



International
Labour
Organization

Child trafficking

in the Philippines: A situational analysis

International
Programme on
the Elimination
of Child Labour

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IPEC
Child trafficking in the Philippines: A situational analysis
Manila, International Labour Office, 2007

ISBN 978-92-2-120043-7

ILO CIP Data:

Child trafficking, institutional framework, economic implication, social implication, Philippines.
02.02.1

Acknowledgments

This publication was written by a research team from the Development Academy of the Philippines, headed by Ramonesa R. Ricardo. The project was jointly funded and coordinated by the ILO-IPEC and UNICEF Offices in Manila.

The Project Team thanks the following: TALIKALA and TAMBAYAN Center for Abused Children (Davao); ECPAT Philippines (Quezon City); Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (Camarines Norte); Community and Family Services International and SERRAS Youth Home for Girls (Pasay City); Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. (Manila and Matnog, Sorsogon); Department of Social Welfare and Development; Department of Labor and Employment; Commission on Human Rights; Philippine National Police-Women and Children's Concerns Desk; National Economic and Development Authority; Philippine Center for Transnational Crime; and the 29 women and children who shared their stories.

Funding for this publication was provided by the United States Department of Labor (Project PHI/02/P50/USA). This publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the United States Department of Labor, nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the United States Government.

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Printed in the Philippines
Photocomposed by Primex Printers, Inc.

Table of Contents

Executive Summary

1. INTRODUCTION	1–12
1.1 RATIONALE	1
1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	3
1.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	3
1.3.1 Literature Review	4
1.3.2 Formulation of the Vulnerability Assessment Model	4
1.3.3 Rapid Assessment in Nine Selected Areas	5
1.4 THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK	6
1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	8
1.5.1 Literature Review	8
1.5.2 Development of the CTVAM	9
1.5.3 The Nature and Scope of Child Trafficking in Selected Areas	9
1.5.4 Institutional Arrangements for Combating Child Trafficking	10
1.6 THE PUSH AND PULL THEORY OF TRAFFICKING	10
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	13–58
2.1 THE GENERAL SITUATION OF CHILDREN IN THE PHILIPPINES	13
2.1.1 Population	13
2.1.2 The Poverty Situation	14
2.1.3 The Impact of Poverty on Children	16
2.1.3.1 Child Labour	16
2.1.3.2 Education	17
2.1.3.3 Health and Nutrition	18
2.1.3.4 Child Abuse	19
2.2 CHILD TRAFFICKING AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL	22
2.2.1 Policy against Child Trafficking	23
2.2.2 Dominant Forms of Exploitation of Trafficked Children	24
2.2.3 Factors that Contribute To Trafficking	26
2.2.3.1 Economic Considerations	26
2.2.3.2 Social and Cultural Factors	28
2.2.3.3 Political and Geo-political Factors	29
2.2.4 Trafficking Routes	30
2.2.5 Key Players in the Trafficking Scenario	31
2.2.6 Consequences of Trafficking	31

2.2.6.1	On the Children	31	3.4	REGRESSION ANALYSIS: THE SUPPLY OF TRAFFICKED CHILDREN	73
2.2.6.2	On their Families and Communities of Origin	33	3.4.1	Regression Results	74
2.2.7	Regional Efforts to Combat Trafficking	33	3.4.1.1	Individual Characteristics	74
2.2.8	Requirements for More Effective Interventions	35	3.4.1.2	Household Characteristics	75
			3.4.1.3	Community Characteristics	76
2.3	THE TRAFFICKING SITUATION IN THE PHILIPPINES	36	3.4.2	Summaries: the CTVM	77
2.3.1	Conceptual Issues: Terminologies and the Continuum of Trafficking	37	3.5	PROVINCIAL VULNERABILITY RANKING	78
2.3.2	Estimates of Child Migration and Child Trafficking	38	4.	RAPID ASSESSMENT OF CHILD TRAFFICKING IN SELECTED AREAS	82–139
2.3.3	Migration and Trafficking Patterns	39	4.1	OBJECTIVES, SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE FIELD STUDIES	83
2.3.3.1	Reasons for Migration	40	4.2	PROFILE OF TRAFFICKED CHILDREN	84
2.3.3.2	Consequences of Migration	40	4.2.1	Age	84
2.3.4	General Profile of Trafficked Children and their Families	42	4.2.2	Household Size and Relationships	85
2.3.4.1	Place of Origin of the Trafficked Child	42	4.2.3	Educational Attainment of Respondent	85
2.3.4.2	Family Profiles of Trafficked Children	43	4.2.4	Educational Attainment of Parents	85
2.3.4.3	Education	43	4.2.5	Employment of Parents	86
2.3.4.4	Early Life Transitions	43	4.2.6	Nature and Age at First Work	86
2.3.5	The Purposes of Trafficking	44	4.2.7	Experience of Abuse and Violence	87
2.3.5.1	Trafficking for Labour	44	4.2.8	Motivations and Aspirations	87
2.3.5.2	Trafficking for Sexual Exploitation	46	4.2.9	Reflections of Children on Their Present Situation	89
2.3.5.3	Trafficking for Other Purposes	49	4.3	TRAFFICKING: TRAFFICKERS AND THE TRAFFICKING PROCESSES	89
2.3.6	General Profile of Traffickers	50	4.3.1	Profile of Traffickers/Recruiters	89
2.3.7	Processes and Mechanisms	52	4.3.2	Recruitment Process	91
2.3.8	Transit, and Preferred Places of Destination	53	4.3.3	Means of Transport	93
2.3.9	User (Buyer) Profiles	54	4.3.4	Trafficking Routes	93
2.4	THE PUSH AND PULL FACTORS TO CHILD TRAFFICKING	55	4.3.4.1	Camarines Norte	93
2.4.1	Socio-cultural Factors	55	4.3.4.2	Northern Samar	95
2.4.2	Economic Factors	56	4.3.4.3	Cebu City	95
2.4.3	Political Factors	57	4.3.4.4	Iloilo City	96
2.4.4	Geographic Factors	58	4.3.4.5	Davao City	97
2.5	THE LITERATURE REVIEW IN RETROSPECT	58	4.3.4.6	Zamboanga del Sur	97
3.	CHILD TRAFFICKING VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT MODEL	59–81	4.3.4.7	Quezon City	98
3.1	OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE OF STUDY	59	4.3.4.8	Pasay City	99
3.2	THE DETERMINANTS FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING IN THE PHILIPPINES	60	4.3.4.9	City of Manila	99
3.2.1	Some Theoretical Considerations	62	4.4	CHILD TRAFFICKING FINDINGS IN THE NINE STUDY AREAS	100
3.2.2	Applying the Equation: Practical Considerations	63	4.4.1	Camarines Norte	100
3.3	DATA AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS	65	4.4.1.1	Socio-economic Profile	100
3.3.1	Comparative Analysis of Working Children at Home and Those Living Away from Home	68	4.4.1.2	Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response	101
3.3.2	Individual Characteristics	69	4.4.1.3	Push and Pull Factors	106
3.3.3	Household Characteristics	70	4.4.2	Northern Samar	106
			4.4.2.1	Socio-economic profile	106
			4.4.2.2	Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response	107
			4.4.2.3	Push and Pull Factors	108

