the UN Secretary General's Study on Violence against Children recommended that "all States develop a multi-faceted and systematic framework in response to violence against children which is integrated into national planning processes." This encouraged organizations and agencies to review their strategies and reframe child protection work towards systems-building.

UNICEF envisioned creating a protective environment to address prevention of and response to VAC. The Protective Environment Framework has eight components:

1. Governmental commitment to fulfilling protection rights

2. Legislation and enforcement: includes an adequate legislative framework, its consistent implementation, accountability and a lack of impunity

3. Attitudes, traditions, customs, behaviour and practices

4. Open discussion, including the engagement of media and civil society

5. Children's life skills, knowledge and participation: includes children, both girls and boys, as actors in their own protection through use of knowledge of their protection rights and ways of avoiding and responding to risks

6. Increasing the capacity of those in contact with the child: includes the knowledge, motivation and support needed by families and community members, teachers, health and social workers and police, in order to protect children

7. Basic and Targeted Services

8. Monitoring and oversight, which includes effective systems of monitoring such as data collection, and oversight of trends and responses

International child-focused non-governmental organizations (NGOs) also defined their approaches to systems building and strengthening child protection systems. World Vision (2011), stated that "The main aims of a systems approach are to strengthen the protective nature of the environment around children and to strengthen children themselves, in order to ensure their well-being and fulfil their rights to protection from abuse, neglect, exploitation and other forms of violence." Plan International (2015), stressed that an "effective child protection system comprises not only the institutions of government, but also the children themselves, their families, communities and the wider civil society. Each has their responsibilities and plays their role in protecting children." Terre des hommes (Delaney, Quigley and Shuteriqi, 2014), believes that the system building approach is effective because it guarantees continuity in children's protective environments and durability of protective actions. Child protection responses will no longer reduce children to specific 'categories' but rather begin to address their protection needs in a more holistic manner. This provides a better environment for piloting, testing and up-scaling models of good practice and promotes coordinated and coherent management of existing resources.

The components of child protection systems are also similar among the child-focused agencies: (UNICEF Executive Board, 2008; Save the Children, 2011; Plan International, 2015; World Vision, 2011; Delaney, Quigley and Shuteriqi, 2014)

- Child protection laws and policies, implementing standards and regulations

- A coordination mechanism that includes government and civil society, and cuts across sectors

- A functioning continuum of services and responses with standards and regulations

- Adequate financial and human resources for prevention and response programmes

- Information systems including context appropriate data collection systems

- Monitoring, evaluation and accountability

- Social participation including children and adults in the communities and local organizations, civil society, international NGOs, and the local and national government

All projects and activities in line with the child protection systems components are guided by the principles of the UN CRC: non-discrimination; upholding the best interest of the child; right to life; survival and development; and participation.

Philippine national policy and frameworks to fulfil the rights of the child and policies on child protection

Policies and their enforcement are crucial components of a child protection system. Article 4 of the UN CRC underscores the commitment of State Parties to ensure that children's rights are fulfilled through "…appropriate legislative, administrative and other measures for implementation…" The UN CRC and other UN policies and frameworks such as the Stockholm Declaration (1996), World Fit for Children (2002), UN MDGs (2000), and the UN Study on Violence against Children (2006) influenced the Philippines' policies and frameworks.

After the Philippines ratified the UN CRC, the Government passed RA 7610 (the 'Special Protection of Children against Abuse, Exploitation, and Discrimination Act') in 1992. The Philippine Plan of Action (PPAC) was developed soon after, which focused on: family care and alternative parental arrangements; basic health, nutrition, social security and safe environment; basic education, leisure, recreation and cultural activities; protection of children in especially difficult circumstances; and fundamental civil rights of children. PPAC was developed in order to operationalize the Philippines' commitment to the UN CRC. A number of laws were subsequently enacted:

EXISTING LAW/POLICY	DESCRIPTION
Special Protection of Children Against Abuse, Exploitation, and Discrimination Act (RA 7610)	Provides protection to children against all forms of abuse, exploitation, and discrimination given their unique situation in society. It provides sanctions to violations of children's rights such as trafficking, child prostitution and other forms of sexual abuse
Anti-trafficking in Persons Act (RA 9208) enacted on	Aims to eliminate and punish human trafficking, especially trafficking of women and children, and establishes the necessary institutional mechanisms to protect and support trafficked persons
Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Act (RA 9262)	Recognizes the need to protect the family and its members, particularly women and children, from violence and threats to their personal safety
Juvenile Justice and Welfare Act (RA 9344)	Covers the different stages involving children at risk and children in conflict with the law from prevention to rehabilitation and reintegration
The Anti-Rape Law (RA 8353)	Expanded the definition of the crime of rape and reclassified it from a crime against chastity to a crime against the person
The Anti-Child Pornography Law (RA 9775)	Aims to combat child pornography
Republic Act 10630, An Act Strengthening the Juvenile Justice System in the Philippines, amending for the purpose Republic Act 9344 or the Juvenile Justice Welfare Act	Amended RA 9344 to read as "An Act Establishing a Comprehensive Juvenile Justice and Welfare System, Creating the Juvenile Justice and Welfare Council under the Department of Social Welfare and Development, Appropriating Funds Therefor, and for Other Purposes."
Cybercrime Prevention Act of 2012, Republic Act No. 10175, An Act Defining Cybercrime, Providing For The Prevention, Investigation, Suppression And The Imposition Of Penalties Therefor And For Other Purposes	Penalizes illegal acts committed via the Internet that were not covered by previous policy
Anti-Bullying Act of 2013, Republic Act No. 10627, An Act Requiring All Elementary And Secondary Schools To Adopt Policies To Prevent And Address The Acts Of Bullying In Their Institutions	Addresses any bullying by one or more students whether this is through written, verbal or electronic expression, or any physical act

EXISTING LAW/POLICY	DESCRIPTION
Children's Emergency Relief and Protection Act (RA 10821)	Seeks to protect the particular needs of children before, during and after crisis through: a Comprehensive Emergency Program to protect children and support their immediate recovery; heightened surveillance against child trafficking and other violence against children in the aftermath of disasters; a system of restoring civil documents; increased participation of children in disaster risk reduction planning and post-disaster needs assessments; less disruption of education activities with the reduced use of schools as evacuation centers; proper use of temporary learning spaces; improved care and steps for family tracing and reunification for unaccompanied and separated children; better data collection and reporting; and child-centered training of all responders for community/barangay leaders, school personnel and rescuers (Save the Children, 2016)

At the turn of the millennium, the Philippines developed 'Child 21', which outlined the long-term strategic plans to fulfil the rights of the child. Five-year National Plans of Action were developed to implement Child 21. The National Framework on Children's Participation was developed in 2004 to guide various agencies, sectors, organizations and all stakeholders on the principles that need to be adhered to when involving children. The Comprehensive Programs for Child Protection were developed in order to guide the implementation of RA 7610 (the 'Special Protection of Children against Abuse, Exploitation, and Discrimination Act'). The National Plan of Action against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children was developed to fulfil commitments to the World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children. The Anti-Violence against Children National Strategic Plan was developed based on the findings of the UN Secretary General's Study on Violence against Children.

The Special Committee for the Protection of Children developed the third Comprehensive Programme on Child Protection (2012-2016), which outlined targets and indicators, strategies and interventions, and how children can participate in child protection. The programme adopted UNICEF's Protective Environment Framework in developing strategies to prevent and respond to priority child protection issues.

The first and second National Plans of Action for Children (NPAC) aim to implement and harmonize Child 21, the MDGs, and World Fit for Children. Although it generally aims to fulfil the rights of all Filipino children, special focus is given to children in need of special protection, which includes: a) children who experience violence, abuse and exploitation; b) children in situations of commercial sexual exploitation; and c) children in emergencies and difficult circumstances. "In particular, the NPAC prescribes: a) broad nationwide interventions, cutting across life stages; b) interventions specific to a particular life stage; and sector specific interventions. In terms of protection, NPAC is aligned with the Comprehensive Program on the Protection of Children, a joint effort by the Department of Justice and the Department of Social Welfare and Development" (J. Yacat 2011, 14).

There are inter-agency bodies that are mandated by law to focus on children's concerns. The Committee for the Special Protection of Children, for one, is tasked with monitoring the enforcement of RA 7610. It is mandated to cover and guarantee legal protection to physically abused children, including victims of cruelty and corporal punishment, sexually abused children, children in prostitution, child labour, trafficked children, and others. The Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking is mandated to "complement the shared government information system for migration established under RA 8042 (known as the Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995). The Juvenile Justice and Welfare Council, coordinates efforts to build the capacity of direct

service providers to implement the Juvenile Justice Welfare Act, and conduct continuing research and support evaluations and studies on all matters that are related to juvenile justice and welfare. The National Council on Disability Affairs is the national government agency mandated to formulate policies and coordinate the activities of all agencies, including NGOs, concerning disability issues.

Responding to child victims of abuse, neglect and exploitation

The protocol for case management

The Committee for the Special Protection of Children developed the protocol for the case management of child victims of abuse, neglect and exploitation. It clearly presented where to report cases and the specific role of the members of multi-disciplinary teams and the relevant agencies concerned. The protocol is signed and recognized by the relevant government Inter-agency councils and committees. This has improved coordination of national government agencies in quickly responding to reported cases.

"The management of child abuse cases is multi-sectoral (national and local government agencies, non-government and faith-based organizations, civic and private sectors) and multi-disciplinary (police, prosecutor, judge, lawyer, social worker, medical doctor, psychiatrist, psychologist, barangay officials, among others) working together as a team to provide appropriate protection, legal and social services to the child victims of abuse, neglect, and exploitation.

Due to devolution of social services and accessibility to the community, the local government unit's social worker (referred to as local social welfare and development office or LSWDO social worker) is often the case manager. As case manager, the social worker coordinates the provision of needed services in cooperation with partner agencies" (Committee for the Special Protection of Children 2014, 11).

Child Protection Units

The first Child Protection Unit (CPU) was established in a government tertiary care training hospital in 1997 in response to the need for a comprehensive, coordinated and continuing care by trained professionals. It was a partnership between the academe, the government and private philanthropy. It cut through agency red tape to assemble physicians, mental health professionals, social workers, police and lawyers in one unit. The goal is to provide immediate and long-term care to abused children and their families for health, safety and optimal development. The investigation and legal protection are conducted together with rehabilitation and reintegration of child into their families and communities. Team members work with the community to provide support for families. With scarce resources and minimal political support, initiative, creativity and perseverance are necessary for success.

It also became apparent that with scarce resources, it was more efficient if the Child Protection Units were combined with the Women's Desks, which led to the establishment of Women and Child Protection Units (WCPUs). While it was difficult to put together members of the team who came from different departments of the central government (Department of Health [DOH], DSWD, Philippine National Police), it was easier to do this with local governments where the budget came from the local government unit e.g. governor for province, mayor for a city or municipality. To ensure sustainability, the creation of the WCPU and its personnel and operational budget, the programme had to be approved by the local legislative assembly. There are now 78 WCPUs in 43 provinces.

The establishment of WCPUs was further strengthened by the DOH Administrative Order No. 2013-0011: Revised Policy on the Establishment of Women and Children Protection Units in all Government Hospitals. The revised policy set a 'ladderized' scheme in the establishment of WCPUs recognize the wide range of resource available in the different areas of the country. The smallest WCPU (level 1) is composed of a trained physician and a trained social worker working together to provide acute medical treatment, medico-legal examination, social worker intervention with safety and risk assessment, peer review, documentation and record keeping, with the physician also giving expert testimony in court cases. Level 2 adds a police member and/or a mental health professional. Level 3 is a Training Center. Mental Health is the most difficult to access and to find professionals to address the needs of patients who report to WCPUs. There are currently 79 WCPUs in 43 provinces and 9 independent cities.

National Monitoring Mechanisms

Agencies conduct their own monitoring systems according to their mandates and functions. The National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB) serves as the policy-making and coordinating agency on statistical matters in the Philippines. However, it does not engage in any basic data collection activity. Under the NSCB is the National Statistics Office (NSO), which is the primary government statistical agency collecting, compiling, producing, publishing and disseminating general-purpose statistics. The NSO several surveys that are relevant to child protection monitoring.

The Council for the Welfare of Children (CWC) is the principal government agency that addresses children's concerns. It initiated the Subaybay Bata Monitoring System in 2003 as its data collection programme, which has three components: macro-monitoring system; micro-monitoring system; and project-based monitoring system. Particular government agencies conduct monitoring based on their mandates and functions (Balanon, 2013):

- The DOH Unified Health and Management Information system integrates data collection, processing, reporting and use of the information to improve health service efficiency and effectiveness.
- DSWD conducts monitoring through its Information and Communications Technology Management Service (ICTMS). There are several databases under the DSWD, including the National Household Targeting Office, Crisis Intervention Monitoring System, Disaster Response Monitoring System, and Early Childhood Care and Development.
- The Department of the Interior and Local Government monitors data from its field officers from the municipal/city, provincial and regional officers. The Department creates mechanisms for LCAT-VAWC, Local Council for the Protection of Children (LCPC) (Barangay violence against women [VAW] desk), violence against women and children (VAWC) cases and Brangay Protection Order issuances. It provides technical assistance and capacity-building activities and assists in policy formulation.
- The Philippine National Police (PNP) monitor cases through the Women and Children Protection Desks and police stations. The cases monitored are those of sexual abuse (including rape, acts of lasciviousness, attempted rape and sexual harassment), children in conflict with the law (CICL), children involved in armed conflict, trafficking in persons, cybercrime, VAC, child labour and exploitation, child prostitution and maltreatment.
- The Department of Justice (DOJ) has three levels of case monitoring: (1) law enforcement; (2) the DOJ level composed of local prosecutors (city and provincial) task forces on women and children, state prosecutors, and the prosecutor general; and (3) the courts, composed of the Regional or Municipal Trial Courts for cases with findings of probable cause.

- The Department of Labor and Employment monitors child labor cases through its Child Labor Knowledge Sharing System, an information technology tool used by the Community of Practice against Child Labor, in support of the Philippine Program Against Child Labor to share relevant data in real-time, foster communication, improve programme monitoring and automate the child labour case referrals.
- The Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process (OPAPP) collates data from the army (AFP), CHR, DSWD, NGOs, CWC, DOH, the Inter-Agency Committee on Children in Armed Conflict IAC-CIAC and faith-based organizations on children involved in armed conflict (CIAC). However, OPAPP admits that there are limitations in providing information on indicators stated in the NPAC due to the absence of a centralized database or monitoring system for CIAC.

Different laws have defined the functions of the national line agencies and the formation of inter-agency bodies. These agencies and inter-agency bodies have monitoring functions and are focused on the sectors they serve. There is no venue or mandate for data sharing among the line-agencies and inter-agency bodies. Although the problem of inconsistent data among government agencies has been recognized by stakeholders for years, no agency has taken the initiative to analyse the reason behind the different numbers and develop a strategy to address the issue. (Balanon, 2013)

Issues and gaps relating to the child protection system

The following discussion gathers observations and conclusions from the literature reviewed. This aims to provide an overview of current issues and gaps in the Philippines' National Child Protection System.

1. **Policy gaps and issues**

   In 2009, United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (UN CRC) noted that the Philippines' child protection policy framework is progressive. However, the Committee stated that the Philippines need to "address the previous recommendations that have been partly, insufficiently or not implemented at all, including those relating to the minimum age of sexual consent, discrimination against children born out of wedlock, child pornography, the prohibition of torture and the prohibition of corporal punishment and other forms of violence in the home, schools, in public and private institutions and in the alternative care system" (United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child 2009).

   In 2013, the Committee acknowledged that the Philippines has since enacted RA 9775 (the Anti-Child Pornography Law of 2009) and established the Inter-Agency Council against Child Pornography (IACCP) and accompanying three-year 2011-2013 Strategic Plan of Action. However, the Philippines still has failed to address the previous recommendations and the Committee reiterates the previous findings and that "active measures to ensure that laws on child protection are effectively implemented, including by raising awareness about child protection laws at the provincial and local levels and developing detailed guidelines, protocols and procedures to guide the action of local government authorities" (United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child 2013).

   The Committee lauded the Philippines for having a National Plan of Action for Children that seeks to fulfil their rights at all life stages. However, they stressed the need to have a clear budget source in order to implement the plan and regular monitoring and evaluation to gauge the progress of implementation.

A detailed discussion of the gaps in policy in addressing violence in various settings can be found in Annex 5.

2. **Responding to child victims of abuse, neglect and exploitation**

There are issues relating to the implementation of established reporting mechanisms, referral systems and standards in child care institutions:

- There are very few mandated reporters who report cases of abuse and no one has been penalized for not reporting. Reporting is mandatory for attending physicians, nurses and heads of any public or private hospital or medical clinic. Failure to report by a physician, nurse or head of a hospital should result in a fine. (Seque-Castillo, 2009)

- The Philippine National Baseline Study on Violence against Children (2015) reports that only 31 per cent of respondents were aware of child protection services, and of that population, and only 25.6 per cent had availed themselves of CPU and WCPU services.

- Children who need to be placed in government custody to ensure their protection are placed in overcrowded centers. These result in developmental delays, attachment and dependency issues. (J. Yacat, 2011)

- Protection services in urban centers are better equipped than those in the provinces. The shortcomings in the implementation of child protection laws seem to be rooted in current fiscal laws and processes. "The formula for allocation of the Internal Revenue Allocation (for child protection) seem to be discriminating poorer regions and municipalities, resulting in a more uneven redistribution of resources…" (FISCO, 2013)

- In situations where local governments are committed to upholding and implementing national child protection policies, the primary obstacle is that standards and legislative requirements imposed by national policy for local implementation are largely unfunded. There is no budget allocation or calculation of local resources needed. (FISCO, 2013)

3. **Gaps in investigating and prosecuting child abuse cases**

The 2009 study by Seque-Castillo on the 'Legal Outcomes of Sexually Abused Children Evaluated at the Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit' states that only 15 per cent of sexual abuse cases reached court. Most (94 per cent) of the perpetrators were known to the child, and 38 per cent of cases involved incest. Almost half of the cases (46 per cent) were unresolved 2 to 5 years after their initiation. The wheels of justice move slowly in the Philippines due to the high volume of cases in family courts; 30 per cent of family courts have no judge. Of the resolved cases, 60 per cent resulted in convictions. The evidence considered in these cases consisted mostly of the victim's testimony and medical findings. In most cases where the accused is found not guilty, this is due to dismissal on merit based on a child's reluctance to testify following pressure from family members.

Very few physical abuse cases reach court. Those that do usually involve very serious injuries or death. Most fatal child abuse cases, however, do not reach court. There are many reasons for this: 1. there is no mandatory autopsy for suspicious deaths; 2. most doctors do not suspect child abuse in cases that they see; child abuse is not part of their training; 3.

most doctors do not want to be involved in the legal system and so do not report cases of child abuse; 4. investigation of child deaths in the Philippines is still in its infancy and police are not trained in conducting death scene investigations; 5. The police require that there be a complainant before investigating a death; in most cases of fatal child abuse there is no complainant; and 6. even in cases reported to DSWD, social workers themselves do not want to be the complainant. No child neglect cases have yet come to trial. (Madrid, 2009)

4. **Gaps in the Child Protection Information Management System**

A UNICEF study showed that there is no integrated child protection monitoring information system in the Philippines. There is a lack of awareness, understanding and appreciation of national government agencies and local government units on child protection monitoring. The gaps were further underscored by the UN CRC as it recommended the Government "set up a comprehensive and centralized data collection system with the support of its partners which would enable the State party to accurately determine the causes, forms and prevalence of the sale of children, child prostitution or pornography, inform its policy decisions and assess progress in the implementation of the Optional Protocol. The data should be regularly updated and disaggregated by age, sex, geographic location, ethnicity and socioeconomic background. Data should also be collected on the profile of perpetrators, number of prosecutions and convictions, disaggregated by the nature of the offence." (United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child 2013)

Continuing to strengthen child protection system

The discussion of issues and gaps provides only an overview of the large scale systems-building and strengthening that still needs to be done to prevent and respond to VAC. Save the Children (2011) states that "a systems-building approach to child protection emphasizes preventive measures from a broad social welfare perspective, recognizing the impact of poverty and social exclusion on the ability of families and communities to care for their children. Such an approach promotes social assistance and services to prevent family disruption and support child-focused family coping strategies." This involves a multi-sectoral and multi-level approach that will require changes in policy and processes at the local and national government level, and shifts attitudes and behaviour of individuals and groups, parents and children. The Government and its NGO, INGO, people's organization, faith-based organization, and children's association partners are aware of the challenge ahead and are dealing with the issues in child protection together.

Chapter Summary

Although the Philippines has ratified the UN CRC and has established several laws to protect the rights of children, there are still some gaps in the child protection system that need to be addressed in order to support VAC prevention and response. Gaps in policy include: the need for a clear budget source for the National Plan of Action for Children; the failure to enforce mandatory reporting of abuse; a lack of awareness of child protection services, including CPU and WCPU services; overcrowded conditions in child custody centers; poorly equipped rural protection services; slow legal proceedings relating to VAC and the failure of physical abuse cases to be brought to court; and a lack of an integrated child protection monitoring information system. The interplay between the socio-cultural, economic and political context and the status of the child protection system determines the risks that children face, and and the potential effectiveness of measures to protect against VAC.

HOUSE 3

FAMILY

Places

Violence Against Children: In the Home

Sixty-four studies were included in the review that produced findings on prevalence, risk and protective factors related to VAC in the home. The Philippines is one of nine countries included in the longitudinal study 'Parenting Across Cultures' that sought to better understand parenting, parent-child relationships and the intersections with discipline and abuse. This study has resulted in over 45 publications, with 16 presenting Philippines-specific data and, for the first time, provides a rich insight into parenting within the contemporary Filipino context. This section draws largely on these analyses, complemented by other studies including the Cebu Longitudinal Study and a secondary analysis of the most recent DHS commissioned specifically for this report.

Findings show that violent discipline is the most frequent form of violence against both boys and girls in the home. Key drivers of violent discipline include social norms around the use and effectiveness of discipline, authoritarian parenting and parental level of education. Other forms of physical violence, beyond discipline, are also frequent. Studies show that that parental histories of physical abuse when they were growing up, combined with financial stress and substance misuse create a 'toxic trio' of risk factors for physical violence in the home.

A lack of supervision, single headed households and absent parents increase the vulnerability of children to sexual violence in the home. Migration is a significant driver of absentee parenting, which impacts on children's risk of exposure to violence – particularly sexual violence – in the home.

Longitudinal data has shown that emotional violence from parents increases negative behaviour among children, which puts them at risk of both experiencing violent discipline and perpetrating aggressive behaviour with others (Lansford et al., 2014). Parenting practices that include the use of coercion, threats, insults and frightening tone increase the risk of child maltreatment and this sets the stage for a cycle of similar patterns in parent/child and other relationships.

There is very robust data on the nature of intergenerational violence in the Philippines. Longitudinal and large household survey data show that violence often begins in the home and impacts on violence in other settings and relationships (PSA and ICF International, 2014). Alcohol misuse is a driver of family violence that has been found to be a significant risk factor in every study where the two variables have been measured (Serquina-Ramiro et al., 2004; Ansara and Hindin, 2009; Fehringer and Hindin, 2014; Fehringer and Hindin, 2009). Experiencing childhood or familial sexual violence is also a driver of all forms of intimate partner violence victimization for females (PSA and ICF International, 2014). Experiencing or being exposed to violence in the home also increases the risk that children will use or experience violence against partners, peers and family members (PSA and ICF International, 2014).

A basic assumption contained in the preamble of the UN CRC is that the family is the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members with a recognition that the family has the greatest potential to protect children and provide for their safety (Pinheiro, 2006). Eliminating and responding to VAC is perhaps most challenging in the context of the family, which has the potential to be the most effective medium for positive change, but which is also considered a 'private domain'.

Filipino culture embodies the importance of family life through the collectivist and interdependent values that focus on nurturing strong relationships. The family is the most important social group in Filipino culture, and often called the "the center of the universe" (Jocano, 1998, as cited in Alampay and Jocson, 2011). A comprehensive historical review of parenting and family values in the Philippines identified three main concepts: *kapwa; hiya;* and *utang na loob*, which are essential for understanding the interdependent nature of Filipino relationships that underpin not only parenting but wider social interaction (Alampay, 2013).

Literally translated, *kapwa* refers to the "other" or "fellow-being" and reflects the pervasive orientation and commitment of the Filipino to the other (Alampay, 2013). Key to this concept is that it is rooted in a regard for this other as not different from the self, but rather as an equal. The opposite of kapwa is to think and behave in individualistic and egotistic ways that puts the self over others (*walang kapwa-tao*, or "without fellow-feeling"), a serious transgression in Filipino society (Alampay, 2013; Enriquez 1994).

Learning about *kapwa* happens first in the family, where both children's behaviour reflects on their parents and wider family, as the parents' behaviour reflects on their children (Alampay, 2013; Chao and Tseng, 2002). This interrelationship requires that both children and adults behave with propriety and dignity with respect to the self and the family, which is a deeply held Filipino value known as *hiya* (Alampay, 2013; Enriquez, 1994). Children are typically admonished by parents to behave in ways that will uphold their *hiya*, as opposed to actions that are *nakaka-hiya* (bringing about shame and loss of face). These values underpin the cultural expectations of children's behavior, and of parental methods of discipline.

Filipino children likewise strive to meet familial obligations and expectations as a result of deep respect and gratitude towards their family (*utang na loob*, or "debt of one's being"). Children who are seen as without honour or gratitude are not viewed as good children by their families and larger society (Alampay, 2013). Filipino children also place a high value on the role of the family, documented through their own beliefs in parental authority and influence in making decisions, lower disagreement with parents, and greater adherence to family obligations, than children in countries outside Asia (Alampay and Jocson, 2011; Darling et al, 2005; UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Understanding these underlying Filipino cultural values of interdependent relationships, respect for parental authority and obedience from children, family cohesion, and meeting familial obligations is important for contextualizing the findings of studies of the drivers of VAC.

Demographically, family structure in the Philippines is changing. The increasing number of women in the labour force and reliance on their income, single-parent homes, overseas migration for both parents and children, increasing rates of HIV and influences from globalization and urbanization impact on families. More empirical evidence is needed to determine the extent to which such shifts have and will influence family roles and dynamics (Alampay, 2013).

There is a cultural norm of parental authority and child obedience within the context of traditional and modern values. In terms of childrearing attitudes, studies have consistently described Filipino parents as authoritarian, which emphasizes strictness, respect for authority and obedience. In the nine-country 'Parenting Across Cultures' study, Filipino parents rated authoritarian attitudes higher

than all other countries and they give a lower rating to progressive and modern childrearing attitudes (defined as children being encouraged to think independently and verbalise their ideas) (Bornstein et al. 2011; Alampay and Jocson, 2011). Similarly, in the cross- national Value of Children study conducted in the 1970s, the quality that 63 per cent of Filipino mothers most valued in their children is "to mind their parents", which contrasts with only 5 per cent who cited independent and self-reliance (Alampay, 2013). The expectations that children obey parental authority are held equally by mothers and fathers in the Philippines (Alampay and Jocson, 2011).

The Parenting Across Cultures study found that mothers are more likely than fathers to hold progressive attitudes such as granting children more independence and encouragement to express themselves (Alampay and Jocson, 2011). Despite this, mothers and fathers do not differ in their authoritarian attitudes. Modern attitudes to gender and the lack of agreement in families might be explained by the sharp gendered delineation of the roles of mothers and fathers in the Filipino family. Research shows that Filipino mothers have both traditional and modern orientations to parenting, which is consistent with the rapid urbanization and social change present in the Philippines (Alampay & Jocson, 2011). These findings suggest that progressive and authoritarian attitudes can exist at the same time.

Corporal Punishment

Corporal punishment, often also called 'physical punishment' or 'violent discipline', is "any punishment in which physical force is used and intended to cause some degree of pain or discomfort, however light. Most involves hitting ('smacking', 'slapping', 'spanking') children, with the hand or with an implement – whip, stick, belt, shoe, wooden spoon, etc. But it can also involve, for example, kicking, shaking or throwing children, scratching, pinching, burning, scalding or forced ingestion" (UN CRC, 2006: 4). Studies in the Philippines, in line with the UN CRC, most frequently refer to corporal punishment when discussing violent discipline at home and in schools, and this term is used throughout this report.

Placing a value on authoritative parenting and obedience on the part of children shapes the strategies and interactions of parents and their children. Specifically, authoritarian attitudes are positive predictors of the frequent use of physical punishment among Filipino parents (Jocson et al., 2012). Discipline, is a dominant theme of Filipino childrearing, and disobedience is the transgression that most often warrants disciplinary action (Alampay and Jocson, 2011). This section highlights the use of violent discipline or corporal punishment and the evidence-based drivers of its use in the Philippines.

Filipino parents widely accept the use of corporal punishment as a social norm.
In the Parenting Across Cultures longitudinal study, 74 per cent of Filipino parents reported that corporal punishment (defined in the study as: spanking with a bare hand, shaking the child, hitting with an object) had been used in their household in the past month to deal with child misbehaviour (Lansford et al., 2010). This is similar to findings from the multicountry WorldSAFE study in which 75 per cent of sampled mothers in the Philippines reported they had spanked their child in the previous year, and 51 per cent had spanked the child with an object (Runyan et al., 2010). The Philippines ranks the second highest among the nine countries in the Parenting Across Cultures study in the use of mild corporal punishment (71 per cent of girls and 77 per cent of boys), and second lowest in the use of severe corporal punishment (9 per cent of girls and 8 per cent of boys) (Lansford et al., 2010). Other studies that disaggregate severe discipline have found similar prevalence estimates including an international study with 1,000 mothers that found 9.9 per cent were involved in harsh physical discipline (Runyan et al., 2010).

Parents believe that corporal punishment is a parental duty necessary to "bend the young in the right direction" (Dela Cruz et al. 2001, as cited in Alamapy and Jocson, 2011). As such, discipline is viewed by both parents and children as a manifestation of parents' love and concern (Ramiro, Madrid, Lozada, and Perez, 2005). In a study of 270 grade school students, cultural norms regarding corporal punishment were found to be acceptable and expected of responsible parents (Sanapo and Nakamura, 2011). Due to the cultural and familial values of interconnected relations, the good behaviour of the child may be attributed to the role of the parents in undertaking proper discipline. Study findings also show that conversely, Filipino parents tend to see themselves as responsible for failures in parent-child interaction and child behaviour (Alampay and Jocson, 2011).

A review of literature on corporal punishment in Asia and the Pacific highlighted that the discourse around corporal punishment is that no matter how severe, it is "normal" when done in the name of discipline because "[n]ormal parents cannot be abusive; they have a duty to punish their children, in private by administering 'loving smacks' and 'reasonable chastisement' (Save the Children-Sweden, 2005). The Parenting Across Cultures Study asked both mothers and children about how normal they felt corporal punishment was, and compared this to its actual use across countries. In the Philippines, mothers ranked their perceptions of how frequently other mothers use corporal punishment against their children slightly higher than was actually practiced by themselves (Lansford et al., 2005).

When children were asked about how normal the use of corporal punishment was, they ranked it slightly lower than it is actually used (Lansford et al., 2005). Despite the fact that corporal punishment is normal in Filipino culture, its effects may impact negatively on children (Lansford et al., 2005; Gershoff et al., 2010). When physical discipline was perceived as unduly harsh and undeserved, children reported feeling deeply hurt (Dela Cruz et al., 2001). More frequent use of physical discipline by Filipino mothers is likewise associated with higher aggression and anxiety in their children (Lansford et al., 2005).

Despite the normality of corporal punishment, children question the line between discipline and abuse. The studies by Dela Cruz et al. (2001) and the study on VAC in schools (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009) are both useful in showing how Filipino children perceive corporal punishment. A key finding is that children consider many of the methods that parents use for disciplining as abusive (Dela Cruz et al., 2001). Children stated that they often considered spanking to be abusive, especially because of the associated pain (*hinimatay sa sakit*), or when they are spanked without reason (*pag pinalo nang walang kasalanan*), and when beatings become too much (*"sobra ang pagpalo"*) (Dela Cruz et al., 2001). Children further described being hit with objects, verbal abuse, and humiliation as forms of corporal punishment that are degrading and abusive.

Belief in the normality and necessity of corporal punishment is a predictor of both parental use of corporal punishment. An analysis of all three waves of the longitudinal Parenting Across Cultures study which interviewed mothers, fathers and children from 1,418 families in 13 cultural groups across nine countries (China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, the Philippines, Sweden, Thailand and the United States) found that three factors consistently predicted the use of corporal punishment against children: (1) the 'normality' of corporal punishment in the community; (2) parents' belief in the necessity of corporal punishment; and (3) children's externalizing behaviour (Lansford et al., 2015). Individual-level predictors (especially children's externalizing behaviour) and cultural-level predictors (normality of corporal punishment in the community) predicted corporal punishment and neglect by both mothers and fathers (Lansford et al., 2015). This study is important because, for the first time and with Philippines specific data, there is empirical evidence that addressing social norms and beliefs around corporal punishment could lead to preventing VAC.

Parental level of education impacts upon the use of corporal punishment in the home, but this manifests differently in fathers and mothers. Parental level of education has been found to be important in relation to their attitudes and beliefs, and findings from the Philippines show that the level of parental education impacts on the use of corporal punishment for both mothers and fathers, albeit in different ways. Mothers' education levels impact on their adherence to authoritarian parenting attitudes, which then impact on their use of corporal punishment. Fathers' education level impacts on their endorsement of corporal punishment as a disciplinary method and on their use of those methods (Jocson et al., 2012).

The differences in the way education plays a role in corporal punishment may be partially explained by the different childrearing roles played by mothers and fathers in the Philippines. In the Filipino context, mothers have more frequent dealings with children, from their everyday discipline to management of their activities. In this way, broader attitudes regarding how children should be raised and educated (such as authoritarian attitudes) may be more relevant and predictive of their use of discipline. For mothers, these attitudes may be more important than their beliefs (such as the endorsement of corporal punishment), since they are already very involved in child-raising. For fathers, the significant relation of endorsement of corporal punishment to its reported use might reflect their prominent role as disciplinarians. In this instance, specific beliefs about discipline may influence their behaviour more than other factors (Jocson et al., 2012).

Children who experience corporal punishment also experience higher levels of aggression and anxiety. A study of links between corporal punishment and children's adjustment in China, India, Italy, Kenya, the Philippines and Thailand showed that more frequent corporal punishment was related to higher levels of child aggression and anxiety in all six countries, but the association was weaker in countries where the use of corporal punishment was considered more normal (Lansford et al., 2005). Corporal punishment was also related to increases in children's anxiety and aggression over time (Lansford et al., 2014). Mothers scoring highly in conveying warmth to their children while at the same time using corporal punishment, resulted in situations were children had increased anxiety. This could be due to the inconsistency and stress caused by these mixed messages from their mothers. (Lansford et al., 2014).

Physical Violence

Physical VAC may also occur in non-disciplinary contexts. Six studies in the grey literature calculated the prevalence of physical abuse in the home, albeit with smaller more localised sample sizes (ranging from 25 to 190 participants). Five used a survey and one reviewed police records. As could be expected, the prevalence ranges for physical abuse are wide; varying from 30 per cent to 79 per cent (Fernandez et. al., 2004; Mendiola, 1999; Jungco, Garingo and Gregore 2013; Suba, 2001; Bayhon, 2001). The most common form of child abuse was physical abuse, ranging from 53 per cent to 72 per cent, based on 281 police records in Iloilo City (Jungco et al, 2013). A study in Davao found that 75 of 190 respondents were first subjected to physical abuse between the ages of 9 and 12. The vast majority of respondents (92.7 per cent) who reported experiencing physical abuse said that this involved hitting with the hand, sticks, pieces of wood or belts (Fernandez et al., 2004). Far fewer studies explored potential drivers of physical violence outside of corporal punishment in the home.

The 'toxic trio' of physical violence in the home: social norms around physical violence, financial stress and substance misuse. Five studies identified financial stress or financial difficulties in the family related to poverty and compounded by large families and the economic crisis (Fernandez et al., 2004; Navarroza, 2006; Mendiola, 1999; Jungco et al, 2013; Briones, 2004). The other major risk factor was identified as social norms around violence, in most instances cited as fathers

having experienced physical violence while growing up and hence accepting violence during child-rearing (Fernandez et al, 2004; Mendiola, 1999) Another example is social norms around violence against women (DHS, 2013), whereby a woman's inability to perform domestic chores well is an 'acceptable reason' to be physically hit by an intimate partner. (DHS, 2013). Two studies mentioned these previous two factors combined with some level of substance misuse in the home – most often alcohol use – as a confluence of risk factors driving physical VAC (Briones, 2004).

Incest and Other Forms of Sexual Violence in the Home

Sexual violence perpetrated in the home is a difficult to research, taboo topic and this is reflected in the sources of data available through primary research. The best sources come from administrative data related to the Philippines' strong acute care response to child sexual violence – through WCPUs, which operate in over 78 locations nationally. Of the 1,795 child abuse cases seen at the Davao Medical Center WCPU between 2000 and 2007, 27 per cent were incest cases (Parrenno et al., 2009). From the Iloilo Women's Desk for the year 2002, the prevalence of child sexual abuse among *reported* child abuse cases among 6- to 18-year-olds was 60.4 per cent (Adelantar et al., 2004). While reported cases are just the tip of the iceberg, they are often a better indicator of the actual prevalence of incest than other forms of data, which may vastly underreport this type of sexual violence because the issue is taboo, and because of potential safety concerns for survivors in disclosing this type of violence.

Data was gathered via interviews and surveys for the seven studies that explored potential drivers of sexual violence in the home. The population included women who were victims of incest rape, victims of child rape, and other forms of sexual VAC. The studies took place in locations from Nueva Ecija, to Davao, to Metro Manila, and some were nationwide.

Lack of supervision in the home is a risk factor of sexual violence. In the literature, this risk factor is manifest in two ways: one is concerned with children where one or both parents are absent from the home; the other is concerned with the lack of supervision over a sole adult male at home, for example, an unemployed family member (father or uncle) who is home alone with the child. Both of these situations increase the risk of sexual violence in the home (Caina et al., 2011; Curamen 2009; Garvida and Roa, 2008; Ventura, 2014). A study of 1,000 cases of violence in the home found that 33 per cent involved incest and that nearly one in three of the perpetrators of child incest were unemployed. In these cases, the violence was most likely to take place in the home when the child was alone (WID IAC and UNICEF, 1997). Known as 'situational sexual violence perpetration' (Smallbone et al., 2008), these scenarios create situations that ease access to and power over the victim by the perpetrator and are often combined with grooming tactics that increase children's fear of punishment for reporting the violence (Terol, 2009). This risk factor is important, especially given that a large number of parents work overseas.

Single parent households and households characterized by domestic violence may present increased risk for children. One-parent households and households characterized by domestic violence were also commonly found in studies to be risk factors for sexual violence in childhood (Banez, 2015; Balana and Moreno, 2009; Bisual et al., 1998; Calma, Don and Dy, 2010; Fuentes, 2005). One study found the presence of a stepfather as a potential risk factor for girls, especially in homes with domestic violence (Fuentes, 2005). This is supported by the studies of Banez (2015) and Viloria (2013), which included parental violence and blended family system as risk factors for child sexual abuse victims

Closeness to family members and the presence of support networks may be protective factors linked to increasing disclosure. Attachment to family members has also been found to be a key element for increasing disclosure – a potential protective factor for breaking the norm of silence around violence and preventing further violence – especially among very vulnerable children. In a qualitative study of 15 girls with intellectual disabilities who had experienced sexual violence, their perceived perception of their relationship with their parents influenced how quickly and whether they disclosed the violence (Terol, 2009). A similar finding emerged from the case files of 12 adolescents with intellectual disabilities who had also experienced sexual violence and sought help at the National Center for Mental Health-Women and Children Protection Unit. For these adolescents, having a strong support system, identified as either family members or peers, was seen as a protective factor against sexual violence in the home (Hulipas, 2005).

Gender norms that promote subordination of women and girls to men were identified as risk factors for sexual violence in the home. The literature revealed three ways in which gender norms subordinate women and girls, increasing the risk of VAC: (1) in the context of families experiencing domestic violence, where the norm dictates that females should be submissive to their husband or partner, and the same violence that is perpetrated against the mother is also directed towards the child (Calma et al., 2010); (2) where the mother may be absent and the father's rationale for sexual violence is that his daughter can fill his unmet needs for attention and sex, as identified in a qualitative study of 38 child survivors of sexual violence and a separate study of convicted child sexual violence perpetrators (who felt that children are unharmed by these incidents) (Curamen, 2009; Chua et al., 1998); and (3) as identified in a study of 12 adult survivors of sexual violence in the home, where a common theme was the perceived powerlessness of mothers to protect their daughters against violence in the home (Canieso, 2009).