List of Tables

No.	Title	Page
Table 2-1	Population by Age Group and Sex Projected for Y2000	13
Table 2-2	Poverty Incidence in the Philippines and Regional Ranking: 1997 and 2000	14
Table 2-3	Total Number of Abused Children Served by DSWD CY 2002, Community and Center-Based	21
Table 2-4	Identified Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking	55
Table 3-1	Regional Distribution of Working Children	67
Table 3-2	Individual Characteristics of Working Children	68
Table 3-3	Highest Grade Completed within the Household	69
Table 3-4	Number of Children per Household	69
Table 3-5	Labour Market Characteristics of Household and Spouse	70
Table 3-6	Housing Conditions	71
Table 3-7	Average Household Monthly Expenditure	72
Table 3-8	Children’s Contribution to Family Income	72
Table 3-9	Awareness of Recruitment and Government Programs	73
Table 3-10	Predicted Number of Children Living Away from Home, Top 20 Provinces	79
Table 4-1	Age of Respondents	84
Table 4-2	Household Size of Respondents	84
Table 4-3	Educational Attainment of Respondents	85
Table 4-4	Educational Attainment of Respondents’ Parents	85
Table 4-5	Parents’ Occupations	86
Table 4-6	Nature and Age at First Work	87
Table 4-7	Previous Experience of Abuse, Neglect and Violence	87
Table 4-8	Reasons for Leaving Home	88
Table 4-9	Gender Distribution of Traffickers	89
Table 4-10	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Camarines Norte	105
Table 4-11	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Northern Samar	109

No.	Title	Page
Table 4-12	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Cebu City	113
Table 4-13	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Iloilo City	116
Table 4-14	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Davao City	120
Table 4-15	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Zamboanga del Sur	124
Table 4-16	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Quezon City	127
Table 4-17	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Pasay City	129
Table 4-18	Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking in Manila	132
Table 4-19	Summary of Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking, Field Studies and Literature on Child Trafficking in the Philippines	134
Table 4-20	Summary of Trafficking Process Found in the Field and in the Literature on Child Trafficking in the Philippines	136
Table 5-1	A Comparison of Institutions Created to Respond to Issues on Trafficking in Persons	148

List of Figures

Figure No.	Title	Page
Figure 1-1	A Framework for Child Trafficking	6
Figure 1-2	The Three Main Study Areas Relative to the Elements of the Analytical Framework	7
Figure 1-3	Push and Pull Theory: Illustrative Framework	11
Figure 2-1	Regions Ranked According to Poverty Incidence	15
Figure 2-2	Regions Ranked by Total Number of Child Abuse Cases Served by DSWD in 2002	20
Figure 2-3	Map of the Southeast Asian Region	30
Figure 2-4	Direction of Approach in the Recruitment of Children	51
Figure 3-1	Regional Distribution of Working Children and Children Living Away from Home	66
Figure 3-2	Schematics for Sequential Probit Model	74
Figure 4-1	Trafficking Routes Based on the Field Studies	94

Figure No.	Title	Page
Figure 4-2	Map of Camarines Norte	100
Figure 4-3	Map of Northern Samar	106
Figure 4-4	Map of Cebu	109
Figure 4-5	Map of Iloilo City	114
Figure 4-6	Map of Davao	117
Figure 4-7	Map of Zamboanga del Sur	121
Figure 4-8	Map of Quezon City	125
Figure 4-9	Map of Pasay City	127
Figure 4-10	Map of the City of Manila	129
Figure 6-1	Integrative Framework	175

Boxes

Title	Page
The Right of the Child	1
Jobs Commonly Offered by Recruiters	91
The Story of Three Girls from Samal Island, Davao	91
From Zamboanga to Malaysia	92
Known Trafficking Routes in Davao	97
A Tale of Life and Work in Manila: the Story of Tony and Lino	103
Recognizing Exploitation	108
The Story of Liza	130

Executive Summary

The Philippines is a signatory and/or a Party to a number of international human rights instruments that promote and protect the rights of women and children. Despite efforts to be true to its commitments, child trafficking continues to prosper within the country as well as across its borders. The countries of the Southeast Asian region are prey to unscrupulous traffickers who utilize the region’s economic disparities to entice children of poor families and transport them to places of exploitative work.

The Trafficking Situation in the Philippines: A General Picture

Like its neighbors, the Philippines has translated its international commitments into programs against child prostitution, child pornography, and the trafficking of children for sexual purposes. The latest achievement of the country was the passing of Republic Act No. 9208, the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act Of 2003. Apparently it is only with this law that the definition of child trafficking has been made quite clear. Where the trafficking victim is “. . . a person below eighteen (18) years of age or one who is over eighteen (18) but is unable to fully take care of or protect himself/herself from abuse. . .,” regardless of whether parental or the child’s consent was obtained, it is qualified trafficking.

R.A. 9208 defines trafficking as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer or harboring, or receipt of persons with or without the victim’s consent or knowledge, within or across national borders by means of threat or use of force, or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or of position, taking advantage of the vulnerability of the person, or the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation which includes at a minimum, the exploitation or the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery, servitude or the removal or sale of organs.”

Believing that child development is the core of sustainable development, the United Nations’ Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) have identified child trafficking as a major issue that they would like to address in the medium term, under their mandates to protect children from violence, abuse, exploitation, and discrimination. This study is done to provide information that could be used to design interventions, preferably ex ante strategies, that would be more effective at curbing child trafficking in the Philippines.

The study sought to: review current literature on child trafficking in the country; construct a model that could be used to determine the probability of an area being the source of trafficked children; determine the actual situation in selected areas; and assess the existing institutional

arrangements that have been set up to combat child trafficking vis-à-vis international and national commitments.

Child trafficking is essentially seen as a labour phenomenon which has relationships to migration. The decision for a child to leave home to work, willful or not, made by him or for him by his parents, is affected by individual, familial, and community factors. Poverty is the most common push factor to this decision. The desire to get out of a situation of poverty and provide more for one’s family makes parents allow their children to be trafficked, thinking that the work opportunities in the destination area will bring them a better quality of life. More often than not, the child finds himself or herself in a situation of bondage and exploitation. Traffickers have varied modus operandi. Generally, they build trust among people of the community, establishing relationships while they look around for children they can recruit. Some of them are open about the work arrangements, others silent and unrevealing; while still others lie about the work and the employers they will ultimately bring the children to. The purposes for trafficking are just as varied, ranging from sexual exploitation, labour (slave labour and bonded labour), organ trading, marriage, as child soldiers, for illegal activities (begging, drug trade, adoption), and possibly many others.

The figure shown here is used as a framework for analysis. All the determinants to trafficking can be classified as economic, political, socio-cultural, or geographic, with each determinant being reflected at any of the three relational levels of the child: the individual, or the child him/herself, the child’s family, and the community they live in. The strength of a child’s relationships and upbringing, regardless of economic conditions of his/her family, contributes to the vulnerability of the child to trafficking. The contextual exposure of the child in his/her early years logically contributes to the possibility of victimization. Dysfunctional families, abusive and neglectful parents, increase the vulnerability of a child. The strength and stability of a child’s safety nets (family and community) could either deter or encourage the possibility of trafficking. Hence, an integrated and comprehensive approach in eliminating child trafficking requires the inclusion of and emphasis on the role of duty bearers—primarily, the child’s family (parents, siblings and relatives) and the community members. The framework also requires an understanding of the trafficker, acknowledging his/her central role, and the stages of the trafficking and victimization process.

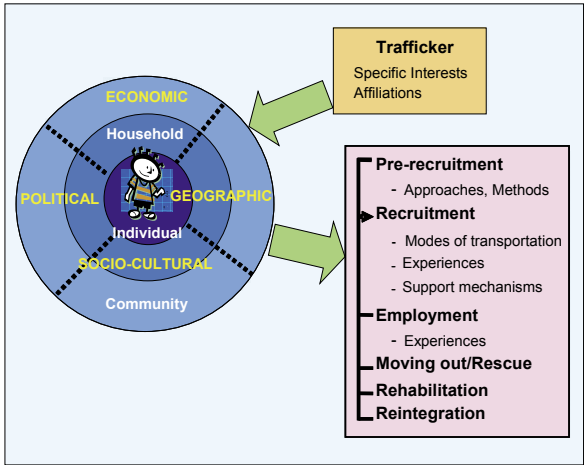


Figure 1-1 A Framework for Child Trafficking

The Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model

Most of the literature provides qualitative data on trafficking. Even law enforcement officers and social workers do not provide consistent and credible data on how many children have been trafficked, or may be trafficked, given a certain set of conditions. Statistics are rare and not consolidated. A systematic analysis of child trafficking is needed in order to be able to design effective interventions. The Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model (CTVAM) was developed in order to identify the significant indicators or determinants that make a child vulnerable to trafficking and even other forms of exploitation.

Vulnerability refers to the risk of a child becoming a victim of child trafficking. Vulnerability assessment attempts to identify the bundles of observable characteristics that are the best indicators of vulnerability to child trafficking. At one level, these indicators are merely proxies to help identify the victims or likely victims of child trafficking. At a different level, these indicators are determinants of child trafficking, implying some cause-effect relationship while offering insights into its dynamics. To develop the model, the proxy variable child working and living away from home was used—this in the absence of actual observations on children trafficked for employment. The 2001 Child Labour Survey, a nationally representative survey conducted by the National Statistics Office, provided the data. This survey shows that of the estimated 24.9 million children aged 5-17, about 4.0 million (16.2 percent) were engaged in some form of economic activity. While not a perfect indicator of child trafficking victims, children living away from home in order to work (but not to study) are likely to include among them victims of trafficking. As the empirical results suggest, the individual and household profile of children living away from home closely mimics those of actual victims of child trafficking, as gleaned from field and case studies.

Determinants were identified at the individual, family, and community levels. Age and gender are major individual determinants. Majority of the trafficked children are between 14 and 17 years old, the upper bracket of working children. The typical trafficked child is about to join or has just joined the working age population, which is defined as those 15 years old and above. Many of them may have started working at a much younger age. This implies that the probability of being trafficked rises with age, but rises significantly as a child approaches working age.

Girls make up the majority of trafficked children. Being part of a supply and demand equation, this is probably tied to the demand for female dominated occupations such as housekeeping and jobs in the service sector and a bias for women in the trafficking trade for sexual exploitation.

The household-level determinants of child trafficking are well-documented in the literature. It has been demonstrated, for example, that parental education and occupation, household resources, and the number of children are correlated with child trafficking. Parents of victims generally have low educational attainment, reaching only elementary or high school level. Given poor educational background, most parents are either unemployed or work in non-regular, low-paying jobs. They are also easy to convince or influence. With few resources to distribute among many family members, parents expect children to contribute to household income.

Most victims come from families with five or more siblings. Many of those met in the field actually had 9 to 12 siblings. It is well-known that having a large family is a strategy employed by poor households to increase the number of potential income-earners and possibly augment household income. In any case, this puts additional pressure on already meager household resources, pushing the parents to let children engage in gainful work.

The region of residence is also found to be a significant predictor. Regions VIII, IX and I topped the list. Regions VIII and IX, known to be sending areas of internal child migrants, are the sixth and fifth poorest regions, respectively, implying that poverty is a major determinant. Region I is the 12th poorest region among 16 regions. Apparently, poverty is not the only single determinant to vulnerability. Poverty, joblessness, high drop out rates (measured at the community level, i.e. provincial level at least), and geographical factors such as distance to the major destinations, should be related to the probability of a child living away from home.

Interestingly, it is the lower middle income class (4th class) municipality that is most vulnerable to child trafficking rather than the poorest municipalities, as one would expect, from an economic standpoint. This has also been observed in previous research. It is possible that it is this income class that has an idea of what an improved financial status means and desires it, has access to the opportunities that can secure this status for them, and has enough courage, confidence or risk-taking abilities to pursue it. It is also possible that the trafficker chooses to recruit the disadvantaged, but not the ignorant or the least skilled—a discriminating selection strategy that ensures for the trafficker that the recruit is able to deliver the requirements of the work at the destination, at minimal cost.

The Child Trafficking Situation in Nine Selected Areas

Rapid assessment was used to determine the actual trafficking situation in nine areas in the country: Quezon City, Pasay City, the City of Manila, Camarines Norte, Northern Samar, Iloilo City, Cebu City, Davao City, Zamboanga del Sur. Where possible, in each of the nine areas, child victims of trafficking were interviewed. Community representatives, government officials, law enforcement agents, and NGO members, were also interviewed and focus group discussions conducted with some of them. Other source documents were utilized to enrich the primary data gathered. The areas chosen for the conduct of focus group discussions were those that were already known to have a high incidence of child trafficking.

The information gathered in the field interestingly validated the findings of the CTVAM, most especially the characteristics of the child victims. The respondents' ages ranged from 13 to 20 years, with 72 percent belonging to the 13 to 17 age group. Most of them had four to 10 siblings. Most of the children presently lived with relatives or peers; many of them left behind dysfunctional families.

Except for one child, almost all of the children had some schooling. A little more than half of the respondents reached first year high school, while the rest had some elementary education. Most of

the children showed little or no interest in completing their education; they had already decided that they were better off working and earning some money now rather than continuing formal education.

A few parents finished high school. Only two male and one female parent had college education. Apparently, the respondents came from families that put little value on education, with the parents not aspiring much for them, probably because the need to support their families begged for prime attention on their resources. Most of the children's parents were employed in seasonal and odd jobs; only three, one of whom was reportedly paralyzed, were no longer working. Those whose parents were farmers mentioned that their income was always insufficient to sustain the needs of their respective families. All of the children saw their families to be very poor; they see their parents struggling to provide for them basic necessities such as food and clothing.

More than half of them had already engaged in some form of work or economic activity when they were ten years old. Almost all of these previous jobs were in the services and informal sector. Some already had three to five different jobs before the incidence of trafficking occurred. Five respondents were candid enough to relate their previous experience in prostitution.

Gender stereotyping of jobs was observed. Most of the females provided domestic services, commercial sex in brothels, videoke or karaoke bars, or worked as helper in a *carinderia* (a small eatery). On the other hand, the males worked in small scale businesses (e.g., piggery, bakery), or street vending.

Half of the respondents experienced some form of abuse and violence at home. This ranged from the more passive emotional and physical neglect to verbal, emotional, psychological, and physical battering. When asked about their motivations to leave home, the most common response among the children was that they wanted to help their parents and their siblings. Most of these children perceived themselves to be very poor, and they sacrificed themselves so their younger siblings could continue their schooling. Despite their very young age, these children take the responsibility for contributing to the family income seriously. Some of them feel guilty when they see their parents having to struggle hard to provide for them. This sense of guilt has provided the added impetus to push them out of their homes to find work.

On the other hand, 13 children said that they wanted to earn their own money, so they could buy for themselves the things that their parents could not provide, like clothes and food. Some of the children also said that they wanted to see Manila, thinking that they would be able to see celebrities, movie stars, and visit the malls, which are not found in their communities. Commercialism has painted the cities very attractively, and most of those who are fascinated by the lure of "Manila life," are easily enticed by their peers to leave their homes.

Nearly all of the respondents did not know nor understand that they were trafficked. They did not see that the process they went through brought them into a continued state of exploitation. To a number of the respondents, life was much better now, because they had money of their own and were able to spend for themselves. They simply wanted to work and earn money to help their

families, and themselves. As their educational attainment is generally low and their work skills limited, they thought they could not get better jobs and were therefore satisfied with what they already had. Some of them knew what exactly they were being recruited for. If ever there was initial resistance, they could not run away because they had no fare money. In time, they got used to the work and accepted it.