The impact of experiencing sexual violence in the home is significant and affects mental, physical and sexual health and well-being. There were nine studies that explored the consequences of sexual violence in the home. The methods of data collection were diverse, the most common being interviews and surveys using standardised measures of health and well-being indicators. All the studies found that the effects of sexual violence on victims were extensive. Emotional, mental and behavioural problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, compulsions, obsessions, fear, and suicide attempts were seen in victims of sexual violence (Garvida and Roa, 2008; Jacob, 2012; Molina, 1999; Hulipas, 2005). Withdrawal from friends and family was also common (Basco, 2002; Caina, Nasa, and Padilla, 2011; Curamen, 2009; Garvida and Roa, 2008; Ventura, 2014). Unusual interest in or avoidance of all things of a sexual nature or perception that their bodies are dirty or damaged especially in the genital area were frequently cited themes about the impact of the violence (Curamen, 2009; Ventura, 2014). Victims generally had low self-esteem and some experienced problems in school as a result (Caina, Nasa, and Padilla, 2011; Curamen, 2009; Basco, 2002; Garvida and Roa, 2008; Molina, 1999; Ventura, 2014; Terol, 2009). Revictimization, or experiencing further violence, were also common (Canieso, 2003), as well as increased physical and reproductive health problems (Canieso, 2003)

Emotional Violence in the Home

There were five published studies on the prevalence of emotional violence in the home, with most focusing on verbally violent behaviour. In a study of 1,000 mothers focusing on how parents enforce child discipline, 71 per cent reported using harsh verbal discipline, and 87 per cent used moderate verbal discipline (Runyan et al., 2010). In a survey of 294 college students, 48 per cent had experienced verbally violent behaviour from their parents at least three times a week, while 34 per cent were abused at least once a week (Esteban, 2006). Furthermore, in a study in Metro Manila, psychological violence, in the form of insults and threats was reported by 44.5 and 42.8 per cent, respectively, of male and female adolescents (Ramiro, Madrid, and Brown, 2010).

In a study exploring the types of verbally violent behaviour used by parents, the most common form was put downs and shaming, followed by rejection (Loh, Calleja, and Restubog, 2011). Other forms of parental verbal violence include blaming, fault exaggeration, threat, invoking harm, regret, unfair comparison, and negative prediction. A study in Metro Manila found that 23 per cent of adolescents reported experiencing these types of violent behaviour during childhood (Ramiro, Madrid, and Brown, 2010).

One unpublished study on emotional violence within the home was retrieved. In this study, 44 per cent of first year high school students reported experiencing emotional violence, with 4.9 per cent reporting that the abuse was moderate to severe, and 9.9 per cent reporting severe to extreme emotional violence (Bangalan, 2013). Emotional violence from parents in the form of insults and name-calling was reported by 46 per cent of respondents (Bangalan, 2013).

Children's 'problem' behaviours are significantly associated with emotional violence from both mothers and fathers. Multi-country analyses highlight that child problem behaviours, defined as delinquent or aggressive behaviours identified through the Child Behaviour Checklist, are significantly associated with parental hostility and aggression by both mothers and fathers, highlighting the role of the parent-child relationship in which each person's behaviour may influence the other. A child who exhibits what is perceived as negative behaviour may receive more coercive control and punishment from the parent. Longitudinal data from two separate periods highlighted that children's externalizing behaviour predicted their parents' use of hostility and aggression (Garcia and Alampay, 2012; Lansford et al., 2015).

Mothers' use of verbal punishment predicted subsequent internalizing and externalizing behaviours in both girls and boys, while fathers' use of verbal punishment predicted girls' externalizing behaviour (Anonas and Alampay, 2015; Pastorelli et al., 2015). These results also corroborate theoretical perspectives, which assert that parenting practices including the use of coercion, threats, insults and frightening tone, increase the risk of child maltreatment and "sets the stage for similar patterns in subsequent relationships" (Wolfe and McIsaac, 2011 as cited in Pastorelli et al., 2015).

Emotional violence in the home impacts on children's self-esteem. A study of grade school children found that verbally violent behaviour at home can lead to lower self-esteem among children (Figer, 2008). Emotional violence was found to be related to high school students developing depressive symptoms such as becoming an introvert and lacking self-control, according to a study of 162 students from Pampanga (Bangalan, 2013).

Witnessing Domestic Violence

Family violence exists in between a quarter and a half of all Filipino families. The lifetime prevalence of physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence among ever-partnered women in the Western Pacific region is 24.6 per cent (WHO, LSHTM and MRC, 2013). Philippines-specific studies report even higher prevalence estimates. The WorldSAFE study of 1,000 women aged between 15 and 49 in Paco, Manila, reported that 47.2 per cent of respondents had experienced psychological and physical violence from an intimate partner in their lifetime, and almost half (49.1 per cent) stated that their children heard or saw the violence (Serquina-Ramiro et al., 2004). This is replicated by longitudinal data of 2,051 adolescents from Cebu, in which 48.2 per cent of boys and 45.4 per cent of girls reported witnessing either of their parents hurting the other (Hindin and Gultiano, 2006). When analysing reports from adults in the same longitudinal study, 26 per cent of women reported that either they or their partner had perpetrated at least one physically aggressive act during the previous year, and 22 per cent reported sexual coercion by their husband during their relationship (Fehringer and Hindin, 2014). Slightly lower estimates are found in the nationally representative

DHS. A secondary analysis conducted for this report found that 18 per cent (weighted n = 1,954) of all respondents reported having witnessed their father beat their mother while growing up. Witnessing family violence was less frequently reported than experiencing child sexual violence but over a third of respondents (38.4 per cent) witnessed both family violence and sexual violence victimisation at some point in their childhood.

Women are more likely to stay in abusive relationships to protect their children. In the WorldSAFE study, 16 per cent of women (76 out of 470 women) who were in an abusive relationship left their partner, but 83 per cent ended up returning, with one of the most common reasons being that they did not want to leave their children (Serquina-Ramiro et al., 2004). A recent qualitative study of 40 women who had experienced domestic violence, a common reason cited for staying in the abusive relationship was the presence of children (Estrallado and Loh, 2014).

Disagreements related to family size, child-rearing and child discipline are risk factors of intimate partner violence. Disagreements related to children are a dominant theme running through most of the studies on intimate partner violence. In a qualitative study of 19 married women about the context of and motivations for female- and male-perpetrated intimate partner violence, a key theme was anger over neglect of children and disagreements around decision-making in child-rearing, particularly from the father towards the mother (Fehringer and Hindin, 2014). This is mirrored by findings from the 2014 National DHS, which found that for the entire sample of respondents, neglecting the children is the most commonly justified reason for wife beating (11 per cent), while refusal to have sexual intercourse or burning the food (2 per cent each) are the least common reasons. The pattern of results is similar to that in the previous NDHS (PSA and ICF International, 2014).

Figure 5: Specific Reasons for Which Wife Beating is Justified

Percent of women

13	11	4	3	2	2
Percentage who agree with at least one specified reason	Neglects the children	Goes out without telling him	Argues with him	Burns the food	Refuses to have sexual intercourse with him

Specific reasons
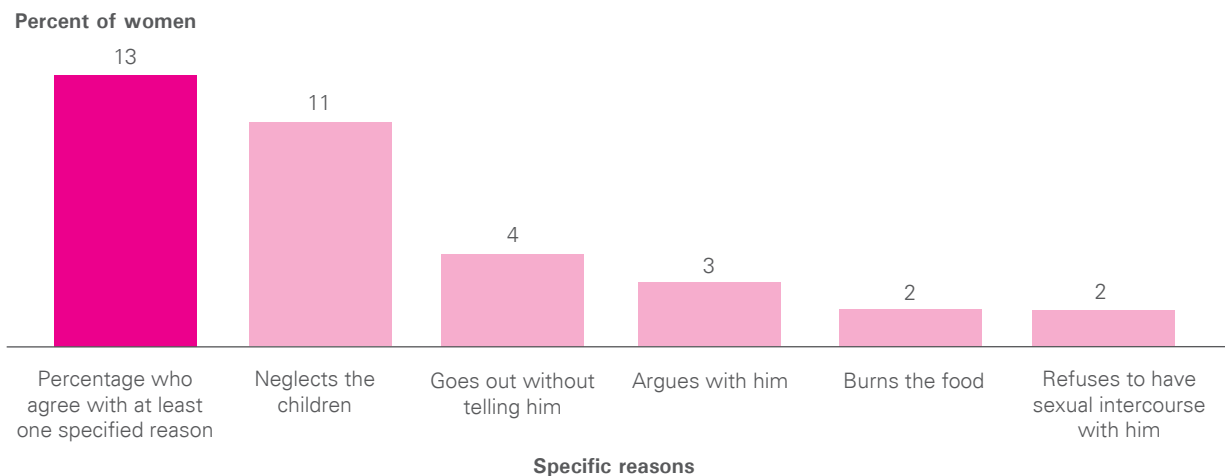
Source: NDHS 2013

Another qualitative study involving focus groups with men stated that physical violence was sparked by arguments related to differing views on child discipline and women not fulfilling "their responsibilities at home" (Lee, 2004, p.426). While the majority of child-rearing activities are led by women, data from the Cebu longitudinal study found that intimate partner violence is higher when husbands have the final say over decisions in several domains of child-rearing: buying the children clothes; choosing their school; and taking them to the doctor (Hindin and Adair, 2002). This study also examined 56 in-depth interview transcripts and found that patterns of household decision making emerged as strong predictors of intimate partner violence, and are a measure of the interpersonal dynamics between parents (Hindin and Adair, 2002). Furthermore, parental disagreement on family size was a risk factor for all forms of intimate partner violence, as identified in the secondary analysis of the 2013 DHS conducted for this report. Women whose partners wanted either fewer or more children were 1.5 times more likely to experience controlling behaviour or physical violence, and 1.7 times more likely to experience sexual violence from their partners than women who did not have these disagreements.

Alcohol misuse is a driver of family violence. The most frequently cited and perhaps most robust risk factor predicting intimate partner violence is alcohol misuse at home. In a seminal study conducted in 1997 in the Philippines analysing 1,000 cases of domestic violence, alcohol misuse was cited in one out of every four cases (WID IAC and UNICEF, 1997). Since this time, alcohol misuse has been cited as a risk factor of intimate partner violence in every study that has measured the two variables (Serquina-Ramiro et al., 2004; Ansara and Hindin, 2009; Fehringer and Hindin, 2014; Fehringer and Hindin, 2009). In the WorldSAFE study of women, analyses identified heavy drinking as a significant predictor of severe physical violence (Serquina-Ramiro et al., 2004). In a secondary analysis of the 2013 Philippines DHS conducted for this review, a husband's frequent alcohol use was a significant risk factor in all types of intimate partner violence (from controlling behaviour to physical and sexual violence), but was most significant in the violent sexual victimisation of women (six times greater likelihood of experiencing violent sexual victimisation than women whose husbands do not drink alcohol frequently). In a qualitative study of 19 married women in Cebu, about one-third mentioned the husband's alcohol consumption as the source of conflict and spark for violent acts. In some situations, it was the drunkenness that led to arguments and male or female violence perpetration. More commonly, however, it was the husband's use of scant household funds to purchase alcohol that spurred arguments and violent outbursts by one or both spouses (Fehringer and Hindin, 2009).

Alcohol misuse is a risk factor for violence in the home by both mothers and fathers. Data from the 2002 Cebu Longitudinal study identified wife-only, husband-only and reciprocal violence perpetration and found that alcohol misuse was a predictor of all three groups (Fehringer and Hindin, 2014). According to women in this study, the most commonly cited reason for both husband and wife perpetration of physical aggression was drunkenness or alcohol intake of the partner (Ansara and Hindin, 2009). The presence of alcohol in the home as a child is even a significant risk factor for future violence, as shown by an analysis of four waves of data from the Cebu longitudinal study (1994, 2002, and 2005). Compared to females, married or cohabiting young adult males were at a higher risk of reporting reciprocal violent acts if their mothers reported household purchase of any alcohol – a proxy variable for alcohol use – when the respondents were aged 11 (Fehringer and Hindin, 2009).

Intimate partner violence is harmful to children from birth to adolescence. The exposure of children to violence at home on a frequent basis, usually through fights between parents or between a mother and her partner, can severely affect a child's well-being and personal development. Global estimates show that 2 per cent of women in the Philippines experience intimate partner violence during pregnancy (Devries et al., 2010). Further, global data shows women who experience intimate partner violence have a 16 per cent greater chance of having a low birth-weight baby, and are more than twice as likely to have an induced abortion and to experience depression – all factors that impact on a child's development (WHO, LSHTM and MRC, 2013).

These negative impacts also extend into adolescence. A study of 921 sixth graders and to 458 first- and second-year high school students from urban and rural schools in southern Philippines found that both child-directed and child-witnessed violence influences adolescent aggression for both boys and girls (Maxwell and Maxwell, 2003). The findings also showed that of the two family violence measures (experiencing violence during childhood or witnessing parental violence), witnessing violence had the largest observed effect on adolescent aggression, regardless of gender (Maxwell and Maxwell, 2003).

Intergenerational Violence

Experiencing childhood or familial sexual violence is a driver of all forms of intimate partner violence victimization for females. The secondary analysis of the 2013 DHS conducted for this report analyzed risk factors for different types of intimate partner violence and intergenerational violence. The most significant risk factors for females for all types of intimate partner violence victimization was having experienced either childhood sexual violence or familial sexual violence at any age. Those women who experienced childhood sexual violence were 3.5 times more likely to also experience controlling behaviour from an intimate partner, and four times more likely to experience physical violence. Women who have experienced childhood sexual violence have nearly 10 times greater chance of also experiencing sexual intimate partner violence. A similar relationship is found with women who have experienced sexual violence from a family member (relative or parent) at any point in their lives (not limited to childhood experiences), with those women 12.5 times more likely to also experience sexual intimate partner violence. This was higher than any other risk factor found for women's intimate partner victimization in the analysis.

Adults who experienced family violence justify the use of intimate partner violence more than those who have not grown up in a violent family environment. According to the 2013 DHS, nearly 17 per cent of respondents who witnessed their father beat their mother justified spousal violence in response to whether they think a husband is justified in hitting or beating his wife under a series of circumstances: if she burns the food, if she argues with him, if she goes out without telling him, if she neglects the children, or if she refuses to have sexual intercourse with him (PSA and ICF International, 2014). This was higher than for the sample as a whole, with only 13 per cent of women agreeing that a husband is justified in beating his wife for any of these reasons (PSA and ICF International, 2014).

Secondary analysis conducted for this review found that for those respondents who did justify this violence, witnessing family violence was a significant risk factor, with those that witnessed their father beat their mothers as a child being 1.3 times more likely to hold attitudes that justify intimate partner violence in at least one of these circumstances. Logistic regression analyses conducted exploring various potential risk factors for having attitudes that justify intimate partner violence, found that unlike risk factors for child sexual violence, risk factors for attitudes towards justifying intimate partner violence are significant at the individual level. Those who have below college level schooling are 1.5 times more likely more likely to inflict violence on their partners compared to respondents with college or higher-level schooling. There is also a geographic divide, with those living in rural areas being nearly 1.5 times more likely to hold attitudes that justify intimate partner violence than those who live in urban areas.

Child Protection Unit Case Study: Intergenerational violence

Sisters Kim (16) and Karen (14) were brought to a CPU by their maternal grandmother because of sexual abuse by the maternal aunt's partner. The sisters have been under their maternal aunt's care since their mother abandoned them to live with a new partner. They were seen at CPU five years ago, when both children reported chronic physical abuse by their mother. Kim also disclosed sexual abuse by her father. Kim was first brought to CPU at the age of 9 months, after her mother had dragged and threw her into a drum.

The children's mother, Cristine, was seen at the CPU when she became pregnant at 15. Cristine's boyfriend, Alex, was 28 years old and an addict. Cristine's mother was opposed to the relationship but Cristine ran away to live with Alex. Cristine was almost raped by her father-in-law so her mother decided to place her in a shelter. However, Cristine begged to go home and refused to attend counseling sessions. Cristine went back to Alex when her mother took her home. She became pregnant with her second child, Karen, but was abandoned at the hospital by Alex after giving birth. Her mother took her in again but they constantly fought. Cristine had become violent, hitting both her mother and her children. She found a new partner with whom she had a son. She continued to be physically and emotionally abusive with all her children, prompting her parther to report her to the police and social welfare. She went off with another man and left her daughters with her sister, refusing to give her mother custody of the children.

Cristine's mother, Beverly, had suffered from physical and emotional violence in the early years of her marriage. Her husband, Raul, was a drunkard who beat her and their children. Both of their daughters became pregnant, left home at an early age and have had multiple partners since. Beverly is afraid that her granddduaghter, Karen, will also become pregnant at an early age. Karen has been posting suggestive photos of herself on social media and goes out with boys that she meets online.

Witnessing parental violence is a driver of subsequent violence in a variety of relationships for both males and females. Witnessing violence between parents is one of the most consistent correlates of experiencing violence in later life, as shown by the Cebu longitudinal study. In this study, 45 per cent of females and 50 per cent of males reported witnessing their parents or caretakers physically hurt one another during childhood. Analysis showed that witnessing interparental violence significantly predicted intimate partner victimization and reciprocal violence (Fehringer and Hindin, 2009).

Witnessing parental violence also impacts upon young people using and experiencing violence in all kinds of relationship, including with family members, partners and peers. A school-based study of sixth graders and high school students found that witnessing violence as a child was significantly related to self-reported aggression as an adolescent for both boys and girls (Maxwell and Maxwell, 2003). Data from the Cebu longitudinal study also shows, for the first time, that witnessing parental violence also impacts on young adults' subsequent use and experience of family intimidation and physical violence in their own homes (Mandal and Hindin, 2015). For both males and females, witnessing violence perpetrated by both parents predicted both experiencing and using intimidation and physical violence, including throwing or smashing something, pushing, grabbing and shoving, hitting and hitting with hard objects. Parental gender roles are also significant in the use and experience of family violence in that males witnessing their father perpetrate violence and females witnessing their mother perpetrate violence were significant in terms of both their own use and experience of subsequent family violence (Mandal and Hindin, 2015).

Violence Against Children: In Schools

A comprehensive national study of VAC in schools was conducted in 2009 by UNICEF, Plan International and the CWC. This study provides comprehensive information on the scope and nature of physical, sexual and emotional VAC in school settings. The Philippines also participates in the Global School Based Health Surveys, which measure bullying. This systematic literature review identified only 16 studies on violence in schools.

Physical violence was the most prevalent form of violence in schools perpetrated by adults with verbal violence the second most frequent form. Drivers of this violence include social norms around the use of corporal punishment in school settings and the family context. Both children and adults state that corporal punishment in schools is closely linked to violent discipline and family circumstances at home.

Sexual harassment is the most frequent form of sexual violence in school settings, occurring in both primary and secondary school, with girls being particularly vulnerable. Grey literature has also highlighted that LGBT youth may be particularly at risk of sexual violence at school – often from peers.

Children in school experience violence more frequently at the hands of other children and young people than by adults. Trend data shows that bullying victimisation is increasing among 13- to 15- year-olds, while being involved in a physical fight in schools is decreasing for both boys and girls. The opposite trend is found in some European countries and the United States. Secondary analysis of the 2003-2004 Global School Based Health Survey found that bullying victimisation and being involved in physical fighting were associated. Parental supervision during free time was associated with less fighting. While we cannot say if this is the reason for the decreasing trend in physical fighting, it does give some indication of the importance of the home–school link, and that parenting approaches may impact on children's behaviour even in school settings. Children's previous experience of violence, especially at home, also drive bullying behaviour in schools.

In most countries, children spend more time in the care of adults in educational settings than anywhere else outside of their homes. Schools have an important role in protecting children from violence (Pinheiro, 2006). Adults who oversee and work in educational settings have a duty to provide safe environments that support and promote children's dignity, learning and development – a significant global policy priority for the next 15 years through the Sustainable Development Goals. However, for many children, schools may be sites of violence rather than spaces where adults and peers challenge violence and promote inclusion and social justice (Parkes, 2015).

Education is important to Filipino families. Education and school achievement are seen as means of meeting family obligations and expectations, especially for those in the middle and upper socioeconomic classes (Alampay, 2013). Parents spend time and energy and forgo other things in order to provide for their children's education. Indeed, the primary reason given by Filipino parents for their overseas work is to support their children's education (Philippine Institute for Development Studies 2008; Parreñas 2006; Alampay, 2013). These high expectations often translate into stress,

anxiety and depression for children (Alampay, 2013). Students, teachers and guidance counselors at a private boys' school in the Philippines revealed that parental pressure to do well academically is among the top sources of stress (Alampay et al. 2005).

The Philippines is leading the region in the development of school-based protocols on handling, reporting and referring cases of VAC. In 2012, the Department of Education (DepEd) adopted 'Guidelines on Protecting Children in School from Abuse, Violence, Exploitation, Discrimination, Bullying and other Forms of Abuse', which reiterates a zero tolerance policy for acts of violence in schools. The policy was developed and issued following a major advocacy effort and the completion of a regional study of six East Asian and Pacific countries on existing systems for child protection in educational settings (UNICEF, 2012). Philippines was found to be one of only two countries in the region that established national educational response systems for child protection violations (UNICEF, 2013). Corporal punishment in schools is specifically prohibited by both the law (Article 233 of the Family Code) and the policies of the sector (Public Schools Service Manual 1992, Manual of Regulations for Private Schools 1992, and the Code of Ethics). The Philippines is also one of the few countries in the region that offers an Alternative Learning System for children who drop out of school, including links to referral services. DepEd has also introduced a prevention curriculum, and is working with academics to test the effectiveness of school-based interventions for the prevention of child sexual violence.

Despite the importance of education and the mechanisms set up to address violence, it is still widespread in schools. The strongest source of data on VAC in schools comes from a large study conducted in 2009 by UNICEF, PLAN International and the Council for Welfare of Children. This mixed methods study included a survey of 6,931 children (1,728 children in Grades 1-3, 1,782 in Grades 4-6 and 3,421 in high school) in 173 randomly selected public schools in six rural provinces and three cities across the country. The survey was complemented by comprehensive qualitative data collection including interviews: 756 with children; 65 with school heads; 48 with guidance counsellors and focus groups with 145 school personnel; 321 children; and 99 parents. The study found that at least 4 out of 10 children in Grades 1-3 (aged 6 to10) and 7 out of 10 children in both Grades 4-6 (aged 9 to 13 years old) and high school (ages 12 to 17) have experienced some kind of violence in school (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009). Verbal abuse ¬– defined as being shouted at and being cursed, ridiculed, teased, or humiliated – is the most prevalent form of violence from both adults and peers experienced by children at all school levels.

This study also found that children experience violence both from their peers in school and from school personnel, with more forms of violence (such as physical and sexual violence) experienced by older children from their peers, while younger children more commonly experience certain physical and verbal forms violence from adults (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). This chapter will explore the different types of VAC – ranging from corporal punishment by teachers to bullying and sexual violence by peers – that exist in school settings from a range of studies to better understand what drives and allows this violence to continue.

Corporal Punishment

Violence perpetrated by adults in schools, mostly as a form of discipline, includes acts of emotional and physical VAC. Physical violence was the most prevalent form of violence in schools perpetrated by adults, with verbal violence the second most frequent form, as indicated by the children's survey responses in the national study on VAC in schools (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Pinching (*kinurot*) was frequent across all age groups, ranging from 18 per cent (Grades 1-3) to 15 per cent (high school). Children reported being pinched on their arms (*kinurot sa braso*), sides

(*sa tagiliran*), groin or crotch area (*kinurot sa singit*) by teachers. Another variation of pinching is "*piningot*" (ear twisting). In qualitative interviews, the children cited female teachers (or other female school personnel) as the ones who pinched them, while the male teachers were reported to tweak or pull their ears. Being spanked or hit by a hand or object by an adult was reported by all ages, but most frequently by the younger children in Grades 1-3 (21 per cent). High school children also reported being spanked or hit with a hand or object by an adult in school (10 per cent).

Other forms of physical violence by adults in school, often in the form of discipline, included throwing things at children, locking them in rooms or making them stand in the hot sun (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Some of the objects reported to be thrown by teachers were pieces of chalk, sticks, slippers, notebooks and books (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). *Pagbibilad sa araw* (standing under the sun) was often cited by teachers and students as punishment for not attending the morning flag ceremony or for coming to school late. Children reported being locked in enclosed spaces, including their classrooms and toilets (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

"Deliberately ignored or not spoken to" (*sadyang hindi kinausap o pinansin*) was also included in the study as a form of verbal violence based on findings from an earlier study by PLAN International that "no communication" was considered "abusive and an extremely harmful disciplinary act" by both adults and child respondents (2005). "No communication" was among the 10 top acts listed as forms of violence and ranked even higher than spanking in the 2009 national study on violence in schools (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). The study found that being deliberately ignored by a teacher or peer was experienced by almost half of respondents (43.19 per cent). During interviews, students related this form of violence to their feeling of rejection and being socially isolated by people in their school, and the belittling of their capabilities, especially when the teacher showed favouritism to other students (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Disaggregating the same data by school location or area, urban school children generally experienced more violence from both adults and peers than their rural counterparts.

Some forms of violence, especially against younger children, are more frequently perpetrated by adults than peers in schools. Specifically, in Grades 1-3, spanking (24 per cent), pinching (18 per cent), being made to stand under the sun (4 per cent), being made to squat (19 per cent) and whipping (6 per cent) were inflicted more by adults than by other children (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). The list of forms of violence perpetrated more by adults than by peers becomes shorter at higher school levels. In Grades 4-6, only spanking or hitting with a hand or object (19 per cent of the cases), and making children stand under the sun for extended periods (10 per cent) were indicated. In high school, being made to stand under the sun (20 per cent) was the only form of violence perpetrated more by adults than peers, indicating a shift towards more peer-to-peer violence among adolescents.

Verbal forms of violence are often perceived as 'natural reactions' to situations and not seen as violence by teachers. While there are easily recognizable forms of violence, such as hitting or locking children in rooms, others may not be readily or widely identified as such. Qualitative interviews with over 210 school personnel and head teachers found that verbal forms of violence such as cursing and shouting at a child are often perceived as "natural reactions" to classroom situations and seen as normal expressions of anger. Being deliberately ignored or not spoken to, while frequently reported by the children, was not seen as a form of violence by adults in the study (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Adults see corporal punishment in schools as necessary for control and justifiable if it does not "leave a mark". Qualitative findings with school personnel, head teachers, guidance counsellors and

parents in the 2009 study highlight an overall theme of approval of corporal punishment of children as a disciplinary measure as long as it does not "leave a mark" (e.g. bruises, wounds) on children (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). An ethnographic study of an urban high school (Palcon, 1992), although not focused on the discipline and punishment of children, also sheds light on how discipline is enforced in schools. Verbal violence against high school children was frequently noted as a means of controlling the class. This included shouting and cursing at students, insults and humiliating by using derogatory labels (for example, "*walang utak*" or 'no brains', "*malandi*" or 'flirt').

In the focus groups with 145 school personnel, a common theme was that there are teachers and other school personnel who have short temper and often resort to corporal punishment as a means of controlling behaviour. At the same time, they recognized that teachers' working environment is far from ideal. The physical and mental stresses faced by teachers handling large classes make it understandable to participants why they resort to corporal punishment (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

In an older study of five elementary schools in Pangasinan, teachers perceived corporal punishment as an important deterrent, to teach the child not to commit a mistake again; a way of reinforcing or developing the child's self-discipline; and a form of social control over children (Tan, 1982). They also recognized that punishment must be commensurate to the offence committed. Otherwise, and that excessive punishment would cause children to withdraw from the teacher (Tan, 1982). These findings are replicated in the most recent national VAC in schools study (2009), which highlights from comprehensive qualitative data that the immediate criteria for judging whether the physical punishment was violent or not, was whether the punishment was appropriate to the offence and the extent of the child's injuries. "*Basta walang marka*" ("As long as there are no lasting marks") was a common response to differentiate violence from discipline in the national study. As one parent said, "*Okay lang na paluin kung may kasalanan, huwag lang sobra-sobra dahil kapag napilayan, puntahan ko talaga sa school at pabayaran ng danyos ang teacher*" (It's okay that my child is spanked if s/he did something wrong as long as it is not too hard because if my child is maimed I will really go to the school and demand money for damages). Another parental response in the focus group discussions was "*Okay lang paluin pero dapat nasa lugar o katwiran*" (It is okay to hit children but it should be for the right reasons) (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Many children also accept violence as part of school discipline. A regional review of attitudes and practices on discipline and punishment found that children also justified physical violence by teachers using the same reasoning as adults (Save the Children-Sweden, 2005). According to the review, it is not surprising that the children thought corporal punishement was acceptable, because they had been told that its purpose was to teach them better behaviour and that it was for their own good.

While the survey results from the national study on VAC in schools found that most was committed by their peers, focus group discussions and interviews with children revolved mostly around their experiences of corporal punishment, name-calling, and acts of humiliation committed by their teachers and other school personnel (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Many children readily identified physical punishment and verbal attacks from adults as something that "they did not like in school" because it made them "unhappy" (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). However, children also accepted these acts as normal part of school life (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Another indication of children's acceptance of violence as part of school discipline is highlighted in their responses to another part of the national school survey, which asked them to identify appropriate responses or disciplinary measures in situations, including misbehaviour of children, violation of school policies, and academic non-achievement. Many children indicated that physically punishing the child and verbal forms of violence and humiliation are appropriate in most situations (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009).

Despite social norms that present violent discipline as acceptable, findings show that violence is not the only way that teachers and other school authorities resolved issues with children. From the national study on violence in schools, a significant percentage of children (60 per cent in grades 1-3, 65 per cent in grades 4-6 and 70 per cent in high school samples) also indicated having been talked to in private or receiving counselling when they did something wrong. This highlights that positive discipline behaviour – which can be built upon for wider change – already exist and are practiced widely (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009). Children in the qualitative interviews and focus groups stated that they prefer these positive forms of discipline (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Both children and adults state that corporal punishment in schools is closely linked with violent discipline and family circumstances at home. The qualitative component of the national study highlighted that both adults and children identified the family situation and the general environment at home as factors in aggravating or deterring violence in school (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Poverty, domestic violence and misguidance in bringing up children were identified as main themes that affected children's behaviour and how they relate with others. According to adult participants, unruly and misbehaving children in school often come from "problematic" families including homes where domestic violence is present or where the children's parents were separated (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Participants felt that children coming from these households tend to view violence as acceptable. As some teachers stated, if the child is hit or shouted at for mistakes and misdemeanours committed at home, they learn to expect the same treatment in school (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Family experiences also determine how a child sees punishment in school. In focus groups and interviews with children, spanking, pinching and hitting in school were acknowledged as normal because these were also the same methods employed by their parents or older siblings to discipline them at home (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Some teachers also observed that parents may even suggest that they use corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. When children are "used to" physical forms of discipline in their own families, the teachers reasoned that corporal punishment was the only way children would understand and take them seriously (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

The role of the family in shaping the behaviour of children was also emphasized in the focus group discussions with adult participants. Teachers highlighted that they were only "second parents" of children. With the number of students a teacher is expected to handle in one class, the participants said it was unfair to expect them to provide the quality of guidance and direction expected by parents (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). At the same time, participants felt that parents not having time or concern enough to discipline their children should also be blamed if the child was spanked in school for rowdiness (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Sexual Violence

Very few studies explored the experience of sexual violence within schools. However, one that did was the national school survey which, included a questionnaire with children aged 6 to 17, and comprehensive qualitative interviews and focus groups with over 1,400 respondents, including children, parents and school personnel. This section highlights the limited data we have, primarily relating to the prevalence of sexual violence in schools in the Philippines.

Verbal sexual harassment is the most common form of sexual violence experienced by children in primary and secondary school. Experiences of sexual violence cited in the national school survey ranged from verbal forms of sexual harassment (*sinabihan ng malalaswang salita* or being spoken to in a sexually offensive manner) to sexual assault (*pinilit makipag-sex* or forced to have sex). Verbal sexual harassment at school was the most commonly referenced, by 39 per cent of Grade 4 to 6 respondents and 46 per cent of high school respondents (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). 'Chancing', or being touched inappropriately is the second most frequently experienced (16 per cent of all children surveyed). Other forms of sexual violence had much lower prevalence estimates, including being "made to undress" (*pinaghubad ng damit*) and "forced to have sex" (*pinilit makipag-sex*), at 4 per cent and 3 per cent, respectively.

Boys are made to partially undress as a form of discipline. Made to undress (*pinilit maghubad*) was originally perceived as a part of the continuum of sexual violence in the national study of VAC in schools (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Survey results showed that more male students than female students had experienced this, with low prevalence among all students (three per cent of Grade 4 to 6 and high school students). This result was clarified during the focus group discussions with elementary students, in that teachers sometimes punished male students by telling them to take off a piece of their clothing (shirt or pants) and made them stand in class (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). The aim was to embarrass and humiliate them in class. This kind of humiliation was not experienced by female children but may make children vulnerable to other forms of sexual violence by peers or teachers.

LGBT youth are vulnerable to sexual violence in schools. While the evidence-base is limited, one study interviewed 60 LGBT high school students and found that 25 per cent per cent experienced sexual violence, with 53 per cent occurring in the school setting (Kirkconnell, n.d.). The same study reported that 78.3 per cent of respondents were also bullied.

Bullying and Peer-to-Peer Violence

Bullying can be defined as involving the repeated infliction of negative actions intended to cause harm or discomfort, over time against an individual less able to defend him or herself physically or psychologically (Olweus, 1996; Olweus, 1999). Bullying may be physical or, most commonly, verbal. Other forms of bullying include theft, extortion and social isolation, as well as relational aggression or behaviour that is intended to harm a person by damaging or manipulating their relationships with others. This includes exclusion, malicious gossip and rumour spreading, taunting and name calling, alliance building, covert physical aggression and cyberbullying (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Peer victimisation is a broader term that encompasses all forms of violence experienced between children and may include on-off incidents and also physical fighting (Finklehor et al., 2012). This section includes findings from studies focused specifically on bullying, and those studies that look more broadly at peer-to-peer violence in school.

Children experience violence in school more frequently from their peers than from their teachers or other adults in school. Findings from the national school study highlight that the most frequent perpetrators of VAC in schools are other children (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Nearly all forms of violence measured – being humiliated/degraded, shouted at, ridiculed or teased, deliberately ignored, hit on the nape or head area, kicked, threatened with violence, touched inappropriately, forced to give an object or money, sexual harassment or forced to have sex – were more frequently perpetrated by peers than adults in school (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Physical and emotional violence from peers is a common occurrence in schools. In the most recent Global School-Based Health Survey (GSHS) in the Philippines, 46 per cent of boys and 49 per cent of girls reported experiencing bullying victimisation in school in the previous 30 days (Peltzer and Pengpid, 2016). A smaller percentage (43 per cent of boys and 31 per cent of girls) reported being in a physical fight at school in the previous year (Peltzer and Pengpid, 2016), which is roughly in the middle range of estimates of other East Asia and Pacific countries that collect GSHS data (UNICEF, 2012).

Three additional grey literature studies have found similar estimates of bullying prevalence (approximately 30 per cent to 40 per cent). Two found that teasing and name-calling were the most common forms of bullying among grade school children (Suba, 2001; Bayhon, 2001). Among LGBT high school students in one study, bullying through physical means such as pushing, slapping, thrown objects and twisting of arms were more common forms of violence as identified through in-depth interviews with 60 respondents (Kirkconnell, n.d.).

Data from the national study on VAC in schools, which included a survey of 6,931 students and interviews and focus group discussions with 1,077 children, indicate that many children have been victims of bullying at school. While survey questions did not ask specifically about bullying, the experience of bullying can be found in the thematic analysis of children's qualitative responses, such as "*pinagkakaisahan*" (ganged up on) and "*pinagtutulungan*" (conspired against) in describing certain acts of violence. Incessant teasing as a form of bullying was referred to as "*pang-aasar*", "*pang-iinis*" and "*panlilibak*" (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Children were, however, asked about their experiences of being humiliated or degraded by peers (reported by 38 per cent of Grade 4 to 6, and 42 per cent of high school students), and being ridiculed or teased by peers (reported by 37 per cent of Grade 1 to 3 and 70 per cent each of Grade 4 to 6 and high school students).

This study gives further indications of bullying in children's experiences of being coerced by their peers to do something. Being made to do other people's schoolwork was experienced by 20 per cent of the respondents in the Grade 4 to 6 group, and 35 per cent of high school respondents. On the other hand, being forced to give an object or having money extorted from them (commonly referred to as "*kinikilan*" in Manila) was experienced by 15 per cent of all survey respondents. In Manila, female high school students said that they usually gave in to the bully's demands because they would be given a harder time if they did not. They would be teased as "*ang damot*" (selfish), or "*walang pakisama*" (no sense of good relationship) (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Being ignored by peers as a form of bullying behaviour was mentioned by children as one of the most damaging to their self-esteem. This is a result of the cultural norm of interdependent relationships. These are not simple cases of children's quarrels, but deliberate cold treatment by a peer to show disapproval or rejection of a certain child (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). Being deliberately ignored by peers increased with age, with 17 per cent of Grade 1 to 3 students, 44 per cent of Grade 4 to 6 students, and 47 per cent of high school students reporting experiencing this behaviour (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

There is a limited evidence base on cyberbullying, but one study of 212 students found it to be the most frequent method of bullying among high school students in a school in Baguio (Rigonan et al, 2013). Female students (51 per cent) were found to be more aware of cyberbullying than their male counterparts (45 per cent).

Other forms of violent victimisation at school by peers include: being threatened (experienced by 34 per cent of Grade 4 to 6 students and 29 per cent of high school students); threats to hurt people close to the child (22 per cent of Grades 4 to 6 and 14 per cent of high school students); being struck on the nape or head area (18 per cent of Grades 1 to 3, 10 per cent of Grades 4 to 6 and 7 per cent of high school students); being kicked (19 per cent of Grades 1 to 3, 25 per cent of Grades 4 to 6 and 17 per cent of high school students); and being shouted at by peers (24 per cent of Grades 1 to 3, 39 per cent of Grades 4 to 6 and 48 per cent of high school students). (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Ethnographic and other qualitative data highlight the presence and characteristics of gangs in schools, but little is known about their prevalence. An ethnographic study of the dynamics in an urban high school provides detail and insights into the formation of gangs in schools (Palcon, 1992). These gangs are often composed of children who are experiencing hardship or violence from their peers. Violence is also seen as part of a gang's identity, whether through fighting with rival gangs, or extorting money from other children, or using violence and hazing during initiation rituals (Palcon, 1992). The presence of gangs or fraternities primarily in urban schools was highlighted in the qualitative interviews and focus groups in the national study on VAC in schools (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009). According to high school students, these groups picked on them, extorted money, stole their things, and sometimes beat them for no reason (*napag-tripan* or they just felt like doing it). Some children reported being threatened by these groups (*aabangan*) or being cornered after school hours outside the campus, and that members of these groups frequently brought weapons such as guns, ice picks and "*indian pana*" (slingshot using sharpened hard objects instead of small stones) to school (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

The study authors noted that school authorities and other adult participants did not confirm the existence of fraternities and gangs in schools. Some school authorities said that fraternity and gang-related violence in school had already been addressed, and was no longer a problem. Another theme was that fraternity or gang interactions mostly occur *outside* school, and therefore technically not the schools' responsibility (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Trend data shows that bullying victimisation is increasing among 13- to 15-year-olds while being involved in a physical fight in schools is decreasing for both boys and girls. Data collected from the 2003, 2007 and 2011 Global School Based Health Surveys in the Philippines show that bullying victimisation prevalence has been increasing for both boys (35 per cent reported bullying victimisation at least once in a month in 2003, 44 per cent in 2007 and 46 per cent in 2011) and girls (36 per cent in 2003, 47 per cent in 2007 and 49 per cent in 2011) (Peltzer and Pengpid, 2016). When this trend data is analysed, it shows that both boys and girls in 2011 are nearly two times more likely to be victims of bullying in school than they were in 2003, with a statistically significant increasing prevalence (Peltzer and Pengpid, 2016). Meanwhile, bullying has significantly declined in one third of 33 countries surveyed in Europe and North America between 2002 and 2010 (Chester et al., 2013; Vieno et al., 2015).

Being involved in a physical fight in school, however, is declining for both boys and girls. In 2003, 52 per cent of boys reported being in a physical fight in school compared to 41 per cent in 2007 and 43 per cent in 2011. Similar decreasing prevalence estimates are found for girls, with 49 per cent reporting to have been in a physical fight during 2003, 33 per cent in 2007 and 31 per cent

in 2011. This declining trend is statistically significant for both boys and girls (Peltzer and Pengpid, 2016), and comparable to trend data from New Zealand between 2001 and 2012 (Clark et al., 2013).

A secondary analysis of the 2003-2004 Global School Based Health Survey found that bullying victimisation and being involved in physical fighting are associated (Rudataikira, Mataya, and Muula, 2008). In contrast, less fighting was observed when there is parental supervision during free time (Rudataikira, Mataya, and Muula, 2008). While it is not possible to determine why physical fighting has been declining over time, it does give some indication of the importance of the home-school link as we engage in more research about the drivers of both increasing bullying victimisation prevalence and decreasing physical fighting.

Children who are seen as 'different' due to their individual characteristics are at an increased risk of being bullied. One grey literature study tackled protective and risk factors of victims of school bullying. They conducted interviews with 236 respondents in the Northern Luzon region. Victims of bullying most likely had issues with physical appearance, had low self-esteem, were physically weak, or had problems with families or overprotective parents (Calata, 2013). In a survey of 1,184 high school students of Selected Public Schools in Batangas City, risk factors associated with school bullying included conduct problems and poor socioeconomic status (Ong, 2008). Several studies highlighted that children who had low self-esteem or who were seen as being more sensitive and less socially bold were at an increased risk of experiencing bullying (Garingo, 2007; Calata, 2013; Ong, 2008; Bayhon, 2001).