It was found that there were more female than male recruiters. This may be due to the notion that women are less likely perceived as dangerous. Generally, the recruiter enters the community through a respected or prominent member (local official, elder). Recruiters form a network of friends in the community who do the actual recruiting for them. According to the experiences of the respondents, they got acquainted with the recruiters through their friends, neighbours, and even their own relatives (uncles, aunts, etc.). Often, recruitment was done on a one-on-one basis, or in a small group of four to five children. Batch or group recruitment actually lowers the recruitment cost for the trafficker as well as the psychological cost for the child, as going away with friends decreases the apprehensions of leaving home.

Deceit is a common attribute and practice among recruiters. They may give false information about the child's employment or remuneration. A great number of the female respondents were told that they would be hired as waitresses, dishwashers, or storekeepers in major urban cities such as Manila or Metro Cebu, and that they would be paid adequately. The situation at the destination was different: the children are employed as GROs, sold to prostitution houses, or employed in households and farms under the worst working and living conditions. Worse, they do not get the payment that was promised, or they are not paid at all for their services.

It appeared that local authorities and the general public have a fairly accurate sense of the trafficking routes; this includes points of boarding, drop off points and disembarkation. Though the concept of distinct places of origin, transit and destination has been blurred in the narratives of the children, what is clear from all their accounts is that the places of destination are often bigger cities where employment is seen to be more probable. Manila remains the dream destination of many of the children, although places leading to Manila may serve only as transit points or final destinations.

A town or city could be classified as sending, transit, destination or a combination of two or all three types, depending on the degree to which that area has the economic, political, socio-cultural, and geographic characteristics that favour child trafficking. Using the push and pull theory of migration as a framework, these characteristics were identified for each of the nine study areas.

Camarines Norte, mainly an agricultural province, is both a sending and destination area for traffickers. Many of the children interviewed belonged to large households. The average number of children in the province is six; a couple of the families interviewed had from 10 to 13 children. Children augment family income by working with their parents in the farms or by working in small-scale mining ventures. Some children were trafficked out to Quezon, Metro Manila, Bulacan, and Pampanga; boys were made to work in bakeries and piggeries in Bulacan and Pampanga. Transportation to Manila and elsewhere is highly accessible, with buses that ply the 7-

hour route to Quezon City providing the main means of transport. On the other hand, the small-scale mining towns towards the north are sites of videoke bars that employ sex workers, some of whom children, who come from other provinces. Many of the child sex workers are said to come from the capital, Daet, from Manila and other places in the country.

Mention of child trafficking in Northern Samar immediately brings up the Allen-Matnog crossing connecting the islands of the Visayas to Luzon. This part of the province is widely known as a major transit area for travelers and recruiters/traffickers alike. As in other provinces, poverty is one of the major push factors for children to be trafficked from Northern Samar. The provinces' economy is still largely dependent on agriculture and aquatic resources, and occasional natural calamities directly affect a household's harvest and ability to earn; there are very limited economic opportunities in the community. Many times, children are forced to share in the burden of bringing in additional income for the family, making them easy prey to their own kin, neighbourings, or unknown recruiters, who entice them to work in Manila on the promise of better living conditions.

A major city in the Visayas region is Cebu City, the melting pot of the south. Its rapid economic development in the past years has brought with it the ravages of development: an increasing population that congests many of its areas, heavy traffic and pollution, as well as social ills like prostitution. Cebu City is highly urbanized and is one of the favoured destinations for trafficked children. Information gathered through the FGDs in Barangay Kamagayan (an area in the city which is historically known for its sex trade) showed that many of the children sex workers there were trafficked from Iligan City, Butuan City, and Cagayan de Oro City, all in Mindanao. *Casa* owners partake actively in recruitment by going to these places to recruit women and children for their business...

Cebu is also seen as a major source of children recruits to supply the sex trade in Manila and Los Baños, Laguna. Locals of Barangay Kamagayan mentioned that Manila- and Laguna-based recruiters for bars/videoke/clubs frequently visit the area searching for new recruits. The neighbouring cities of Mandaue and Lapu-lapu are also destination areas for Cebu City natives who do not want to go far, but who preferred not to work near home. No Cebuanos could therefore be found in Barangay Kamagayan as sex workers.

Another major city in the Visayas region is Iloilo City, a highly urbanized coastal city, and part of a bigger land mass, the island of Panay. A neighbouring, Bacolod City, is also accessible to people from Iloilo by fast sea craft across the Guimaras Strait. Land travel to the other towns of Iloilo or to the neighbouring provinces of Panay is very accessible and frequent. The exploitation of children is through the Iloilo City-Bacolod "sex trafficking exchange". Recruiters and bar managers make use of cell phones, accessible transportation and the dynamic port area to transport children and women across the two cities and to other provinces where there is demand. Like major cities Cebu and Davao, the trafficking for sexual exploitation of children in Iloilo City is caused by aggressive and dynamic tourism. Trafficking operations are at their peak during festivals like *Maskara* in Bacolod and *Dinagyang* in Iloilo, where the demand for sexual services by both local and foreign

tourists increase; this makes for very lucrative business for recruiters, *casa* managers, and others who are involved in the prostitution.

In Mindanao, child trafficking has been one of the major concerns of Davao City. Trans-boundary trafficking was found to persist in Davao City, where women are sent to Japan via Manila, which serves as a “seasoning” area. The local government set up monitoring systems in bus stations to detect and intercept potential victims of trafficking. To avoid being caught, traffickers now use private vans and taxicabs, called the “shuttle type” transport for victims of sexual exploitation. Children are usually transported in groups of 5 or 10, with traffickers taking the guise of family members or relatives as they travel. NGOs (Talikala and Tambayan) and the PNP revealed that children are transported to nearby provinces of Davao, General Santos City and South Cotabato, to work as prostitutes in KTVs and videoke bars. The children mainly come from the barangays Agdao, Bangkerohan and Isla Verde. Apparently, the community is involved in the recruitment process. Of the trafficked children in Davao, 68 percent were recruited by their peers, neighbours, family and close relatives. Thirty-seven percent of victims had their parents’ consent and used fake personal documents in order to facilitate the whole recruitment.

Zamboanga del Sur is found in Region IX, which is the fifth poorest region, and the second highest with respect to the total number of abused children in 2003. The CTVAM shows that a child residing in Region IX would have a higher probability of being trafficked. This finding may be due to poverty in the region, or to the fact that the peace and order situation in the area has long been unstable. Zamboanga del Sur is besieged by issues on child labour, child prostitution, massive out-migration to and repatriates from Sabah, Malaysia.. Although there is less published data on the child trafficking situation in the area compared with Cebu and Davao, it is known that children are trafficked into the port area for labour and prostitution. Interviews with government officials, NGOs and community residents in Zamboanga revealed that “backdoor” trafficking happens in a kind of straightforward fashion; the victims are transported using the advertised shipping lines that ply between the city and Bongao in Tawi-Tawi, Jolo, and Sabah.

The last three study areas are major urban areas in Luzon. Like the cities of Cebu and Davao, Quezon City suffers the same social ills such as widespread prostitution. Local efforts to curb the prostitution trade confirmed that most of the young girls who were into prostitution were migrants from the Visayas and Mindanao. SAGIP-K, a local community effort against prostitution, reported that forty-five percent of the women they interviewed were from the Visayas and Mindanao provinces: Leyte, Masbate, Cebu, Bacolod, Negros Oriental, Negros Occidental, Davao, Misamis Oriental, Misamis Occidental, and Surigao. Another 21 percent were from the provinces of Northern and Central Luzon, such as Nueva Viscaya, Isabela, Cagayan Valley, Nueva Ecija, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Tarlac, and Pampanga. There was not much information on how they migrated and moved from their areas of origin. However, it is highly probable that a huge number of these children and young women were trafficked from their respective homes.