Children's previous experiences of violence, especially in the home, are risk factors for bullying behaviour in school. Many families viewed bullying as a part of growing up (Abbas et al., 2013) especially those where the family environment was more physically punitive and conflict-ridden (Velasquez, 2009). A study of 44 teachers and 192 students characterized a mixture of risk factors that were important for understanding adolescent bullying behaviour, including individual temperament (for example, being hot-tempered), combined with physical characteristics (for example, being physically strong), a lack of social skills, and coming from an environment characterised by poor school performance and families that engage in physical punishment, emotional violence, and/or that discipline inconsistently (Calata, 2013). Many of these risk factors, including histories of violence victimisation, were also present in a study that explored bullying behaviour among children diagnosed with ADHD (Tumadiang, 2009).

Another study of 1,184 students found several risk factors for bullying behaviour that were related to violence experience, including involvement in gangs and violence, drugs, and a history of bullying and violence during childhood at home (Ong, 2008). Poor parental discipline and communication and a lack of teacher supervision are other risk factors in elementary schools (Bayhon, 2001). In the national study on VAC in schools, qualitative interviews and focus groups highlighted that adults saw this behaviour of school bullies as a sign of other issues, including neglect of parents and, possibly, domestic violence. Parents also claimed that children who are neglected by their parents or who are not properly disciplined are themselves unruly or bullies at school. Children from households with domestic violence saw that violence was the only way they could also be disciplined in school, and that "violence is okay." Ironically, adults also saw that a "firmer hand" was needed to discipline them (UNICEF, PLAN International, and CWC, 2009).

Violence Against Children: In the Community

Particular groups of children are vulnerable to violence in the community, including children involved in child labour, children in conflict with the law and street-involved children. This chapter also identifies the drivers of sexual exploitation and trafficking by exploring 62 studies.

Similar drivers emerged for child labour, commercial sexual exploitation and trafficking including family expectations and poverty. Given the emphasis placed on meeting family duties and obligations, efforts to stop child labour and commercial sexual exploitation must address the exploitation of children in the name of helping the family.

Migration due to land reform policies, lack of employment and displacement due to conflict is a driver of commercial sexual exploitation of children and trafficking. A "culture of migration" was reported to exist among families and communities in the Philippines, particularly in source areas for trafficking (Williams et al., 2010). In these areas, cultural pressure exists for girls to support their families by migrating to urban areas or overseas for work, and professionals say this leads to victimization.

The studies identified that VAC in the home was a risk factor for experiencing violence in the community – suggesting that violence starts at home. This was found to be the case for street-involved children, sexual exploitation and children in conflict with the law (Davis and Miles, 2015).

Lastly, the studies in this section point to a culture of silence around issues of VAC in the community, combined with a lack of services and shaming of survivors, and weak law enforcement, or in some cases (as with street-involved children) the role of law enforcement as perpetrators of violence. These constitute a confluence of drivers for the perpetuation of the exploitation and VAC in the community.

The community is a source of protection and support for children and families, but it can also be a site of violence, including peer violence, police violence, physical and sexual violence, sexual exploitation and trafficking. This review explored forms of community violence because of the importance of understanding the community context for children. The third Comprehensive Program on Child Protection 2012-2016 (CPCP) recognises the importance of understanding VAC in the community by highlighting that "materialistic and consumerist culture and the situation of socio-economic insecurity … have created conditions that tolerate the use of children in exploitative labour, prostitution, drug pushing and other organised crimes, trafficking and pornography." The Program further establishes that critical factors in understanding the cycle of child violence and exploitation in the Philippines include "values, attitudes, and practices that lead or contribute to abuse, violence and exploitation."

Child Labour

Across all regions of the globe, violence — physical, sexual and emotional — affects many millions of children who are working, both legally and illegally. It may be used to coerce children to work, or punish or control them within the workplace. UN conventions and protocols define certain categories of illegal work as the worst forms of labour, including hazardous labour, which are therefore risk factors for violence against children.[20] A 2011 national survey reported that 5.5 million Filipino children between the ages of 5 and 17 are working (roughly 19 per cent of the entire child population) (Ericta, 2011). Of these children, approximately 55 per cent (about 3 million) are engaged in child labour (non permissible work), and 99 per cent of these are engaged in hazardous labour conditions (Ericta, 2011). Most of this hazardous labour is classified as 'physically hazardous', including exposure to noise, high temperatures and humidity, inadequate lighting, radiation, ultraviolet light and microwaves (81.8 per cent or 2.4 million children). A substantial proportion also engage in chemically hazardous labour, defined as 'exposure to chemical dust, liquids, mist, fumes, vapours or gas' (45 per cent or 1.3 million children), or biologically hazardous labour, defined as 'work that involves exposure to bacterial, fungal, viral or parasitic elements' (31 per cent or just under 1 million children). Nearly a third of all child labourers are engaged in both chemically and physically hazardous labour, and over 1 in 10 are exposed to working conditions that include all three hazards (Ericta, 2011).

Figure 6. 2012 Philippine Survey on Children focusing on Child Labour Statistics
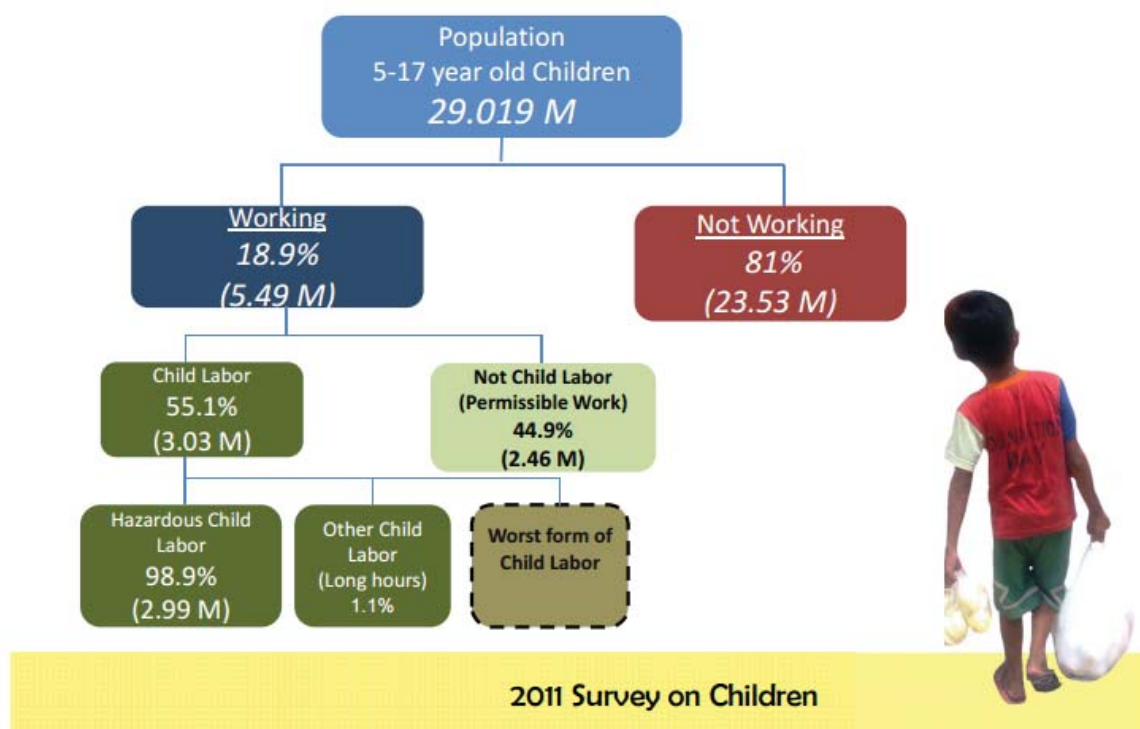
Source: Presentation of Ericta, Carmelita, Philippine National Statistics Office and International Labour Organization. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@asia/@ro-bangkok/@ilo-manila/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_184097.pdf

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[20] UN CRC Optional Protocol 182 on the *Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour* (2002)

Family expectations and poverty drive child labour. Given that children are expected to make meaningful contributions to the family, Filipino parents embark on the systematic instruction and guidance of young children in their household roles (Alampay, 2013; Cadelina, 1982; Garcia, 1996). Poor children, regardless of gender or ethnicity, may also undertake street-based jobs or other subsistence work that adds to the family income (Dela Cruz et al. 2001; Garcia, 1996). For families in the lower socio-economic class, especially, such duties represent critical contributions to family welfare that increase in magnitude as the children grow to adolescence and young adulthood (Hesket et al., 2012). The majority of child labourers come from families with monthly incomes of less than Php5,000, families with low educational attainment and illiteracy, large families, or have parents who are unable to work due to sickness or old age, or whose parents have died or are missing (Balana and Impig, 2011; Ravina, 2005; Lim, 2014; Arpon, 2009; Padilla, 2011; Gaking, 2011; Fernandez et al, 2011; Dasargo, 2012).

The National Child Labour Survey found that 72 per cent of child labourers cite the main reason for working was to help the family, with 42 per cent working in a household-operated farm or business, and 30 per cent working to supplement family income (Ericta, 2011; Faciol et al., n.d.). The 21 grey literature studies on risk factors for child labour consistently reported family expectations as the two main risk factors for child labour.[21]

Poverty was also exacerbated by natural disasters, which resulted in the loss of family or employer's land (UNDoL, 2007). Several grey literature studies reported that both parents and children believed that a good child works to show care for the family (Lopez and Diel, 2003; Tan, 2007; Hinayon, 2013) and that working may also be considered a form of discipline by the family (Arpon, 2009). Two studies identified that parents believed child labour was acceptable since they had worked during their own childhood, and some parents were unaware that child labour is not allowed (Arpon, 2009; Lim, 2014). Given the emphasis placed on meeting family duties and obligations, efforts to stop child labour must address the cultural and familial traditions that underlie this practice (Alampay, 2013).

Employers reported preferring child labourers because they perceive them to be docile and obedient. They can also be hired at cheaper rates than adults and dispensed with easily, and laws prohibiting child labour are not strictly enforced (Arpon, 2009). Child labourers are also often underpaid, despite long working hours (Santander, 2012; Tan, 2007). Four grey literature studies found that children may be recruited and encouraged to work by friends, but the majority of studies found that children become involved through some sort of adult expectation or facilitation (Balana and Impig, 2011; Fernandez et.al, 2011; Lim, 2014; Lopez and Diel, 2003).

Child labour was a risk factor for absence from school, but there were mixed findings on whether education was itself a protective factor against child labour. The National Child Labour Survey (2011) found that while 90 per cent of the 5- to 9-year-olds are enrolled in school, the percentage is halved by the time they are 15, although over half of boys and girls aged 15 to 17 worked and attended school (53 per cent), while the other half only worked (47 per cent) (Ericta, 2011). A study by Lim (2014) of key informant interviews with child labourers found that children thought education protected against child labour. The United States Department of Labor (2007), in a secondary analysis of national and ILO reports found that denial of access to education was commonly reported for child domestic workers.

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[21] UNDoL, 2007; Arpon, 2009; Hesketh et al, 2012; Cadelina, 1982; Lopez and Diel, 2003; Tan, 2007; Hinayon, 2013) and poverty (UNDoL, 2007; Balana and Impig, 2011; Ravina, 2005; Lim, 2014; Magbanua et al, 2009; Arpon, 2009; Dasargo, 2012; Fernandez et al, 2011; Gadong et al, 2009; Gaking, 2011; Garcia, 1996; Hinayon, 2013; Magalong, 2007; Magbanua et al, 2009; Padilla, 2011; Santander, 2012; Cadelina, 1982.

Work was also found to have consumed children's time, which could have been alternatively used for play and school. (Lim, 2014; Tan, 2007) Absence from school or stopping schooling was a common finding among studies (Arpon, 2009; Fernandez et al, 2011; Garcia, 1996; Hinayon, 2013; Lim, 2014; Magalong, 2007; Ravina, 2005). The dropout rate in studies ranged between 20 per cent and 80 per cent (Dasargo, 2012; Gaking, 2011, Padilla, 2011; Santander, 2012; Balana and Impig, 2011). A larger study involving 503 children and 136 parents in Negros Occidental found that most children engaged in child labour complete only three years of formal schooling (Cadelina, 1982). High absence rates and poor performance was noted among those who went to school (Gaking, 2011; Padilla, 2011), with child labourers reporting being tired from work, sleeping in class, having difficulty understanding classes (Lim, 2014; Tan, 2007) and losing interest in school (Gaking, 2011; Padilla, 2011). Repetition of courses due to failing grades for child labourers was also found in studies by Garcia (1996) and Tan (2007).

Child laborers who study at the same time may be more likely to stay in school if they maintain good psychosocial well-being. In a study by Hesketh and colleagues (2012) of 200 child domestic workers and 200 controls, poor or fair self-reported health was highly associated with psychosocial well-being, which was highly associated with school attendance. School attendance was reported at 87 per cent. Overall, high work satisfaction and good or very good self-reported health was reported (Hesketh et al., 2012).

Other factors may impact upon attendance at school with one study reporting that school curricula are seen as irrelevant to the children, and that facilities are inaccessible in some areas (Arpon, 2009). Education may also be viewed as a privilege, with some children reporting that they work to fund their own or a sibling's schooling (Balana and Impig, 2011; Lim, 2014; Lopez and Diel, 2003).

Child labour was found to be a risk factor for negative educational consequences and exposure to further violence. In a study of child domestic workers, the U.S. Department of Labor (2007) found that long hours of work and isolation at home made children more exposed to sexual harassment and verbal and physical violence. Fifteen studies from the grey literature discuss the consequences of child labour. Most of the studies were based in Mindanao, and seven were based in Davao City. Two of the studies came from Luzon and two from the Visayas, with the rest coming from Mindanao. The majority focused on the educational consequences of child labour in the form of non-school attendance, dropout or absenteeism.[22]

Street-involved Children

Community violence affects marginalized groups of children. Violence by police against children on the street ranges from verbal harassment and beatings to rape and other sexual violence, torture and "disappearance" (Pinheiro, 2006). UNICEF defines 'street children' as 'Any girl or boy who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street in the widest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland, and so on, has become his or her habitual abode and/or source of livelihood, and who is inadequately protected, directed, and supervised by responsible adults" (Williams, 1993). There have been many debates about terminology and whether the term 'street children' is stigmatizing and may remove the focus on other marginalized children (Davis and Miles, 2015). New emerging terms such as 'streetactive', 'street-connected' or 'street-involved' children are increasingly being used, and refer to a broader definition of "children for whom the street is a reference point and has a central role in their lives" (Thomas de Benitez, 2007). 'Street-involved children', the term used in this review, are uniquely vulnerable to various kinds of violence and exploitation in the Philippines, particularly commercial sexual exploitation.

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[22] Arpon, 2009; Fernandez et al, 2011; Garcia, 1996; Hinayon, 2013; Lim, 2014; Magalong, 2007; Ravina, 2005; Cadelina, 1982; Dasargo, 2012; Gaking, 2011; Padilla, 2011; Santander, 201; Balana and Impig, 2011; Tan, 2007; Hasketh et al., 2012.

Two sources of data on the prevalence of street-involved children are widely used in the Philippines. The first is that there was a rapid increase (from nearly 250,000 to 1.5 million) during the 1990s (Silva, 2002). The reason cited for this massive increase is the overall expansion of communities of urban poor alongside rapid urbanization over the past few decades (Davis and Miles, 2015). The other frequently cited source is another 2002 study, which estimates the population of street-involved children to be 3 per cent of the total population of children aged up to 17 in the Philippines (Lamberte, 2002). Of these, an estimated 20 per cent were considered to be "highly visible" on the streets. The study calculated that Metro-Manila had the highest population of highly-visible street-involved children (11,346, mostly male [70 per cent]), with fewer in other urban areas (Manila City, Quezon City, Kalookan City and Pasay City) (Lamberte, 2002; Davis and Miles, 2015). A third source estimates a much higher prevalence of street-involved children in Manila (between 50,000 and 75,000) (Santos Ocampo, 2002).

Violence and neglect at home are risk factors for children becoming street-involved. In a recent qualitative study in Manila of 51 in-depth interviews with street-involved boys, 17 per cent indicated having to live on the street due to the death of a parent, 13 per cent cited being cast out of their homes but declined to give further explanation, and 17 per cent cited violence in their homes and communities. Of these, two respondents cited "abuse" and two cited "fighting" (Davis and Miles 2015). When questioned further, witnessing physical violence to other children by a parent was most common, cited by 88 per cent (43) of respondents (Davis and Miles 2015). Similarly, 85 per cent (41) personal experience of physical violence from a parent resulting either from the parent's use of alcohol or an extreme form of corporal punishment. In addition, 28 per cent of respondents (13) reported had witnessing sexual violence of another child by a parent or guardian, and 7 per cent (3) reported personally experiencing sexual violence from a parent or guardian (Davis and Miles, 2015). Within this study, the youngest person to become street-involved was 2 and the oldest 17, with a mean age of 10 (Davis and Miles, 2015).

Physical violence from other children was also found to be common among street-involved boys, with 81 per cent (31) citing witnessing another child using physical violence against another, and 77 per cent (36) personally experiencing physical violence from another child.

This qualitative study showed that the largest portion of street-involved boys in Manila came into street work independently due to family negligence or merely as a means of survival. Forty respondents (83 per cent) indicated that their families were aware of their street work, and eight (17 per cent) indicated that their families were not aware of their work (Miles and Davis, 2015).

Once street-involved, children are at an increased risk of experiencing further violence. An older study of street-involved children in Manila found that the boys were significantly less likely than girls to have had any contact with their immediate families (80 per cent and 63 per cent, respectively), potentially creating a unique vulnerability to exploitation and violence (Sobritchea et al, 1998). Another study found that Filipino street-involved children who did not live at home were 83 per cent (1.83 times) more likely to be involved in street prostitution and 52 per cent (1.52 times) more likely to feel isolated compared with children who lived at home (Merril, et al, 2010). The majority of respondents (58 per cent) in a recent qualitative study of street-involved boys said they do not feel safe within their communities. A significant portion of the reasons for this have to do with witnessing or experiencing violence in their communities, including: bullying (five boys); fighting or rioting in the area (four boys); knowing people who have been murdered (two boys); having to sleep on the streets (two boys); and fears of being taken by street-child 'rescue' operations (four boys) (Davis and Miles, 2015).

In the qualitative study of street-involved children, 76 per cent of respondents (38 boys) reported that they were aware of boys on the street who have been asked by adults to perform sexual acts. Over half (56 per cent, or 19 boys) said these adults were local Filipinos, and 30 per cent (10 boys) said they were a mixture of Filipinos and foreigners (Davis and Miles, 2015). In addition, nearly half of respondents (47 per cent, or 24 boys) reported experiencing unwanted touching and 17 per cent (13 boys) reported a variety of unwanted sexual or physical violence while on the street, including oral sex (4 boys), kissing (2 boys), intercourse (1 boy), physical violence (1 boy), and 5 respondents who chose not to define what had happened in addition to the sexual touching. In addition, 27 per cent (13 boys) described instances of being sexually abused in exchange for money, food or gifts. The common age for boys to first experience sexual exploitation on the streets was quite young, at between 13 and 14 (Davis and Miles, 2015).

Children in Conflict with the Law

There are varying estimates of the number of children in conflict with the law (CICL) in the Philippines. The PNP Women and Children's Concerns Desk had records on 2,906 CICL in 2004, while the DSWD had records of 6,991 CICL in the same year (Plan Philippines, 2006). The most common offence for CICL was cited as theft (Plan Philippines, 2006 using Women and Children's Concerns Desk data from January to September 2004). Some estimates show the incidence declining over time but it is difficult to determine if this a real trend or whether it is due to different documentation and data collection mechanisms being used by various organizations.

Gender and socio-economic status are risk factors for delinquent behaviour that may place a child in conflict with the law. A study of 633 public and private high school students in the Philippines found that boys with lower socio-economic status were more likely to commit violent and publicly overt property offences (defined as the use of overt, forceful methods, committed with a heightened sense of daring – lakas ng loob) and in public view, or with a risk of being in public view (Gutierrez and Shoemaker, 2008). However, the study showed that covert types of offences – stealing in the absence, or without the knowledge, of the victim and in which the act is hidden from public view – were more frequently committed by middle to higher socio-economic status young people (Gutierrez and Shoemaker, 2007). These risk factors related to gender and socio-economics status seem to be mirrored in the demographics of CICL (Plan Philippines, 2006).

Street-involved children involved in 'rescue operations' or in conflict with the law are at risk of experiencing violence. Several studies have explored the safety of children involved in the 'rescue operations' targeting street-involved children (Davis and Miles, 2015; Bahay Tuluyan, 2009). Initially, these operations were created in response to the high prevalence of street-involved children (Davis and Miles, 2015). However, recent submissions to the UN High Council on Human Rights by the Asian Legal Resource Center have cited incidence of violence against children, both by caretakers and other children, under these programmes (Asian Legal Resource Center, 2014). A central part of this submission regards the Reception and Action Centre in Manila, which is a "custodial and rehabilitation center" where CICL, street-involved children and orphans are detained (Asian Legal Resource Center, 2014). The authors say these 'rescue' operations are often indiscriminate, failing to make distinction between CICL and children in need of special care or protection (Davis and Miles, 2015). In a qualitative study of street-involved boys, 72 per cent (33 boys) reported having witnessed physical violence against another child by a police officer. Over half (57 per cent, or 25 boys) had also personally experienced physical violence from police officers, including being kicked in the face and stomach and being electrocuted (tasing) (Davis and Miles, 2015).

According to Child Rights International Network (CRIN), the Philippines is the only East Asia Pacific country that has considered lowering the Minimum Age of Criminal Responsibility (MACR) rather than increasing it. The UN CRC does not define a specific recommended age threshold for criminal responsibility, and only requires that such minimum age should be established within national legislation. However, in 2007, the Committee specified in its General Comment No. 10 that it considers setting such age below 12 years as internationally unacceptable, and encouraged States to increase their domestic thresholds, preferably to at least 14 to 16 years (UN CRC, 2007). The Beijing Rules for Juvenile Justice further call for governments to take into account the emotional, mental and intellectual maturity of young offenders.

Throughout the past decade, Philippine political discourse has remained contentious with regard to the MACR. In 2006, the MACR was raised from 9 to 15 years (with the adoption of the Juvenile Justice and Welfare Act [JJWA]). However, by 2009, calls were registered in Congress to lower the MACR to 10, which was criticized by the UN CRC Concluding Observations as unacceptable. In 2013, the Government launched a revision of the country's penal law, which proposed lowering the MACR to 12, making the Philippines the only country considering such a step across the region (CRIN, 2013). After wide debate, the JJWA was amended in October 2013, but the MACR was retained at 15. A political compromise was reached in that those children aged 12 to 15 involved in serious crimes are required by the amendatory law to undergo an intervention programme to help rehabilitate them and prevent re-offending. In the present administration, the JJWA is once again vulnerable to legislative change, as House Bill No. 002 has been filed, moving for a decrease in the MACR from 15 to 9. Parliamentary debates and inquiries have not yet started.

Sexual Violence Against Children in the Community

Children are vulnerable to sexual violence and exploitation from members of the community. Although sexual violence is more commonly perpetrated by someone known to the child, such as a family member or an adult in a position of trust (for example, sports coaches, clergy, police, teachers and employers), strangers may also be perpetrators. Very few studies have focused explicitly on sexual violence experienced in the community. The best sources of data are administrative and qualitative.

In a review of 107 cases of sexual violence against boys between 2003 and 2007 (data from UP-Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit), perpetrators who sexually abused males aged 18 and below were mostly male (95.3 per cent), with a mean age of 27.7, and were mostly neighbours or acquaintances. A study of Mariano (2011), which included interviews with perpetrators, also concluded that most cases involved those not related to the victims. Neighbours were also identified as the main perpetrators in a small qualitative study of disabled girls who had experienced sexual violence (Terol, 2009). The accessibility of the adolescents to the perpetrators contributed to the repetition of the violent incidents, since most of the neighbours were trusted individuals who committed multiple episodes of violence (Terol, 2009). This was compounded because most of the children were not at school, thus increasing the chances of unsupervised accessibility (Terol, 2009).

Children may be vulnerable to sexual violence walking to and from school. The location of schools can affect the safety of children, according to the comprehensive qualitative findings of the national violence against children in schools study (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009). The threat of sexual harassment and violence en route to or from school was highlighted by both children and adults, and exacerbated by the presence of "rugby boys" and *tambays* (people who congregate and idly stand around in public) near the schools (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009). Children also reported that community attitudes, including tolerance or indifference to violence and harassment, strongly influence their experiences and attitudes (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009).

Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children

The exploitation of children aged under 18 in prostitution, child pornography and similar activities constitutes violence and is often termed 'commercial sexual exploitation of children' (CSEC).[23] It is estimated that 1 million children enter these sectors every year (Pinheiro, 2006). Under-18s involved in the sex industry are to be regarded as sexually exploited (UN joint statement, 22 May 2015). In addition to the sexual violence which is intrinsic to child prostitution, girls and boys in prostitution and related areas frequently suffer physical and emotional violence, as well as neglect and due to control by pimps and employers. They may be unable to seek help, or if they do, they may be treated as criminals (Pinheiro, 2006).

Asia, along with Central and South America, is cited as having the highest rates of child sexual exploitation in the world, and a recent report states that the Philippines may have one of the world's worst child trafficking problems (UNICEF, 2009; UNICEF, 2001; Ward, 2004). UNICEF estimates that of the 1 million children brought into prostitution each year, approximately 100,000 are from the Philippines (UNICEF, 2000). Poverty is cited as a main factor of CSEC in the Philippines (Ward, 2004), creating child- and family-level vulnerability and driving migration. Numerous other systemic factors include rapid urbanization and the inequitable distribution of wealth (Silva, 2002; UNICEF, 2009).

Displacement and violence experienced due to conflict are risk factors for CSEC. Two of the world's longest-running armed conflicts affect the Philippines, including the Moro and communist insurgencies, which affect millions of people nationwide (HDN, UNDP and NZAID, 2005). Parties to these conflicts have been involved in recruiting and using children in armed conflict, and other grave violations against children, and these activities continue to be perpetrated by all parties. Such conflict can lead to the displacement of children and their families, forcing them to move internally or across borders to seek shelter and employment (Miller, 2008). Ward and Roby (2004) interviewed children associated with CSEC in Metro Manila and found that armed conflict and the presence of military were significant risk factors for CSEC (Ward and Roby, 2004).

Poverty is a risk factor for the CSEC in the Philippines. Emac and Piñol (2009) conducted interviews, focus group discussions and observations of nine children involved in commercial sexual exploitation in Cebu. They found that child prostitution[24] was associated with poverty, dysfunctional families, peer influence and low educational background. Poverty as a main theme is supported by the study by Fuentes (2005), which utilized in-depth interviews, observation, group therapeutic sessions and visits to 17 prostituted girls from the cities of Davao, General Santos and Cagayan de Oro. Interviews conducted by Balana (2009) of 30 children aged 13 to 17 engaged in the sex trade in Davao City also found family financial crises to be a dominant risk factor for CSEC.

Poverty as a driver of CSEC is further compounded by cultural, gender and age norms that females will support their families. Cultural beliefs that drive CSEC were that families are looked after no matter what, expectations for females to help support family even in childhood, and the absolute decision-making power of the father over the family (Edralin, 2002; Ward and Roby, 2004). Relational and institutional drivers of CSEC identified were that child workers support families financially by paying bills and supporting siblings' schooling (Edralin, 2002; Urada et al., 2014). Poverty was a common underpinning theme supporting these norms (Banez, 2015; Balana and Moreno, 2009; Calma, Don and Dy, 2010; Fuentes, 2005; Pantig, Tan and Dans, 2014; Edralin, 2002; Capitulo, 2012; Ward and Roby, 2004).

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[23] The latest Philippines report on the Optional Protocol to the UN CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography was compiled in 2011, and submitted to the Committee in 2012. While progress was recognized, the report continued to criticize the low age of sexual consent (12) and the need for more systematic data collection on issues around commercial sexual exploitation and child pornography.

[24] Current child protection literature does not accept the terms 'child prostitution' or 'child pornography' because they normalize the involvement of children in this work, when it is actually violence, and victimization. Adults may choose to be involved in commercial sex work or pornography, but for children this is not a choice – it is exploitation and violence.

Children's previous experience of violence are a risk factor for commercial sexual exploitation. In a study of 770 females aged at least 14 working as bar and spa workers in Luzon, Cebu, Iloilo and Mindanao, violent childhood experiences were identified as a key risk factor for entrance into commercially exploitative work (Urada et al., 2014). Two separate studies (one interviewing children associated with CSEC in Metro Manila, and another interviewing girls in Davao City, General Santos City and Cagayan de Oro City) found that most study participants had previous exposure to violence, especially sexual violence (Ward and Roby. 2004; Fuentes, 2005). This risk factor also exists for males, with a recent qualitative study of street-involved boys in Metro-Manila showing that violence by family members was a factor for boys working on the street, which predisposed them to sexual exploitation (Miles and Davis, 2015).

Pornography[25] may be used to sexualize or groom street-involved children for CSE. Research is beginning to demonstrate the connection between the ready availability of pornography and CSE. Access to pornographic materials at a young age has been connected to a premature sexualizing of children's lives and the teaching of "sexual scripts", which normalize violence and abuse as a part of the sexual experience (Graham, 2005). Perpetrators of CSE often use adult pornography to groom their victims for sexual exploitation (Davis and Miles, 2015). Of the 45 street-involved boys participating in a qualitative study in Metro Manila, 49 per cent (22 boys) mentioned adults showing them pornographic pictures or videos. Among this group, 35 per cent (7 boys) cited being shown pornographic pictures or videos by either an adult friend stranger. Twenty per cent (4 boys) cited being shown pornography by an adult in their community (Miles and Davis, 2015). The Systematic Literature Review of Child Online Protection[26] commissioned by UNICEF in 2015 finds that 'online grooming', 'cyber enticement' and 'solicitation' are terms that refer to the use of information and communication technology (ICT) to communicate with a child for the purpose of sexual abuse or exploitation. Another study in 2012 reported that 28 per cent of 3,500 children aged 10 to 12 from around the Philippines had been asked to strip naked online.[27]

Peers and friends may convince others to enter and remain in the sex trade. Studies indicate that peers are also responsible for introducing children to commercial sex work (Calma, Don and Dy, 2010). Balana and Moreno (2009) found that among 30 children, 23 were introduced by a friend to CSE. Two studies of exploited children identified strong peer relationships with other children in CSE as a reason that they remained involved in CSEC activities (Balana and Moreno, 2009; Emac and Piñol, 2009).

Risk factors for CSE of children include: a culture of silence; lack of services; and shaming of survivors. Being "afraid and not wanting to cause trouble," and a "culture of silence" were cited by several studies as reasons for not disclosing or seeking help for sexual exploitation and violence (Banez, 2015; Davis and Miles, 2015). Because they are often discriminated against and may be treated as criminals, sexually exploited children are often unable to seek help (Calma, Don and Dy, 2010; Fuentes, 2005) or do not receive help when they do seek it (Davis and Miles, 2015). Furthermore, other studies cite a lack of law enforcement or secure safehouses, which puts children who do seek help at risk (Banez, 2015, Calma, Don and Dy, 2010; Garciano, 2013), and that police do not assist prostitutes when there is trouble with customers. Police may also abuse children during raids of illegal prostitution and other street work (Fuentes, 2005; Davis and Miles, 2015).

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[25] When speaking about children's images used in pornography, the correct term is the Online Sexual Exploitaiton of Children (OSEC).
[26] Unpublished.
[27] Stairway Foundation 2012, unpublished.

Trafficking

Trafficking in children within countries and across international borders is a major international concern (Pinheiro, 2006), and a particular concern in the Philippines. According to the Palermo Protocol and Article 2 of the UN CRC, child trafficking and the sale of children occurs when a child is transferred by any person or group of persons to another for remuneration, or any other consideration, for the purpose of exploitation (UNICEF, 2009). When a person under the age of 18 is recruited, moved, harboured or received for exploitative purposes, they are regarded as a victim of trafficking (UNICEF, 2009).

UNICEF considers the Philippines to have one of the world's worst child trafficking problems (UNICEF, 2009). The phenomenon is driven by a combination of risk factors, including exposure to violence, poverty, labour migration, conflict and political unrest, with results including population displacement (UNICEF, 2009).

Trafficking can involve multiple forms of violence, with examples including abduction or deception by recruiters, sexual and other forms of violence and being held captive (Pinheiro, 2006). Furthermore, most victims are trafficked into violent situations including prostitution, forced marriage and domestic or agricultural work in conditions of slavery, servitude or debt bondage (Santos, 2002). Researching the drivers of trafficking, as with other forms of VAC, is challenging due to the hidden and illegal nature of the phenomenon and the vulnerability of the children involved.

The Philippines was listed as a Tier 2 Watch-List country by the U.S. Department of State in 2009, with Metro Manila being a major source, destination and transit area for girls and women (Williams et al., 2010; U.S. Department of State, 2009). Between 2011 and 2014, efforts were undertaken by the Government and its partners to address human trafficking in the areas of prevention, prosecution, protection and recovery, and partnership. Accurate prevalence figures on sex trafficking are extremely challenging to generate due to its underground nature, but estimates of child trafficking in the Philippines are approximately 100,000 cases annually. DSWD also reports the entry of over 3,000 children into prostitution each year (Ricardo, 2007).

Documentation from one anti-trafficking service provider in the Philippines indicated that, since 2001, it had intercepted approximately 10,000 incipient trafficking victims at major seaports and airports en route to situations of forced labour and prostitution (Macapagal et al., 2009). In June 2016, the US State Department released its Trafficking in Persons report, which classes the Philippines as a Tier 1 country, demonstrating an improvement in the situation of trafficking and greater vigilance on the part of the Government to control it.

A qualitative study of health and anti-trafficking professionals in Metro Manila highlighted that the mechanisms by which girls enter sex trafficking often involve elements of force, deception, economic desperation and psychological manipulation (Williams et al., 2010). The literature also describes how children may be trafficked at first for forced labour, and later transferred or sold into CSE (Ricardo, 2007; Williams et al., 2010). From interviews with professionals, girls trafficked to Metro Manila were reported to come from rural regions, including Samar, Cebu and Mindanao, as well as several areas in Visayas (Williams et al., 2010). The Philippines is a 'sending and transit' country for trafficking (Raymond et al., 2002), with Metro Manila reportedly serving as a hub area from which girls are sent to Japan and Singapore (Williams et al., 2010).

Children's experience of violence at home is a risk factor for sex trafficking. In a qualitative study of 51 healthcare professionals in Manila, many respondents identified a girl's prior history of sexual violence by a family member or someone close to the family as a major risk factor for sex trafficking. Other trafficking determinants identified by professionals include neglect, emotional violence, physical violence and poor self esteem (Williams et al., 2010).

Drawing on situational analyses from seven countries, a UNICEF analysis also highlighted that risk factors for trafficking – especially in the Philippines — include families in which there is a lack of care and support for children (for example, within the context of single-parent families, divorced or separated parents or guardians, child-headed households or families with large numbers of children) (UNICEF, 2009). Furthermore, professionals reported that some families are complicit in trafficking by pressuring their daughters, nieces or neighbours to seek work in Metro Manila in order to support the family through cash and other gifts (Williams et al., 2010).

Cultural pressure to support the family by moving to urban areas or overseas for work is a risk factor for trafficking. A "culture of migration" has been reported to exist among families and communities in the Philippines, particularly in source areas for trafficking. In these areas, there is cultural pressure for girls to support the family by migrating to urban areas (or overseas for work), and this was perceived by professionals to lead to victimization (Williams et al., 2010). Several professional respondents described impoverished families in remote rural areas as operating in "survival mode" (Williams et al, 2010). The Philippines has a long history of out-migration, and what was originally an interim economic solution has become a long-term official mechanism for addressing the under- and unemployment of millions of Filipinos (Santos, 2002). Many women and girls are both legally and illegally recruited for work abroad, often at younger ages than their male counterparts (Santos, 2002). Many of the respondents interviewed in studies on migration and trafficking who had been illegally recruited were aged under 18 when they were recruited and eventually trafficked (Santos, 2002; Tanton, 2000; UNICEF, 2009). Both undocumented and documented migrant women and girls are especially vulnerable to sex trafficking, with several scholars highlighting that mechanisms for the sex trade have become more sophisticated, even making use of official channels and processes (Santos, 2002). According to professionals, the complicity and corruption of some government officials and agencies have made trafficking easier and monitoring more difficult (Williams et al., 2010).

A recent country situational analysis indicates that internal trafficking may be more prolific than cross-border migration (UNICEF, 2009). In the Philippines, assessments report that children are mainly trafficked from the rural regions of Visayas and Mindanao to the cities of Cebu City, Manila and Quezon City (Miller, 2008).

A lack of education is a risk factor that leads to girls being trafficked. A qualitative study of healthcare workers and professionals that work with trafficked girls in Manila found that families in rural areas lack awareness of the realities of sex trafficking in their communities (Williams et al., 2010). A case study of 10 women who were victims of trafficking when they were aged between 7 and 18 found that higher educational level, better awareness, and learning livelihood skills helped reduce the incidence of human trafficking (Garciano, 2013). UNICEF situational analyses in the region have also found that a lack of educational attainment can result in fewer work opportunities and choices, resulting in vulnerability to labour exploitation (UNICEF, 2009).

Poverty and economic deprivation in rural areas continue to be drivers for trafficking. Consistent with recent trafficking literature, poverty and economic desperation in rural areas have been cited by professional respondents as major drivers of trafficking (UNICEF, 2009; Williams et al., 2010). Economic circumstances in some areas were believed to be so dire that families would give up a daughter in order to survive. Maintaining a sustainable livelihood, especially in rural areas, through traditional forms of labour (for example, agriculture and fishing) was believed to be increasingly difficult, due to environmental degradation leading to decreased crop yields and declining fish harvests (Williams et al., 2010), as well as a lack of employment opportunities (UNICEF, 2009). In addition, recent agricultural policies and practices reportedly contribute to forced displacement and migration to urban centers (Williams et al., 2010).

Children are often expected to engage in child labour to help their families, and as a result they may drop out of school. There is also growing family dependence on women and girls for income, especially among poorer households (Raymond et al., 2002). According to UNICEF assessments across the region, such children are frequently vulnerable to exploitation because they are more likely to accept unskilled and lower-skilled employment, such as domestic service or factory work (UNICEF, 2009). Furthermore, many regions of the Philippines are vulnerable to typhoons and landslides, increasing the likelihood of migration of people to urban areas to pursue viable livelihoods (Williams et al., 2010). These migration patterns prompted by the need for survival make girls more vulnerable to trafficking (Raymond et al., 2002).

Chapter Summary

The most common form of VAC at home is violent discipline, which is embedded in social norms and driven by factors including its supposed effectiveness, traditional respect for parental authority, financial stress and the level of parental education. Studies have determined that higher levels of aggression and anxiety are found in children who suffer corporal punishment. Physical violence is also the prevalent form of violence perpetrated by adults in schools. A principal driver of this form of VAC is, as at home, social norms relating to the acceptability of corporal punishment. Meanwhile, sexual harassment is the most common form of sexual violence in schools, and girls are particularly vulnerable, and children are more likely to experience violence at the hands of other children than adults. A driver of bullying in school is children's previous experience of violence at home. Filipino children are also subject to violence in their community. Children who are involved in labour, in conflict with the law and street-involved are particularly vulnerable. Drivers of commercial sexual exploitation of children include a "culture of migration," whereby girls and women travel to urban areas and overseas for work to support their families, leading to victimization. A lack of employment and displacement because of conflict are further drivers. There is also a culture of silence around issues of VAC in the community, which may combine with weak law enforcement to perpetuate the problem. Further research is needed to better understand the drivers of sexual violence in schools.

CHAPTER 5.
Types of Violence

Sexual Violence

Children experience sexual violence in a variety of settings, perpetrated by a range of people from family members to partners, peers and strangers. This review examined 22 articles and reports of studies on sexual VAC in the Philippines. The prevalence of experiencing sexual violence in childhood ranged from 4.5 per cent to 65 per cent (Ramiro et. Al., 2010; Serquina-Ramiro, 2005), reflecting the variety of questions asked, methods of measuring sexual violence, research methods, and the different respondents involved in research in this area. The only nationally representative data on child sexual violence comes from the National Demographic Heath Survey (NDHS), a population-based survey with over 16,000 respondents that is conducted to provide information on fertility, family planning and health, for use by the Government in monitoring progress against the sustainable development goals. The NDHS shows an increasing trend in childhood sexual abuse in the Philippines between 2008 and 2013. The soon-to-be released Philippines Violence Against Children Survey findings will significantly add to our knowledge about the prevalence of sexual VAC.

Despite the lack of national data, themes are emerging in studies on the potential drivers of sexual violence. This section highlights the risk factors related to sexual violence seen across all settings. Three main drivers of sexual violence emerged: 1) a culture of silence around sexual violence and fear of reporting; 2) current legislation, including the minimum age of sexual consent and statutory rape laws, which contribute to legal impunity in relation to sexual violence against boys and girls; and 3) vulnerability, especially of children with disabilities. More research is needed to identify further the risk and protective factors for children.