Pasay city is also known for its numerous night clubs, girlie bars, and similar entertainment establishments that cater to the ever growing clientele of locals and foreign tourists searching for sexual services. Social workers of SERRAS, an NGO, revealed that a large proportion of the street-

based prostitutes in Pasay are young girls. Through their street education/bar outreach, the social workers identified 107 of these girls. They prowl the streets in the Harrison, Baclaran, Dakota, Luneta, and Malate areas. These children were not from Manila but from Samar, Leyte, Cebu, Zamboanga, Davao, Butuan City, General Santos City, in the Negros provinces. Most of the young girls were from poor families. Unskilled, and unable to get formal employment, they were forced into street prostitution for survival.

The City of Manila remains to be one of the major receiving areas for trafficking victims. Even if they are unaware of the working conditions and terms of employment, trafficked children brave the journey, keeping in mind the bright future Manila might bring to them. The Manila North Harbor is one of the main disembarkation ports for traffickers using sea travel to execute their trade. Recruited children come in ships from ports like Cebu, Iloilo, Davao, Zamboanga and other places through which these ships pass. In one instance, 80 children were rescued in the port. Apparently, recruiters bring in children in batches of 20, which are boarded in each of the ship’s stopover ports. This implies that the trafficker has connections on land that recruit and prepare the children for boarding at a particular schedule.

None of the areas studied are exclusively sending, transit or destination areas; each one provides a combination of being sending, transit and destination of trafficking victims. The rural–urban migration trend holds true in the context of child trafficking, where children are transported primarily from poor agriculture-based communities to the major urban centres.

Assessment of the Institutional Mechanisms against Child Trafficking

The country already has good laws to support its fight against child trafficking. R.A. 9208 requires government and development agencies to take concrete actions to combat trafficking in persons, especially of women and children, and is seen as a major step towards the protection of women’s and children’s rights. Subsequently, it provides for the formation of a structure, the Inter-Agency Council against Trafficking (IACAT), as the national coordinating body on issues and concerns relative to trafficking of women and children. One of the mandates of the IACAT is to formulate a comprehensive and integrated program for the prevention of trafficking and the protection and support for trafficked persons including an appropriate reintegration program. It is also expected to establish a mechanism for the timely and coordinated response to trafficking cases.

Local government units must lead in preventing trafficking in persons and in providing protection, rehabilitative, and reintegration programs. Government agencies are mandated to establish similar programs for trafficked persons. The Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons and Quick Action Teams have been established nationwide as inter-agency mechanism for detecting, monitoring, and rescuing child victims of trafficking and exploitation. Agencies like the Commission on Human Rights, the Philippine National Police, the Department of Labor, and the Department of Social Welfare and Development have units dedicated to ensuring the protection and welfare of children.

As new as R.A. 9208 and the consequent structures are, it is recognized that there are no coherent and comprehensive programs against child trafficking that are brought down to the community level, where they are needed the most.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Interventions should always have in mind the best interest of the child. It is possible, that, for some children, the right to family unity may conflict with economic and social rights. Because of the child's vulnerability, the promotion and protection of the child's rights should be primary to any intervention that is to be designed. In accordance with the analytical framework applied in the study and the push and pull theory of migration, recommendations for action are clustered according to individual-, family- (household), and community-level interventions.

Children should rightfully be provided with the opportunities that will allow them to grow and develop into productive individuals capable of independent living. These would include basic education, proper nutrition, basic life skills, and the right values. Where formal education is not an option, alternative skills and livelihood possibilities should be provided. Community-based activities that provide direction to the children as well as distract them from the ploys of traffickers should be done. The child should also be taught to discern between well-meaning individuals and those whose motivations are self-motivated and exploitative of others.

Rescued children should be treated as victims and provided psychological and emotional support before their eventual repatriation. Rehabilitation and reintegration efforts should include both family and the community so the child will not feel cast out and the prejudices of the community against the child's experience will be eliminated. In appropriate cases and to the extent allowable by law, victims should be provided with legal and other assistance, in connection with criminal, civil, and other actions against traffickers and exploiters. Ensuring that their traffickers are put behind bars will contribute to their early recovery and reintegration.

Capabilities of the family as duty-bearers need to be improved. This would mean: making them more aware of their responsibilities, involving them in the delivery of appropriate child-targeted services, and helping them provide an adequate level of security to their children. Interventions that will address materialism, violence at home, the belief that children ought to help in providing for the family's upkeep, and other socio-cultural issues need to be done. Programs that will target the economic well-being of the families and the community they live in would have to be implemented in order to address the main reason why children need to work, and leave home in order to do so.

The child's chances for reintegration are increased if the family is engaged in the process. This may require the social worker or counselor working closely with both child and family, and is most probably true for dysfunctional families. A deeper understanding of the child's experience and the role of the family in the healing process would have to be acquired. Close monitoring by the local government unit or the social worker assigned to the child would be important. It is as

important, though, to decide whether it would still be healthy for the child to return to the family and live with them, considering the conditions of abuse which he or she may have suffered there.

Certain paradigms have to change for community-based interventions to be effective. Awareness of trafficking as a problem and a shared understanding of what it really means and the full extent of R.A. 9208 are important. People generally have the wrong expectation about how a victim behaves, such that trafficking victims are treated more as criminals or perpetrators.

Increasing awareness and knowledge building are key elements in putting up a systemic way of combating the trafficking of children at the local level. The local government is the most strategic venue where a protective mantle of laws, ordinances and assistance related to child trafficking could be lodged and prioritized.

Communities should be mobilized to prevent and suppress trafficking in their areas; they should design and agree on appropriate and effective mechanisms that will help individuals, families, and NGO workers to distinguish between legitimate recruiters and traffickers. They must, however, be empowered and capacitated to respond to trafficking cases; they have to be educated on trafficking and supported in the establishment of community networks.

Where there is a preponderance of migration for work, the local government unit should provide a helpline or at least a list of legitimate contacts, procedures, documentary requirements, etc. to avoid being trapped into discussions with a trafficker. There should be a mechanism for tracking and getting feedback on migrant workers—both those who leave the place for work elsewhere as well as those who come in to a place to try out their luck there. A mechanism for reporting the presence of a recruiter in the area as well as incidents of trafficking should be formulated and shared among all community members.

There is an urgent need to improve the overall criminal justice system by making it gender-sensitive and child-friendly. A gender perspective and child-focused policies should be mainstreamed in all areas of the criminal justice system. Law enforcement and prosecution also have to be improved. Cases should be resolved and disposed of quickly. A campaign against corruption and the re-education of law enforcement agents should be done. Government regulations have to be implemented more strictly and consistently, particularly recruitment policies and pre-departure requirements. Existing policies must be continually assessed and reviewed to better address the problem.

There is a need to establish clearer and improved coordination mechanisms among agencies and institutions dealing with trafficking cases. Given the vast mandate of IACAT to coordinate efforts against trafficking in persons, it should develop a mechanism that will put all critical actors on board in the fight against trafficking in persons. Since the problem is complex, government alone cannot solve it; concerted efforts of all stakeholders would be necessary.

A national central database containing information on trafficking incidents, methods, traffickers and their profiles, typologies, anti-trafficking strategies, etc. is important. The lack of reliable data

on trafficking in persons necessitates the establishment of a national shared central database. The database shall provide information on the extent of the problem and the impact of program interventions and should have the capacity for case tracking and monitoring. This database should be accessible to agencies, NGOs, communities, even families and concerned individuals who can help in the fight against child trafficking.

It is hoped that the contributions this study has made to the wealth of child trafficking literature will be made full use of in the design of interventions at all stages of the process—protection, prevention, rescue, rehabilitation, and reintegration. The Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model may be useful to local and national planners in identifying priority areas for interventions. The Child Trafficking Vulnerability Index, developed by applying the model on the 79 provinces of the country, will provide guidance as to which provinces to focus on. It is expected that gender-sensitive and child-friendly approaches will be used as these interventions are implemented with children, families, and the community in general as target beneficiaries or as partners.