According to NDHS data, over a third of Filipinos experienced sexual violence during childhood. A secondary analysis of the 2013 NDHS conducted for this report found that over a third (36 per cent, weighted) of all respondents reported having ever having experienced child sexual violence. This was established by asking "At any time in your life, as a child or as an adult, has anyone ever forced you in any way to have sexual intercourse or perform any other sexual acts when you did not want to?" Respondents who reported this happening when they were under the age of 18 were identified as having experienced child sexual violence. In addition, nearly 30 per cent of young women described their first sexual encounter as consensual but unwanted, whereas 2 per cent reported their first sexual experience as physically and verbally forced, commonly by their intimate partners (Ramiro 2005; Ramiro et al. 1998; Raymundo and Cruz 2004).

Recent household survey data highlights the increasing trend from 2008 to 2013 of sexual violence during childhood in the Philippines. The 2013 DHS showed increasing trends in reported

Recent household survey data highlights the increasing trend from 2008 to 2013 of sexual violence during childhood in the Philippines. The 2013 DHS showed increasing trends in reported experiences of sexual violence before the age of 18 across all respondent groups of adolescents and women, compared to the 2008 survey. The increase is steepest for reported experiences from adolescents and young people aged between 15 and 24. It is important to note that these surveys do not interview the same respondents at each time point, but are representative samples from the population of Filipino women aged between 15 and 49.

Figure 7: Experience of sexual violence before the age of 18 among female respondents, by current age group, from the 2008 and 2013 NDHS.

Sexual violence before exact age 18
Percentage of women who experienced sexual violence before exact age of 18
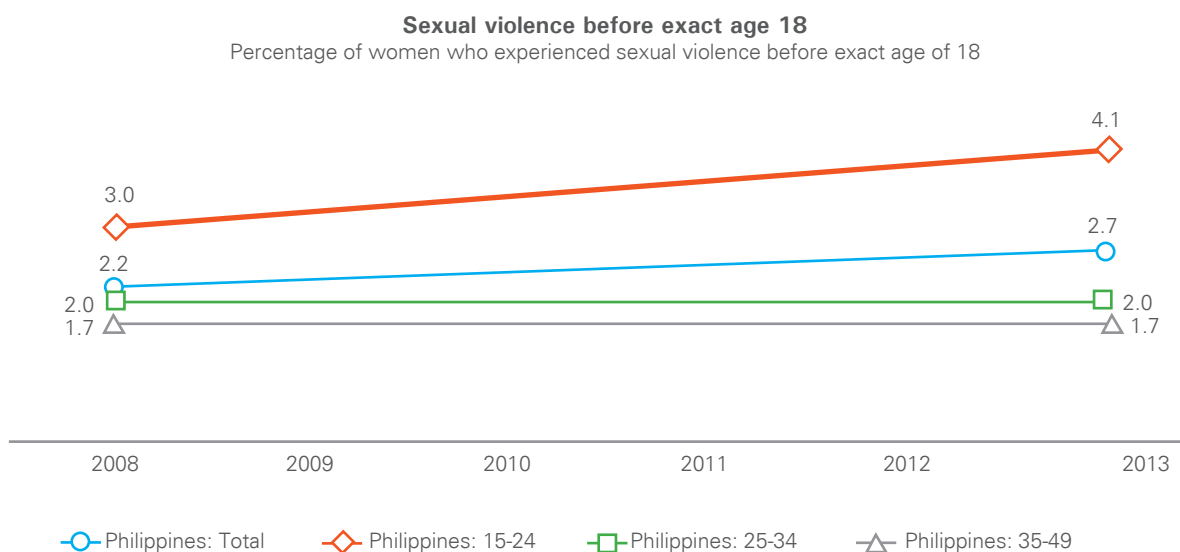
Source: ICF International, 2015. The DHS Program Compiler. Funded by USAID. http//www/statcompiler.com. April 2, 2016

Unlike other forms of violence, such as intimate partner violence, girls' education levels, urban or rural residence and witnessing family violence do not predict experiencing child sexual violence in the Philippines. For those that had experienced sexual violence in childhood as reported in the NDHS, roughly equal percentages had college or below college level schooling (30.2 per cent and 37.3 per cent, respectively), were born in urban (39.3 per cent) and rural (34.1 per cent) areas, and currently reside in urban (37.5 per cent) and rural (34.4 per cent) areas. Similarly, a roughly equal percentage grew up with family violence in the form of witnessing their father beat their mother (38.4 per cent), compared with those who did not experience this (34.4 per cent). In regression analyses conducted specifically for this report, level of schooling, residence area (urban versus rural) and witnessing family violence were not significant as risk factors for experiencing sexual violence in childhood, suggesting that other factors in the socio-ecological model not captured in the NDHS data may be present. It would be worthwhile to add questions to the NDHS surveys, which are more routinely collected than other surveys on violence, to better understand the risk and protective factors for child sexual violence, in order to better capture risk and protective factors and monitor change over time.

Fear of reporting and a culture of silence around sexual violence are risk factors in all settings. A common theme related to sexual violence across all settings, including the home (Terol, 2009; Hulipas, 2005), school (UNICEF, PLAN International and CWC, 2009) and the community (Davis and Miles, 2015), is that victims are fearful of disclosing violence and do not want to cause trouble. This leads to a culture of silence, and these beliefs are often reinforced by perpetrators, who frequently use emotional violence to instil fear and ensure children do not tell anyone (WID IAC and UNICEF, 1997; Calma et al., 2010). A survey of 384 girls conducted in seven Davao City barangays by Banez (2015) found that the non-reporting of incidents was caused by reluctance to cause trouble for the family and fear of punishment. Two grey literature studies also identify the extra barriers facing adolescents, who may be involved in illegal activities such as drug use, to seek help (Calma, Don and Dy, 2010; Fuentes, 2005).

Current legislation, including the minimum age of sexual consent and statutory rape laws, contribute to legal impunity to prosecution for sexual VAC. The UN CRC observed in 2009 that the Philippines did not have a legal definition of the minimum age of sexual consent and had one of the lowest minimum age for determining statutory rape (12 years of age). The age of consent for determining statutory rape and other crimes of sexual abuse "is the minimum age used to ascertain whether any sexual act with a person is considered a crime" (Oco, 2007). The aim of the legal minimum age of sexual consent is to protect children from sexual exploitation and abuse, rather than to criminalize consensual, non-exploitative, sexual behaviour between young people (UNICEF, 2015). The age of statutory rape is important because it is the minimum age at which a child is lacking the maturity to deal with or to say no to sexual acts and therefore they are not legally capable of giving consent (Oco, 2007). Similarly, a person committing sexual acts with someone below the minimum age of consent may be held criminally liable (Oco, 2007).

Furthermore, the Revised Penal Code applies the crime of statutory rape only when the offender is a man who has carnal knowledge with a girl-child below 12 years old. In cases where the victim is below 12 years old but:

1. the offender commits sexual acts other than inserting his penis into the woman's vagina; or

2. the offender and the victims are of the same sex, as for instance male to male or female to female; or

3. the offender is female and the victim is a boy child; there is no crime of statutory rape but a crime of sexual assault under paragraph 2 of *Article 266* – A, punishable by a lower penalty (Oco, 2007).

While there is no general international consensus on what the age of sexual consent should be, according to the UN CRC, the law should not provide different standards according to gender or sexuality as is the case in the Philippines, as this will be in violation of international standards relating to non-discrimination (Article 2, UN CRC). The same age should be set for boys and girls and for homosexual and heterosexual acts (UNICEF, 2015). The age of consent varies across the world, with the Philippines being one of the lowest globally and the lowest in the Asia-Pacific region (UNICEF, 2015). The average age of consent globally is 16 years (UNICEF, 2015).

Through these laws, Filipino children who are aged between 12 and 18, and those who are below 12 are treated differently in terms of protection and the penalty imposed for sexual violence. As a result, according to legal analysis, these varying applications may be "prejudicial to the best interests of the child as they are not equally protected by the laws from sexual abuse and exploitation" (Oco, 2007), which in itself is a risk factor for sexual violence.

Children with disabilities are at higher risk of experiencing sexual violence. There is strong evidence that children with disabilities are more likely to experience violence than their peers. A meta-analysis of research about the prevalence of VAC with disabilities, which examined 17 studies covering a range of types of disability, concluded that children with disabilities are 3 to 4 times more likely to experience violence than other children (Jones et al., 2012). Global pooled prevalence estimates are 13.7 per cent for sexual VAC with disabilities (Jones et al., 2012).

According to 2010 Philippines Census data, 1.6 per cent of the population (1,443,000) self-identify as having an impairment that limits their day-to-day functioning (2010 CPH). Among the household population living with disabilities, children aged 10 to 14 comprised the largest age group (7.2 per cent), followed by those aged 15 to 19 (6.9 per cent) and 5 to 9 (6.7 per cent). This review identified one qualitative study and one study with administrative data exploring the link between children with disabilities and experience of sexual violence (Terol, 2009; Hulipas, 2005). These studies, as have others on sexual VAC, found that perpetrators were more likely to be familiar to the child. However, disclosure of most experiences of violence was often delayed when it involved girls without communication skills (mostly those with moderate intellectual difficulties). These instances were discovered only through noticeable symptoms such as a disheveled appearance, kiss marks, crumpled hair, soiled clothing, and being unusually distressed. International research has shown that non-verbal disclosure is not unique to children with disabilities. A recent qualitative study conducted in the UK found that the majority of young adults who experienced violence during childhood attempted to disclose it through their actions, but that adults often did not 'hear' or act upon these disclosures (Allnock and Miller, 2013). Research has highlighted that children with disabilities may not disclose violence as frequently as their peers due to a number of reasons, including the characteristic of the disability and type of violence experienced (Stalker, and McArthur, 2012).

In these cases, the risk factors for sexual violence are compounded by issues including the vulnerability of the child, increased accessibility to time alone with the child (most of these children are not in school), and delayed or non-disclosure due to the child's disability.

Sexual violence has a significant impact on all victims. A region-wide burden of child maltreatment study found that experiencing childhood sexual violence had a profound impact on children, young adults and adults. Based on a meta-analysis of consequences studies, childhood sexual abuse was linked to up to 36 per cent of all adult intimate partner violence (IPV) victimization against male victims and 43 per cent against female victims in the East Asia and Pacific region (Fang, Fry et al., 2015, supplemental data). Experiencing sexual violence during childhood also contributes to problem drinking in the region, in up to 14 per cent of male and up to 17.5 per cent of female cases of all problem drinking (whether as an adolescent or adult) (Fang, Fry, et al., 2015, supplemental data).

Grey literature studies from the Philippines also found that the mental health and well-being consequences of experiencing sexual violence were profound, with survivors reporting poor psychosocial development (Cuason, 2009; Pantig, Tan and Dans, 2014) and lower self-esteem and a negative view of others and the world, especially among males (Cuason, 2009; Viloria, 2013). Self-harming behaviour such as cutting (Calma, Don and Dy, 2010) and suicide-related thoughts and behaviour have frequently been reported by childhood sexual violence survivors (Bautista, 2013; Calma, Don and Dy, 2010; Viloria, 2013). Adults who experienced sexual violence during childhood also reported more difficulties in trusting other people (Cuason, 2009).

Physical Violence

This review has explored over 68 studies on physical violence. Physical VAC occurs in every setting – the home, school and community – but globally and in the Philippines it is most frequent in the home, and takes the form of violent discipline (UNICEF, 2014). Physical violence other than that associated with discipline also occurs in the same forms (including hitting, kicking and shaking), with local prevalence ranging from 30 per cent to 79 per cent reflecting the wide range of studies and measurements of physical violence. Physical violence in schools in the form of bullying appears to be increasing among 13- to 15-year-olds in the Philippines, based on eight years of data from the Global School Based Health Surveys. Most of the studies of physical violence in the Philippines focus on violent discipline and violence between partners and peers. This section focuses on findings for physical violence across settings and relationships.

Across all settings, children and young people perpetrate most of the physical violence committed against other children and young people. When physical violence is used by adults it is often in the form of punishment, and it is viewed as the most effective form of discipline and necessary to control behaviour. There is a social expectation that parents and teachers will use corporal punishment against children.

National data shows that young people report using physical violence against others more than they report experiencing physical violence, with many doing both. The Demographic Research and Development Foundation Inc. of the University of the Philippines conducts a Young Adult and Fertility Survey (YAFS) to explore youth – the period of transition from the dependence of childhood to adult independence, and a period of critical transitions (Natividad, 2014). In 2002, the YAFS 3 explored respondents' experience of physical violence either as victims or perpetrators. About 14 per cent claimed to have had such an experience during the preceding 3 months. There was a close and positive correlation between the two, implying a strong likelihood that victims also nurture violent tendencies (Raymundo and Cruz, 2004). YAFS 4 (2013) asked respondents if they had been subjected to physical violence and if they had been the perpetrator of an act of physical violence against someone during the 12 months preceding the survey. Seventeen per cent reported being hurt, and 22 per cent reported hurting someone (Demographic Research and Development Foundation Inc., 2014).

It is a social norm seen in all settings to use physical and emotional violence as discipline. The use of physical VAC in the form of punishment is widely prevalent in the home, school and community. Studies show that this behaviour is considered normal, meaning that the beliefs held by parents, teachers and others about the necessity of violent discipline are crucial to the continuation of this form of VAC (Lansford et al., 2015). This also shows that approaches that address these social norms are likely to be more effective than those that simply focus on the individual.

Although they are relatively low, the true number of child homicides in the Philippines has probably been underestimated. Child deaths from homicide, the most extreme form of physical violence, are relatively rare in the Philippines, according to official records. WHO estimates show that the number of homicide victims among children and adolescents aged 0 to 19 was three per 100,000 of the child population in 2012, which is below the global average (WHO, 2014; UNICEF, 2014). However, this is likely to be an underestimate as there is no mandatory autopsy for suspicious deaths of children, unlike in other countries, and other difficulties may include a lack of training among doctors in attributing deaths to child abuse and neglect (Madrid, 2012).

Shaken baby syndrome is a concern in the Philippines for children aged under 2 years. Abusive Head Trauma in infants and young children results from inflicted head injuries. Shaking is a common mechanism by which such injuries occur, and may be accompanied by blunt impact trauma (Christian, Block and Committee on Child Abuse and Neglect 2009). A World Studies of Abuse in the Family Environment (WorldSAFE) population-based survey revealed that one in five Filipino mothers from a random sample in Paco, Manila reported shaking a child aged under two (19 per cent). A similar proportion of mothers reported shaking a child aged between two and 18 years (21 per cent). Shaking a child aged less than two years accounted for the highest rates of harsh physical discipline among this age group. The study however, did not ask about the force used in shaking the child (D. K. Runyan, et al. 2010).

A review of the Philippine Pediatric Society ICD-10 Registry showed that only 15 cases of child abuse or maltreatment were reported between January 1, 2006 and December 1, 2009 (four physical abuse, four sexual abuse and seven other maltreatment syndromes). However, 32 infants aged under 12 months were reported to have suffered from multiple fractures of the extremities, the skull and facial bones. Moreover, 1,351 children aged under three years were reported to have sustained head injuries (Madrid 2012). These figures show apparent underreporting, or difficulties in diagnosing physical abuse. While many fractures result from incidents including falls and motor vehicle collisions, age is an important factor in distinguishing between inflicted and accidental fractures. Studies have shown that most abusive fractures are found among children aged between 12 and 18 months. The literature also consistently shows that children aged under 3 years are most likely to be physically abused, with the highest rates occurring among those aged less than one year (Maguire, 2010).

Child Protection Unit Case Study: Abusive Head Trauma

Alyana is a two-month old baby girl who was brought to the hospital by her mother, Lisa, because she was not feeding well and was inactive. According to Lisa, this started two days previously, when she left Alyana sleeping in the crib while she took a bath. Her husband, Peter, had just come home from night duty at a call center and was sleeping in bed. Her other child, two-year old Aisa, was also sleeping. After her bath, she went back to the room to check on her children and found Alyana with a reddish discolouration on her face, while Aisa was awake and playing in bed. There was a rattle beside Alyana. Lisa assumed that Aisa had hit Alyana with the rattle since Aisa had been jealous of the new baby. Asia would bite Alyana when their mother cuddled her. After a few hours, Lisa noticed that Alyana was not crying to be fed. She tried to breastfeed but Alyana was too sleepy. The bruise was also larger and more purplish. Lisa woke her husband up and they took Alyana to a nearby hospital. At the hospital, Alyana was found to be drowsy and hard to wake up. The left side of her head and face was swollen with purplish discolouration and a bony depression. CT scan revealed complex fractures and massive bleeding on the left side of the head. A skeletal survey showed multiple fractures in the ribs. The medical evaluation was consistent with abusive head trauma and the physician notified social services.

Emotional Violence

This systematic review explored 15 studies that included measurements of emotional violence. Emotional violence, also referred to as 'psychological', 'mental', or 'verbal abuse', includes scaring, terrorizing, threatening, rejecting, isolating, ignoring, insulting, humiliating and ridiculing a child (UNICEF EAPRO, 2014b). Many other forms of violence and neglect also have emotional violence elements, including neglecting the health or educational needs of a child, exposing a child to domestic violence, and psychological bullying (UNICEF, 2014a).

In the Philippines, emotional violence is referred to as 'psychological violence' under the Anti-Violence against Women and Children Act, which refers to "acts or omissions causing or likely to cause mental or emotional suffering of the victim … It includes causing or allowing the victim to witness the physical, sexual or psychological abuse of a member of the family to which the victim belongs, or to witness pornography in any form or to witness abusive injury to pets or to unlawful or unwanted deprivation of the right to custody and/or visitation of common children (see definitions section)." In the Philippines, the most frequently studied types of emotional violence include verbal abuse and psychological aggression as a form of violent discipline.

Key risk factors include children's negative behaviour, parental histories of violence, and the belief that forms of emotional violence are "natural reactions" to situations (and not regarded as violence), particularly by teachers. Further research is needed to identify the risk and protective factors of emotional violence in the Philippines, especially as this form of violence is responsible for the largest burden of mental ill-health and self-harm in the region.

Emotional violence is an understudied form of VAC in the Philippines. Of the 15 studies included in this systematic review, only five focus mainly on some form of emotional violence, and all five deal with verbal VAC. There is a research gap in the Philippines related to understanding the risk and protective factors related to emotional violence, and how these may be different for boys and girls at different ages.

Emotional VAC is responsible for a large proportion of mental ill-health and self-harm in the region. A regional burden of child maltreatment study estimated that 37 per cent of all mental disorders in adult men and 30.5 per cent of all mental disorders in adult females were attributable to experiencing childhood emotional abuse (Fang et al., 2015). Similarly, 26 per cent of self-harming behaviours among men and 28 per cent among women were attributed to emotional violence during childhood (Fang et al., 2015).

Chapter Summary

Children in the Philippines may experience sexual, physical, and emotional violence. The NDHS shows an increasing trend in childhood sexual abuse between 2008 and 2013. Potential drivers of sexual abuse include the culture of silence around the subject, legislation including the minimum age of sexual consent and statutory rape, and vulnerability. While in the Philippines, physical VAC occurs most often in the home in the form of violent discipline, the primary perpetrators are other children and young people. There is also a social norm that parents and teachers will use corporal punishment. The most frequent forms of emotional violence in the Philippines are verbal abuse and psychological aggression as a form of violent discipline.

Relationships

Mothers and Children

The roles of Filipino mothers and fathers generally follow traditional gender lines. According to a review on parenting in the Philippines and other studies, Filipino mothers (like mothers in most other cultures) are the primary caretakers of children, and are responsible for their everyday care relating to daily activities, education and health (Alampay, 2013; Dela Cruz et al. 2001; Medina 2001). Mothers are called *ilaw ng tahanan* ("light of the home"), while fathers are called *haligi ng tahanan* ("pillar of the home"); revealing the two ideals of mother as nurturer and father as provider (Alampay, 2013).

Gendered parenting roles remain the norm despite women becoming more equal providers. In the Philippines, these traditional gender roles, specifically around being the provider of the family, are changing. Nearly half of Filipino women work, and more than a third of families include dual-earning couples (Ortega and Hechanova, 2010 as cited in Alampay, 2013). Despite the fact that more mothers are contributing to the economic provision of the household, working mothers are still expected to take primary responsibility over the care of children and management of the household.

These gendered role expectations are also seen among Filipino mothers who seek employment abroad. There were 10.48 million overseas Filipino workers in 2012. Some 70 per cent were aged between 25 and 44, and the majority were women (House of Representatives, 2014). Mothers who leave their families for overseas work often do so to support a better education and life opportunities for their families (Parreñas, 2006). Overseas mothers are still expected to maintain her primary role as nurturer and caretaker from a distance, ensuring that daily needs and activities are being met and maintaining an emotional connection with her children (Parreñas, 2006). Children in migrant-mother families were likely to see migrant-mother families as abnormal, and to feel that their care had been inadequate (Parreñas, 2006), largely because they are not seen as meeting the traditional mother's role (Alampay, 2013).

There is a co-existence of traditional and modern beliefs about parenting roles, particularly for mothers. A longitudinal study on parenting in the Philippines found that mothers hold relatively more modern views than fathers regarding childrearing, including beliefs about children's autonomy and self- direction. It has been suggested that this may be a result of their greater overall exposure and to child-related media and programmes compared with fathers (Alampay and Jocson, 2011). Although mothers hold more progressive views, authoritarian and progressive attitudes among mothers and fathers do not differ widely (Alampay and Jocson, 2011). A review of parenting in the Philippines suggests that "such a coexistence in both traditional and modern orientations is consistent with models of emotional interdependence (individualist values in families in collectivist societies), and evidence of multiculturalism that arises in societies that are experiencing urbanization and social change" (Alampay, 2013).

Research also shows that a lack of maternal ability to manage anger and irritation predicts child delinquency, suggesting a cycle of causation between harsh parenting and negative behavior in children. The authors tested a model in which Filipino mothers' ability to managing anger and irritation influenced child delinquency via two parenting variables: parental self-efficacy and parental rejection. Structured interviews were conducted twice with 99 mothers, with an interval of one year, with efficacy beliefs and rejection measured in the first year and child delinquency data collected the following year. Path analysis showed that ability to managing anger and irritation negatively predicted child delinquency indirectly through the sequential mediation of parental self-efficacy and parental rejection. Statistics show that child delinquency increases when parent anger and irritation towards the child are high, and this is because parents have less self-efficacy (ability to effectively parent) during periods of high anger, and are also likely to exhibit more rejecting behaviour towards the child. Results provided further evidence of the importance of efficacy beliefs, particularly self-efficacy in managing anger and irritation, and parental self-efficacy, in the domain of child development (Daganzo et al., 2014).

Studies highlight that children feel closer and more open to communication with their mothers. Several studies have found that Filipino children report feeling closer to and more open to communicating with their mothers than fathers (McCann-Erickson, 2006). Adolescents also report the higher visibility or presence of the mother in most aspects of their lives, such as at meal times, taking children to and from school and leisure activities (McCann-Erickson, 2006).

Fathers and Children

According to a review on parenting in the Philippines, fathers play both the role of provider in the family and also the dominant authority figure and disciplinarian (Alampay, 2013). As in many countries, Filipino mothers more often use corporal punishment such as spanking in disciplining children, because they spend more time with their children than the father. However, fathers deliver more severe punishment for more serious misbehaviour (Jocson et al, 2012). Even when the mother is absent, for example when she is an Overseas Filipino Worker (OFW), most fathers will not take on a greater share of care of children. Research shows that in these cases, care is usually transferred to female relatives including grandmothers, aunts and older daughters (Parreñas 2006; Alampay, 2013).

Family decision-making is usually shared between mothers and fathers in the Philippines; in families where it is not, this is a predictor of family violence. Despite the gendered roles around the actual duties of childcare, mothers and fathers report joint decision-making when it comes to the discipline and education of children, and family finances, with the exception of household finances, where mothers are the main decision-makers (Alampay, 2013). Joint decision-making is more likely to be reported by couples with comparatively higher incomes and better education. Despite this, parenting roles in the Philippines are not wholly egalitarian, and may even lead to family violence (Alampay, 2013). A secondary analysis of the 2013 DHS conducted for this report found that in families with at least one child living with the mother and her husband/partner, where only one partner controls the use of the household income, the mother is at an increased risk of experiencing intimate partner violence compared to families where there is joint control. When one person controls income, whether the mother or her partner, the mother is 1.6 times more likely to experience sexual violence from her partner, 1.2 times more likely to experience controlling violence and 1.4 times more likely to experience physical violence.

Furthermore, even with joint decision-making, fathers still hold dominance and authority that is recognized in the public and social spheres (Enrile and Agbayani, 2007). The Family Code of the Republic of the Philippines exemplifies this social norm of paternal control:

> "The father and the mother shall jointly exercise parental authority over the persons of their common children. In case of disagreement, the father's decision shall prevail…" (Article 211 of the 1987 Family Code of the Republic of the Philippines, 1987 as cited in Alampay, 2013).

Children report a lack of emotional engagement with their fathers. Several studies have highlighted that children, particularly adolescents, lack emotional intimacy or closeness with their fathers, and experience more restricted communication (McCann-Erickson Philippines, 2006; Parrenas, 2006). A recent review of parenting in the Philippines suggests that this pattern may be changing, with new data showing that more adolescents are reporting the presence of their fathers in various regular activities in their lives, such as going to church and helping with studies or homework (McCann-Erickson Philippines 2006).

Filipino fathers' confidence in their ability to parent their child effectively is a moderating factor in children's negative behaviour, stressful life events and the use of harsh parenting. A study of 117 mothers and 98 fathers (repeated a year later with 107 mothers and 83 fathers) showed that for fathers, their child's externalizing ('acting out') behaviour and experience of stressful life events predicted their use of hostility and aggression. In addition, fathers who believed in their own parental abilities (that is, their self-efficacy) were more likely to experience less hostility and aggression towards their children during stressful life events than those who did not (Garcia and Alampay, 2012). This provides important information for parenting programmes, suggesting they may be effective if targeted at fathers.

Siblings and other Family Members

The friendly Filipino nature is seen in the common family structures. It is not uncommon to find extended family living close or even in the same house. Domestic workers called 'kasambahay' who are paid to do household chores may live with the family. 'Yaya' are domestic workers specifically for raising children. More affluent families may even have drivers for their cars living at their house. Children may stay with parents rather than move-out. The multitude of people in the Filipino household exposes children to increased chance of abuse.

Violence between siblings is an under-researched area. Age is an important determinant to hierarchy in Filipino society that pervades into sibling relationships at home. Older siblings are given special responsibilities and duties over younger siblings (Mulder, 1997). There have been very few studies on violence between siblings in the Philippines. In a survey of physical abuse among 190 fourth year high school students in Davao City (Fernandez et al., 2004), 27 respondents revealed that they have been physically abusing someone. The target of abuse was usually other siblings (78 per cent). Emotional maltreatment between siblings is often not recognized as a form of violence. This is because children are used to seeing abusive acts, and do not view them as forms of violence but as acts of discipline (Lagon, Interone, and Tumapon, 2015).

Partners and Peers

Barkada (peer groups) during adolescence are source of social activities and support for exploration and experimentation. They are also avenues for romantic relationships and help maintain or end these relationships. Barkada are usually formed with those of the same social environment, attitude and demographic profile. Adolescents are usually susceptible to conformity within the peer group in matters such as sex, and females are pressured more than males into premarital sex (Ujano-Batangan, 2012).

There are social and legal norms that place a high value on being sexually 'chaste', especially among adolescent females. In the Philippines, the influence of Christianity, particularly the Catholic Church, has entrenched a traditional norm of heterosexuality and sex within a monogamous marriage (Leyson, 2006). Children are seen as a blessing from God and an inspiration to do well in life (Mulder, 1997). Children raised in traditional families are socialized to adopt conservative views, such as the importance of virginity before marriage and traditional gender roles whereby girls play with dolls and boys with toy guns (Leyson, 2006). However, sexual norms and gender dynamics are changing. Attitudes toward sex are becoming more liberal and accepting (Leyson, 2006). These changes are happening in the context of rapid urbanization, globalization and the Internet (Medina, 2001).

Although traditional norms persist, a study by Gipson et al, on the changing context of adolescent partnerships in Cebu found that "despite the disapproval of premarital sex, even among younger generations, the majority of respondents (64 per cent of males and 44 per cent of females)… reported that they had sex before entering into a formal partnership, either cohabitation or marriage" (Gipson, Gultiano, Avila, and Hindin 2012). The same study found that the pressure to conform to traditional norms seems more pronounced in young women than young men, and that young women are "more concerned about protecting their reputation as a proper or chaste woman by preservation of virginity and reluctance to exhibit knowledge of or to discuss contraception with a partner" (Gipson, Gultiano, Avila, and Hindin 2012). These social norms are replicated in legal norms that mention chastity.

In the Philippines, girls aged 15 to 19 experience the highest past year prevalence of intimate partner violence. The 2013 NDHS asked specifically on violence against women, including adolescents aged 15 to 19. The results showed that by age group, women aged 15 to 19 are slightly less likely than older women to have ever experienced physical violence after the age of 15 (17 per cent, compared to 21 per cent). On the other hand, women aged 15 to 19 were more likely to have experienced violence in the 12 months preceding the survey (8 per cent). Among never-married women, the most commonly reported perpetrators of sexual violence were current or former boyfriends (42 per cent), other relatives (14 per cent), a friend or acquaintance (11 per cent), and employers or someone at work (11 per cent) (PSA and ICF International, 2014).

Child sexual abuse is a factor contributing to risky sexual behaviour in adolescents, which in turn presents a risk for experiencing intimate partner violence. In the secondary analysis of the 2013 NDHS data (PSA and ICF International, 2014) commissioned for this report, child sexual abuse and family violence experiences were identified as significant risk factors for risky sexual behaviour, including sex at an early age and early cohabitation, which can put children at risk of further

sexual, physical and emotional abuse. Nearly a third of respondents (29.4 per cent) that reported experiencing child sexual abuse also reported their age at first sexual intercourse as under 16, compared to the median age for all survey respondents of 21.5 years (PSA and ICF International, 2014). This question did not indicate whether this was their age at first consensual sex, and it is impossible to determine how many respondents may have included their experience of abuse in their response. However, if we examine the age at first cohabitation, we find that a similar proportion (27 per cent) of those who had experienced sexual abuse in childhood also reported cohabitating with a partner before the age of 16. We find much smaller percentages for those that had witnessed family violence in the form of their father beating their mother, with 7 per cent reporting first having sex at under 16, and another 7 per cent reporting cohabitation before the age of 16.

Table 1 highlights these associations and shows that respondents who reported experiencing child sexual abuse before the age of 16 were four times more likely to also report having sex before the age of 16 than their peers who had not experienced sexual abuse. They are also 3.5 times more likely to report cohabitating with a partner before the age of 16.

Table 1. Child sexual abuse as a risk factor for early co-habitation and/or early sexual initiation (2013 NDHS)

Characteristic	Age at First Sex <16		Age at First Cohabitation <16	
	Odds Ratio Adjusted (95% CI)	Odds Ratio * (95% CI)	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted Odds (95% CI)
Child sexual abuse below the age of 16	**4.03** **(2.61 – 6.21)a**	**4.19** **(2.66 – 6.59)**	**3.61** **(2.21 – 5.89)c**	**3.49** **(2.11 – 5.75)**
Witnessing family violence	**1.24** (1.01 – 1.51)b	1.19 (0.97 – 1.46)	1.12 (0.90 – 1.39)d	1.11 (0.89 – 1.39)

*Controlled for Wealth Index/SES, an=825, bn=10671, cn=717, dn=8005, bolded text presents significant values p < .001

We know from international literature that early sexual initiation and early cohabitation can have significant health and well-being consequences for children and put them at further risk of abuse, including by intimate partners (Hoeffler and Fearon, 2014). Early cohabitation is also associated with early marriage, which has consequences for children including being more likely to be infected with HIV and other sexually transmitted infections, because they have less power to negotiate safer sex, and other risk factors that relate to early childbearing, such as obstetric complications (UNICEF 2013; Innocenti, 2001).

Risky sexual behaviour and violence among adolescents contribute to the Philippines having one of the fastest growing HIV epidemics in the world. The Philippines, with a record of 22 new cases of infection every day (HIV/AIDS and ART Registry of the Philippines [HARP] Dec 2015), has one of the fastest growing HIV epidemics in the world. While prevalence remains below 1 per cent in the general population, it is rapidly expanding among five key populations identified in the Health Sector Strategic Plan for HIV and Sexually Transmitted Diseases 2015-2020, among which young people (at high risk) feature along with men who have sex with men (MSM), injecting drug users, freelance female sexual workers and transgender women. The main transmission mode by far is unprotected male-male sex, followed by male-female sex and using injectable drugs. There is a clear trend of new HIV infections occurring at a younger age.

Young people aged 15 to 24 are particularly exposed to HIV because of their early and massive engagement into high-risk behaviour. Most MSM and freelance female sexual workers were 17 or younger at first sexual experience, while one out of three injecting drug users started injecting drugs before the age of 17. Their youth increases their vulnerability to HIV. Age-disaggregated data for key populations consistently shows that younger people are: less knowledgeable about HIV; are less aware of or likely to access services including HIV testing and counselling, and antiretroviral therapy; and less likely to access to key commodities such as condoms, lubricants and syringes. Moreover, youths often have the erroneous perception of not being at risk of contracting HIV, and are in a weak position to negotiate the use of a condom with an elder paying or non-paying partner (Integrated HIV Behavioral and Serologic Surveillance [IHBSS] 2014).

For nearly a third of adolescent females in the Philippines, their first sexual encounter is unwanted. Data from the Philippines also highlights that early sexual initiation is a risk factor for coerced initial sex (Sano et al.,2008). Nearly 30 per cent of young women describe their first sexual encounter as consensual but unwanted, whereas 2 per cent report their first sexual encounter as physically and verbally forced, commonly by their intimate partners (Ramiro 2005; Ramiro et al. 1998; Raymundo and Cruz, 2004).

In a study of 3,597 students aged between 13 and 24 from 28 public and private schools and universities in the Philippines who had reported having already had sex 42.6 per cent of males and 41.3 per cent of females reported that the reason for their first sexual relationship related to external pressure. This was defined as at least one of the following reasons for first sex: "Most of my friends already had sex"; "I wanted to be more popular"; "I was afraid to lose him/her"; and "I did not know how to say no to a person who insisted" (Osorio et al., 2012). Another 39 per cent of males reported that the reason for their first sexual relationship was that they got carried away by sexual arousal (Osorio et al., 2012). Of all these young people who had been sexually active, slightly more females (24.7 per cent) than males (20.5 per cent) said they regretted having sex (Osorio et al., 2012). Among the young people in this study, those who had sex at least once with their boyfriend or girlfriend without consent were twice as likely to say they regretted having sex than those who did not have non-consensual sex (Osario et al., 2012). Similarly, young people who did not know how to refuse a person who insisted on having sex were nearly twice as likely to regret having sex as their peers who successfully resisted sex (Osario et al., 2012).

Adolescents cannot access contraceptive methods or HIV testing without written parental consent. In the Philippines, both the Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act of 2012 (Republic Act No. 10354) and the Philippine AIDS Prevention and Control Act of 1998 (Republic ActNo. 8504) stipulate that written parental or guardian consent is required for minors to access contraceptive methods and HIV tests. Very few of the 10.2 million adolescents aged 15 to 19 try to obtain such consent and therefore do not access life-saving contraception services and HIV tests. Therefore, these restrictive laws enhance their vulnerability to early pregnancy and transmission of sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS. This heavily impinges on their basic right to health and their ability to make decisions over their own future. Both teen pregnancy and HIV/AIDS among adolescents are major public health concerns, and the Philippines is left behind compared to the encouraging global trends of reduced adolescent pregnancy and stagnation or fewer new HIV cases.

While most countries have reported downward trends in the adolescent fertility rate over the last two decades, the Philippines registered an increase to 61 births per 1,000 adolescent girls as of 2014 (World Bank Database). In 2013, 13.6 per cent of adolescents aged 15 to 19 were pregnant or had had children, compared to 6.3 per cent in 2002 (YAFS, 2013), and one in three Filipino girls had begun childbearing by the age of 19 (35.6 per cent). One of the factors explaining increased pregnancy among adolescents is the growing proportion of adolescents who are sexually active before 18 (from 16.3 per cent in 2002 to 23 per cent in 2013). In addition, adolescents aged 15

to 19 are ill-prepared on sex-related topics. Only one in five (20.8 per cent) feels that they have adequate knowledge about sex, but the actual level of accurate knowledge seems even lower, with only 13.3 per cent of adolescents able to identify when pregnancy is likely to occur. Most adolescents resolve their inquiries through friends, a few consult their mothers, and 21.2 per cent have no one to consult. Interestingly, the proportion of youths who have ever discussed sex at home, or who can identify someone at school they could consult on sex-related issues, is decreasing over time.

Child Protection Unit Case Studies: Shirley's Story

Shirley is 13 years old and three months pregnant. An obstetrician referred her to CPU for evaluation. Shirley met her boyfriend, Brian (aged 22), through Facebook four months ago. They became chat mates and agreed to meet each other after a few weeks. One day, Shirley's teacher notified her mother that Shirley had been cutting class. Shirley's mother investigated and found a text message on her mobile phone, in which Shirley was worried about being pregnant. Shirley's mother did a pregnancy test and confirmed the pregnancy.

Shirley is in Grade 7 and doing well in school. She rarely goes out of the house and spends most of her free time online. She lives with her parents and brother. Her parents own a small store, which supports most of their needs. Shirley gets along with her brother but their mother spanks them when they fight.

Adolescent pregnancy is both a major public health and social concern. Pregnancy at a young age puts the mother and the child´s health at higher risk of complications. From a societal perspective, early child bearing is associated with lower educational attainment and employment opportunities for the young mother, which often translates into meager income, fueling the poverty cycle.

Chapter Summary

Even though women are becoming more equal economic providers in the Philippines, traditional genders norms, whereby mothers are the primary caretakers of children, are firmly established. This extends even to mothers who are working abroad to support their families. While fathers tend to be the dominant authority figures in the family, research shows that they do not take on an equal share of caring for children; even when the mother is absent, this work is usually taken on by other women in the family. Analysis of the 2013 DHS shows that when only one parent controls household income, there is increased risk of domestic violence. Violence between siblings is an under-researched area, and may not be recognized as a form of violence but rather a form of discipline. Although there are established social and legal norms around being 'chaste' (especially among adolescent females), it is this group that experiences the highest rate of intimate partner violence, according to the 2013 DHS. Analysis of this survey also indicates that child sexual abuse is a driver of risky sexual behavior among adolescents, possibly leading to a heightened risk of intimate partner violence. The Philippines has one of the fastest growing HIV epidemics in the world. The drivers of this phenomenon include early engagement in risky sexual behavior, a lack of knowledge about sexually transmitted diseases, inadequate access to reproductive health counselling, and the fact that adolescents have to obtain written parental consent to obtain contraception. The first sexual experience for nearly a third of adolescent females in the Philippines is unwanted.

CHAPTER 7.
The Age/Gender Connection

The Gender Paradox in the Philippines

Key indicators of gender equity are higher in the Philippines than other countries in the Asia-Pacific region. Gender equity is generally better in the Philippines than most countries. According to the 2014 Global Gender Gap Report by the World Economic Forum, the Philippines ranks ninth overall in gender equity, with a score of 0.7814. It has had good gender equity indicators since 2006, and leads the Asia and the Pacific region. The Philippines is also one of the leading countries in terms of gender equity in education. Literacy rate and enrollment in schools at all levels is higher for females than males, and drop-out rates are higher for males. The difference in enrollment is greatest for tertiary education, where the female-to-male ratio is 1.24 (WEC, 2014). More females are employed as professional and technical workers than males. Males, however, are still paid more than females for the same type of work (WEC, 2014).

Mason (1996), in her five-country study on power and gender, notes that women in the Philippines have more autonomy than most Asian women. The country is known for its strong women's liberation movement and through these avenues, Filipino women have asserted their rights and have made significant inroads into the social, political and economic spheres of national development (Mason, 1996 as cited in Serquina-Ramiro et al., 2004).

Although gender equity in the Philippines is high, there are still significant differences between females and males in the frequency and severity of experiences relating to age and type of abuse. Both female and male children are vulnerable to verbal, physical and sexual violence at home, school and in the community. As shown in other sections of this report, girls are most vulnerable to sexual exploitation, verbal bullying, emotional abuse and sexual abuse in the home, while boys experience physical violence, violent discipline and physical bullying more frequently.

Themes of autonomy and control dominate gender-differentiated childrearing practices in the Philippines. According to a comprehensive review of parenting, Filipino boys and girls are granted different degrees of freedom and restriction, with boys given more leeway in expectations and behaviour, and even in aggressive and sexual transgressions (Alampay, 2013). In contrast, parents are more likely to set restrictions for girls, heightened especially during adolescence when they reach sexual maturity and may become sexually active (Medina, 2001; Alampay, 2013). These restrictions, while not unique to the Philippines, are often motivated by parents' protectiveness over their daughters' well-being and reputation, but also reflect the double standard that the family honour rests on the daughters' behaviour (Tan et al., 2001; Alampay, 2013). A review of existing studies found that these differing gender standards are generally the norm regardless of urban or rural residence, socioeconomic status or religion (Alampay, 2013).

Convicted child sexual abuse offenders strongly adhere to gendered stereotypes of roles between men and women, and justify abuse through the power of men over women and children. There are very few studies of convicted offenders that examine their thoughts and beliefs about what drives VAC. A case series of eight convicted male child sexual abuse perpetrators from the New Bilibid Prison and Parole and Probation Office 2 was conducted, which explored their views of gender and its contribution to their abusive behaviour. These men held strongly stereotyped views that only considered men as breadwinners, decision-makers, dominant, powerful, aggressive and assertive, and women as passive, obedient, loyal, forgiving and self-sacrificing for the family (Chua, Garcia and Viella, 1998). These stereotypes promoted the feeling of power in the men over women and children, which they used to justify their abuse (Chua, Garcia, and Viella, 1998).

Gender and Sexuality

Sexuality is rarely discussed and when it is, it is closely tied to notions of masculinity and femininity. While there is no term for 'sexuality' in any of the Philippine languages, local languages often describe sexual orientation in terms of masculinity and femininity. Within this concept, for men, being heterosexual is often understood in terms of one's gender characteristics, such as masculine appearance, reproductive capacity and physical strength (Davis and Miles, 2015). The most commonly used word for 'heterosexual' in the Filipino (Tagalog) language is '*tunay na lalake*', which literally translates as 'real man'. Beyond this, there is also strong societal pressure to become *ganap na lalake*, or an 'actualized man'. This is one with the ability to fulfill the responsibilities expected of him by society, make a family of his own and provide for them. Failure to do this often brings reproach and disparagement from his peers (Social Development Research Center, 2000; Davis and Miles, 2015).

There is a third gender in the Philippines that is considered neither fully male or female. The common Filipino term for 'homosexual' is *bakla*, which is an ambiguous term encompassing homosexuality, hermaphroditism, cross-dressing and effeminacy (Manalansan, 2013, xi). This essentially categorizes individuals as members of a third gender that is neither fully male nor female. It is important to point out that being *bakla* is not synonymous with being transgender, and the *bakla* label may be applied to any gay and/or effeminate man (Davis and Miles, 2015). While men who are *bakla* are culturally understood to be a biological man with the *loob* (inner-self) of a woman, they may not always dress, act or even think of themselves as women (Davis and Miles, 2015).

MSM are fueling the rising HIV rates in the country. These men are young, primarily in transactional relationships and the risk of violence against boys in in same-sex relationships is high (Tan, 2001). Research highlights that there is a common cultural understanding of same-sex sexuality in the Philippines, in that a *bakla* is understood to partner with a 'real man' (read: straight man) for romantic relationships and sex, often providing the man with some form of compensation, either in cash or in-kind (Tan, 2001). These relationships are considered to be one-way, with the *bakla* being expected to love, pay, and often support the man without reciprocation. Qualitative research highlights that if the 'real man' loves the *bakla*, he is believed to jeopardize his masculinity, and risks becoming bakla himself (Tan, 2001). The use of alcohol is often cited among men who are paid to have sex with *bakla* as a means of distancing themselves from the relationship, and as a way to ensure the encounter is purely transactional (Tan, 2001).

These interactions underpin the growing trend regarding MSM in the Philippines. It also brings to fore the issue of sexual crossover (heterosexual/homosexual network mixing), where MSM may also have heterosexual marriages and partnerships, which can also increase HIV/AIDS transmission (Varga and Zosa-Feranil 2003). YAFS 4 conducted by the Demographic Research and Development Foundation Inc. (2014) found that there are more than 500,000 young MSM in the country. In 2013, the Department of Health (DOH) conducted the IHBSS of MSM aged between 15 and 75, with a median age of 22. As a group, younger males were less knowledgeable about services for STI, particularly HIV (DOH, 2013). It has been shown that unprotected sex between men is one of the drivers of the growing HIV epidemic in the Philippines (DOH, 2013), and the Philippines is one of only a handful of countries with a rising HIV rate. In addition, since some of the MSM are children, the risk of violence against boys in this group is high (Hernandez & Imperial, 2009; Holmes, 2015).
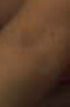
CHAPTER 8.
Prevention

A review of programmes implemented by the Government and NGOs identified several that can serve as primary prevention programmes for child maltreatment, although this was not the main objective of this review These include programmes on responsible parenting, maternal and neonatal health, safe motherhood and women's health, adolescent and youth heath and development, breastfeeding, immunization, feeding, early childhood education, and parental effectiveness. Two programmes were piloted by an NGO in one city that could be considered child maltreatment prevention programmes. However, they were not continued by the local government due to a lack of resources and capacity. Moreover, local leaders did not consider them priority programmes (Madrid et al., 2012). Very few child maltreatment prevention programmes have been evaluated.

Conditional Cash Transfer Programme

Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) is the Philippine Government's conditional cash transfer programme that invests in the health and education of children from poor households to break the intergenerational transmission of poverty, while also providing cash assistance to meet immediate needs (short-term poverty alleviation). Specifically, the programme aims to keep children in school, keep them healthy, and invest in their future. The 4Ps programme is an important part of the Government's efforts to address chronic poverty and to meet the Millennium Development Goals of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, achieving universal primary education, gender equality, reduced child mortality, and improved maternal health. Poor households (those with a predicted income below the official provincial poverty threshold) are selected through a combination of geographical targeting and proxy means testing, known as the National Household Targeting System for Poverty Reduction (NHTS-PR). On its launch in 2008, poor households with a pregnant mother at the time of the NHTS-PR and/or children aged between 0 and 14 years were eligible to enrol in the programme.

> ### Case Study: Social Protection as a means of protecting children
>
> Jana, a 14-year-old girl, was trafficked to Manila from Leyte and forced to work in prostitution. She was seen at the CPU after she escaped from the traffickers after 3 months of captivity. While undergoing treatment in the hospital ward, Jana was spirited out of the hospital by her aunt who did not want to cooperate with the investigation. Jana was found by the local social worker back in Leyte after it was discovered that her family was a recipient of the 4Ps conditional cash transfer programme. Working with the Municipal Link of the 4Ps, Jana was enrolled into the programme and included in the monitoring. She was able to access health services and enroll in high school, since these were conditions of the programme. Even in the aftermath of Typhoon Yolanda (Haiyan), Jana and her family were found and she continued to remain in school. *Case from the WCPU, Manila*

The components of the 4Ps are directed towards parents, pregnant women and children. Cash grants are disbursed upon verification of compliance with health and education conditions, which are concerned with promoting healthy practices, improving the nutritional status of young children, increasing the use of health services, and improving school attendance. An important condition of the health transfer is monthly attendance at Family Development Sessions (FDS) by the household grantee (mother) and/or spouse, which cover topics on parenting, husband and wife relationships, child development and child rights. FDS are compulsory for the four million families who are part of the 4Ps, and thus potentially significant in providing parenting support, but have not been formally evaluated to date, so it is not possible to measure their impact. Although there were plans in place in 2015 to conduct an assessment of the programme, the evaluation has been repeatedly postponed and it is not clear if it will proceed with the election of a new administration in mid-2016.

The prevention of VAC is not explicitly stated as an objective, but the programme has several outcomes that contribute to preventing child maltreatment (early childhood education and care, and poverty alleviation). A Social Protection/Child Protection study (Lebegue, 2016) conducted for UNICEF in 2016 determined that the child protection messages in the FDS need to be strengthened.

An impact evaluation was conducted in 2011 as the first part of a three-wave evaluation study to assess the programme's effectiveness in helping to keep children in school and healthy, and increasing investment in the children. Using a Randomized Control Trials design, the evaluation study examined the impact of the programme on implementation sites in the first phase of the programme, known as 'Set 1' areas, covering a total of 3,742 households in eight municipalities. The treatment sites were exposed to the programme for 2.5 years, while the control group consisted of poor localities where the programme was purposefully withheld for the purpose of impact evaluation.

The results showed that *Pantawid Pamilya* is meeting most of its objectives after more than two years of implementation. It is helping to keep younger in children in school (improved school enrolment for younger age groups and improved school attendance for all age groups except the youngest preschool/daycare-aged group). It is also helping to keep children healthy (improved long-tern nutritional status of children aged 6 to 36 months, and improving the use of maternal and child health services (antenatal care, postnatal care, regular growth monitoring, receipt of Vitamin A and deworming pills, and increased healthcare-seeking behaviour among beneficiaries when their children become ill). Reduction in severe stunting among children aged 6 to 36 months showed that families are able to care for their children in a consistent and sustained manner, and this was attributed to supplemental cash and improved feeding practices from parenting education during FDS.

The programme achieved its goal promoting investments in the future of children as shown by a shift in spending patterns towards health and education and less on adult goods. The study also found increased reported coverage of PhilHealth, leading to better access to social services for the poor. No gender differences were found in programme impacts on outcomes related to education and health service use (Chaudhury et al., 2013).

The programme was unable to keep older children in school and this was attributed to the higher cost of schooling for older children as well as the programme age limit (14 years). In 2014, the programme extended its coverage to include children aged 14 to 18 (Bruckauf, 2015).

The 4Ps is now on its 8th year of implementation. As of December 31, 2015, it covered 41,519 barangays in all 144 cities and 1,483 municipalities in 80 provinces nationwide (DSWD, 2015). Of 63 countries that have a conditional cash transfer programme, Pantawid Pamilya is the largest (Schelzig, 2015). The current conditions include: 1) pregnant women must avail themselves of pre- and post-natal care and be attended during childbirth by a trained health professional; 2) parents

must attend FDS; 3) 0 to 5-year-old children must receive regular preventive health check-ups and vaccines; 4) children aged 6 to 14 years must receive deworming pills twice a year; and 5) all child beneficiaries (0-18 years) must enrol in school and maintain a class attendance of at least 85 per cent per month (DSWD, 2015).

Parenting Support

In the Philippines, parenting support is provided by the Government through the Parent Effectiveness Service (PES), which was first developed by DSWD in 1978 to support families with young children at the *barangay* level. It was reintroduced in 1991 as a component of early childhood education, and included a neighborhood parent effectiveness assembly, daycare service groups, home-visiting sessions for parents, training of community volunteers, and lectures broadcast on radio targeting parents and caregivers. Early evaluations of the programme showed more success in raising awareness and knowledge of health care, parenting rights and early childhood care and development than actually providing parents with specific skills in handling child behavior and husband-wife relationships.

At present, PES is delivered under the Family Development Service of *Pantawid Pamilya* programme, and includes topics such as understanding the dynamics of the Filipino family, the challenges of parenting (roles as a parent, Filipino laws on parenting, parenting styles, gender-sensitive partnership between husband and wife, strengthening the parent-child relationship), child development, keeping a child safe from violence, building positive behavior in children, health and nutrition, home management (time and financial management, basic stress management techniques) and keeping a healthy environment for children. PES is delivered based on a thematic manual, with nine units serving as the main instructional material. However, there is no standardized guidance on the method of instruction of the course and delivery may vary between areas (Bruckauf, 2015).

While the impact evaluation of the conditional cash transfer programme did not directly assess the effectiveness of the FDS, increased reported coverage of social health insurance PhilHealth among the Pantawid Pamilya barangays was attributed to greater awareness and access to information gained during the FDS. These sessions are recognized as potentially powerful platforms for disseminating information on good parenting practices and promoting access to social services (Chaudhury et al., 2013). High compliance rates were reported on attendance to FDS (95.11 per cent) in October and November 2015 (DSWD, 2015).

Potential of 4Ps for scaling up an evidence-based Parenting Programme

The 4Ps requires all recipients to participate in monthly Family Development Sessions conducted by the DSWD and partner-NGOs in coordination with the private sector and civil society organizations. They provide a venue for the discussion of topics including effective parenting, husband and wife relationships, child development, laws affecting the Filipino family, gender and development, home management, active citizenship, and electoral education. The programme covers 10,235,658 schoolchildren aged 0 to 18, with an average of two to three children per household. Recognizing the potential for reaching millions of children, a pilot programme is now underway to test an evidence-based parenting programme to become part of the 4Ps Family Development Sessions.

Alongside government efforts, local and international NGOs are also involved in the development and implementation of parenting programmes with a particular focus on positive discipline. These efforts reflect ongoing political will and interest in supporting family and parenting policies and programmes.

Home Visitation Programme

The Healthy Start Program was established in the Philippines by the Consuelo Foundation in 1995, based on a similar programme in Hawaii that was designed to prevent violence and neglect. It enrols high-risk families (characterized by poverty, teenage pregnancy and motherhood, physical and/or sexual domestic violence, social isolation, substance abuse and low use of social services) with a female who is currently pregnant or with a child aged up to 3 years. The programme focuses on increasing positive parenting behaviour and decreasing environmental risk through: 1) increased parental knowledge of child development; 2) games and activities to support healthy development and learning; 3) strengthened family relationships; and 4) increased access to social, medical and employment services. Trained Family Support Workers (FSW) conduct home visits and regular group sessions using a scripted curriculum. 'Growing Great Kids' covers topics directly related to healthy child development, while 'Growing Great Families' focuses on strengthening families. The development of the babies is monitored using the Ages and Stages Questionnaire. FSWs also help families identify objectives for the partner infants of family's development and formulate the Individual Family Service Plan. FSWs also work with programme staff, local government, health workers and communities to advocate for partner families and obtain additional necessary services. As of 2011, the Healthy Start Program was in operation in 14 sites, including urban poor and slum areas, rural communities, isolated tribal groups, and a religious minority group in a conflict area.

An impact evaluation conducted in 2003 found that the Healthy Start programme at the two original sites (Bacolod and Manila) met its objectives in the following four categories: capable family support workers; the number of infants who passed the Ages and Stages Questionnaire; zero incidence of violence and neglect; and low incidence of malnutrition. (Malkin, 2011).

Independent evaluations of approximately 1,200 families in four comparison groups identified outcomes related to potentially countering child maltreatment:[28]
- A decline in malnutrition status at the pilot site from 36 per cent to 26 per cent (Bacolod City);
- 75 per cent of mothers responded in nurturing ways to their babies' cues (Christian Children's Fund);
- 63 per cent of mothers indicated they had stopped unhelpful traditional practices in caring for their young as opposed to 36 per cent of comparison group mothers (Manila);
- 94 per cent used a regular daily routine with their babies as opposed to 48 per cent of non-Growing Great Kids mothers (Manila);
- 7 per cent incidence of child neglect in pilot area acompared to 34 per cent in the control group (Bacolod City);
- In the younger age category, 100 per cent of programme babies had been evaluated to have an average overall development compared with only 89.65 per cent of the control group. Overall development in the older group of children at the pilot site stands at 88.89 per cent, compared to 86.67 per cent of the control group (Manila);

[28] Process Evaluation of Healthy Start Philippine Pilot Sites. Quezon City, Philippines: Consuelo Z. Alger Foundation Inc. 1999; Impact and Effectiveness Evaluation of the Healthy Start Program- Paco. Makati City: Consuelo Foundation. December 2003. Summative and Impact Evaluation of the Healthy Start Program- Bulig . Makati City: Consuelo Foundation. February 2003 Effectiveness and Impact Evaluation of the Healthy Start San Carlos. Makati City: Consuelo Foundation, Inc. 2004 Roldan, A., Baraero, D., and delos Reyes, F. 2000. A Multidimensional Context Study of Goals, Resources, Individual Life Experiences, Difficulties, and Strategies (GRIDS) of Childbearing Low-income Families in Metro Manila: the Needs of the Very Young in Focus. Makati City Phils. Commisioned by A.R.C.S.; Editha Maslang. 2001. Assessment Report of the Growing Great Families Project. Pasig City, Phils. Commissioned by the Christian Children's Fund-The Philippine Office.)

- 74 per cent of parents said they understood what to do to stimulate healthy brain development in their children (Christian Children's Fund);
- 73.7 per cent of mothers at the pilot site availed themselves of family planning paraphernalia, compared to only 50 per cent of the control group (Bacolod City);
- 98 per cent of enrolled mothers paticipated in a prenatal seminar. Postpartum check-up is high at the pilot site (59 per cent) compared to 44 per cent of control group mothers (Bacolod City);
- The majority of parents participating in the four Christian Children's Fund programmes stated that as a result of their participation in Growing Great Kids they learned to respond to the emotional needs of their children, whereas prior to their participation, they believed that providing for food, clothing and shelter was enough;
- Improved knowledge on childcare is considered by 93 per cent of the mothers as the most important learning of the project. Some 76 per cent of enrolled fathers saw better parent-child relationships as the most important benefit(Bacolod City);
- Enrolled families claimed to be better off than non-programme parents in terms of: level of knowledge in childrearing; increased access of high-risk families to basic social and health services for all family members; and improved marital relations (Manila);
- Immediate outcomes of the project were identified as: 1) better communication and problem-solving within the family; 2) parents exhibited more nurturing and emphatic relationships with children; 4) non-violent methods of discipline; 5) shared parenting responsibilities; 6) identified medical service providers and referrals and link to appropriate community services; and 7) increased family planning information (San Carlos City).

While a full impact evaluation of the programme has not been conducted, Consuelo Foundation conducts annual monitoring and evaluation of the Healthy Start Program. Generalized evaluation data from 2002 also reports that compared to community data, the following positive effects of the programme were observed:[29]
- Improved general health and welfare of children (for example, completion or near completion of the immunization schedule, decreased malnutrition and child mortality);
- Improved childcare practices (increased breastfeeding, increased use of regular daily routines with babies, increased time dedicated to stimulation and play);
- Increased use of non-violent disciplinary methods;
- Improved safety in the home and community;
- Increased utilization of healthcare services;
- Increased sharing of child-rearing responsibilities between parents;
- Improved conflict management and problem-solving;
- Stronger parental support systems for infants (for example, decreased maternal depression);
- Deeper parental understanding of brain development;
- Improved parental understanding of the importance of the first three years of life;
- Increased community support for positive child development.

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[29] Consuelo Foundation. (2010, August). Presentation on Healthy Start. PowerPoint presented during the introduction to the Consuelo Foundation and the Healthy Start programme in Manila, Philippines.

CHAPTER 9.
Unique and Emerging Issues and Areas for Further Research

This section identifies key themes emerging from studies relating to child protection issues that are unique to the Philippines. Although relatively few studies address these issues, they are of particular interest as new threats or new settings where VAC takes place.

In addition, important areas are identified that need further research, noting that the systematic review has identified few studies to date on these topics, and that they are currently very important for understanding VAC in the Philippines and how best to design prevention and response.

Online Child Protection: A systematic literature review of online child protection found 15 papers on online child sexual abuse and exploitation in the Philippines (UNICEF, unpublished). Composed mainly of grey literature, these papers found that Filipino children commonly engage in risky online behaviour (for example, interacting with strangers and having public social media accounts), and are largely unsupervised when they use the Internet, putting them at risk of online sexual solicitation and grooming. Poverty is a main underlying factor driving online sexual exploitation. Broken homes, poor parenting, consumerism, peer influence, family values and socio-cultural beliefs and norms have been tied to live streaming of online sexual abuse. English proficiency, an existing sex industry and the enormous demand for live streaming of child sexual abuse have also been implicated.

One in four new cases of HIV is reported to involve a young person aged 15 to 24. In 2015, about 10,400 young people were living with HIV (2015 Spectrum estimates) and over a quarter of newly reported HIV cases reported involved a young person aged 15 to 24 (28 per cent) (HARP, Dec 2015). These figures are likely to be underestimates, especially for adolescents (aged 10 to 19) who have no access to HIV testing and counseling without parental or guardian consent. Only 0.2 per cent of women aged 15 to 17 have ever been tested for HIV (NDHS 2014), and modelling suggests that only 16 per cent of new infections among those aged 15 to 19 were diagnosed in 2014 (Department of Health – Epidemiological Bureau). Therefore, the majority of adolescents infected in 2014 are not aware of their status, cannot take appropriate measures to prevent transmission, and do not access care and treatment services. Considering the beneficial use of treatment as a preventive measure to reduce the risk of HIV transmission to others, the impact of the law is far reaching and constitutes a prominent stumbling block in the national HIV response. General awareness of these critical issues is growing, and many citizen groups and youth networks have formed with a clear commitment to pressure the Government to amend the relevant legal texts. However, adolescent sexual and reproductive health is a very sensitive issue, and some segments of the population including some political leaders and government officers are very reluctant to do so. Meanwhile, some local governments have developed practical approaches whereby they provide services to adolescents at high risk of contracting HIV and becoming pregnant, such as those who are already mothers or who are engaged in sex work.

Migration and Children Left Behind
Fourteen papers looked into the impact of migration on children and families left behind, including published studies, literature reviews and agency reports. These studies describe the changes that transnational families undergo, while migrant mothers continue to nurture their children from a distance, and the extended family, particularly women, assume caregiving roles. New communication technologies are important in maintaining transnational families, but do not provide full intimacy. The studies show mixed results with regard to the educational and psychosocial status of left-behind children.

Violence and Exploitation of Children in Emergencies and Natural Disasters
The Philippines ranks fourth in terms of the highest number of weather-related disasters, and is among the top 10 countries with the highest number of people affected by weather-related disasters between 1995 and 2015. Post-disaster violence against Filipino children has rarely been studied. However local agency reports clearly show an increase in the number of rape and sexual abuse cases after the 2013 super typhoon Haiyan ('Yolanda'), the worst natural disaster to hit the country. A needs assessment conducted as part of international humanitarian response also showed that children displayed behavioural changes, were involved in harsh or dangerous labour, were subjected to sexual violence, and were out of school.

Certain practices and events cannot be merely classified under the usual category of violence against children. The extensive literature on some of these issues warrants a separate discussion in order to emphasize their significance in the Philippines.

Important and Identified Areas for Further Research:

1. **Gender and Violence – Understanding Different Risks and Threats Faced by Boys and Girls**
   Preliminary results from the NBS VAC survey show that boys are equally, if not more vulnerable to violence than girls. This is interesting and important, and needs to be further explored, particularly because the systematic literature review did not unearth any significant studies concerning gender and violence in the Philippines and the particular risks and threats faced by boys and girls. Current support services for victims of violence in the Philippines typically target girls and women rather than boys, so there is a need for greater research to understand the threats that boys face, and how to appropriately design services to meet their needs.

   Studies of street-involved children show that boys are more at risk and face systematic violence and exploitation.

   While it is recognized that adolescents in the Philippines have in recent years been at a much higher risk of contracting HIV, and that MSM are the recognized cause in 51 per cent of cases, there has been very little research regarding VAC and MSM in the Philippines.

2. **Social Norms and Violence**
   The systematic literature review did not uncover any studies specifically concerned with social norms and VAC in the Philippines. The research on corporal punishment and violence in the home recognizes that social norms and traditions are in many cases responsible for accepting the kind of violence children may experience at home, and the prevailing culture of silence that discourages speaking out against VAC.

Online Abuse

The Philippines has experienced significant growth in connectivity over the past 10 years. In 2014, there were close to 40 million Internet users, placing the Philippines 14th among the world's Internet users. With Internet penetration at 40 per cent, close to half of the Philippine population is now online (Internet World Stats).

New information and communication technology (ICT) facilitates both existing forms of child abuse and exploitation and gives rise to new types, such as sexting, made-to-order child sexual abuse material and broadcasting of live sexual abuse (UNODC 2015, 21-22).

The fourth YAFS, conducted in 2013 by the University of the Philippines Population Institute (UPPI) and the Demographic Research and Development Foundation, shows that there is high usage of new ICT among youths. More than half (58.9 per cent) use the Internet, with slightly greater use among females (61 per cent) than males (57 per cent) and among the younger (60 per cent) than the older (57 per cent) age group (younger age group aged 15 to 19; older age group aged 20 to 24). About 8 in 10 own a cellular phone, 5 in 10 use social networking sites (including Facebook and Twitter) and have an email account, and 2 in 10 have a personal blog. Females are more likely than males to be using new technology. The average time spent by youths on the Internet is 6 hours per week, with 3.5 per cent online for at least 35 hours per week.

Current academic and gray literature in the Philippines provides information on the following forms of ICT-facilitated abuse and exploitation of children: cyberbullying and Internet harassment; sexting; online grooming, cyber enticement and sexual solicitation; offline sexual abuse facilitated by the Internet and social media; distribution and production of child abuse material; and online commercial sexual exploitation of children (for example, sex tourism, live streaming of child sexual abuse).

Cyberbullying. The PNP Anti-Cybercrime Group (PNP ACG) of lists cyberbullying as a form of cyber danger to children. Cyberbullying is defined by PNP ACG as an act of being cruel to others by sending or posting harmful material or engaging in any form of social cruelty using the internet or other digital technology. Internet or online harassment is experienced by 24 per cent of 224 public and private high school students in Metro Manila, while 13 per cent have felt threatened or embarrassed because someone posted online or sent a message that other people can see (Flores et al., 2009). In a survey of 3,500 children aged 10 to 12, about 4 out of 10 reported experiencing some form of cyberbullying (Stairway Foundation, 2013). Cyberbullying commonly occurs through Facebook, cell phone and email (Witkus, 2012). It has been found to be more prevalent than physical bullying in both public and private schools, possibly owing to the greater anonymity associated with cyberbullying (Ouano et al., 2013). The 2013 YAFS showed that 1 in 10 youths (aged 15-24 years) personally know someone who has been harassed using technology, and about 1 in 20 has experienced being harassed using technology (Ogena, 2013).

Sexting refers to a new form of child abuse and exploitation facilitated by ICT It involves self-generated sexually explicit content. It has been defined as the creating, sharing and forwarding of sexually suggestive nude or nearly nude images through mobile phones and/or the Internet. It typically involves minors and may be regarded as ‚self-produced child pornography'. The mass availability of ICT has contributed to the increased production and widespread distribution of such content (Ainsaar et al., 2011; UNODC 2015, 22). This behaviour has been reported in a sample of 224 public and private junior and senior high school students in Metro Manila, with about 1 per cent reporting posting sensual or provocative pictures of themselves (Flores et al., 2009). In 2012, the Stairway Foundation revealed sexting among Filipino children in an unpublished survey of 3,500 children aged 10 to 12. About 7 per cent of the children from different regions admitted practiced sexting, which was defined as sending out nude photos or videos of themselves to other people

(Diloy 2013, 10). The 2013 YAFS also revealed that 1 in 4 youths has sent or received sex videos (Marquez, 2013).

It is important to note that new forms of sexual activity have emerged among Filipino youth as a result of modern ICT. For example, the 2013 YAFS shows that 1 in 100 youths have recorded themselves having sex, 6 in 100 have engaged in phone sex, and 4 in 100 have had sex with someone they met online or through text messaging (Marquez, 2013). A new form of victimization has also been described, where teenagers expose their private parts or take off their clothes in chat rooms to receive mobile phone credits (Trinidad, 2005).

Online grooming, cyber enticement and solicitation are terms that refer to the use of ICT to communicate with a child for the purpose of sexual violence or exploitation (UNODC 2015). In the study by Flores et al. (2009), one in three respondents had experienced combined sexual solicitation or Internet harassment. In the 2012 Stairway Foundation survey, 28 per cent of 3,500 children aged 10 to 12 said they had been asked to strip online (Diloy, 2013).

Several studies conducted at the Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit (PGH-CPU) document child sexual violence where contact occurred between the perpetrators, who were identified as 'text mates' or 'chat mates', or where the Internet and social media were involved. In a number of cases, mobile phones were used for text messaging, as a bribe in exchange for a sexual favour, or as a device to record a pornographic video of a child (Fresco et al., 2008). Textmates/chatmates have also been implicated in drug-facilitated child sexual violence cases, as perpetrators who the child had met for the first time (Madriñan, 2011). The Internet and social media were involved in 1 per cent of cases reviewed over a five-year period (2009 to 2013). The perpetrators were identified as boyfriends, friends, strangers and chatmates. Social networking sites were most commonly involved, followed by chatting, uploading of pictures and videos on the Internet, and online games (Pantig et al., 2014). Data from the WCPUs from between 2005 and 2012 reveal a steadily increasing number of textmate/chatmate perpetrators (Child Protection Network, 2012).

Sex Tourism. 'Commercial sexual exploitation of children' refers to child prostitution, child trafficking for sexual purposes, production and consumption of child pornography, and child sex tourism (Ainsaar 2011, 16). An Internet search yielded evidence of child sexual exploitation, including sex tourism websites (Umali, 2005). Child sexual violence material, the preferred term to describe sexually explicit representations of children, can be found on the Internet. A random search by a research team turned up images of individuals who appeared to be Filipinos aged between 11 and 17 in various nude poses and sexual acts (Trinidad, 2005).

DSWD served 24 cases of cyberpornography in 2014. All victims were female and came from the National Capital Region, Region VII, and Region XI. The youngest victim was aged between one and five years old (DSWD, 2014).

Webcam child sex tourism. A new form of ICT-facilitated sexual violence and exploitation is the live streaming of child sexual violence. Adults sexually abuse children while images of the violence are streamed live on the Internet (UNODC, 2015). Minors have been rescued from cybersex dens around the Philippines. Some pose as Internet cafés (Umali, 2005). 'Webcam child sex tourism' (WCST) is a term coined by the Dutch law enforcement community to describe the phenomenon whereby adults pay or offer other rewards to directly view live streaming video footage of children in another country performing sexual acts in front of a webcam. WCST developed as a result of the same factors responsible for spread of child sex tourism and child pornography – weak implementation of child protection policies and rising global Internet usage. Contact is usually initiated through a chat room or middle man. The shows last from 15 to 30 minutes and range from showing the upper body or genitals to dancing naked, masturbating and inserting foreign objects.

Most victims reported receiving between 500 and 2,000 Php (between $11.50 and $46 USD) per show or none at all. If a middleman is involved, they may only receive around 200 Php ($4.60 USD). The money is transferred through Western Union, or Cebuana L'huillier, a local money-transferring agency. The four most commonly used online environments for WCST are online dating websites, public chat rooms, social networking sites and adult webcam sites. Three main categories of WCST were identified according to the scale of operation: individual operations are run from private homes or Internet cafes; family-run operations involve children who are coerced by parents or other family members; and WCST dens, which are larger-scale operations involving children who have been hired or trafficked to perform webcam sex shows (Terre des Hommes Netherlands, 2013a). In many cases of cyberpornography, it was parents of the children who encouraged them or who were directly involved in the operation (Garcia and Manikan, 2014). Another study by Terre des Hommes, where researchers posed as prepubertal Filipino girls elicited 20,172 requests, revealing the enormous global demand for WCST and offenders' apparent lack of concern for the legal consequences of their actions. WCST customers are typically Western men. Only 1 female was identified among the 1,000 predators identified. Most requests took place between 18:00 and 1:00 anywhere in the world (Terre des Hommes Netherlands, 2013b). In another study, a survivor stated that all the customers were men and included Filipinos. They were mostly in their 40s, had wives, and were not interested in meeting offline (Kuhlmann et al., 2015).

The Internet in itself is not dangerous however certain online behaviour and activities put children at risk for victimization. Children frequently interact with strangers online (Diloy, 2013), maintain virtual friendships (Cruz, 2013), have public social media accounts and eyeball or meet with persons they met online (Diloy, 2013). The odds of Internet harassment and sexual solicitation is increased twice for those who interact with unknown people, send personal information online, have unknown people on their buddy list and use the Internet more than five times a week. The odds are increased fourfold for those who visit x-rated web sites (Flores et al., 2009).

Lack of supervision while using the Internet is also risky. Children and teenagers are generally unsupervised when they use the Internet (van der Veen 2009, Diloy, 2013). The proliferation of Internet cafés and other Internet access points (for example, 'one-peso' machines, mobile phones and free Wi-Fi hotspots) allows easier and unrestricted access to the Internet.

The children involved in WCST are extremely poor. Those who feel they have no other option, turn to cybersex shows because they are perceived as easier, safer and more profitable than finding blue collar work or engaging in other forms of self-employment. (Trinidad 2005; Umali, 2005; Terre des Hommes, 2013a). Consumerism and the influence of peers may also cause children to enter the trade (Terre des Hommes 2013a, Kuhlmann et al., 2015). The majority of the children involved in WCST and/or prostitution come from broken homes. A lack of parental supervision, poor parenting and money problems combine to put children at risk of commercial sexual exploitation. Family-run WCST operations have become a 'cottage industry' in some areas of the Philippines, where parents or entire communities are involved, which suggests a culture of silence. Filipino family values such as deference to parental authority, prioritizing family needs and contributing to family survival are also implicated (Kuhlmann et al., 2015). Befriending a foreigner and finding a better life is a prevailing concept (Trinidad, 2005; van der Veen, 2009; Terre des Hommes, 2013a). Webcam child prostitution is noted to be more prevalent in areas known for sex tourism, suggesting a geographic link (Kuhlmann et al., 2015). Most of the children involved in WCST are also involved in prostitution (Terre des Hommes, 2013a). The enormous demand for WCST performances is also implicated as a driver of WCST (Terre des Hommes, 2013b; Kuhlmann et al., 2015), while other enabling factors mentioned in the literature include good Internet connectivity, good command of technology and English proficiency (Umali, 2005; Kuhlmann et al., 2015).

Natural Disasters and the increased threat of Abuse and Exploitation of Children

The Philippines is the third most frequently disaster-affected country in the world.[30] Typhoon Haiyan hit the eastern Visayas region in November 2013 and left the area devastated. Children in the region may have been forced into hazardous work and trafficking as a result. Factors that contributed were displacement from home, loss of livelihood and agriculture, and migration (United States Department of Labor, 2008). The PNP and Eastern Visayas Regional Medical Center (EVMC)-WCPU documented a rise in rape and sexual violence cases after the calamity, as seen in Tables 2 and 3. There was drop in reports to the Eastern Visayas Regional Medical Center WCPU (EVRMC-WCPU) in 2012 due to local interventions such as training in local units, but then doubled in 2013 and again in 2014. Reports at the EVRMC-WCPU from January to July 2015 indicate that the levels of reporting seen in 2015 are likely to continue to the end the year. The police also saw a more than twofold increase in Region VI from 2012 to 2014.

Table 2. Philippine National Police-Women and Children's Concern Division (PNP-WCCPC) Report on Crimes against Children Cases from 2012-2014

Cases	2012			2013			2014		
	Region VI	Region VIII	Region VII	Region VI	Region VII	Region VIII	Region VI	Region VII	Region VIII
Rape	315	239	112	453	243	82	580	400	178
Incestuous Rape	39	40	4	28	41	5	50	50	12
Attempted Rape	29	13	12	41	34	9	43	27	24
Acts of Lasciviousness	145	167	31	243	184	48	292	232	98
Child Prostitution/ Pornography	2	1	0	1	2	0	0	2	0
Sexual Harassment/ Assault	5	1	0	10	1	0	1	13	0
Seduction	15	6	2	21	2	0	36	3	3
Physical Injuries	1,092	324	49	1,860	850	150	1,834	1,014	509
Murder	6	2	4	9	5	1	15	2	3
Attempted Murder	24	1	1	24	6	4	11	4	6
Homicide	28	7	0	28	5	1	2	7	9
Neglect	4	1	0	1	3	0	7	10	1
Child Trafficking	5	12	2	12	10	2	15	13	5
RA 9262	9	14	0	27	8	0	22	22	6
Other Forms of Child Abuse	495	414	33	826	396	2	2,494	692	124
Inducing a Minor to Abandon Home	6	0	0	4	0	0	7	2	0
Abduction	24	2	0	18	8	6	35	10	15
Kidnapping	6	4	4	5	10	4	10	1	1
Others	147	215	8	323	41	48	373	47	207
Total	2,396	1,463	262	3,934	1,849	362	5,827	2,551	1,201

Source: PNP-WCCPC

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[30] Quismundo, Tarra. "Philippines is 3rd most disaster-prone country, new study shows" Philippine Daily Inquirer. Available at: http://globalnation.inquirer.net/52858/philippines-is-3rd-most-disaster-prone-country-new-study-shows.

The Child Protection and Education Cluster Joint Needs Assessment – Philippines 2014 found that child survivors of typhoon Haiyan were at risk of psychosocial distress, dangerous child labour, physical risks outside the home, early pregnancy, and dropping out of school.

Changes in children's behaviour were reported by 80 per cent of assessed barangays, with 93 per cent reported in Region VIII. The most common behavioural changes noted were fear of wind and rain and unusual crying and screaming. Children were stressed about the lack of food and shelter in over 83 per cent of barangays (Child Protection and Education Cluster Joint Needs Assessment – Philippines, 2014).

Table 3. Eastern Visayas Regional Medical Center Report 2011 to July 2015

Year	Physical Violence	Sexual Violence	Emotional/Psychological violence and other forms	TOTAL
2011	132	148	11	291
2012	88	148	48	284
2013	100	162	18	280
2014	184	144	46	374
Jan-July 2015	90	103	11	204

Source: CPN

Children were found to be involved in harsh or dangerous labour in 54 per cent of barangays – a 39 per cent increase since Typhoon Haiyan. Some 75 per cent of barangays reported that working children did not go to school. Children were reported to have died or been seriously injured after the typhoon due to flooding, hanging wires and other hazards. Children's involvement in crime was reported in 36 per cent of barangays. Most crimes were theft and looting. Child membership of gangs was reported by 40 per cent of barangays (Child Protection and Education Cluster Joint Needs Assessment – Philippines, 2014).

There was also an increase in reports of sexual violence in 12 per cent of barangays with, the greatest risk of it occurring at home and while going to school. Children were also separated from their primary caregivers because they had died or because they needed to travel for work. Access to basic services was reported to be poor in 55 per cent of barangays. Of those children with poor access to basic needs, 56 per cent came from poor households and 19 per cent were disabled (Child Protection and Education Cluster Joint Needs Assessment – Philippines, 2014).

The reasons for this could be a higher awareness of reporting points and referral pathways as INGOs and local NGOs worked with children, families and communities during the response and rehabilitation stages. It is also reflective of the distress brought on by the typhoon.

Migration

According to the 2013 Country Migration Report of the Philippines (International Organization for Migration, Philippines), immigration into the country is relatively small, with only 20,000 foreign nationals settling annually, most coming from China and Korea. The Philippines also has one of the lowest intra-ASEAN migration flows. In contrast, emigration for labour reasons has been growing over the last 40 years.

The Philippines is among the top countries of origin in terms of emigration. It was the top country of origin for emigration to Canada in 2010. The Filipino community is projected to be the largest emigrant group in Australia. Marriage emigration is an important component of outflow for the Filipino communities in Japan, Korea and Taiwan (International Organization for Migration, 2013). Labour migration is a significant component of emigration from the Philippines. There were 10.48 million overseas Filipino workers in 2012 (House of Representatives, 2014). Contributing factors are the lack of competitive wages in the Philippines and limited employment opportunities. Over 70 per cent of overseas Filipino workers (OFWs) are aged between25 and 44. Women outnumber men in the annual outflow, averaging 55 per cent to 60 per cent, and also tend to be younger than men, although those aged over 40 are mostly men. Overseas remittances from OFWs are a significant source of income for the country, which also alleviates unemployment. Families, however, tend to suffer from the absence of a parent, which places children in a disadvantageous situation (International Organization for Migration, 2013).

Migrants originate mostly from Metro Manila and the surrounding provinces, except Pangasinan, Cebu and Maguindanao. Most migrants from Mindanao are female domestic workers who are directed to Malaysia and the Gulf countries (International Organization for Migration, 2013).

Migration Orphans

The definition of OFWs has evolved over recent decades. In the 1970s and 80s, OFWs were referred to as Overseas Contract Workers when most were construction workers in the Middle East (Coronel and Unterreiner, 2008). In the 1990s, increasing remittances made by overseas Filipinos earned them the label of *bagong bayani*, or modern-day heroes (Reyes, 2008). Republic Act No. 10022 of 2009 defines an OFW as a "person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a citizen or on board a vessel navigating the foreign seas other than a government ship used for military or non-commercial purposes or on an installation located offshore or on the high seas; to be used interchangeably with migrant worker."

Migration in the Philippines is characterized by a relatively young migrant population, of whom more than half are married, and a growing feminization among temporary and undocumented workers (Coronel and Unterreiner 2008). From April to September 2014, the Survey on Overseas Filipinos (SOF) estimated that 2.3 million OFWs were working abroad at any time during the reference period. The OFWs in the 25 to 29 years age group comprised the largest group (24.8 per cent), followed by those aged 30 to 34 years (23.7 per cent). More than half of the female OFWs were labourers and unskilled workers (54.0 per cent) while a quarter of male OFWs were in trade and related work (25.1 per cent).[31, 32] The total remittance sent by OFWs during the period April to September 2014 was estimated at 173.2 billion pesos. This amount included cash sent home (126.8 billion pesos), cash brought home (37.7 billion pesos) and remittances in kind (8.7 billion pesos).[33] The remittances contribute to keeping the country at the middle income range. Therefore, government policy has always been to promote and support deployment of Filipinos overseas.

Using data on the number of migrant mothers and migrant fathers from the 1997 Survey on Overseas Filipino and assuming an average number of three children per family, the number of children left behind was calculated at 5.25 million (Coronel and Unterreiner 2008). Another study of 1,443 children of migrant and non-migrant parents aged between 10 and 12 in seven provinces and areas nationwide estimated that 91,790 families of deployed migrant workers left behind a child aged 10 to 12 (SMC, 2004).

With the increasing number of OFWs and the trend of feminization of labour migration in the Philippines, left-behind children have been the subject of studies of the impact of migration on family structure and relationships, gender roles and identities, and left-behind children's physical and psychological health and educational outcomes.