The assessment of laws, instruments, institutions, and mechanisms on child trafficking is quite comprehensive, and has attempted to provide a full picture of the strengths, deficiencies, gaps and residual issues. The information presented is expected to guide lawmakers, implementers, and other stakeholders towards improving current implementation as well as identify policy directions.

The trafficking of children is an evolving phenomenon. Where recruiters/traffickers adapt quickly to perpetuate their trade, innovative trafficking processes are established, new purposes for trafficking emerge and new vulnerable young groups come into the fold. The fight against child trafficking is a continuous battle. With concerted efforts, it is hoped that the child will emerge victorious. ♦

1. INTRODUCTION

The trafficking of children, a highly vulnerable group, is of priority concern, as it is a major violation of children’s rights. More and more governments, international organizations, and civil society groups, recognizing their responsibility as duty-bearers, have come to regard child trafficking as demanding immediate attention. This recognition has led the Philippine government to formulate and enforce stronger legal action against trafficking in persons in general, and child trafficking in particular. This study is expected to add to the wealth of knowledge that will contribute to the efforts against child trafficking.

1.1 RATIONALE

It is the obligation of the state to protect and promote the rights of its citizens. For children, this obligation is further supported by the Convention of the Rights of the Child, which places a comprehensive duty on states to ensure that children are protected from all forms of abuse, exploitation and violence. The Articles of this Convention relate specifically to the sexual abuse and exploitation of children and its consequences, suggesting an integrated approach to action that can guide and unify priorities, policies and programs.

In the Yokohama Congress of 2001, participating countries reaffirmed, as a primary consideration, the protection and promotion of the interests and rights of the child to be protected from all forms of sexual exploitation.¹ The Congress observed that since the first World Congress in Stockholm, national and international agenda already incorporated enhanced actions against child prostitution, child pornography, and the trafficking of children for sexual purposes. Evident among the participating states were new policies, laws, and programs to address the phenomenon of sexual exploitation of children, to criminalize this phenomenon, and to prosecute those who exploit children.

The United Nations’ Children’s Fund (UNICEF) views child development as the core of sustainable development. It recognizes that unless the rights of children are protected, promoted, and fulfilled, development, which is essentially about people, will not happen. In its Priorities for Children 2002-2005, UNICEF endeavors to “build a ‘protective environment’ for children that fortifies them

The Right of the Child

Protection is a universal imperative and the right of every child. Violence, abuse, neglect, and exploitation threaten children throughout their life. Children, even those born healthy and young people are more vulnerable than adults to being hurt, neglected, abused and exploited. Their survival is at risk and their full development compromised. Millions of abused and exploited children suffer out of sight as violence against children occurs within families, in schools, communities, and in institutions.

¹<http://www.unicef.org/events/yokohama/outcome.html>. *The Yokohama Global Document 2001*, 2nd World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children.

against abuse and exploitation . . .”² They have identified, in their Medium-Term Strategic Plan (MTSP), the elements of this protective environment as: the implementation of laws, policies, and programs that protect children; the prevention of violence and abuse by supporting families and communities; mitigation of the impact of violence through recovery and reintegration programs; the elimination of the worst forms of child labour; and increased protection for children in armed conflict, among others. The value of family- and community-based approaches was recognized.

The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime³ further extends these commitments beyond States by promoting cooperation to prevent and combat transnational organized crime more effectively. This Convention explicitly criminalizes, among others, trafficking in persons, through its Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 182⁴ includes child trafficking in its definition of child labour. The Convention specifically defines the worst forms of child labour to include:

- a. all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage, serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;
- b. the use, procuring, or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;
- c. the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; and
- d. work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety, or morals of the children.

Moreover, the ILO Convention considers the need to adopt new instruments for the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour as the main priority for national and international action, including international cooperation and assistance. All these commitments strengthen the case for ensuring that there are personal, collective, and structural mechanisms for the protection of children against all forms of violence and exploitation.

For its part, both houses of the 12th Congress of the Philippines (a Party to the above Conventions) finally passed Republic Act No. 9208, called the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act Of 2003⁵, on 12 May 2003. The law requires government and development agencies to take concrete actions to combat trafficking in persons, especially of women and children, and is seen as a major step towards the protection of women’s and children’s rights. Subsequently, it provides for the formation of a structure, the Inter-Agency Council against Trafficking (IACAT), as the national

²http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/pub_mtsp_en.pdf. UNICEF’s Priorities for Children 2002-2005, 2nd ed., UNICEF: New York, c 2002.

³The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. Initially signed in Palermo, Italy from 12-15 December 2000.

⁴Convention Concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour. (Note: Date of coming into force: 10:11:2000).

⁵R.A. No. 9208 – An Act To Institute Policies To Eliminate Trafficking In Persons Especially Women And Children, Establishing The Necessary Institutional Mechanisms For The Protection And Support Of Trafficked Persons, Providing Penalties For Its Violations And For Other Purposes. A consolidation of Senate Bill No. 2444 and House Bill No. 4432, finally passed by both houses of Congress 12 May 2003.

coordinating body on issues and concerns relative to trafficking of women and children. One of the mandates of the IACAT is to formulate a comprehensive and integrated program for the prevention of trafficking and the protection and support for trafficked persons including an appropriate reintegration program. It is also expected to establish a mechanism for the timely and coordinated response to trafficking cases.

Despite efforts to meet commitments to the Conventions, there is no real concerted effort at combating the trafficking of women and children in the Philippines. Although laws and mechanisms are in place, a more systematic and effective interventions plan against the trafficking of women and children is still needed. The problem itself is complex as it cuts across local and international borders. Different areas of the Philippines are seen as sending, transit, or receiving areas for trafficked women and children. The purposes for trafficking are just as varied, ranging from sexual exploitation, labour (slave labour and bonded labour), organ trading, marriage, armed conflict, illegal activities (begging, drug trade, adoption), and possibly many others.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study endeavors to come up with a method of analyzing the child trafficking situation in the Philippines based on empirical data, such that anti-trafficking, rehabilitation, and reintegration interventions can be effectively designed. Specifically, the study objectives are to:

1. Develop a vulnerability assessment model for child trafficking in the Philippines;⁶
2. Assess the nature and scope of child trafficking in selected areas; and
3. Assess the existing institutional arrangements for combating child trafficking vis-à-vis national and international commitments.

Effective interventions to eliminate child trafficking require an understanding of its nature, extent, and determinants. The illicit nature of child trafficking, however, makes it difficult to gather data essential to a systematic analysis of the problem, which is necessary to establish priorities for action and design policy interventions. The need for a systematic analysis of child trafficking is what motivates this study.

1.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study is essentially divided into three major phases to address each of the three research objectives: (a) the development of a child trafficking vulnerability assessment model, which was later developed into a child trafficking vulnerability index, (b) the assessment of the child trafficking situation in selected areas in the Philippines, and (c) an assessment of the extent to which international and national legal instruments affecting child trafficking were translated into practice.

⁶A map and other relevant information about the Philippines and its regions are provided in Annex A.

Each phase benefited from a review of relevant literature, applying the variables expressed in the analytical framework that was subsequently developed. They were conducted with overlapping time frames. Cross-referencing was done between and among the three phases during an exchange of documents or in consultants' conferences in order to validate data or identify unique observations or information.

The more important terms used in this study are presented with their corresponding definitions in Annex C.

1.3.1 Literature Review

A review of existing literature and legal instruments on the phenomenon of child trafficking was done. Though mostly non-quantitative and anecdotal, it has been able to provide guidance as to the dimensions of the child trafficking problem that have to be considered and the variables to employ in its analysis.