The studies generally show that relationships between left-behind children and their migrant parents remained strong, underscoring the importance of family (Lam et al., 2013). Filipino migrant mothers continue to nurture from afar, and makes herself part of her family's daily life by sending remittances and managing bank accounts (Parreñas, 2005). She takes charge of providing funds and arranges for others to raise her children (Parreñas, 2005b). On the other hand, migration of fathers has resulted in a "gap" or "a sense of social discomfort and emotional distance" between them and their children, because there is less intimate communication while they are apart (Parreñas, 2005a).

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[31] Total OFWs estimated at 2.3 million (Results from the 2014 Survey on Overseas Filipinos): https://psa.gov.ph/content/total-number-ofws-estimated-23-million-results-2014-survey-overseas-filipinos%C3%82%C2%B9#sthash.QQKPDPVk.dpuf

[32] The SOF 2014 included OFWs aged 15 years old and over working abroad during the reference period April 1, 2014 to September 30, 2014. OFWs include Overseas Contract Workers presently out of the country during the reference period to fulfill an overseas contract for a specific length of time or who were presently at home on vacation during the reference period but still had an existing contract to work abroad, and other Filipino workers abroad with valid working visa or work permits. Those who had no working visa or work permits (tourist, visitor, student, medical, and other types of non-immigrant visas) but were presently employed and working full time in other countries were also included. The province of Leyte was not included in this report.

[33] Remittances sent by OFWs may only be a portion of their total salary. Data on remittances were based on the answers given by the survey respondents to the questions on how much cash remittance was received by the family during the period April to September 2014 from a family member who is an OFW and how much cash did this member bring home during the reference period, if any. Further, if the family received during the reference period goods and products sent by this OFW, the imputed value of such goods was included in his/her total remittance - Technical Notes from Total Number of OFWs Estimated at 2.3 Million (Results from the 2014 Survey on Overseas Filipinos). Accessible at: https://psa.gov.ph/content/total-number-ofws-estimated-23-million-results-2014-survey-overseas-filipinos%C3%82%C2%B9#sthash.QQKPDPVk.dpuf

Studies comparing transnational households of migrant mothers and fathers show differences in structure. Those with migrant mothers involve an extended family network while those with migrant fathers are more similar to modern nuclear households (Parreñas, 2005). The girls in the family take over the role of the migrant mothers, and are tasked with duties including household chores (Asis, 2000; Lam et al., 2013). Eldest daughters assume heavier burdens (housework, decision making and caring for the well-being of the family), particularly when mothers leave. While they learn new skills and become more independent, there is a decrease in their quality of life, particularly among those from poorer families (Parreñas, 2005a). Girl children are also burdened with 'caring' work (Reyes, 2008). Fathers are not seen as performing 'caring' work, so this role is passed on to other women in the family, most often the eldest daughter, which can affect her school performance (Parreñas, 2006). Instead of taking on domestic responsibilities, fathers turn to the extended family for support. One study noted that children are more often in charge of other family members rather than the father (SMC, 2004). Thus, the degree to which migration disrupts family life depends on the extent of involvement of the extended family (Cortes, 2008). The support of extended families and communities also helps ease separation (Parreñas, 2002).

Given that parents are tasked with the socialization of children and the transmission of values to them, parental migration does not seem to matter, since the children are taught the same values and spiritual information by their caregivers. Children of migrant parents continue to be assigned common chores by caregivers and they have similar career aspirations as non-migrant children (SMC, 2004).

Higher frequency of communication between children and migrant parents contributes to better well-being outcomes for children (Lam et al., 2013). Frequent intimate communication helps children come to terms with their parents' absence and lessens feelings of abandonment (Parreñas, 2002; Parreñas, 2005a), and levels of anxiety and loneliness (Asis, 2002). Children with migrant parents have been shown to have higher ownership of landline telephones and mobile phones than children from non-migrant families (SMC, 2004). New communication technologies, particularly those that allow visual images, facilitate intimacy, friendship and closeness between separated family members (Francisco, 2013). Among children of OFW households in Ilocos Norte who were interviewed, the most common means of communication was the cellular phone, followed by the landline telephone. Their OFW parents call an average of more than once a day (Edillon, 2008). Unfortunately, not all migrant families have access to the resources needed to maintain intimate transnational relations (Cortes, 2008). This increases the risk of feeling abandoned among children of working-class families.

Children of OFW parents enjoy more monetary benefits, in terms of food, education, and money deposited in the bank under their names, and have the advantage of investment in their future (Edillon, 2008).

The 2003 Philippines Study found that children of migrants were in better physical health than children of non-migrants. It did not find any negative impact of migration on the physical health of children left behind, although this could be attributed to better nutrition from higher socio-economic status of migrant families and the quality of their caregivers (Lam et al., 2013).

The findings on migration's impact on children's psychosocial state are also mixed. One study found that children with migrant mothers say they are unhappy, more anxious and lonely, and unable to get enough sleep (SMC, 2004). Although Battistella and Conaco (1998) found that Filipino children with absent mothers showed poorer social adjustment and delayed psychosocial development, the 2003 Philippines Study showed that these children are adjusted well socially, have strong social support and get along with other family members (SMC, 2004).

The SMC study reveals that a greater number of left behind boys compared to non-migrant children reported physical violence (10.4 per cent vs. 9.5 per cent). This was highest among the sons of land-based migrant fathers (12.4 per cent) and where both parents were abroad (12.7 per cent). Compared to girls, left behind boys are also reportedly more vulnerable to being "touched in sensitive areas" (SMC, 2004).

CHAPTER 10.
Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings presented in this systematic literature review highlight seven main drivers of VAC and their pathways, with some variations for each pathway. While there may be other drivers and pathways, those presented here are based on evidence from several qualitative and quantitative sources. Future research should test these driver pathways (mixture of factors that increase the risk of violence against children) to see if other risk factors are mediating these relationships, and to determine the most effective interventions.

Table 4: Summary of Key Findings on Drivers and Risk Factors for Violence Against Children in the Philippines

Mix of Risk Factors	Driven by Structural and Institutional Factors	= Environments that Increase VAC
Driver Pathway: Migration **1a.** Gender norms + absentee parents/lack of supervision + child vulnerability factors (gender, disability, age)	+ Economic and social policies that increase poverty and migration	Sexual violence in the home
1b. Absentee parents + family stress + beliefs around corporal punishment	+ Economic and social policies that increase poverty and migration	Violent discipline/physical violence in the home
1c. Family expectations + gender (females) + demand	+ Economic and social policies that increase poverty and migration	Commercial Sexual Exploitation in the community
Driver Pathway: Alcohol Abuse and Family Stress **2a.** Gender norms in the family + family stress	+Policies for cheap and easy access to alcohol	Domestic violence in the home
2b. Gender norms around parenting + family stress + parents' own childhood history of violence	+Policies for cheap and easy access to alcohol	Physical violence in the home
Driver Pathway 3: Legal and Social Norms around Sexual Violence Against Children **3a.** Conceptualisations of childhood + social and community norms around appropriate touching	+ Laws regarding the age of sexual consent + impunity for perpetrators	Sexual violence in all settings

Mix of Risk Factors	Driven by Structural and Institutional Factors	= Environments that Increase VAC
3b. Children who are more vulnerable (children with disabilities, children out of school, etc)	+ Laws regarding the age of sexual consent + impunity for perpetrators	Sexual violence in all settings
3c. Norms around silence around SV for boys	+ Laws regarding the +age of sexual consent + impunity for perpetrators	Sexual violence in all settings
3d. Gender norms ("third gender") + MSM	+Gender inequitable laws regarding and sexual violence against boys	Sexual violence in the community
3e. Gender and community norms in adolescent relationships (chastity, etc) + social norms around not talking about sex	+Gender inequitable laws regarding and sexual violence against boys	Adolescent intimate partner violence (also teenage pregnancy, HIV, early sexual debut= all of which also create a risk feedback loop for IPV and sexual violence) in the home and in schools
Driver Pathway 4: Social and cultural norms around family **4a.** Gender norms in the home	+Lack of sexual and reproductive health education and access to services	Violent discipline in the home
4b. Beliefs around effectiveness of corporal punishment	+Social and cultural norms around family expectations, childhood and parenting	Violent discipline in the home
4c. Family stress + confidence in parenting	+Social and cultural norms around family expectations, childhood and parenting	Violent discipline in the home
Driver Pathway 5: Sexual Exploitation Family stress (poverty) + social norms relating to foreigners + broken families/poor parenting/previous experience of violence + demand for sexually explicit materials with children (also links with #3 above)	+Social and political history + lack of local income generating industry + destabilising community conditions (including disasters)	Commercial sexual exploitation in the community

Mix of Risk Factors	Driven by Structural and Institutional Factors	= Environments that Increase VAC
Driver Pathway 6: School Governance **6a.** Reinforcing norms around the use of corporal punishment as an effective means of discipline/order + family expectations for academic achievement	+ Poor school governance and enforcement of policies	Corporal punishment in schools
6b. Social norm around emotional abuse not being violence (e.g. "not leaving a mark")	+ Poor school governance and enforcement of policies	Emotional violence in schools
Driver Pathway 7: Conflict Lack of access to services/safe reporting + norms around use of violence	+ Conflict	All forms of violence affecting all settings

The Driver Cycle: The Intersection of Social and Legal Norms

Clearly coming from the systematic review data for the Philippines are links between norms (gender and social) and policies and legislation to create environments that drive violence in the home, schools and communities. Social relationships have an influence on the acceptability of child rearing practices, and on the expectations that adults have for children's behaviour. These norms influence and are influenced by institutional and legislative contexts that allow the harmful manifestation of social norms to continue. Examples provided throughout this report include:

- The legal age of sexual consent (one of the lowest in the world) and its relationship with conceptualisations of childhood and the acceptance of sexual activity between adults and children

- Inequitable gender laws relating to what constitutes sexual violence (for example, sexual violence against boys not carrying the same legal outcomes) and its relationship with the norms of silence around sexual violence against boys

- Laws surrounding access to sexual and reproductive health services for adolescents (requires parental consent), and the norms around not talking to or teaching adolescents about sex and its consequences in terms of sexual and reproductive health (increasing HIV rates, teenage pregnancy, early initial sex, adolescent intimate partner violence and help-seeking after sexual violence)

- Lack of enforcement of school policies related to corporal punishment and its relationship with beliefs that emotional abuse is not violence; and norms around the effectiveness of corporal punishment combined with school and family expectations around academic performance

Tackling the institutional and structural drivers related to the enactment and enforcement of laws and policies to protect children may be the first step to changing social norms, and potentially vice versa.

Driver Pathways and the Influence of Migration, Disasters and Conflict

Several issues unique to the Philippines emerged in the report, including some of the region's longest standing conflicts, an economy built around migration and a disaster-prone environment. These issues combine with economic and social policies that create environments where risk factors for violence against children can increase. Often, as highlighted in this report, risk factors such as family stress, combined with gender norms in the home and social norms around family expectations, create a mix of factors that increase various forms of violence.

Driver Pathway: The Intersections between Domestic Violence and Alcohol Abuse Creating Unsafe and Cyclically Violent Environments for Children

This report has highlighted that violence often starts in the home and goes on to influence violence in other settings, such as school and the community. There is very robust data on the high prevalence of domestic violence in the Philippines, and on the role of alcohol as a risk factor for domestic violence. This is combined with easy access to cheap alcohol, with the Philippines being one of the region's top producers and distributors of alcohol, and ranking third in the world in terms of heaviest alcohol consumption.[34] Finally, there is strong evidence on the occurrence of intergenerational violence in the Philippines that is linked with witnessing violence at home as a child – thus creating a cycle of violence fuelled by both interpersonal gender norms and driven by access to alcohol.

Driver Pathway for Online Sexual Exploitation: The Role of History, Current Demand and Vulnerable Children

A unique confluence of risk factors has been shown in the Philippines to lead to online commercial sexual exploitation. This includes its unique colonial history, which means English is spoken widely by the population, and the well documented acceptance and trust of foreigners (including as intimate partners), combined with a lack of community-level income generation, absentee parents and vulnerable children and the demand for sexual materials. Meanwhile, legislation makes it difficult to prosecute offenders. While online sexual exploitation is difficult to measure and the relevant data is nascent, clear links with these risk factors are being made.

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[34] Philippine Star report, 2014: http://www.philstar.com/news-feature/2014/02/06/1286936/infographic-filipinos-3rd-heaviest-drinkers-world

Driver Pathways: How Belief in the Effectiveness of Corporal Punishment Intersects with Poor School Governance and Enforcement of Policies for VAC in School Settings

The Philippines has made substantial progress in the school environment to develop and enact policies and programmes to protect children. However, in some schools, the lack of enforcement of these policies, combined with the social norms around the effectiveness of using verbal and physically violent discipline and the pressure for academic achievement create a diverse pathway for VAC.

Recommendations

A global partnership to end VAC was launched in July 2016 by the World Health Organization and partners, including UNICEF. Its overall aim is to support efforts to achieve Sustainable Development Goal targets for ending VAC. As part of this partnership, there has been a unified effort to assemble the best available evidence to help countries and communities intensify their focus on prevention programmes and services with the greatest potential to reduce VAC. A select group of seven strategies have been identified and assembled in a package known as INSPIRE. The recommendations from this report are mapped against this framework (see Table 5).

Table 5: Recommendations from the Systematic Review Study According to the 'Seven Strategies' of the INSPIRE Framework

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
Implementation and enforcement of laws	Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Alcohol abuse • Absentee parents/OFWs Community Level: • Norms around age of sexual consent Institutional Level: • Norms about use of corporal punishment • Lack of SRH education and access to services • Poor communities lack access to resources and opportunities to increase capacity, resulting in higher gaps in implementation of CP laws • Weak information management and monitoring and evaluation systems	• Technical working group has been formed with membership from Government, UNICEF and NGOs to undertake legislative advocacy to increase age of consent/statutory rape • Continuing efforts to pass the Positive Discipline or Anti-Corporal Punishment Act– • Besides such an act, several NGOs have integrated increasing awareness of positive discipline in their programmes • Adolescent and Sexual Reproductive Health programmes are being conducted nationwide by the Commission on Population with technical support from UNICEF and other partners. These are venues to discuss VAC prevention during 'dating'.	• Explore policy avenues to limit access to alcohol (link with WHO recommendations) • Provide interventions for parental substance misuse • Raise the age of legal consent and tackle other laws and policies that contribute to drivers of violence • If they cannot be inter-operable, government stand-alone information management systems must allow facilitated sharing of information to enhance delivery of CP services • Governance Indicator Framework (GIF) evaluation to contribute to use of CP indicators in the monitoring and evaluation of CP programmes that enhance CP laws • Qualitative study revealed that challenges and bottlenecks encountered at local level relate to capacity and resources. Two indicator sets discussed also in the GIF. • Institutionalization of a results-based CP management system • Localization of national programmes are opportunities for harmonization of planning processes and programmes • Working towards an Ombudsman or Commission for Children • Rationalize LCPC structures and functions. Have a convergence strategy. • Higher, dedicated investment support from national Government for capacity building of LCPC • Using GAD as a template, establish a component in the internal revenue allotment dedicated to a Children's Budget • Propose, adopt and institutionalize a social protection infrastructure-based menu of child protection projects to be developed with DBM. • Mainstream concept of child protection vis-à-vis child rights-based approach

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
		• DOH has existing programmes to prevent and address substance abuse including alcohol use: for youth, the Adolescent and Youth Health Policy, Adolescent and Youth Health and Development Program; and for adults, the Go4Health programme encourages a healthy lifestyle. • Across government agencies, there is a commitment to institutionalizing an information management system that can support monitoring in the implementation of CP laws • UNICEF-supported assessment of evaluation of CP governance utilizing the GIF • Institutionalizing M&E systems through use of CP indicators • UNICEF-commissioned qualitative study of the implementation of CP laws	

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
		• Developing and implementing the National Plan of Action for VAC • Strengthening CWC by transferring the same under the Office of the President	
Norms and values	Individual Level: • Beliefs about childhood • Beliefs about necessity of violent discipline Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Family expectations • Gender norms and inequality Community Level: • Norms around hierarchy and role of children • CICL remain disenfranchised Institutional Level: • Norms around necessity of corporal punishment Structural Level: • Social and cultural norms around family expectations, childhood and parenting	• The Positive Discipline Bill (HB 4907) • Existing parenting programmes implemented nationwide by DSWD: Family Development Sessions; Parent Effectiveness Seminars. These need to be enhanced and evaluated. • The Modified Conditional Cash Transfer programme that targets the poorest and most marginalized families includes case management and parenting programmes • Government has a robust ODA-GAD network • GAD budgeting and programming mainstreamed	• Mainstreaming positive discipline in good parenting programmes • Continue to strengthen barangay child protection councils • Implement and sustain the Child Friendly Local Governance Audits • Increase sensitization to lesbiabm gay bisexual and transgender spectrum, including using a lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender lens in child-rights programming • Earnest documentation of good practice • Evaluation of programmes

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
		• A dedicated Philippine Commission on Women to ensure mainstreaming of issues in government programming • Developing and implementing the National Plan of Action for VAC • Community-focused research to understand facilitation by families of online child sexual exploitation • The upcoming national advocacy/campaign on ending VAC, which will start after the VAC baseline study has been launched • Mainstreaming of child-friendly local government units • Integrate behaviour change in programme design, including advocacy strategies	
Safe environments	Individual Level: • Children with disabilities • Out-of-School children • Children with absentee or single parent households	• Comprehensive CP guidelines and policies at school level • Children in emergencies • Child Protection Working Groups and Regional CPWG activation	• Scale up school CPCs and school-based interventions to address VAC (e.g. Safe Schools for Teens)

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
	Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Alcohol abuse Community Level: • Urban/rural • Disaster prone areas • Conflict affected areas Institutional Level: • School governance Structural Level: • Disasters • Conflict	• Rolling out CFS guidelines by the Council for the Welfare of Children • Existing MRM efforts since the Philippines remains a top priority in the world • Implementation of DepEd child protection policy • Child protection hotlines • Trainings for police officers for Women and Children Protection Desks in police stations nationwide • The upcoming national advocacy/campaign on ending VAC, which will start after the VAC baseline study has been launched • Developing and implementing the National Plan of Action for VAC	
Parent and caregiver support	Individual Level: • Parents' own experiences of violence • Alcohol abuse Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Drug and alcohol use	• Parenting programmes being piloted by DSWD in partnership with NGOs • Parenting programmes are being implemented nationwide by DSWD: Family Development Sessions; Parent Effectiveness Seminars. These need to be enhanced and evaluated	• Community support to parents/families, including support groups for care givers on parenting. These efforts should be documented and evaluated. Evidence gathered will contribute to standardization and institutionalization of the parenting support programme, which will lead to scaling up the reach of the service.

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
	• Family structure (absentee parents/OFWs) • Family financial stress • Non equitable household decision-making power (control over use of household assets) • Cultural silence • Quality of familial relationships • Lack of communication on sex and relationships between parents and children Structural Level: • Poverty • Gender inequality in legislation and policies Protective Factors: • Strong familial support networks	• The Modified Conditional Cash Transfer programme, which targets the poorest and most marginalized families includes case management and parenting programmes • Awarding of Seals of Good Governance to local governments	
Income and economic strengthening	Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Family stress due to poverty Structural Level: • Economic and social policies that increase poverty • Conflict • Disasters • Lack of income generating industry	• The Modified Conditional Cash Transfer programme, which targets the poorest and most marginalized families includes case management and parenting programmes • Financial literacy programmes targeting LGUs • Conditional Cash Transfers to the poorest	• Utilise existing cash transfer programme in conjunction with parent and caregiver support, education, and life skills training

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
Response and support services	Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Alcohol abuse Community Level: • Lack of access to SRH services and education • Silence around SV against boys Structural Level: • Disasters	• DSWD capacity building on handling adolescents under protective custody or living in government institutions • The training courses for judges on child-sensitive processes • Implementing the Case Management Protocol for child abuse, neglect, and exploitation • The continuing effort to upgrade the capacity of existing CPUs and establish new ones • Government services to CICL • Child Protection Working Groups and Regional CPWGs activation coordinating with the National Disaster Risk Reduction & Management Council and the Local Disaster Risk Reduction & Management Councils • Cooperation with CP inter-agency councils • One government approach to child protection • NPA VAC • Mainstreaming of child-friendly local government units	• Increase tertiary prevention (WCPUs) and intervene early in families with domestic violence – evidence shows that the tertiary prevention may become primary prevention because the level of intergenerational violence is so high in the Philippines. Access to protection, counseling and family support services may disrupt these cycles of violence A national child helpline can also contribute to increasing the children's access to services.

INSPIRE Strategy	Related Risk Factors and Drivers Identified in the Study	Existing Initiatives and Opportunities	Prevention Recommendations based on findings from the study
	Individual Level: • Temperament, emotional, and anger management especially for adolescents Interpersonal Level: • Domestic violence in the home • Alcohol abuse • Dealing with household (family) stress • Quality of familial relationships • Gender equitable decision-making Community Level: • Silence around SV against boys Protective Factors: • School attendance	• School-based intervention (Safe Schools for Teens) programme being tested • Implementation of the DepEd CP policy • Applying the cyber safe modules in classes • Safe teens website • VAC advocacy	• Cash Transfer programme as potential delivery mechanism for education and life skills (parental) training • Operationalization of CP policy implementation linking to case management and violence prevention • Upscaling the implementation of Personal safety modules

Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Research

CP Systems:

o   Strengthen Inter-agency coordination to ensure implementation of child protection laws, under one coordination body

o   Develop/establish an integrated inter-agency child protection information system

o   Ensure functionality of the referral pathway on responding to child abuse, neglect and exploitation

o   Increase tertiary prevention (WCPUs) and early intervention with families impacted by domestic violence. *Evidence shows that the tertiary prevention may become primary prevention because the level of intergenerational violence is so high in the Philippines. Access to protection, counseling and family support services can disrupt these cycles of violence*

VAC in the Home, Schools and Community

o   Promote parenting support interventions

•   Strengthen child protection messages in existing FDS provided to families who are beneficiaries of the Four P's, and ensure monitoring of the impact of FDS to understand how parents/families have embraced these messages towards positive social change, and reduction of VAC

•   Promote the adaptation of effective methods of Good Parenting ('Parenting for Lifelong Health') for the Philippine context, thus encouraging the implementation of measurable tools for social change

o   Explore alcohol misuse prevention and brief interventions (relate to WHO work in this area)

Laws and Policies

o   Advocacy for improved legislation and policy to prevent and respond to VAC

•   Support legislation that forbids corporal punishment in schools and at home

•   Advocate for increasing the age of sexual consent through multisectoral partnerships with the judiciary, social welfare, education and health sectors

o   Support strengthened implementation of existing laws and policies that protect children from violence, including those on cybercrime and child pornography

o   Address the gaps in the judicial system that cause child abuse cases to be delayed indefinitely

Social Norms and Gender

o   Promote positive social norms that do not involve violent discipline – utilize findings from the systematic literature review to suggest potential positive norms that could be enhanced

o   Promote development of research capacity on social norms, encourage research to better understand how social norms may condone VAC, and what researchers can do to raise greater awareness, including development of C4D approaches for social/behaviour change

o   Support further research on violence against boys, noting that service delivery currently focuses on services for girls and women, and recognizing that boys may be equally if not more vulnerable to violence than girls

o   Support efforts to tackle increasing threat of HIV infection among adolescents, noting that MSM account for high proportion of cases, and that social norms continue to limit access to information and prevention

o   Address social norms that discourage adolescent access to information on sexual and reproductive health

Emerging Issues:

o   Natural Disaster

   •   Ensure the implementation of child protection mechanisms as stated in the Children in Emergencies Law by developing standardized monitoring systems

   •   Ensure greater attention to data collection and monitoring and evaluation of VAC during emergencies and natural disasters to gain better understanding of the magnitude of the problem, potential mitigation of risk, and improved response

o   Online Child Protection

   •   Use outcomes of planned National Study on Child Online Protection to guide development of policy and legislation

   •   Use outcomes of capacity gap analysis (2016) on online child protection to develop training and skills for key stakeholders and partners

   •   Pursue regional and global partnerships on online child protection to learn and share experiences and further develop knowledge, tools and resources, particularly around data management and development of technical skills and building partnerships in the private sector

ANNEX A:
Methodology

This study involved three separate components: 1) a systematic literature review of academic papers including 'grey literature' (informally published written material such as research reports and research briefing papers) that may be difficult to locate through conventional literature searches; 2) a mapping of the interventions landscape, particularly of evaluated prevention programmes; and 3) secondary analysis of existing datasets. Analyzed together, these three components allow the identification of initial hypotheses around the drivers of violence, contributing to theories of change around what triggers violence, and to the development and testing of intervention components. The results of this work have also been used to guide national discussions and make suggestions for adjusting existing interventions and policies.

Systematic Literature Review

A systematic literature review was conducted to identify studies reporting on the risk factors of child maltreatment (emotional, physical and sexual abuse) in the Philippines. Key English databases were searched (PubMed/Medline, PsycINFO (EBSCOhost), CINAHL-ebsco, ERIC, EmBase Social Work Abstracts and SocIndex) and child protection experts and local databases in Philippines were approached to identify additional studies. The search employed a mix of free text and controlled vocabulary of subject heading and keyword searches, to identify articles via the electronic databases. To provide the broadest coverage of articles, the initial search term consisted of three components: population, type of maltreatment and country name. An example of the keyword search is 'child' (child OR childhood OR children OR adolescents) AND ('maltreatment' OR 'sexual abuse' OR 'physical abuse' OR 'emotional abuse') AND ('Italy'). These keyword searches were adapted by database and the results were saved in Endnote and duplicates accounted for and removed.

Grey literature (that is, informally published literature and literature in the native language) plays an important role in this study because national perspectives on violence are often hidden. Scholars and NGOS from the country sites have produced university level theses and dissertations or qualitative evaluations that may help interpret from the native perspective how the drivers of violence work, in particular in relation to cultural, historical, political and economic contexts. Grey literature was searched primarily through site visits to local universities and libraries throughout the Philippines. This review of grey literature was done by members of a local team under Dr. Noel Juban and the Child Protection Network with technical assistance from the University of Edinburgh.

Institutions targeted in the Philippines for accessing grey literature were major academic institutions and organizations involved in VAC. Other institutions were added upon recommendation by targeted institutions.

Institutions included in the systematic literature review search	
Ateneo de Davao University	Talikala Inc.
Ateneo de Manila University	University of San Carlos Cebu
Brokenshire College	University of Santo Tomas
Child Protection Network	University of Southeastern Philippines
Davao Medical School Foundation	University of the Cordilleras
De La Salle University	University of the Philippines Baguio
Iloilo Doctors College	University of the Philippines Cebu
Mindanao State University – Iligan Institute of Technology	University of the Philippines Diliman
Notre Dame of Dadiangas University	University of the Philippines Manila
Pamantasan ng Lungsod ng Maynila	University of the Philippines Mindanao
Philippine Women's University	University of the Philippines Visayas
San Pedro College	West Visayas State University
Siliman University	WCPUs around the country
Southern Philippines Medical Center	

Data was extracted from 59 journals and articles found under 'published literature' and 89 found under 'grey literature'. LThe lterature was subjected to quality assessment. Other supplementary literature was also searched, including laws about child protection, international journals on child abuse and violence, and papers and declarations of organizations regarding childhood violence. Recent reports and studies from NGOs were also included where relevant.

After a preliminary draft of the report was written, a 'writeshop' was conducted between 19 and 21 August, 2015 at Tagaytay, Philippines. Discussions were held regarding the status of the project, possible improvements and possible topics to be explored.

During the 'writeshop', it was noted that critical topics on VAC had not been well researched in the Philippines, and thus were not included in the first draft. This included issues around adolescents and access to information on reproductive health care and services, noting social norms that prevent or limit teen access to services and support, and the rising prevalence of HIV among teens. Other emerging themes not yet well covered in the literature included online child protection. It was agreed to seek further studies and reports on these topics to more accurately reflect the current reality of VAC priorities in the Philippines.

One of the challenges of the strategic literature review was to clearly identify the Philippines-specific issues and drivers of VAC. Trying to define gender and family roles, for example, was noted as a challenge in a traditionally very Catholic society that is increasingly urbanized, rapidly changing and very connected to social media.

Writing sessions were also done after discussions were also held.

Flow diagramme of studies included in the systematic review of literature relating to the prevalence and/or drivers of VAC in the Philippines

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┌──────────────────────────────────────┐     ┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
│   PUBLISHED/ACADEMIC LITERATURE      │     │   UNPUBLISHED/GREY LITERATURE        │
│                                      │     │                                      │
│  Studies identified by University    │     │  Studies identified by local team    │
│  of Edinburgh team via systematic    │     │  headed by Dr. Noel Juban through     │
│  database searching                  │     │  data collection from 27 institutions│
│                                      │     │  across the country                  │
│            (n=644)                   │     │            (n = 97)                  │
└──────────────────────────────────────┘     └──────────────────────────────────────┘
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Studies reviewed against the inclusion criteria

(n=741)

Additional studies identified through CP experts (n = 26)

Excluded studies with reasons:
- Not primary research or desk review (n = 276)
- Not on drivers or prevalence of VAC (n= 342)

Total studies that met the inclusion criteria and were included in the systematic review (n = 149)

Secondary Analysis of the 2014 Demographic Health Survey Data

Demographic Health Surveys are available in many countries, including the Philippines. They are household surveys designed to capture information on a variety of maternal and child health, social and development indicators. The surveys are nationally representative, and make use of a clustered and stratified sampling scheme. The exact nature of the survey design and sampling frame varies slightly between countries. The surveys contain a module, which collects maternal reports of intimate partner violence, use of family planning and child health information. They contain a number of variables, which may be used as proxy measures of gender inequality and power relationships between mothers and fathers, and indicators of child health and development, intimate partner violence and childhood experience of abuse.

Bivariate and multivariate regression in modelling controlling was used to confound variables to examine predictors of sexual violence and intimate partner violence and patterns of intergenerational violence using SPSS 21 statistical analysis software.

1. **Research questions**

   Surveys were used in this document to examine predictors of intimate partner violence, and to particularly focus on patterns of intergenerational violence. Family characteristics included wealth and benefitting from a conditional cash transfer programme. Gender-related factors, including attitudes towards domestic violence at the individual level, power differential between the mother and her partner, and previous experiences of violence (previous partner violence and

child sexual abuse) were also examined. Individual level factors including parent education level and rural-to-urban migration were explored.

In order to facilitate targeting and exploring possible avenues for intervention, and to identify relevant subsets of the population, family violence was examined in relation to exposure to mass media and the use of computers and Internet.

2. Hypotheses
- Experience of violence in childhood increase the likelihood of experiencing violence in adulthood, with education and lower gender inequality acting as protective factors.

- The following factors related to mothers will be associated with a higher likelihood of being a victim of intimate partner violence: history of child sexual abuse; previous experience of intimate partner violence; lack of control over income and other factors of gender inequality; rural-to-urban migration; socio-economic status; religion; and ethnic group.

- The following factors related to fathers will be associated with an increased likelihood of perpetrating intimate partner violence: frequent use of alcohol; low levels of education; and high control of resources and decision-making

3. Strengths and limitations
The survey is comparable between countries, which is extremely valuable, but it is limited to female reports of physical and sexual victimisation. The survey has the advantage of measuring attitudes to different forms of violence, and the sampling structure allowed exploration of gender inequality and power structures within parental relationships. Key findings from the analyses are presented at various sections within this report and have also been written up for a