Effort was exerted at organizing the data obtained from literature such that the various dimensions and determinants of child trafficking are seen, and in accordance with the analytical framework.

An annotated bibliography that includes the papers on child trafficking that were used as references in this study is attached hereto as Annex D.

1.3.2 Formulation of the Vulnerability Assessment Model

Most literature analyze child trafficking using qualitative measures and methods, particularly case study methods. This is not surprising since, until recently, there has been little data on child trafficking. The introduction of the concept of "vulnerability" in the discourse of child trafficking seeks to provide a quantitative assessment of the situation. The use of the concept of "vulnerabilities" recommends an analysis of clusters of possible factors that would lead towards a child being trafficked eventually. This, in effect, is an innovation in lieu of the existing and popular analysis on child trafficking in the Philippines.

Vulnerability is defined as the probability of having an individual's own situation worsen when facing a dramatic event. This term is generally found in poverty literature, where it is said that a worsening of the individual's situation or well-being understandably leads to poverty. In this context, decreasing the vulnerability of those considered vulnerable by formulating policies directed towards preventive ex-ante strategies is seen to correspond to ensuring security. Approaching the child trafficking problem from a vulnerability perspective would therefore be attractive, if not most proper. Focusing on vulnerability will require identifying the threats and the risks that children meet daily and allow for looking at their capacity to react to these risks.

This study aims to develop a child trafficking vulnerability assessment model of sending areas in the Philippines. Specifically, vulnerability refers to the risk of a community or geographical area (e.g. town or province) of becoming a source of child trafficking victims. Vulnerability assessment

attempts to identify the best indicators, which may be individual, household, or community attributes, that are significantly related to the probability of a child becoming a trafficking victim. For lack of quantitative data on child trafficking and its determinants, national surveys were used as source of relevant data. Annex B presents the analysis done to arrive at the vulnerability assessment model.

1.3.3 Rapid Assessment in Nine Selected Areas

The Rapid Assessment (RA) method, as proposed for investigating child labour in a 2000 ILO/UNICEF Field Manual,⁷ was used for the situation assessment. It is a fast and simplified way of gathering information within small, clearly defined geographical areas—a situation provided by the study sites. It also applies a systems perspective to child trafficking.

The literature review and the vulnerability assessment model provided an initial listing of the dimensions to the child trafficking phenomenon that needed to be explored. Variables (indicators) for each dimension were identified and developed as the study went on. Interviews and focus group discussions were done where possible. Secondary data and case reviews provided most of the information where individual informants were not available.

The actual child trafficking situation was determined in seven cities and two provinces: Manila, Quezon City, Pasay City, Cebu City, Iloilo City, Zamboanga City, Davao City, and the provinces of Camarines Norte and Northern Samar. In conformance with the RA method, exploratory discussions with non-government workers in these areas and local government officials allowed the researchers to pinpoint specific municipalities, communities (barangays), and community groups, as well as individuals where focus group discussions (FGD) and interviews could be done.

Applying a human rights approach⁸ to the study would give us two general categories of respondents: the duty-bearers (those who are responsible for realizing the rights of children, or ensuring that these rights are protected, promoted and fulfilled) and the claim-holders (those who have rights). Local government officials like police, social workers, educators, information and planning officers, and barangay officials, as well as NGO workers, parents, and other adults are the duty-bearers. This approach to development further recognizes that duty-bearers can meet their obligations if they have the capacity to do so. Just as well, the capability of children to claim their rights is a consequence of whether they know and understand these rights, and have the necessary resources so they can lay claim to them.

Focus group discussions were done with community representatives and some duty-bearers, which included service providers. In-depth interviews and careful observation were held with various key informants (service providers) and victims of child trafficking. A matrix showing the dimensions and variables (Annex E) that needed to be explored in each data-gathering activity was constantly being referred to in order to extract as much data and information from the respondents as could be obtained. A questionnaire (Annex F) was drafted by the research team

⁷Investigating Child Labour, Guidelines for Rapid Assessment." *A Field Manual*, January 2000.

⁸Human Rights Approach to Development Programming, by Urban Jonsson. UNICEF: Kenya, 2003.

from this matrix to guide the discussions and interviews. The questionnaire translated to Filipino was most useful. New variables that came up during the interviews were noted. Leads or new directions that arose during the discussions or as the research team went around to observe the areas—a community or respondent that was more responsive, but was not in the planned visits, or a part of the trafficking system that needed to be explored—were followed.

Some numerical data on child trafficking were obtained from relevant sources like the offices of the police, social welfare officers, labour officers, and officials of local government units. Most of the data obtained from the FGD and claim-holder interviews were qualitative and anecdotal in nature. It was recognized that the data gathered from a particular area could be best understood in the context of that area—its physical, socio-cultural, political, and economic characteristics.

1.4 THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

An analysis of the child trafficking phenomenon necessitates the inclusion of duty-bearers: members of the child's family, the community in which the child lives and is supposed to develop, as well as the people who form the institutions that surround the child and have a duty to realize these rights. The framework shown in Figure 1-1 was applied in this study. The framework expresses the systemic nature of the child trafficking phenomenon. It shows the child in various contexts—as an individual and as part of a family or household, which in turn is part of a larger community. It also looks at the trafficker, his/her interests, motivations and affiliations. The trafficking process, seen as a function of physical, economic, political and socio-cultural conditions (geography, transportation modes and access, community penetrability, etc.) is also examined. This last part of the framework is adapted from *"The Local Trafficking of Filipino Girls for Employment."*⁹

The active interaction between the child and his/her social contexts and structures produces a reciprocal influence between and among the child and other individuals, families, and social contexts. The contextual exposure of the child in his/her early years therefore contributes to the possibility of victimization. The strength and stability of his/her safety nets—family and community—further increase or decrease the possibility of trafficking. In later years, when the child is of school age, classmates and peers afford other

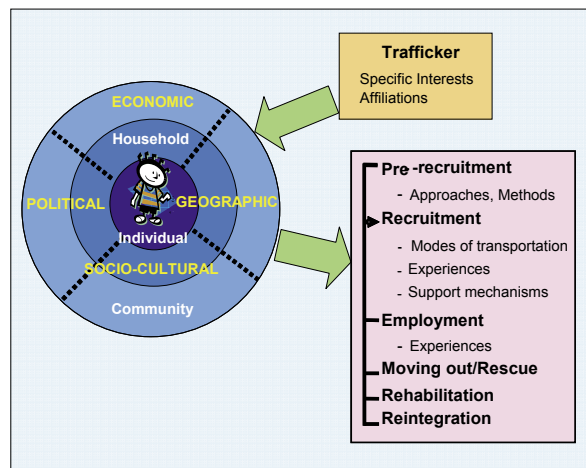


Figure 1-1 A Framework for Child Trafficking

⁹M.C. Cabaero, ed., 2001.

possibilities for social interaction that affect his/her vulnerabilities. Social structures change and this change influences the child and the relationships that he/she establishes.

The physical, political, economic, and socio-cultural environments of the child and the trafficker contribute to the "push" and "pull" factors that allow for children to be trafficked.

The trafficking process that is shown in the framework traces activities starting from initial contact of the trafficker with the community—the child him/herself, family, or any respectable member. This shows the stage where a semblance of a trusting relationship is established by the trafficker. The discussion moves further to the actual process of transporting the child from home to a place of employment. Rescue may happen at any stage in the process. Though it may involve returning the child to his/her home, the possibility of the parents' involvement in the process cannot be discounted. The last two steps—rehabilitation and reintegration—are therefore critical, since they may spell the difference between the child overcoming the initial trauma and developing into a healthy adult or going back into the cycle of victimization and abuse.