List of Studies

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
	Grey Literature				
1	Abbas, A. A., Bondad, J .D. R., Escalona, K., Limto, M. A., Masferre, E. R., and Quinto, M. E. D. (2013). *Bullying and resiliency of high school students in Baguio City.* Baguio City: University of the Cordilleras	To determine the relationship between bullying and resiliency among 3rd year high school students in Baguio City	Survey of 3rd year high school students from 1 private school and 1 public school in Baguio City	209 students	Medium
2	Adelantar, L. S., Roy, A., Alterado, A.M., Barte, P., Burnett, M., Caballero, M. A., Carbajal, J., Carino, S., Comeda, A., Corvera, D., Destao, D. M. (2004). *Incidence and Causes of Child Sexual Abuse in the City of Iloilo aged 6-18 years old from January to December 2002* (Thesis: BS Nursing, 2004) Iloilo : Iloilo Doctors' College	Incidence and Causes of Child Sexual Abuse in the City of Iloilo of children aged 6-18 between January and December 2002	Review of records of child abuse cases reported at Iloilo Women's Desk concerning 6-18 year olds	48 records	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
3	Allera, R. M., & Nogan K. P. (2010). *A Study on Cyberspace Prostitution Among Children in Cebu.* Cebu City: University of the Philippines Cebu	1. To probe the underlying factors that push children to engage into cyberspace prostitution. 2. To discover why there is an emergence of a new breed of prostitution among children in cyberspace. 3. To discover the manner of sexual exploitation of children in cyberspace and how cyberspace prostitution affect the development of children. 4. To discover the NGOs and other concerned individuals and groups' programmes of action to curtail or rehabilitate the children involved in cyberspace prostitution	Interview with children aged 12 to 18 years in Cebu	15 children	Low
4	Arpon, C. M. (2009). *Determinants of Child Labor in Domestic Work in Tugbok District Davao City.* Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	To investigate the determinants of child labour in domestic work in Tugbok District, Davao City	Survey of children in domestic work at Tugbok District	50 children	Medium
5	Balana, G. Y., Moreno, D. M. (2009). *Situational Analysis of Children in Sex Trade.* Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	To investigate the factors that influenced the children to engage in prostitution in specified areas of Davao City	Interviews with children engaged in sex trade from aged 13-17 years of age in Davao City	30 children	Low
6	Balana, G. Y. K., Impig, S. (2011). *Children No More: Experiences and Perceptions of Child Miners in Compostela Valley Province.* Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	To describe the experiences and perceptions of child labour in the mining areas of Compostela Valley Province	Focus group discussion with male children working as a child miners for at least a year in Compostela Valley Province	20 male children	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
7	Banez, M. A. (2015). *The Status of the Well-Being of 7 to 17 Year Old Girls in 7 Davao City Barangays.* Davao City: Talikala Inc. & Awo International	To: collect baseline data on the well-being of 7- to 17-year-old girls in seven Davao city barangays; describe the status of the well-being of girls applying the six dimensions (material, health and safety, education, peer and family relationship, subjective well-being [developmentally appropriate, gender specific, and culture-sensitive]; define the outcomes for each of the six dimensions of well-being; and determine programme interventions to address these issues	Survey of girls of 7-17 years of age from Barangay Lapu-lapu, Sasa, Matina Aplaya, 76-A, 5-A Bankerohan, Leon Garcia, Mintal in Davao City	384 girls	Medium
8	Bangalan, S. G. (2013) *Emotional Abuse and Depressive Symptoms Among Selected Freshmen High School Students: The Mediating Role of Maladaptive Schemas.* Manila: University of Santo Tomas	To investigate the relationship between emotional abuse and depressive symptoms as mediated by maladaptive schemas of first year high school students	Survey and interviews of 1st year high school students enrolled at Pampanga High School SY 2011-2012	162 students	Medium
9	Bayhon, G. A. (2001). *Bullying in an Elementary School: An Exploratory Study.* University of the Philippines.	To describe the nature of bullying in a co-ed elementary school; To describe the group of bullies; To compare male and female bullies; To recommend intervention techniques to prevent bullying	Survey and case studies of students from Grades 4, 5 and 6	232 students participated in the survey and 9 case studies	Low
10	Cachuela, A., Chiyuto, M. M., Consulta, M. R. (1992). *A study of Factors Leading Parents Aged 35-40 Years Old at Brgy. Cubay, Jaro Iloilo City Towards Child Abuse.* Iloilo: Iloilo Doctors College	A study of factors leading parents aged 35-40 at Brgy. Cubay, Jaro Iloilo City Towards Child Abuse	Survey of parents from Brgy. Cubay, Jaro Iloilo City aged 35-40 years old	25 parents	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
11	Cadelina, F. (1982). *A Study of the Child Labor Practice of the Resettled Bais Sugar-Farm*. Dumaguete: Silliman University	Child Labour	Interview with parents and children aged 6-25 from Mabinay, Negros Oriental	136 parents and 503 children	Medium
12	Caina, G. Y. K., Nasa, J. A., Padilla, G. (2011). *The Social Functioning of Rape Victims Before and After the Intervention*. Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	Socio-demographic profile and social functioning (i.e., self-worth, relationship with family and friends; role performance) of rape victims; services and programmes available for rape victims	Interviews with child rape victims and review of existing case studies and progress notes of the rape victims at the Reception Study and Diagnostic Center in Mati, Davao Oriental.	10 children	Low
13	Calata, J. V. (2013). *Attitudes and Perceptions of Teachers and Student-Perpetuators Toward School Bullying: A Basis for the Development of Bullying Prevention Program*. Manila: University of Santo Tomas	To determine attitudes and perceptiions of teachers and student-perpetuators towards school bullying	Interviews with students and teachers in Northern Luzon Philippines	44 teachers and 192 students	Medium
14	Calma, F. A., Don, M. & Dy, K. R. (2010). *La Nina Ingrata: A Case Series on the Forms of Abuse among Prostituted Children in Davao City*. Davao City: Davao Medical School Foundation	Did not mention; "this study aims to describe the forms and extent of abuse among selected prostituted children in Davao City"	Qualitative-descriptive; Case series	3 adolescents	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
15	Canieso, R. L. (2003). *The Healing Process of Incest Survivors and Factors Mediating the Impact of Incest and the Healing Process: A Retrospective Study.* Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	To describe the healing process of women survivors of incest and the factors affecting it	Interviews with female incest survivors who were in childhood or adolescence at the time of abuse; interview of women and significant other; focus group discussion with three shelter staff and counsellors of the Women's Crisis Center	12 women	Medium
16	Capitulo, R. B. (2012). Commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC): profiles of female victims, contributing factors, life experiences and sexually transmitted infections. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics,* 119:S306. doi:10.1016/S0020-7292(12)60560-8 / (2012). XXI FIGO World Congress of Gynecology and Obstetrics, Rome, 7-12 October 2012.	To determine the socio-demographic factors and circumstances leading to sexual exploitation, working conditions, sexual behaviour, physical findings and sexually transmitted infections among exploited institutionalized female child commercial sexual workers	Mixed methods study through various rescue and rehabilitation centres in Manila Philippines	237 female child sex workers included as participants; 8-16 years old	Medium
17	Chaudhury, N., Friedman, J., & Onishi, J. (2013). *Philippines Conditional Cash Transfer Program Impact Evaluation 2012.* Retrieved from: http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2013/01/201555574/philippines-conditional-cash-transfer-program-impact-evaluation-2012	Presents the findings of an analysis assessing programme impact by comparing outcomes in areas that received Pantawid Pamilya with outcomes in areas that did not	Regression Discontinuity Design, which compared the outcomes of poor households who received the programme with similar poor households just above the poverty line. This report presents the findings from the RCT component only	RCT only: 1418 households (Treatment/Pantawid Pamilya 714, Control 704)	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
18	Chua, J., Garcia, R. L. & Vilela, M.V. (1998). *Beliefs Used to Justify Child Sexual Abuse among Child Sexual Abusers.* Manila: De La Salle University	To discover the beliefs of Filipino child sexual abusers that are used to justify, deny, minimize and rationalize their behaviour	Interview by a professional counsellor with eight convicted child sexual abuse perpetrators from the New Bilibid Prison and Parole and Probation Office 2	8 convicted child sexual abuse offenders	Medium
19	Coronel, F. K. & Unterreiner, F. (2008). *Increasing the Impact of Remittances on Children's Rights in the Philippines. 2008.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Policy, Advocacy and Knowledge Management (PAKM), Division of Policy and Practice	Uses a human rights-based approach to study how remittances could have greater impact on child rights realization, and looks at the relationship between migration-remittances and child rights realization for a clearer understanding of the challenges facing greater respect, protection and realization of child rights	Desk review of existing research and an analysis of the relation between remittances and children's rigts, using all relevant available dta and information	Desk Review	N/A
20	Cortes, R. (2008). *Children and Women Left Behind in Labour Sending Countries: An Appraisal of Social Risks.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Policy, Advocacy and Knowledge Management Section, Division of Policy and Practice	Seeks to identify the links between permanent international migration and the rights of children in left-behind households. Focuses on the role of migration and remittances in improving the livelihoods of children in migrant households, and on broadening their capacity to participate fully in society	Examines the project reports and the migration literature		Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
21	Cruz, G. T. (2014). 'Tweets and Likes: Media and Lifestyle of the Pinoy Young Adults'. Presented at #PinoyYouth Today: Results from the 2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study, UP Diliman, February 6	Presents results from the 2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study, a primary source of information on sexual and non-sexual risk behaviour and its determinants in the Philippines, focusing on health, lifestyle and media exposure	Nationally representative survey on Filipino youths aged 15 to 24	19,178 young adults	Low
22	Cuenca, J. (2010a). The Filipino Child: Proliferation of Street Children: A Threat to the MDGs. Makati City: Philippine Institute for Development Studies	Desk review on street children	Coverage of various studies	N/A	N/A
23	Curamen, R. M. (2009). Appropriateness of the Programs and Services of Nueva Ecija Home for Sexually Abused Children. Bagui City: University of the Cordilleras	To determine the effectiveness of the programmes and services implemented by the Nueva Ecija Home for Girls for the rehabilitation of sexually abused children, in terms of the physiological aspect pertaining to the physical needs of the child. The psychological aspect specifically refers to how the client interacts with the other victims and people around them, while psychosocial aspect includes the emotional and social well being of the client	Interviews with sexually abused children under 18 in Nueva Ecija	38 children	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
24	Daly, M., Bray, R., Bruckauf, Z., Byrne, J., Margaria, A., Pećnik, N. & Samms-Vaughan, M. (2015). *Family and Parenting Support: Policy and Provision in a Global Context*, 84-90. Florence: Innocenti Insight, UNICEF Office of Research	Examines and analyses policies and provision for family and parenting support. The goals of the research are to identify relevant global trends and develop an analytical framework that can be used for future research and policy analysis	Evidence was gathered and existing evidence systematized and analysed. The report is based on general literature searches and evidence gathered from 33 UNICEF national offices, located in different parts of the world, and detailed case studies of nine countries (Belarus, Chile, China, Croatia, England, Jamaica, the Philippines, South Africa and Sweden).	Desk review and secondary analysis	N/A
25	Dasargo, K. J. (2012). *Children in Construction Labor in Davao City*. Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	The study is conducted to determine the profile and conditions of children working in construction industries in selected areas in Davao City	Survey & direct observation of children working in the construction industry in Tacunan, Mintal, Sto. Nino and Bolton Extension, Davao City	50 children	Medium
26	Davis, J. and Miles, G. (2015). *'They Didn't Help Me; They Shamed Me': A Baseline Study on the Vulnerabilities of Street-Involved Boys to Sexual Exploitation in Manila, Philippines.* Manila: Love146	Sexual exploitation and the vulnerability of street-involved boys in Manila	In-depth structured interviews	51 street-involved boys ages 10-19.	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
27	Dela Cruz, T., Protacio, E., Balanon, F., Yacat, J. & Francisco, C. (2000). *Trust and Power: Child Abuse in the Eyes of the Child and the Parent.* Philippines: United Nations Children's Fund and Save the Children Fund.	Aimed to understand how a group of children in difficult situations and adults in selected communities in Manila perceived and defined child abuse and its effects	Children's participatory sessions (show-and-tell activities, role-playing and small group discussions); Indigenous research methods (conducting regular visits to children's home, sharing stories, asking around with adults); Parental FGD, structured interviews of community members	144 (43 children, 87 parents, 14 community actors)	Low
28	Diloy, Y. C. (2013). *Online Risks Filipino Children Face Today.* Retrieved at: http://cameleon-association.org/publications/etudes/2013-Online-risks-Filipino-children-face-today-BD.pdf	Identifying online risks to Filipino children	The information contained in this study is culled from several exploratory studies that Stairway has conducted over the past 6 years; A 2007 Online research documenting online risks to children vis-à-vis the issue of child sexual abuse. A 2009 research on online risk and risk taking behaviours of children targeting 755 Grade 5 and 6 students in a semi-rural municipality in Cavite. An updated 2012 research on online risk and risk taking behaviours of children targeting 3,500 children aged 10 to 12 in different regions in the Philippines. Another significant source of information was culled from our own anecdotal experiences…	755 grade 5 and 6 students in a semi-rural municipality in Cavite. / 3,500 children aged 10-12 years old in different regions in the Philippines.	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
29	Edillon, R. (2008). *The Effects of Parent's Migration on the Rights of the Children Left Behind in the Philippines*. New York: United Nations Children´s Fund (UNICEF), Policy, Advocacy and Knowledge Management (PAKM), Division of Policy and Practice	Focuses on children left behind by their parent(s) working overseas and how their rights are addressed in the absence of one or both parents	Secondary data: The study used data merged from three different surveys: Family Income and Expenditure Survey, the Labor Force Survey (January 2004 round) and the Survey on Overseas Filipinos (2003). Primary data: Interview of household respondents and panel interview of children from the sample OFW households	Total number of household respondents is 248: 122 OFW households/ treatment households and 126 non-OFW households/ control households. Total number of children interviewed: 130. Individual interviews: 24	Low
30	Ericta, C. N. (2011). *2011 Survey on Children [Presentation Slides/PDF Document]*. Retrieved from International Labor Organization website: http://www.ilo.org/global/docs/WCMS_184097/lang--en/index.htm	Child Labour	Population-based representative survey		Low
31	Fernandez, B. J., Kaquilala, C., Joo, C. L. J., Musa, W. (2004). *Physical Abuse: Experiences and Responses*. Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	Physical Abuse: Experiences and Responses	Survey, Focus Group Discussion and in-depth interviews with fourth year students of Governor Vicente Duterte National High School	190 students	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
32	Fernandez, W. M., Gumia, G. E. M., Dimapanat, N., Gealon, R. J., Flores, V. (2011). *Causes of Child Labor among Children in Bangkerohan, Davao City.* Davao City: Brokenshire College	To determine the causes of child labour among children in Bangkerohan, Davao City.	Survey of children of aged 6 to 15 from Bangkerohan, Davao City	50 children	Medium
33	Flores M. A., Tan M. P. (2009). *Risky online behaviors of 3rd to 4th year high school students in public and private high schools in Metro Manila predisposing to internet sexual solicitation and harassment* [Unpublished manuscript]. Manila: University of the Philippines/Manila-Philippine General Hospital	To determine the online risk factors of third to fourth year high school students in a public and private high school in an urban area that predisposes them to sexual solicitation and harassment on the Internet	Cross-sectional survey of third and fourth year students from public and private schools who have used the internet in the previous year	244 high school students	Low
34	Fresco K. M., Castillo, M. S., Baluyut I. D., Tan, M. P. (2008). *Sexual abuse in children through mobile phones: The Philippine General Hospital-Child Protection Unit Experience.* [Unpublished manuscript]. Manila: University of the Philippines/Manila-Philippine General Hospital	To explore sexual abuse using mobile phone technology	Patients at the Philippine General Hopsital Child Protection Unit	2,912 child sexual abuse cases	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
35	Fuentes, A. S. (2005). *Bodies as Site of Violence, Resistance and Power: A Study on the Negotiation Process of Girl-Child Prostitution in Three Cities (Davao City, General Santos City and Cagayan de Oro City)*. Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University Graduate School	To describe negotiation as a process in girl-child prostitution and determine whether power can be possessed by someone in an exploitative relationship	In-depth interviews, observation, and group sessions with prostituted girls (5 from Davao City, five from General Santos City, and seven from Cagayan de Oro City)	17 girls	Medium
36	Gaking, Y. K. (2011). *Child Labor in Selected Small-scale Banana Plantations in Davao City*. Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	To determine the profile and conditions of children in small-scale banana plantations in Calinan and Baguio districts in Davao City	Survey, interviews and direct observation of children working in small-scale banana plantations in Davao City	30 children	Medium
37	Garcia, L. S. & Manikan, F. Y. (2014). *Gender Violence on the Internet: The Philippine Experience*. Quezon City: Foundation for Media Alternatives, Association for Progressive Communications	Provides a glimpse of how women and girls in the domestic milieu experience violence in the digital space, and the response provided by municipal laws, including the corporate policies of local internet service providers, to such instances of technology-related VAW.	FMA documented and analyzed three relevant and fairly recent cases that make up the crux of this text	3 cases of technology-based violence against women	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
38	Garingo, A. S. Manila: (2007). *Bullying Among Selected Public and Private Elementary and High School Students in Bacoor Cavite*. Manila: University of the City of Manila	To identify the profile of respondents in both public and private elementary and high school levels; to identify the various forms, frequency and conditions of bullying behaviour among public and private elementary and high school bullies; to determine the differences between the forms and conditions of bullying among a: public elementary pullies and private elementary bullies, b: public high school bullies and private high school bullies, elementary bullies and high school bullies; to determine the relationship between the profile of the respondents and the forms and conditions of bullying among public and private elementary and high school bullies	Survey of students in Grades 4 to 6 and high school who were identified as bullies in Cavite	100 students	Medium
39	Garciano, A. (2013). *Experiences of Trafficked Women Victims and Initial Development Interventions in Northern Mindanao*. Marawi: Mindanao State University – Iligan Institute of Technology	To document the experiences of women trafficking victims in (Cagayan de Oro City) Northern Mindanao and describe the rehabilitation and recovery interventions undertaken by NGOs and government organizations	Case studies of women victims of trafficking when they were aged 7-18 year old who benefited from rescue operations and health and sanitation programmes by the government through the assistance of NGOs	10 women	Low
40	Garvida, P. U. F., Roa, P. L. A. (2008). *The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) and the Behavioral Assessment of Speech Anxiety (BASA) of Child Victims of Sexual Abuse in Baguio City*. Baguio: University of the Philippines Baguio	1. To distinguish the trend in the level of communication apprehension experienced by child victims of sexual abuse. 2. To identify verbal and nonverbal behavioural indicators of communication apprehension prevalent in child victims of sexual abuse. 3. To describe the degree of communication apprehension experienced by child victims of sexual abuse	Interviews with children aged 10 to 16 years presently residing in Baguio City	11 children	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
41	Gonzales, G. D., (2000). *Proposed Social Work Intervention for the Treatment, Rehabilitation and Transformation of Physical Child Abusers.* Manila: Philippine Women's University	Proposed Social Work Intervention for the Treatment, Rehabilitation and Transformation of Physical Child Abusers	Interviews of sexually abused children aged 7 to 17, who came in for consult and those who have a follow up consultation at the DMC WCPU for the period of one year from the commencement of research and who were willing to participate	15 sexually abused children	Medium
42	Herrin, J. A., Sugue-Castillo, M. S. (2009). *Case review of Male Child Sexual Abuse Victims Seen at the UP-Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit between 2003-2007.* Manila: Child Protection Unit-Philippine General Hospital	Case review of Male Child Sexual Abuse Victims Seen at the UP-Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit between 2003-2007	Review of 107 medical records of sexually abused males aged 18 and below at time of first consultation with first consult between January 2003 – December 2007	107 cases of child sexual abuse among males	Low
43	Hinayon, M. E. (2013). *Child Labor in the Eyes of the Child: A Study on How Child Laborers Construct Child Labor.* Quezon City: University of the Philippines	To explore and describe how child workers construct child labour; to present the socioeconomic profile of selected child workers in quarrying area in Sitio Ese; to identify child workers' viewpoint regarding reasons for working, conditions of work, aspirations; to identify services and responses by governmental and NGOs in the area; to recommend policy and programmes that would help child workers in the area	Case studies and focus group discussions with children aged 10-14 working in a quarry in Sitio Eses	10 children	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
44	Hulipas, E. J. (2005). *The Inner World of the Sexually Abused Adolescents with Mental Retardation at the National Center for Mental Health- Women and Children Protection Unit.* Retrieved from Phillipine eLib	To determine the conditions that make the occurrence of the abuse possible; to explore the inner lives of the adolescent; to capture the process of transformation of the adolescent	Analysis of medical records of sexually abused adolescents with mental retardation who consulted at NCMH on Jan 2001-June 2002	12 cases	Medium
45	Jungco, R., Garingo, K., Gregore, M. J. (2013). *A Comparative Analysis of Child Abuse Incidence in Iloilo City.* Iloilo: West Visayas State University	A Comparative Analysis of Child Abuse Incidence in Iloilo City	Review of 281 blotter entries of the Philippines National Police - Iloilo Police Office from 2008 to 2012	281 cases	Medium
46	Kirkconnell III K. (n.d.). *Experiences of Violence Among Teenage Open Gays.* Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	1.To document gay people's experience of of violence 2. To understand the concept of violence from the view of the respondents 3. To identify different forms of violence and the context or situations leading to violence 4. To understand what coping mechanisms of the respondents are	Interviews of openly homosexual high school students from selected secondary schools in Davao City who have experienced violence	60 students	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
47	Kuhlmann, D. F. and Aurén, S. (2015). *Nipa Huts with High Speed Internet: Commercial Exploitation of Children in the 21st Century. A Qualitative Investigation of Webcam Child Prostitution in the Philippines.* Retrieved from: download?func=downloadFile& recordOId=5424968&fileOId =5424969	Examines the emerging issue of Webcam Child Prostitution, which has so far only been observed in the Philippines	Utilising a qualitative approach, the authors conducted a series of interviews with law enforcement and civil society, as well as survivors of the crime and two focus groups in a low-income neighbourhood in Manila. The data collected is analysed through a critical theoretical theoretical framework based on Harvey's Accumulation by Dispossession.	8 interviews (7 face-to-face, 1 email). 2 focus group discussions	Medium
48	Lagon, G. N., Interone, X. K., Tumapon, R. (2015). *Child Maltreatment and Sibling Violence On the Self-Efficacy, Quality of Life and Anger Management in Adolescents.* Marawi: Mindanao State University	To discover the significant relationship between child maltreatment and sibling violence and the respondents' self efficacy, their perception of the quality of their lives, and their anger management	Surveys of adolescents residing in Iligan City who are victims of child maltreatment and sibling violence	100 adolescents	Medium
49	Lam, T., Yeoh, B. S. A. & Hoang, L. A. (2013). *Transnational Migration and Changing Care Arrangements for Left-Behind Children in Southeast Asia: A Selective Literature Review in Relation to the CHAMPSEA Study* (ARI Working Paper, No. 207). Retrieved at: www.nus.ari.edu. sg/pub/wps.htm.	Seeks to elucidate care arrangements for left-behind children, and to understand how children respond to shifts in intimate family relationships brought about by (re) configurations of their care. Findings emphasise that children, through strategies of resistance, resilience and reworking, are conscious social actors and agents of their own development, albeit within constrained situations resulting from their parents' migration	Both quantitative and qualitative data collected in Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam	Desk review	N/A

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
50	Lamberte, E. (2002). *Ours to protect and nurture: the case of children needing special protection.* Manila: De La Salle University, Social Development Research Center	Contains a collection of three separate but closely interrelated works about street-involved children	1) presents the results of a nationwide research on the highly visible children 'in' the streets ('in' emphasising an enclosed physical domain of the children) in 22 major cities around the country. 2) inventory and mapping of the NGOs involved in street children, with an assessment of their respective programs and services. 3) policy paper recommending ways to respond to the unique needs and circumstances of the street-involvedchildren		Medium
51	Lim, A. F. (2014). *Child Labor in Selected Barangays in Hagonoy, Davao Del Sur:* Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines *Status and Challenges.*	To identify the status and challeneges faced by child labourers of selected barangays in the Municipality of Hagonoy, Davao Del Sur, to recommend programmes to address their current conditions, and to increase the level of awareness of children, their parents, local government, the community and the stakeholders of child rights, thereby contributing to the reduction of child labour in the area	Survey, key informant interviews and focus group discussions with child labourers from the Municipality of Hagonoy, Davao Del Sur	30 childen	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
52	Lopez, G., Diel, H. C. (2003). *Labor Participation of Children Among Banana Growers.* Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	1. To detemine the socio-demograhic background of the working children in selected banana production-related industries in Davao del Sur. 2. To determine the working conditions of these children 3. To determine the views of these children concerning their work circumstances and situation in the banana industries	Interview and focus group discussion with 60 children working in the banana farms in Malalag, Davao del Sur and Brgy. Mandug, Buhangin District	60 child workers	Medium
53	Madrinan, S. L. (2009). *Clinical profile of drug-facilitated sexaully assaulted female adolescents at the Child Protection Unit of the Philippine General Hospital from January 1, 2009 to December 31, 2009* [Unpublished manuscript]. Manila: University of the Philippines, Manila-Philippine General Hospital	Describes the clinical profile of drug-facilitated sexually assaulted females	Retrospective database review of female adolscents aged 11-18 with history of drug-facilitated sexual assault	474 child sexual abuse cases	Low
54	Magalong, I. C. (2007). *Parenting Style and Quality of Life of Children in the Labor Force in Bangkerohan, Davao City.* Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	To examine the relationship between parenting style and the quality of life of children in the labour force in Bangkerohan, Davao City	Survey and interviews of children aged 6-17 in the labour force in Bangkerohan Public Market	50 children	Medium
55	Magbanua, F. J., Tolosa, J. A., Ursabia, R., Ugal, E. (2009). *Implication of Child Labor and Study Habits among Public School Elementary Students.* Davao City: Brokenshire College	Examining the study habits of those who are involved in child labour of Public School Elementary Students.	Interviews with children in Grades five and six students studying at Bolton Elementary School	80 children	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
56	Mariano, R. S. (2011). *The Neuropsychosocial Profile of Juvenile Male Sex Offenders: Basis for the Development of the Challenge Intervention Program* (thesis: Doctor of Philisophy Major in Clinical Psychology)	To present a thorough profile of juvenile Filipino sexual offenders, utilizing the neuropsychosocial constructs and the social antecednts relating to sexual aggression as a basis	Descriptive correlation study; using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies	11	Low
57	Marquez, M. P. N. (2014). "#SexyTime: Sexual Behavior of Pinoy Young Adults." Presented at the #PinoyYouthToday: Results from the 2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study, UP Diliman, February 6	Presents results from the 2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study, a primary source of information on sexual and non-sexual risk behaviour and its determinants in the Philippines, focusing on sex and media, sexual activities, and teenage pregnancy	Nationally representative survey on Filipino youths aged 15-24	19,178 young adults	Low
58	Mendiola, E. P. (1999). *Filipino Concepts and Practices of Child Discipline and Child Abuse.* Manila: De La Salle University	Filipino Concepts and Practices of Child Discipline and Child Abuse	Survey of students, parents with at least one child, and single employees	180 students, parents with at least 1 child & single employees	Low
59	Natividad, N. P. (2007). *Profile of the Female Assailant: A 4-Year Background Check of the Alleged Female Perpetrators Committing Sexual or Physical Abuse Seen at the UP Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit from January 2004 to October 2007.* Manila: Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit	To build a clinical database containing the profiles of the female child abuser (sexual or physical), reported at the UP Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit from 2004 to present. Specifically: to describe the characteristics of study population of female perpetrators; to apply descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, and use of epidemiologic information in determining the demographics of female perpetation of abuse; and to determine the typical profile of a female Filipino abuser	Review of records of sexual abuse and physical abuse cases with female perpetrators from January 2004 to August 2007 seen at the Child Protection Unit of the Philippine General Hospital in Metro Manila	119 cases	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
60	Navarroza, M. R. (2006). *Perception on the Effects on Self-confidence of Physical Punishment as a Means of Correcting Negative Behavior.* Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	Perception of the effects on self-confidence of physical punishment as a means of correcting negative behaviour	Survey of adults and children of Brgy. 39-D and Brgy Talomo and students from University of Southeastern Philippines who have been involved in the use of physical punishment to impose discipline	100 adults and 40 children	Medium
61	Ogena, N.B. 2014. "#BISYOatbp: Non-Sexual Risk Behaviors." Presented at the #PinoyYouthToday: Results from the 2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study, UP Diliman, February 6.	Presents results from the 2013 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study, a primary source of information on sexual and non-sexual risk behaviour and their determinants in the Philippines, focusing on non-sexual risk behaviour, physical violence, and harassment using technology	Nationally representative survey on Filipino youths aged 15-24	19,178 young adults	Low
62	Ong, J. S. (2008). *Antisocial Behavior on School Violence: Prevalence, Correlates and Predictors Among High School Students of Selected Public Schools in Batangas City.* Manila: University of Santo Tomas	1) To investigate whether maltreated children differ in neuropsychological profiles when gender and type of maltreatment are considered. 2) To determine the extent to which the Cognitive Behaviour Therapy and relaxation induction with imagery intervention programme has addressed the manifest anxiety level of the maltreated children included in the second phase of the study	Survey of 1,184 respondents with 74 referred cases for antisocial behaviour, 26 class advisers, and 44 parents of referred students in Batangas	1184 respondents	Low
63	Padilla, C. G. (2011). *Child Porters in Selected Public Markets in Davao City.* Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	To determine the profile and conditions of children working as porters in public markets in Davao City	Survey, interviews and direct observation of children working in Bangkerohan and Matina public markets	50 children	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
64	Pantig, F. M., Tan, M., Dans, L. (2014). *Sexual Abuse in Children through Social Media: the Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit Experience, a 5-Year Review*. Manila: Child Protection Unit-Philippine General Hospital	To determine the percentage of sexual abuse in children reported to the PGH Child Protection Unit that involved using the Internet and social media networking websites. The specific objective was to describe the demographic and socio-economic profile of children sexually abused with the involvement of social media websites	Review of medical records of sexual abuse cases from January 2009 to December 2013 at Child Protection Unit-Philippine General Hospital	3,347 medical records	Medium
65	Parreñas, R. (2005a). *Children of Global Migration: Transnational Families and Gendered Woes*. Stanford: Stanford University Press	Examines the impact of distance on the intergenerational relationships, specifically from the children's perspective. Analyzes gender norms in these families, and how they are applied or not applied in households	In-depth interviews		Medium
66	Parrenno, M. T., Alba-Concha, M. E., Orogo-Nalupa, M. (2009). *Exploring Health Care Experience of the Child Sexual Abuse Clients of the Women and Children Protection Unit (WCPU) at the Davao Medical Center*. Davao City: Davao Medical Center	Exploring healthcare experiences of child sexual abuse clients of the WCPU at Davao Medical Center	Random selection of high schools from which the subjects came from and sampling frame consisted of 161 schools	A total of 10 learners were used in each school whilst a total of 113 deputy head teachers were used. 28 schools were used in each of three regions and 29 schools in the last region	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
67	Plan. (2005). *Understanding Child Discipline and Child Abuse in the Filipino Context: Comparing Perspectives of Parents, Children, Professionals and Community Leaders*. Makati City, Philippines: Plan	Exploring the notions, beliefs and behaviours toward child discipline, seeking to analyze the important links between parental discipline and abusive acts against children	Interviews	793 respondents composed of parents, children and adolescents, teachers, professionals and local leaders from rural Plan areas, namely Anda and San Fabian in Pangasinan; San Jose and Canlintaan in Occidental Mindoro; and Poro and San Francisco in Camotes Island, Cebu Province	Low
68	Ravina, B. J. (2005). *Child Labor in Bamboo Industry: Situationer and Determinants*. Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	Collect and analyze the information related to children working in the bamboo industry in Tagum City	Interview with children aged 15 and below who are working, whether full-time or part-time basis	41 children	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
69	Raymond, J. G., D'Cunha, J., Dzuhayatin, S. R., Hynes, H. P., Rodriguez, Z. R., & Santos, A. A. (2002). *Comparative Study of Women Trafficked in the Migration Process* Retrieved from: http://www. catwinternational.org/Home/ Article/96-a-comparative-study-of-women-trafficked-in-the-migration-process	Describes the patterns, profiles and health consequences of sexual exploitation in five countries: Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, Venezuela and the United States	Interviews with female victims of trafficking in Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand and Venezuela	146 victims of trafficking in four countries	Medium
70	Reyes, M. M. (2008). Migration and Filipino Children Left Behind: A Literature Review. Retrieved from: http:// www.unicef.org/philippines/ Synthesis_StudyJuly12008.pdf	A review of the literature used in the UNICEF study	Desk Review	Desk Review	N/A
71	Ricardo, R. (2007). *Child trafficking in the Philippines: A situational analysis.* Manila: International Labour Organization	Situation analysis of Child Protection in the Philippines commissioned by the Save the Children Child Protection Initiative (CPI)	Desk Review	Desk Review	N/A
72	Rigonan, J. T., Balan-eg, J. R., Mangagom, J. C. B. & Mocay, J. C. H. (2013). *Level of awareness of high school students of Pines City National High School to Cyberbullying in Facebook.* Bagui City: University of the Cordilleras	To determine the level of awareness of students, particularly high school students at Pines City National High School, to personal threats on Facebook	Survey of high school students of Pines City National High School in Baguio	212 students	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
					Low
73	Sano, Y., Sedziafa, A. P., Tenkorang, E. Y., & Amoyaw, J. (2015). *Proceedings from Population Association of America 2015 Annual Meeting: Correlates of first forced intercourse among women in the Philippines*. Retrieved from: http://paa2015.princeton.edu/uploads/150876	Examining the factors associated with forced first intercourse among Filipino women	Using data from the 2008 Philippines Demographic and Health Survey	A total of 13,594 women were identified and interviewed nationwide, with a response rate of 98%. From these respondents, a subset of women (n = 9,316) who were a part of the Domestic Violence Modules were selected. We restrict our sample toonly sexually active women (N = 7,377).	
74	Santander, L. C. (2012). *Factors Affecting Child Labor in Agricultural Areas in Selected Areas in Selected Barangay in 3rd District Davao City*. Davao City: University of Southeastern Philippines	To determine the factors affecting child labour	Survey and interviews of children involved in the child labour in Tugboc, Calinan, and Baguio Districts in Davao City	30 children	Medium
75	Scalabrini Migration Center (SMC). (2004). *Hearts Apart: Migration in the Eyes of Filipino Children*. The Philippines: Scalabrini Migration Center	Presents the results of a 2003 nationwide research study on the impact of international labour migration on young children and families left behind	Survey of children aged 10-12, Focus group discussions with other family members, workers and volunteers who work with families left behind	1,443 children of migrants and non-migrants	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
76	Suba, N. G. (2001). *Bullying in the Ateneo Grade School: An Exploratory Study*. Davao City: Ateneo de Davao University	To obtain information from students, parents and teachers regarding bullying	Grade 2 to 7 students of Ateneo Grade School were surveyed	Not stated	Medium
77	Tan, P. (2007). *Child Domestic Work Students at the Negros Oriental High School*. Dumaguete: Siliman University	Child labour	Interview with working children from Negros Oriental High School	60 children	Medium
78	Terre des Hommes Netherlands. (2013a). *Fullscreen on View: An Exploratory Study on the Background and Psychosocial Consequences of Webcam Child Sex Tourism in the Philippines*. Retrieved at: http://terredeshommesnl.org/_media/documents/TdH-Fullscreen_on_View-Webversie_DEF.pdf	To gain more knowledge on the psychosocial consequences of webcam child sex tourism for children, and to give insight into the antecedent factors that play a role	1) Overview of the research methodology and theoretical framework. 2) Chapter on the characteristics of webcam child sex tourism in the Philippine. 3) Extensive analysis of the psychosocial consequences of this practice for the victims	44 cases of webcam child sex tourism. Total of 65 respondents (victims, families and community members).	Low
79	Terre des Hommes Netherlands. (2013b). *Webcam Child Sex Tourism - Become Sweetie: A Novel Approach to Stopping the Global Rise of Webcam Child Sex Tourism*. Retrieved at: http://www.terredeshommes.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/Webcam-child-sex-tourism-terre-des-hommes-NL-nov-2013.pdf	The physical and online environments in which WCST takes place, the global trends that have fostered its emergence, and the legal status of WCST in international law and in the national criminal and penal codes of 21 countries	Gathering information about the nature of the phenomenon of WCST.	19 public chat rooms	Low

Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
80	Trinidad, A. C. (2005). *Child Pornography in the Philippines*. Manila: UP Center for Integrative and Development Studies and UNICEF	Examining child pornography in the Phillipines	Reviewed and consolidated literature on the issue. Interviews and focus group discussions with key informants in government and non-government organizations	Not mentioned in the report	Medium
81	Trinidad, A., & Manzano, A. (2006). *Behind the mask: Experiences of children in conflict with the law from rural and non-major urban areas*. Makati City: Plan Philippines	This publication provides an assessment of the situation of CICL and the juvenile justice system in rural communities and non-major urban areas. Specifically, it assesses the community's understanding of and attitude towards CICL, identifies programme responses, and assesses readiness to launch a prevention and protection programme	Desk Review	Desk Review	N/A
82	Tumadiang, N. S. (2009). *Bullying and Learners with Attention Deficit-Hyperactivity Disorder in A Regular School*. University of the Philippines	1) Does bullying occur among learners with ADHD in the classroom? 2) What is the nature and extent of bullying among learners with ADHD? 3) How, when and where is bullying manifested or demonstrated among learners with ADHD? 4) What are the reasons provided for bullying? 5) What are the reactions and feelings of learners with ADHD towards bullying? 6) How do teachers respond to bullying, as observed by learners with ADHD?	Survey and interviews with children diagnosed with ADHD from the Grade School Department of Paco Catholic School during the school year 2008-2009	11 children with ADHD	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
83	United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). (2009). *Reversing the trend: Child trafficking in East and South-East Asia.* Bangkok: UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office	To consolidate our gains and growing knowledge base on trafficking in the region over the past seven years, and to guide the future direction of UNICEF interventions on child trafficking	Conducted country-level assessments in seven countries: China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam in early 2008. This report is a synthesis of these seven country assessments.	7 Countries	Medium
84	University of the Philippines Population Institute (UPPI) & the Demographic Research and Development Foundation (DRDF). (2013). *YAFS Key Findings.* Retrieved from: http://www.drdf.org.ph/yafs4/key_findings	To provide updated information on a broad range of sexuality and reproductive health issues that can be used as basis for developing new interventions and improving current programmes that aim to safeguard the health and welfare of youth	Series of cross-sectional surveys on the Filipino youth aged 15-24 conducted since 1982 by the University of the Philippines Population Institute (UPPI) and the Demographic Research and Development Foundation (DRDF).	19,178 young adults	Low
85	Van der Veen, S. (2015). *'And Then They Say I Want to See Your Boobs': Internet in the Lives of Filipino Children.* Retrieved at: http://dare.uva.nl/cgi/arno/show.cgi?fid=167817	Child views of online victimisation in the Philippines	Questionnaire, interviews, group discussions	109 children (85 children answered questionnaire, 24 in-depth interviews, 3 group discussions)	Low
86	Velasquez, R. G. (2009). *Bullying and Home and School Environments.* Manila: University of the Philippines	To describe bullies and victims and their dynamics in realtion to their personality types and in the context of their home, and boys' exeriences at boys' schools	Focused group discussions and interviews with bullies and victims in Grade 4-7 selected by guidance counsellors who enrolled in school year 2009-2010 in Manila	21 children	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
87	Ventura, L. L. (2014). *Self-concept of Sexually Abused Children*. Baguio City: University of the Cordilleras	To determine the self-conception of sexually abused children with respect to their self-esteem, self-image, and ideal self; the difference of self-conception with regards to severity of trauma; and the intervention programmes needed to enhance positive self-conception	Interview, mental status examination and direct observation of children aged 6 to 16 years and identified as a victim of sexual abuse in Dagupan	10 children	Medium
88	Witkus, S. G. (2012). *Cyber Bullying Among Filipino Adolescents*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii at Manoa	To examine cyber bullying experiences among Filipino Visayan adolescents in the Philippines	A one-time cross-sectional design. Participants were given a 38-item survey to identify demographic information and to ask about their cyber bullying experiences	579 participants between the ages of 11 and 17 years of age who had prior and/or were currently taking computer classes at the time of the study.	Low
89	Zaft, C. R., & Tidball, S. (2010). *A Survey of Child Sex Tourism in the Philippines, presented at the Second Annual Interdisciplinary Conference on Human Trafficking*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska	Examines child sex tourism in the Philippines, a major destination country for the purposes of child prostitution	Research articles and reports from NGOs, advocacy groups, governments and educators were examined	Desk Review	N/A

Journal Articles

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
90	Acebes-Escobal, B. C., Nerida, M. C., and Chez, R. A. (2002). Abuse of woman and children in a Philippine community. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics*. 76(2): 213-217. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7292(01)00551-3	A retrospective review of patient data to describe the demographic profiles, types of injury and characteristics of abusers of 1,354 women and children survivors of domestic violence	Data were collected from a retrospective chart review over a period of 23 months of all non-pregnant women and children at the Vicente Sotto Memorial Medical Centre, Women and Children Protection Unit	1354 patients	Low
91	Alampay, L. P., & Jocson, R. M. (2011). Attributions and attitudes of mothers and fathers in the Philippines. *Parenting: Science and Practice, 11*, 163-176. doi: 10.1080/15295192.2011.585564	Investigates the mean level and within-family similarities and differences in Filipino mothers' and fathers' attributions of success and failure in caregiving situations, and their progressive and authoritarian parenting attitudes	Mothers and fathers in 95 families in metropolitan Manila completed interviews	95 Families	Low
92	Alampay, L. P., Anonas, M. R .L . (2015). The moderating role of parental warmth on the relation between verbal punishment and child problem behaviors for same-sex and cross-sex parent-child groups. *Philippine Journal of Psychology, 48*, 115-152. http://www.pap.org.ph/includes/view/default/uploads/pjp-journals/PJP1501_Final_5Anonas&Alampay.pdf	Investigates the relationship between parental verbal punishment and externalizing and internalizing behaviour problems in Filipino children, and the moderating role of parental warmth in this relationship, for same-sex (mothers-girls; fathers-boys) and cross-sex parent-child groups (mothers-boys; fathers-girls)	Participants were 117 mothers and 98 fathers of 61 boys and 59 girls who responded to a discipline interview, the Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Control scale (PARQ/Control) and the Achenbach Child Behaviour Checklist via oral interviews	117 mothers and 98 fathers of 61 boys and 59 girls	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
93	Ansara, D. L., & Hindin, M. J. (2009). Perpetration of intimate partner aggression by men and women in the Philippines: Prevalence and associated factors. *Journal of interpersonal violence, 24(9)*, 1579. doi: 10.1177/0886260508323660	To examine data from the 2002 Cebu Longitudinal Health and Nutrition Survey to examine the prevalence of and factors associated with intimate partner violence perpetration by husbands and wives in Cebu	Secondary analysis, qualitative and quantitative	1771	Low
94	Antai, D., and Anthony, D. (2014). Psychological distress and attempted suicide in female victims of intimate partner violence: an illustration from the Philippines context. *Journal of Public Mental Health. 13(4)*: 197-210. http://dx.doi. org/10.1108/JPMH-08-2013-0057	Secondary analysis of the 2008 DHS to investigate the role of socio-demographic inequality in association with intimate partner violence and economic abuse	Multistage stratified cluster sampling procedure from the 2008 Philippines Demographic and Health Surveys; associations were assessed using cross-tabulations using chi-square analyses; logistic regression analysis used to assess bivariate associations.	8,478 women aged 15 to 49 years old	Low
95	Asis, M. M. B. (2000). Imagining the Future of Migration and Families in Asia. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal, Volume 9, No. 3*, 255-272. doi: 10.1177/011719680000900302	Attempts to outline observed changes in Asian families (particularly in East and Southeast Asia) in the past 30 years	Reviews research-based findings on the links between international migration and the family, and identifies emerging family-related issues vis-à-vis emerging trends in international migration	Desk Review	N/A

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
96	Bagley, C. (1999). Adolescent prostitution in Canada and the Philippines: Statistical Comparisons, an Ethnographic Account and Policy Options. *International Social Work, 42*(4): 445-454. doi: 10.1177/002087289904200406	Adolescent prostitution in Canada and the Philippines	Interviews with adolescents	Sex trade workers: 45 in Calgary sample, 81 in Manila sample	Medium
97	Battistella, G. & Conaco, M. C. G. (1998). The Impact of Labour Migration on the Children Left Behind: A Study of Elementary School Children in the Philippines. *Sojourn: Journal of Social Issues in Southeast Asia, 13*(2), 220–241 http://www.jstor.org/stable/41056988	Explores in particular the impact on children, through research conducted among elementary school children of Filipino migrants	Interviews of children in elementary grammar school that probed the child's feelings and behaviour from the child's perspective. Focus group discussions with parents left behind, teachers and caretakers	709 children aged 9-15 years	Low
98	Daganzo, M. A. A., Alampay, L. P., & Lansford, J. E. (2014). Filipino mothers' self-efficacy in managing anger and in parenting, and parental rejection as predictors of child delinquency. *Philippine Journal of Psychology, 47*(2), 1-26. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4662574/	Tested a model in which Filipino mothers' self-efficacy in managing anger/irritation influenced child delinquency via two parenting variables: parental self-efficacy and parental rejection. Structured interviews were conducted with 99 mothers twice with an interval of one year, with efficacy beliefs and rejection measured in the first year and child delinquency data collected in the following year	Structured interviews were conducted with 99 mothers twice with an interval of one year with efficacy beliefs and rejection measured in the first year and child delinquency data collected in the following year	99 Mothers	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
99	Edralin D. M. (2002). Kids at Risk: Plight of Child Workers in the Tourism Industry in Cebu. *DLSU Business & Economics Review, 13(2), 1-262002.* http://ejournals.ph/index.php?journal=BER&page=article&op=view&path%5B%5D=8962&path%5B%5D=9250	To describe the socio-demographic characteristics of the child sex workers; to identify their work situation; to determine the joys and pains experienced by the sex workers; to describe the assistance extended to them by vairous groups; to recommend courses of action to combat child labour and to document actual cases of the experiences of child sex workers	Survey, focus group discussions and observation of firms with child workers in Cebu	221 firms with 237 child workers	Medium
100	Esteban, E. J. (2006). Parental verbal abuse: culture-specific coping behaviour of college students in the Philippines. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development, 36(3):* 243-259. DOI: 10.1007/s10578-005-0001-6	To investigate the conceptualizations, experiences, and coping behaviours of college students exposed to parental verbal abuse and identify culture-specific coping behaviour	Survey of students from families of middle and higher income levels at a small, private university	294 students; 194 females, 119 males	Medium
101	Estrellado, A. F., & Loh, J. M. (2014). Factors associated with battered Filipino women's decision to stay in or leave an abusive relationship. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 29(4),* 575-592. doi: 10.1177/0886260513505709	To identify factors associated with battered Filipino women's decision to stay in or leave an abusive relationship	Interviewed 40 battered women in the Philippines to explore factors associated with their decisions to stay or leave their husbands or partners.	40 "battered women"	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
102	Fehringer, J. A, and Hindin, M. J. (2009). Like parent, like child: intergenerational transmission of partner violence in Cebu, the Philippines. *Journal of Adolescent Health. 44(4):* 363-371. doi: 10.1016/j. jadohealth.2008.08.012.	To investigate the prevalence of partner violence perpetration and receipt among a sample of young men and women and the relationship between witnessing interparental violence during childhood and current violence in relationships	Secondary analysis of the Cebu Longitudinal Study	472	Low
103	Figer, R. C. (2008). Looking through the eyes of the child: the phenomenon of child verbal abuse in the Philippines. *Relational Child and Youth Care Practice. 21(4):* 46-58.	Verbal child abuse in the Philippines and children's experiences of verbal abuse	Qualitative interviews with children in Grades 3 to 5	10 children	Medium
104	Francisco, V. (2013). 'The Internet is Magic': Technology, Intimacy and Transnational Families. *Crit Sociol, January 2015, vol. 41, no. 1,* 173-190. early/2013/04/30/0896920513 484602.abstract. doi: 10.1177 /0896920513484602	Assessing the use of communication technology, including Skype and Facebook, in maintaining relationships for transnational families	Drawing on multi-sited ethnography and qualitative research	50 Filipino migrants and 25 family members left behind	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
105	Garcia, A. S., & Alampay, L. P. (2012). Parental efficacy, experience of stressful life events, and child externalizing behavior as predictors of Filipino mothers' and fathers' parental hostility and aggression. *Philippine Journal of Psychology, 45.* http://www. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC4184200/	Assessed relations of parental efficacy, experience of stressful life events, and child externalizing behaviour to Filipino mothers and fathers' parental hostility and aggression	Orally-administered surveys	117 mothers and 98 fathers for the first year of datacollection, and again a year later with 107 mothers and 83 fathers.	Low
106	Gaytos-Rosaldo, A. (2012). Demographic profile of victims of sexual violence seen at the Eastern Visayas Regional Medical Center- Women and Children Protection Unit (Evrmc-Wcpu): A 10-year retrospective study. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences, 5(1):* 240- 251. http://www.japss.org/ upload/13.%20Domestic%20 violence.pdf	Aimed to describe the demographic profile of victims of sexual violence over a 10- year period; to gather informative data on the prevalence of sexual violence in the region from among the total cases seen at a medical centre dedicated to women and child protection	Retrospective case review study. Study population were clients who sought consultation at EVRMC- WCPU because of sexual violence and were entered into the logbook of the EVRMC-WCPU from Jan 1999-Dec 2008	1,535 cases	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
107	Gershoff, E. T., Grogan-Kaylor, A., Lansford, J.E., Chang, L., Zelli, A., Deater-Deckard, K., & Dodge, K.A. (2010). Parent discipline practices in an international sample: associations with child behaviours and moderation by perceived normativeness. *Child Development. 81(2)*: 487-502. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2009.01409.x.	Explored the extent to which corporal punishment is viewed as a norm and how this impacts on children's and parent's behaviour	Part of the Parenting Across Cultures multi-country study	292 families in the Philippines	Low
108	Graham, E., Jordan, L. P., & Yeoh, B. S. (2015). Parental migration and the mental health of those who stay behind to care for children in South-East Asia. *Social Science & Medicine, 132*, 225-235. doi: 10.1016/j. socscimed.2014.10.060.	Investigates the mental health of those who stay behind in Indonesia, Philippines and Viet Nam to care for the children of overseas migrants	Uses data collected in 2008 and 2009 for aproject on Child Health and Migrant Parents in South-East Asia (CHAMPSEA)	958 children and their households	Low
109	Harper, S. E. (2010). Exploring the role of Filipino fathers: Paternal behaviors and child outcomes. *Journal of family issues, 31(1)*, 66-89. doi: 10.1177/0192513X09342858	To consider potential relationships between paternal behaviour and child outcomes	Uses data collected from an urban Southern Visayan province during the Summer of 2006	133 Filipino fathers	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
110	Hesketh, T. M, Gamlin J., Ong M., & Camacho A. Z, (2012). The Psychosocial Impact of Child Domestic Work: A Study from India and the Philippines. *Archives of Disease in Childhood. 97(9):*773-778. Doi: 10.1136/ archdischild-2012-301816.	Child Labour	Interview with child domestic workers and 200 controls in Manila, Batangas, Bacolod, Cebu, Davao, Dumaguete and Iloilo City	400 children	Medium
111	Gutierrez, F. C., & Shoemaker, D. J. (2007). Self-reported delinquency of high school students in Metro Manila: Gender and social class. *Youth Society, 40(1),* 55-85. doi: 10.1177/0044118X07309986	Study of self-reported delinquency (overt and covert property theft, swindling, vandalism, drug abuse, alcohol and cigarettes, and status offences) in metro Manila	Self-report data were gathered from 633 students from public and private schools	633 students	Medium
112	Jocson, R. M., Alampay, L. P., & Lansford, J. E. (2012). Predicting Filipino mothers' and fathers' reported use of corporal punishment from education, authoritarian attitudes, and endorsement of corporal punishment. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 36(2),* 137-145. doi: 10.1177/0165025411428249	Study to examine the relationship between education, authoritarian child-rearing attitudes, and endorsement of corporal punishment, and Filipino parents' reported use of corporal punishment	Parents of second and third grade children enrolled in 11 schools in Quezon City (metro Manila)	120 families in first wave, 107 families in second wave	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
113	Lacson, R. S., Theocharis, T. R., Strack, R., Sy, F. S., Vincent, M. L., Osteria, T. S., & Jimenez, P. R. (1997). Correlates of sexual abstinence among urban university students in the Philippines. *International Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health 23(4)*, 168-172. DOI: 10.2307/2950841	Given the risks of unprotected sexual intercourse during adolescence, it is important to obtain a comprehensive understanding of those factors associated with protective behaviour like sexual abstinence, and to address the needs of young people who may be at risk of engaging in unprotected sexual intercourse	Self-administered questionnaire given to students in all sections of an Introduction to Sociology class from two large urban universities located in metropolitan Manila	1,355 urban university students in metropolitan Manila, the Philippines	Medium
114	Lansford, J.E., Chang, L., Dodge, K.A., Malone, P.S., Oburu, O., Palmérus, K... & Quinn, N. (2005). Physical discipline and children's adjustment: cultural normativeness as a moderator. *Child Development. 76(6)*: 1234-1236. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2005.00847.x	Study to explore whether the 'normality' of physical discipline moderates the link between mothers' use of physical discipline and children's adjustment	Mixed methods including a small number of open-ended qualitative interviews with mothers and children in different countries were conducted. Following the interviews mothers and children were given drafts of measures to complete	50 mother-child dyads in the Philippines and 336 total within the multicountry study	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
115	Lansford, J. E., Alampay, L. P., Al-Hassan, S., Bacchini, D., Bombi, A. S., Bornstein… & Zelli, A. (2010). Corporal punishment of children in nine countries as a function of child gender and parent gender. *International Journal of Paediatrics, Article ID 672780,* 12 pages. http://dx.doi. org/10.1155/2010/672780	Aimed to contribute to the global perspective on corporal punishment by examining differences between mothers' and fathers' use of corporal punishment with daughters and sons	Mixed methods multi-country study. Mothers, fathers and children were recruited to participate from schools that serve socioeconomically diverse populations in each country	1417 families (children age range= 7-10 years); 1398 mothers / mother figures (age range= 19-70 years); 1146 fathers/ father figures (age range= 22-76 years). Both parents in families= 1127. Just mother families= 271; just father families=19	Low
116	Lansford, J. E., Skinner, A. T., Sorbring, E., Di Giunta, L., Deater-Deckard, K., Dodge… & Chang, L. (2012). Boys' and girls' relational and physical aggression in nine countries. *Aggressive Behavior, 38(4),* 298-308. DOI: 10.1002/ ab.21433	Examined the factor structure of, gender differences in, and associations between relational and physical aggression in China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, the Philippines, Sweden, Thailand and the United States. Children aged 7 to 10 (N = 1,410) reported on their relational and physical aggressive behaviour	Children aged 7 to 10 (N = 1,410) reported on their relationally and physically aggressive behaviour	1400 children aged 7-10	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
117	Lansford, J. E., Godwin, J. G., Uribe Tirado, L. M., Zelli, A., Al-Hassan, S. M.... & Alampay, L.P. (2014a). Individual, Family, and Culture Level Contributions to Child Physical Abuse and Neglect: A Longitudinal Study in Nine Countries. *Development and Psychopathology. Volume 27, Special Issue 4pt2, November 2015*, 1417-1428. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S095457941500084X	Advances understanding of predictors of child abuse and neglect at multiple levels of influence	Mothers, fathers, and children (N=1,418 families, Mage of children ¼ 8.29 years) were interviewed annually in three waves in 13 cultural groups in nine countries (China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya,Philippines, Sweden, Thailand, and the United States)	N=1,418 families, Mean age of children =8.29 years	Low
118	Lansford, J. E., Sharma, C., Malone, P. S., Woodlief, D., Dodge, K. A., Oburu... & Di Giunta, L. (2014b). Corporal punishment, maternal warmth, and child adjustment: A longitudinal study in eight countries. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, 43(4)*, 670-685. doi: 10.1080/15374416.2014. 893518.	Examined whether the association between corporal punishment and child adjustment problems (anxiety and aggression) is moderated by maternal warmth in a diverse set of countries that vary in a number of socio-demographic and psychological ways	Interviews were conducted with 7- to 10-year-old children (N = 1,196; 51% girls) andtheir mothers in eight countries: China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, the Philippines, Thailand and the United States. Follow-up interviews were conducted one and two years later	1,196 7-10 year-olds	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
119	Lansford, J. E., Woodlief, D., Malone, P. S., Oburu, P., Pastorelli, C., Skinner, A.... & Dodge, K. A. (2014c). A longitudinal examination of mothers' and fathers' social information processing biases and harsh discipline in nine countries. *Development and Psychopathology, 26(3),* 561-573. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0954579414000236 (	Examined whether parents' social information processing was related to their subsequent reports of their harsh discipline	Interviews were conducted with mothers (n = 1,277) and fathers (n = 1,030) of children in 1,297 families in nine countries (China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, Philippines, Sweden, Thailand, United States), initially when children were 7- to 9-years-old and again one year later	Mothers (n = 1277) and fathers (n = 1030) of children in 1297 families	Low
120	Loh, J. M. I., Calleja, F. & Restubog, S. L. D. (2011). Words that hurt: a qualitative study of parental verbal abuse in the Philippines. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, Published online before print October 18, 2010, 26(11): 2244-2263.* doi: 10.1177/0886260510383031	Explores the types of parental verbal abuse in the Philippines	School-based qualitative study utilizing snowball sampling to interview high school students, parents and counsellors	88 total participants; 30 high school students (18 male, 12 female), 30 parents (11 fathers, 19 mothers), 28 counsellors (10 male, 18 female)	Medium
121	Madrid, B. J. (2009). Child protection in the Philippines. *International Journal of Child Health and Human Development 2(3), 271-276.*	To describe how child abuse is defined in the Philippines, its prevalence and the response of the different sectors: medical, legal and social, to a child who is suspected of being abused	Qualitative (report)	Desk review	N/A

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
122	Madrid, B. J., Ramiro, L. S., Hernandez, S. S. Go, J.J. & Basilio, J. A. (2012). Child Maltreatment Prevention in the Philippines: A Situationer. *Acta Medica Philippina 46-47 (4-1)*: 79–87.	Aims to gather information regarding the situation of child maltreatment and relevant primary prevention policies, programmes and resources in the Philippines. With decentralized governance, how local communities implement their child maltreatment prevention programme is also examined	Key informant interviews with national policy makers and programme managers were conducted. Stakeholders from three local government units were also interviewed. Relevant secondary documents were reviewed		Medium
123	Maiquilla, S. M. B., Salvador, J. M., Gayvelline, C. C., Sagum, M. S., Dalet, M., Delfin, F. C… & Ungria, M. C. (2011). Y-STR DNA analysis of 154 female child sexual assault cases in the Philippines. *International Journal of Legal Medicine. 125(6)*: 817-824. doi: 10.1007/s00414-10-0535-4	Study to evaluate sexual assault cases from child protection units in the Philippines involving female child victims to determine profiles	Vaginal swab samples from 154 female child sexual assault victims who reported sexual contact within 72 hours were collected at four child protection units over a four-year period	154 female child victim	Medium
124	Mandal, M. & Hindin, M. J. (2013). From family to friends: does witnessing interparental violence affect young adults' relationships with their friends? *Journal of Adolescent Health. 53(2)*: 187-193. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.03.015	Secondary analysis to investigate the effects of witnessing interparental violence among young Filipino adults on their use and expereince of psychological aggression with friends	Secondary analysis of the Cebu Longitundinal Health and Nutrition Study. Sample for this study included children born to a cohort from original study aged 21-22 interviewed in 2002 and 2005	1,912 index children	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
125	Mandal, M.., & Hindin, M. J. (2015). Keeping it in the family: intergenerational transmission of violence in Cebu, Philippines. *Maternal and Child Health Journal, 19(3)*, 598-605. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10995-014-1544-6	Secondary analysis to examine the relationship between witnessing interparental intimate partner violence and young adults' subsequent use and expereince of family intimidation and physical abuse	Secondary analysis of the Cebu Longitudinal Health and Nutrition study. Sample for this study included 1912 index children aged 21-22 years. Young adults' use and experience of family violence was taken from the initial 2005 survey	1,881 children/ young adults	Low
126	Maxwell, C. D. & Maxwell, S.R. (2003). Experiencing and witnessing familial aggression and their relationship to physically aggressive behaviours among Filipino adolescents. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence 18(12)*: 1432-1451. doi: 10.1177/0886260503258034	Study to assess the effects of child-directed and child-witnessed violence between parents on aggressive behaviour towards adolescents, while controlling for theoretically relevant explanations of aggression	Cross-sectional school-based survey with sixth graders from urban and rural schools and first and second year high school students	1379 students	Low
127	Merrill, R., Njord, L., Njord, R., Read, C., & Pachano, J. (2010). The Effect Of Family Influence On Indicators Associated With Street Life Among Filipino Street Children. *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies, 5 (2)*, 142-150. DOI:10.1080/1745012100 3615369	Investigates selected physical and psychological effects of familial contact among Filipino street children	A validated cross-sectional survey was administered. Participants were enrolled through four non-profit organizations located in Manila, Philippines, and stratified according to familial contact	424 Filipino street children aged 8–17 years.	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
128	Osorio, A., López-del Burgo, C., Carlos, S., Ruiz-Canela, M., Delgado, M., & de Irala, J. (2012). First sexual intercourse and subsequent regret in three developing countries. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 50(3)*, 271–278. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2011.07.012	Adolescents who engage in sex can be affected by a range of negative physical and psychological consequences. Analyzes the reasons behind first sex, regret, and the association between reasons and regret	A questionnaire was implemented to 8,495 high schools students, aged 14-18, in the Philippines, El Salvador and Peru. Sexually active participants responded whether several circumstances were reasons involved in their first sexual relationship. They also responded whether they regretted having already had sexual relationships	8495 high schools students, aged 14-18, in the Philippines, El Salvador and Peru.	Medium
129	Ouano, J., Buot, N. R., Conway, G. D. & dela Rosa, E. L. (2013). A Measure of the Experience of Being Bullied: An Initial Validation in Philippine Schools. *Philippine Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15(1)*: 14-27. http://ejournals.ph/index.php?journal=PJCP&page=article&op=viewArticle&path%5B%5D=6197	Aimed to validate the Personal Experience Checklist as a measure of bullying among Filipino high school students	An exploratory phase extracted responses from the 32-item checklist to examine the factor structure relative to Filipino students' context and experiences. A cross-validation phase tested the generalizability of the factor structure obtained from the exploratory phase	Exploratory phase: 231 students; confirmatory phase: 644 students	Medium
130	Parreñas, R. S. (2005b). Long distance intimacy: class, gender and intergenerational relations between mothers and children in Filipino transnational families. *Global Networks, 5(4)*, 317–336. DOI: 10.1111/j.1471-0374.2005.00122.x	Addresses transnational intergenerational relationships between Filipino migrant mothers and their young adult children, and examines how families achieve intimacy across great distances	Identifying and examining the transnational communication methods Filipino migrant families use to develop intimacy, in other words familiarity, across borders	69 young adult children of migrant parents	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
131	Pratt, G., Johnston, C., & Banta, V. (2015). Filipino migrant stories and trauma in the transnational field. *Emotion, Space and Society.* doi:10.1016/j. emospa.2015.09.002	As a contribution to the geographies of trauma, we consider efforts to think what it would mean to decolonise trauma studies	Examines how trauma narratives gather other narratives as they travel, the politics of scholars from the Global North soliciting and circulating trauma narratives in the Global South, and the possibilities of building collective politics through individual stories of trauma		Medium
132	Putnick, D. L., Bornstein, M. H., Lansford, J. E., Chang, L., Deater-Deckard, K., Di Giunta, L., ... Bombi, A. S. (2012). Agreement in mother and father acceptance-rejection, warmth, and hostility/rejection/ neglect of children across nine countries. *Cross-Cultural Research. 46(3):* 191-223. doi: 10.1177/1069397112440931	To explore whether mothers' and fathers' self-reports of acceptance- rejection, warmth, and hostility/rejection/neglect of their preadolescent children differ cross- nationally and relative to the gender of the parent and child	From the Parenting Across Cultures study, families from nine different countries were chosen to participate. Sample was based on the Human Development Index. Parents were recruited from schools that served socioeconomically diverse populations in each country. Participants were given interviews either orally or written, based on their preference.	998 families (998 mothers and 998 fathers); PHILIPPINES ONLY: n=94	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
133	Ramiro, L. S., Madrid, B. J., and Brown, D. W. (2010). Adverse childhood experiences (ACE) and health-risk behaviours among adults in a developing country setting. *Child Abuse and Neglect 34(11):* 842-855. doi: 10.1016/j. chiabu.2010.02.012.	To examine the associations among adverse childhood experiences, health-risk behaviour, and chronic disease conditions in adult life	Selected villages in Metro Manila were randomly chosen using systematic sampling. From all eligible households the final respondent was randomly chosen using a Kish table. Only one respondent was chosen from each household. Respondents were interviewed by phone	1068 respondents aged 35 years or older (535 males, 533 females)	Low
134	Rudataikira, A., Mataya, R. H., and Muula, A.S. (2008). Association between bullying victimisation and physical fighting among Filipino adolescents: results from the Global School-Based Health Survey. *Indian Journal of Paediatrics. 75(12):* 1243-1247. DOI: 10.1007/s12098-008-0244-x	1) what is the estimated 12-month prevalence of self-reported physical fighting; 2) estimating the prevalence frequency of bullying victimization; 3) assessing factors associated with having engaged in a fight	Secondary analysis of the Philippines' GSHS. Classrooms were selected randomly. Questionnaires were completed anonymously by the students. Logistic regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between self-reported history of physical fighting in the previous 12 months and bullying victimization.	7,338 adolescent students (56.8% female, 43.2% male)	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
135	Runyan, D. K., Shankar, V., Hassan, F., Hunter, W.M., Jain, D., Paula, C.S... & Bordin, I. A. (2010). International variations in harsh child discipline. *Pediatrics. 126(3)*: e701-e711. doi: 10.1542/peds.2008-2374.	To ascertain rates of harsh and less-harsh parenting behaviour in population-based samples	From the WorldSAFE (World Studies of Abuse in the Family Environment) Study	Sample included mothers with one child younger than 18 years old, total multi-country sample: 14239 women, Philippines only: 1000	Low
136	Sanapo, M. S., and Nakamura, Y. (2011). Gender and physical punishment: the Filipino children's experience. *Child Abuse Review, 20(1)*: 39-56. DOI: 10.1002/car.1148	To present Filipino children's experiences of physical punishment, their thoughts about why they were punished and how they felt towards the adults who punished them	Survey of Grade 6 students	270 students (53.1% females, 46.9% males)	Medium
137	Serquina-Ramiro, L., Madrid, B. J., & Amarillo, M. L. E. (2004). Domestic violence in urban Filipino families. *Asian Journal of Women's Studies, 10(2)*, 97-119. DOI:10.1080/12259276.2 004.11665971	Aimed to determine significant association between identified risk factors and violence by spouses in urban Filipino families	Cross-sectional	1000	Medium
138	Serquina-Ramiro, L. (2005). Physical Intimacy and Sexual Coercion among Adolescent Intimate Partners in the Philippines. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 20(4)*, 476-496. doi: 10.1177/0743558405275170	To explore young people's perceptions and experiences of physical intimacy and sexual coercion in intimate adolescent relationships. To analyse the emic meanings and scripts attached to physical intimacy and sexual coercion as experienced and percieved by adolescent Filipino males and females	Focus groups, interviews, community survey of unmarried adolescent males and females in Sampaloc Manila, Philippines	600 adolescents	Low

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
139	Silva, T. (2002). Preventing Child Exploitation On The Streets In The Philippines. *The Lancet, 360,* 1507-1508. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)11480-2	Highlights the work of two organizations in protecting the health of these children. Childhope Asia Philippines employs street educators who provide love and attention, protection, and referral for treatment and services (such as psychosocial support and education)	Case studies	Case study	N/A
140	Skinner, A. T., Bacchini, D., Lansford, J. E., Godwin, J., Sorbring, E., Tapanya, S... & Pastorelli, C. (2014). Neighborhood danger, parental monitoring, harsh parenting, and child aggression in nine countries. *Societies, 4(1),* 45-67. doi:10.3390/soc4010045	Examined whether mothers', fathers', and children's perceptions of neighbourhood danger are related to child aggression, whether parental monitoring moderates this relationship, and whether harsh parenting mediates this relationship	Interviews were conducted with a sample of 1,293 children (age M = 10.68, SD = .66; 51% girls) and their mothers (n = 1,282) and fathers (n = 1,075) in nine countries (China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, the Philippines, Sweden, Thailand and the United States)	1,293 children	Low
141	Sobritchea, C. I., Mondiguing, R. P. & Ortega, S. (1998). Abuse, Exploitation, and Discrimination: The Stark Reality. *Review of Women's Studies, Vol 11, No 1-2,* 269-286.	Collated information on the plight of Filipino children in difficult circumstances	Quantitative and qualitative	Desk Review	N/A
142	Sta. Maria, M. A., Martinez, C. L., Diestro, J. M. A. (2014). Typologies of risk and protection in the lives of Filipino street children in Manila. *Youth and Society, 46(1):* 112-131. doi: 10.1177/0044118X11426770	Aims to explore how Filipino street-involved children frame or perceive their experiences of risk and protection. What interactions within the street environment allow a sense of protection for the street-involved child?	Five focus groups were conducted for four categories of street-involved children: center-based, family-based, street-based, and children living with their families on the streets	5 groups of 6-9 children (23 boys, 14 girls ranging from 12-18 years)	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
143	Sugue-Castillo, M. (2009). Legal outcomes of sexually abused children evaluated at the Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 33(3)*: 193-202. DOI: 10.1016/j. chiabu.2008.09.004	To describe the legal outcomes and factors associated with cases reaching court and convictions for sexual abuse of children seen at the Philippine General Hospital Child Protection Unit from 1997-2000	Mixed transdisciplinary research design was utilized using quantitative methods to describe legal outcomes and identify factors associated with cases reaching court and perpetrator conviction, and qualitative methods to draw an expanded picture of the legal process and determinants of legal outcomes. There are two parts of this study: a longitudinal cohort component and a qualitative component. The second part was the qualitative component using in-depth interviews of key informants and analysis of court decisions. Children were included if they were aged 0-17 at the time of PGH-CPU evauation or aged 18 or older but with developmnental delay, seen at PGH-CPU between 1 Feb 1997 and 31 Dec 2000, and had a final diagnosis of 'sexual abuse'	243 included in final sample; sample represented 30% total population of patients diagnosed as 'sexual abuse' by the PGH-CPU over the four year period.	Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
144	Terol, E. H. (2009). Cases of sexually abused adolescent girls with mental retardation in the Philippines. *Journal pf Child and Adolescent Trauma. 2(3):* 209-227. DOI:10.1080/1936152090 3120525	To understand the experiences of sexual abuse of 15 girls with mental retardation in the Philippines	Qualitative interviews with adolescent females diagnosed as having a mental retardation based on intelligence testing, and who attended the hospital for sexual assault	15	Medium
145	Tsai, L. C., Cappa, C., & Petrowski, N. (2016). The relationship between intimate partner violence and family planning among girls and young women in the Philippines. *Global Journal of Health Science, 8(9),* 121. doi:10.5539/ gjhs.v8n9p121	The relationship between intimate partner violence (IPV) and family planning among adult women	Data from the 2013 DHS for the Philippines were used to understand experiences of IPV and use of contraceptive methods among the female population aged 15 to 24 in the Philippines. Logistic regressions were utilized to explore the relationship between IPV and family planning, including use of contraception and having an unmet need for family planning among girls and young women	4,804 households	Low
146	Umali, V. A. (2005). The Cyber-trafficking of Filipino Girl-children: Weaknesses of Philippine Policies. *Asian Women, Vol. 20, 2005.6,* 175-206 20:175-206. http://www. dbpia.co.kr/Article/975702	Describes the current state of cyber-trafficking of Filipino girl children and evaluates the Government's policy responses to address this problem	Using data gathered through Internet search and review of relevant literature		Medium

	Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
147	Urada, L. A., Silverman, J. G., Cordisco, T. L., and Morisky, D. E. (2014). Underage youth trading sex in the Philippines: trafficking and HIV risk. *AIDS Care. 26(12)*: 1586-1591. doi: 10.1080 /09540121.2014.936818.	To examine the socio-structural sexual health risks of female youths working in bars, spa venues and brothels in the Philippines compared to their older counterparts	Participants were recruited from venues and attended mandatory appointments for STI check ups, then interviewed face-to-face. Socio-demographic variables were collected, as were behavioural measures, social-structural influences. Multilevel logistic regression models were performed to identify individual, social and structural factors associated with underage sex trade	770 (56, 7%, aged 14-17, the remaining aged 18 and older)	Low
148	Ward, M., and Roby, J. L. (2004). Commercial sexual exploitation of children in the Philippines. *Asia Pacific Journal of Social Work and Development. 14(2)*: 19-31. DOI:10.1080/21650993.2004.97 55952	Commercial sexual exploitation of children	Interviews with children associated with CSEC in metro Manila	Unknown	Medium

Authors and date	Issues studied/Aim	Study design	Total sample size	Risk of Bias Assessment (Low, Medium or High Risk of Bias)
149	Williams, T. P., Alpert, E. J., Ahn, R., Cafferty, E., Konstantopoulos, W. M., Wolferstan, N., ... & Burke, T. F. (2010). Sex trafficking and health care in Metro Manila: Identifying social determinants to inform an effective health system response. *Health and Human Rights, 12(2)*, 135-147. https://cdn2.sph.harvard. edu/wp-content/uploads/ sites/13/2013/07/13-Williams. pdf	Social science case study examining the sex trafficking of women and girls in Metro Manila through a public health lens	Through key informant interviews with 51 health care and anti-trafficking stakeholders in Metro Manila, this study reports on observations about sex trafficking in Metro Manila that provide insight into understanding of risk factors for sex trafficking at multiple levels of the social environment: individual (for example, childhood abuse), socio-cultural (for example, gender inequality and a "culture of migration"), and macro (for example, profound poverty caused, inter alia, by environmental degradation disrupting traditional forms of labour)	24 individual and group interviews with 51 key informants	Medium

ANNEX C:
Additional References

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ANNEX D:
Discussion of Laws and Policies

VAC in the home and in the family

The legal framework on child abuse in the Philippines complies with international law as far as emotional abuse, neglect and a child protection response system are concerned. However, there is only partial compliance with regard to incest (UNICEF 2015, 28-29). In Philippine Law, incest itself is not a crime but an aggravating/qualifying circumstance that allows a higher penalty to be imposed. Thus for incest to be punishable, the incestuous act must qualify as rape. According to Republic Act No. 8353 or the 'The Anti-Rape Law of 1997', rape is committed:

1. By a man who shall have carnal knowledge of a woman under any of the following circumstances:
    a. Through force, threat, or intimidation;
    b. When the offended party is deprived of reason or otherwise unconscious;
    c. By means of fraudulent machination or grave abuse of authority; and
    d. When the offended party is under twelve (12) years of age or is demented, even though none of the circumstances mentioned above be present.

2. By any person who, under any of the circumstances mentioned in paragraph 1 hereof, shall commit an act of sexual assault by inserting his penis into another person's mouth or anal orifice, or any instrument or object, into the genital or anal orifice of another person.

A survey of rape cases decided by the Supreme Court between 1901 and 1998 showed that 92 per cent of perpetrators were known to the child, and 39 per cent were committed by legal or common law relatives. Male relatives were easily convicted where there was force or intimidation. However, when there was doubtful resistance on the part of the child, the Supreme Court considered, in a long line of decisions, that the moral ascendancy of the father over the child could substitute for force or intimidation that is required to establish rape. In its pronouncements, the Supreme Court recognized the abhorrent nature of incest and places more emphasis on condemning the incestuous act itself rather than the force, intimidation or moral ascendancy that qualified the act as rape (AKAP-Ateneo Human Rights Center 2002). Studies have recommended that the law should penalize the incestuous act itself, without having to make it come under the law on rape (UNICEF 2015, 30; AKAP-Ateneo Human Rights Center 2002).

The Philippines has laws that allow exceptions to sexual violence that take place within intimate partner relationships, including the following (UNICEF 2015, 44):

• Sexual violence, intimate partner: Article 344 of 'The Revised Penal Code', modified by RA 8353 or the Anti-Rape Law, provides:

"In cases of seduction, abduction, acts of lasciviousness and rape, the marriage of the offender with the offended party shall extinguish the criminal action or remit the penalty already imposed upon him."

Though the age of marriage is set at 18 years, the provision mentioned above may apply when a child who is raped at 16 years subsequently marries the perpetrator at 18 years of age.

- Article 266-C of 'The 1997 Anti-Rape Law' provides:

  "The subsequent valid marriage between the offended party shall extinguish the criminal action or the penalty imposed."

  Under this provision, the subsequent marriage must be valid for it to erase the criminal act. Thus, this is applicable as long as the victim has reached legal age, has parental consent, and there are no legal impediments to the union. The Philippines also has laws that allow exceptions for physical violence directed at children, not only within the context of a care-giving relationship, but also within the context of an intimate partner relationships and family relationships:

- Physical violence, care context: Article 247 of 'The Revised Penal Code' provides:

  "Any legally married person who having surprised his spouse in the act of committing sexual intercourse with another person, shall kill any of them or both of them in the act or immediately thereafter, or shall inflict upon them any serious physical injury, shall suffer the penalty of destierro.

  If he shall inflict upon them physical injuries of any other kind, he shall be exempt from punishment.

  These rules shall be applicable, under the same circumstances, to parents with respect to their daughters under eighteen years of age, and their seducer, while the daughters are living with their parents.

  If found guilty, the accused shall face destierro or banishment from the community where the relatives of the victim reside. This is to prevent physical violence or retaliation against the accused by the victim's family."

- Infanticide by mother or maternal grandparents: The Revised Penal Code defines infanticide as the killing of a child less than three days of age. Article 255 provides:

  "The penalty provided for parricide in Article 246 and for murder in Article 248 shall be imposed upon any person who shall kill any child less than three days of age.

  If the crime penalized in this article be committed by the mother of the child for the purpose of concealing her dishonor, she shall suffer the penalty of prision correccional in its medium and maximum periods, and if said crime be committed for the same purpose by the maternal grandparents or either of them, the penalty shall be prision mayor."

  Parricide is punished by the penalty of reclusion perpetua to death while murder is punished by reclusion temporal in its maximum period to death. Thus, a reduced penalty is imposed on a mother or maternal grandparents who kills the child for the purpose of concealing 'dishonour'. It is recommended that lawful excuses for infanticide be removed, other than that of mental disturbance secondary to child birth or other circumstances (UNICEF 2015, 49).

- Serious physical injuries, excessive chastisement: Under Philippine Law, serious harm or death of a child appears to be less severe or punishable if it occurs in the context of punishment. Article 263 of the Revised Penal Code provides that severe physical injury/harm or death of a parent, child, spouse or descendent in other circumstances imposes the maximum available penalty, according to degree of injury but these automatically increased penalties do not apply

when a parent causes serious injuries upon his child if these were done in the context of punishment (UNICEF 2015, 49). Republic Act No. 7610 prohibits cruelty to children, where cruelty is defined as follows:

> "Cruelty" refers to any act by word or deed which debases, degrades or demeans the intrinsic worth and dignity of a child as a human being,. Discipline administered by a parent or legal guardian to a child does not constitute cruelty provided it is reasonable in manner and moderate in degree and does not constitute physical or psychological injury as defined herein:
>
> "Physical injury"- includes but is not limited to lacerations, fractured bones, burns, internal injuries, severe injury or serious bodily harm suffered by a chil;
>
> "Psychological injury"means harm to a child's psychological or intellectual functioning which may be exhibited by severe anxiety, depression, withdrawal, or outward aggressive behaviour, or a combination of said behaviours, which ma be demonstrated by a change in behaviour, emotional response or cognition.'

Harmful traditional practices (that is, child marriage)

Articles 5 and 14 of the 1987 Family Code set the minimum age for marriage at 18 years, for both males and females, with parental consent required between the ages of 18 and 21. This is in compliance with the threshold of no lower than 18 years set by international human rights treaty bodies. While neither the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women nor the Convention on the Rights of the Child specify a minimum age for marriage, both have clarified that treaty provisions should be understood as prohibiting marriage of a child under age 18. The Philippines is the only one of the ASEAN nations to have established clear rules on how registration officials should verify the age of marriage candidates in their Family Code. However, for both males and females, there is a wide discrepancy between the minimum age of consent to sexual activity (12 years) and the minimum age for marriage (18 years) (UNICEF 2015, 62-66).

Under the Code of Muslim Personal Laws, which applies to the Muslim population, a 15-year-old male is allowed to marry while a female is allowed to marry if she has reached puberty. A female is presumed to reach puberty at 15. Thus, the age of sexual consent within the context of marriage is 15 (AKAP- Ateneo Human Rights Center 2008).

Current legislation including the minimum age of sexual consent and statutory rape laws contribute to legal impunity for sexual VAC.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN CRC) observed in 2009 that the Philippines did not have a legal definition of the minimum age of sexual consent and had one of the lowest minimum ages for determining statutory rape (12 years). The age of consent for determining statutory rape and other crimes of sexual abuse is the minimum age used to ascertain whether any sexual act with a person is considered a crime" (Oco, 2007). The aim of the legal minimum age of sexual consent is to protect children from sexual exploitation and abuse, rather than to criminalize consensual, non-exploitative, sexual behaviour between young people (UNICEF, 2015). The age of statutory rape is important because it is the minimum age at which a child is lacking the maturity to deal with or to say no to sexual acts and therefore they are not legally capable of giving consent (Oco, 2007). Similarly, a person committing sexual acts with someone below the minimum age of consent may be held criminally liable (Oco, 2007).

Furthermore, the Revised Penal Code applies the crime of statutory rape only when the offender is a man who has carnal knowledge of a woman aged below 12. In cases where the victim is below 12 years old but:

1. the offender commits sexual acts other than inserting his penis into the woman's vagina; or
2. the offender and the victims are of the same sex, as for instance male to male or female to female; or
3. the offender is female and the victim is a boy child.

There is no crime of statutory rape but a crime of sexual assault under paragraph 2 of Article 266 – A, punishable by a lower penalty (Oco, 2007).

While there is no general international consensus on what the age of sexual consent should be, according to the UN CRC, the law should not provide different standards according to gender or sexuality as is the case in the Philippines, as this will be in violation of international standards relating to non-discrimination (Article 2, UN CRC). The same age should be set for boys and girls and for homosexual and heterosexual acts (UNICEF, 2015). The age of consent varies across the world, with the Philippines being one of the lowest globally and the lowest in the Asia-Pacific region (UNICEF, 2015). The average age of consent globally is 16 years old (UNICEF, 2015).

Through these laws Filipino children who are aged between 12 and 18 and those who are aged below 12 are treated differently in terms of protection and penalty imposed for sexual violence. As a result, according to legal analysis, these varying applications may be "prejudicial to the best interests of the child as they are not equally protected by the laws from sexual abuse and exploitation" (Oco, 2007), which in itself is a risk factor for sexual violence.

VAC in education settings

The Philippines is recognized as an example of good practice with regard to legal protection from VAC in schools. Corporal punishment is prohibited by Article 233 of the Family Code, "in no case shall the school administrator, teacher or individual engaged in child care exercising special parental authority inflict corporal punishment upon the child" (UNICEF 2015, 89). In 2012, The Department of Education issued a policy and guidelines on protecting children in school from abuse, violence, exploitation, discrimination, bullying, corporal punishment and other forms of abuse. The DepEd Child Protection Policy tasks all public and private elementary and secondary schools with the institution of effective child protection policies, the establishment of child protection committees and capacity building of teachers. Republic Act No. 10627 or the "Anti-Bullying Act of 2013" defines acts that constitute bullying between students. It directs elementary and secondary schools to adopt policies that prohibit bullying and institute disciplinary action against a perpetrator for bullying.

VAC in the community

The age of statutory rape, related to the age of consent, is one of the lowest in the world at 12. It is lowest among the ASEAN member states, where the average is 16 (UNICEF 2015). It is considered below the international standards and too low to protect children effectively from sexual violence. Nevertheless, the age is increased to 18 when the person involved in sexual activity with a child is in a position of trust. Sexual acts (that is, carnal knowledge) included in the definition of statutory rape is also limited.

The UN CRC committee also noted the disparity in penalties for victims aged below and above 12, and for different acts, including (Oco 2007):

- If the elements of rape are not fulfilled, as required by the Revised Penal Code, the penalties are lower compared to statutory rape, which imposes a penalty of reclusion perpetua

- Rape and sexual assault: The crime of sexual assault, which imposes lower penalities, applies rather than the crime of rape for a child aged below 12 where 1) the committed sexual acts were other than insertion of man's penis into women's vagina, 2) the offender and victims are of same sex, 3) the offender is female and victim is male

- Acts of lasciviousness: There is wide discrepancy between penalties if the victim was female and aged below 12 and if the victim 1) was over 12 and female, 2) does not fall under the provisions of RA 7610 and 3) if the child gave consent

- Qualified and simple seduction: A woman aged above 12 and below 18 who consented to sexual intercourse falls under the crime of seduction, which considers special relationship or deceit. However, it also depends on the reputation of the victim. Only a woman with good reputation or who is a sister or descendant of the male offender is protected by this provision, which considers seduction as a crime against chaste character or virtuous reputation of the woman victim and focuses on damage to the woman's good reputation. Also, in simple or qualified abduction, there is a higher penalty when the child is aged under 12, whether or not they consented, while children aged 12 to 18 will only fall under forced abduction if they did not consent

It is evident that there is a disparity in the laws in the treatment of child victims who are aged below 12 and between 12 and 18. Such laws are prejudicial to best interest of the child (Oco 2007).

The Philippines has enacted laws that provide protection from child pornography, online grooming and cyberbullying (Song 2015, 215-232). Ths Philippines:

- Has legislation specific to child pornography with a clear definition of child pornography; considers everyone under 18 as a potential victim of activities related to child pornography, criminalizes accessing or downloading and possessing child pornography; criminalizes virtual images and sexually exploitative representations of children; establishes criminal liability of legal persons for production or commercialization of child pornography; establishes confiscation of assets and proceeds used to commit or facilitate child pornography offences; requires professionals working with children to report child pornography activities; requires Internet Service Providers to report child pornography; creates data retention or data preservation provisions

- Has a draft bill that requires the identification of users of public computers in cybercafés

- Has legislation that specifically addresses the use of ICTs to commit crimes against children

- Criminalizes child trafficking with the intent of producing pornography

- Does not criminalize advertising child sex tourism online but criminalizes sex tourism

- Criminalizes online grooming as a stand-alone offence; has a clear definition of online grooming; considers everyone under 18 as a potential victim of online grooming

- Criminalizes grooming when the offender has the specific intent to have online or offline sexual contact with a child

- Criminalizes showing pornography to a child as a stand-alone offence

- Has legislation regarding cyberbullying

At present, there is no legislation on sexting and the criminal liability of children involved in pornography as offenders is not addressed. Neither does the State also recognize extraterritorial jurisdiction over child pornography offences when the alleged offender is a national of the State, or over child pornography offences when the victim is a national of the State.

However, the age of sexual consent remains low and the UN CRC Committee has expressed concern that this puts children at risk of prostitution and pornography (UNICEF 2015, 112).

Jurisprudence

An analysis of Supreme Court decisions between 1901 and 1998 on rape, abduction, section and acts of lasciviousness found that while more than half of the decisions were based on the child's testimony (61 per cent), trials focused on proving the character, credibility and sexual innocence of victims rather than on the character of the perpetrator. How the victim risked humiliation and scandal, reflecting the value of family honor, and the vulnerabilities of the victim (that is, age, lack of exposure, mental disability) were also emphasized. The distressing experience of a trial may be one of the reasons that prevents victims from pursuing a case. Most acquitted cases revealed a pattern of victim blaming and were associated with the questionable character of the victim, where they were perceived as not innocent about sex, proven to have prior sexual experience, or to have flirted or were unchaste in behaviour (AKAP-Ateneo Human Rights Center 2002). This was despite the rape-shield rule under Section 6 of Republic Act No. 8505 (the 'Rape Victim Assistance Law'), and the irrelevance of past sexual behaviour and reputation of the victim under Section 17 (b) of Republic Act No. 9208 as expanded by Republic Act No. 10364 (the 'Expanded Anti-Trafficking in Persons Law'). Bringing up the sexual predisposition of a child victim is also prohibited under the sexual abuse shield rule and Section 30 of the Rule on the Examination of a Child Witness.

There was also emphasis on the violation of the victim's person as a Filipina (that is, the characteristics of a Filipina) and as a member of her family, rather than on the victim as a child. "Young barrio lass", "naive and inexperienced", "chaste Filipina", and "good reputation" were some of the words used by the court to strengthen the child's credibility. Because there are no separate laws on rape, seduction, abduction and acts of lasciviousness for children, the courts frequently refer to victims as a woman, rather than a girl-child. Thus, the child victim bears the same burden as the adult: to provide accurate and detailed information and, for children aged more than 12, to establish non-consent as evidenced by force and intimidation. This results in double victimization for the child, first by the perpetrator then by society, which devalues the child by characterizing the crime as an insult to chastity. These findings supported a recommendation for greater focus on the child's right to protection against sexual abuse (AKAP-Ateneo Human Rights Center 2002). Earlier studies also showed that the Family Courts, having jurisdiction over child abuse cases, lacked child- and gender-sensitivty (Feliciano et al., 2005).

Consequently, in 2006, a competency enhancement training (CET) programme was developed by the Philippine Judicial Academy in collaboration with the Child Protection Unit Network to sensitize court personnel in handling child abuse cases. It presented child sexual abuse as a social problem, a medical and clinical condition and a legal issue, and was designed to make family court judges and personnel:

1. Demonstrate awareness and sensitivity in tackling child abuse cases;

2. Communicate effectively and sensitively with the child witness during court proceedings;

3. Maintain proper decorum in court;

4. Given sample cases, appoint, as appropriate, a guardian ad litem for the child;

5. Competently identify various forms of evidence in child abuse cases that are admissible and have probative value;

6. In cases where a child is unavailable, determine what evidence is admissible, and which can be shown to carry proof Determine the evidence admissible and with probative value in cases when the child witness is unavailable.

Programme evaluation during and after two pilot CETs in March and April 2006 showed significant changes in court personnel attitudes towards child abuse as a medical and legal phenomenon, parenting and child-rearing and court decorum, particularly after six months. CET also resulted in changes in the physical and psychosocial set-up of the courts, which became more child-friendly and responsive to the needs of children. These changes are intended to minimize re-traumatization and to allow the victims to tell their stories in court (Sana et al 2013).

In a review of 486 cases of child sexual abuse seen in the Philippine General Hospital-Child Protection Unit between 1997 and 2000, Castillo (2009) showed the importance of the child's testimony and the medical evaluation. The study found that child's disclosure was the most important determinant of legal outcome, and the child's testimony was the most frequent evidence presented, along with the medical certificate. The study also found that child sexual abuse cases with abnormal physical findings were twice as likely to reach court. Although 61.2 per cent of the cases were referred by government agencies mandated to receive child abuse reports, only 15 per cent went to trial, possibly reflecting a dependence on physical findings. In addition, self-referred patients were 4.8 times more likely to reach court. It is possible that the medical certificate facilitates the process for those who begin with a medical evaluation, showing the critical role of the medical evaluation in the investigation. This is supported by a review of court decisions, which showed that the medical certificate was the most common documentary evidence submitted. The doctor's testimony was the third most frequently presented evidence and was associated with more perpetrator convictions, although the author recommends further investigation between a doctor's testimony and legal outcomes.

Flowchart of the management of cases of child abuse, neglect and exploitation