Figure 1-2 shows how each major component of this study—the Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model (CTVAM), the rapid assessment of child trafficking in the nine selected areas and the discussion of the institutional arrangements in combating child trafficking—are interconnected and how each chapter's findings relate to the analytical framework. First, the CTVAM identifies the major determinants of child trafficking and assesses the vulnerabilities of areas as possible sending areas. It entails a quantitative analysis of the various individual, household and community attributes that are seen as important predictors towards the prevalence of child trafficking in the country; determining these factors would soon lead to a better understanding of the phenomenon. Further analysis resulted in the Child Trafficking

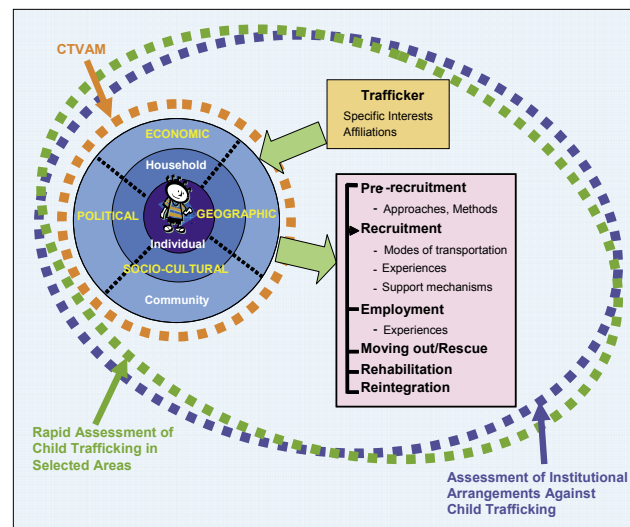


Figure 1-2 The three main study areas relative to the elements of the analytical framework.

Vulnerability Index (CTVI), which is an estimation of the relative sending probabilities of the country's provinces. The CTVI is expected to guide province-specific program development.

The Rapid Assessment of the nine areas, in turn, validates or explores other explanatory factors not captured by the CTVAM, (e.g. violence at home, motivations and aspirations of trafficked children, experiences of abuse, etc.) Using qualitative information, the RA tries to identify the social, political, economic and geographic

dimensions and dynamics that prevail in the areas selected using the push and pull framework of migration. Profiles of the key actors in the trafficking process are obtained for each area. Facilitating and deterring mechanisms are also identified.

In order to appreciate the structural and policy mechanisms that govern each phase of the process of child trafficking, a review of the laws and structural mechanisms that these laws establish is done. The efforts of government, NGOs, and other community organizations are studied. A review of the programs, structures, projects or multi-faceted interventions that prevent the worsening of the problem of trafficking, protect vulnerable children, and the rehabilitation or reintegration of children who have undergone the harrowing experience of being trafficked, is also done.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although a country picture of child trafficking was desired, the project was scoped according to the following conditions, which were clear at the outset:

- a. R.A. 9208 being very recent, the current understanding of the concept of child trafficking is quite limited, and not as expansive as defined by the law.
- b. Published data and literature that could be used for the systematic and more quantitative aspects of the study, as well as to provide a qualitative picture were not as updated as would have been ideal.
- c. Where the possibilities for child trafficking were present, cooperation of workers, whether government or non-government, was essential to be able to gather substantial and reliable data. This necessitated the partnering by the research group with social service providers and government workers in the study areas. The quality of data obtained was affected by the strength of this partnership and the coordinative processes that were employed. Where the partners were organized, resourceful and open with any and all data they could share, the team was able to secure valid and more useful data than where the partners were less active.
- d. A general constraint on time and resources affected the choice of research methods and limited the study areas.

1.5.1 Literature Review

There are no collated national or regional statistics on child trafficking. At best, most of the data are generated from case studies and surveys, beneficiaries and clients of programs undertaken by government and non-government organizations, and some private institutions working with women, children and children's issues.

Some of the initiatives covered in the literature and discussed in this report are not exactly and specially undertaken to address trafficking in persons but child abuse and exploitation in general. The current initiatives on trafficking in persons largely deal with both women and children, and

focus on sexual exploitation and child labour. Very little is published about trafficking for other purposes.

1.5.2 Development of the CTVAM

By necessity, and from the perspective of prevention, the Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model is constructed only for an area as a source of trafficked children. The following factors or sources of vulnerability to various kinds of trafficking were considered:

- a. Characteristics of households with trafficked children (poverty, unemployment, etc.);
- b. Migration rates and labour migration patterns (demand for legal and illegal labour, labour migration flow, probability of employment, probability of being recruited into child prostitution);
- c. Area-specific factors (poverty incidence or poverty vulnerability, unemployment rate, incidence of other push factors such as conflict and natural calamities); and
- d. Indicators for likelihood of detection and apprehension (e.g., vulnerability to corruption).

Other considerations in the construction of the model were its ability to contribute to policy-making and programming, i.e., the results should guide the programming and targeting of efforts against child trafficking.

1.5.3 The Nature and Scope of Child Trafficking in Selected Areas

Resource and time constraints, as well as the sensitive nature of child trafficking, allowed the research group to gather primary data only in limited geographical areas for each of the nine provinces and cities that were pre-selected. The RA method provided both the best tool and limitation for what the study could afford: it was fast and rather simple, but data gathered could not be extrapolated to larger populations. No statistical analysis is expected to be done on data gathered from the field visits.

For each city and province, guidance as to which community to visit or where to seek interviewees was mainly provided by the NGO partner working the area. Generally, these were places known to already harbor victims or potential victims of child trafficking—barangays with sexually exploited populations (as in Cebu City, Iloilo City and Davao City), potentials for child labour (the mining communities in Camarines Norte) and transit points like ports (Manila, Northern Samar, Davao City, Zamboanga City). It was not possible to conduct an FGD or interview in a community that would have been perceived as unbiased where child trafficking was concerned, so awareness of the child trafficking problem by ordinary citizens was not ascertained. Annex G shows the respondents for each area and the kind of data gathered.

Duty-bearers were chosen based on an understanding of government structures and the mandates of each office. The internal capabilities of each office to gather, record and store information in general and child trafficking data in particular was seen as a serious limitation. Apparently the elements of R.A. No. 9208 were not equally familiar to the different local government units and

therefore recording of child trafficking data generally fell under illegal recruitment or child abuse cases (sexual exploitation or child labour) in some areas, if they were reported and recorded at all.

The reluctance of NGOs to share confidential data on child victims of trafficking was also a major limitation. The resistance of victims of child trafficking to share their experience was evident. The respondents varied from one study area to the other, as much as the kind and volume of information that was obtained, resulting in unevenness of data among the nine areas and lack of comparability.

1.5.4 Institutional Arrangements for Combating Child Trafficking

This section of the document reviews existing policies, legislation, initiatives, programs and services pertaining to trafficking in persons to identify good practices and assess the effectiveness of such policies and programs. Information and relevant data were taken from existing literature, country reports/papers, agency inputs based on the matrices provided to them, and the results of the Key Informant Interviews conducted with selected critical agencies. The current policies and programs on trafficking in persons largely deal with both women and children. Thus, the discussion may not necessarily distinguish whether such policies affect children solely, except when properly indicated.

Early on, even when the problem of trafficking in persons in general and child trafficking in particular had already been recognized by government and non-government organizations, it was thought that the Philippines had no legal definition of trafficking.¹⁰ R.A. 7610¹¹ was seen only as specifying the attempt to commit child trafficking, and not covering other forms of trafficking like labour or exploitative employment. The lack of a comprehensive law on trafficking in children was seen as a major gap in policy implementation. R.A. 9208 has resolved all this, as it provides an expanded legal definition of child trafficking that includes all possible purposes and initiation processes.

When the trafficked person is a child, R.A. 9208 considers it as qualified trafficking. Other conditions, like the commission of the crime by a syndicate, or in large scale, or when the offender is an ascendant, parent, sibling, guardian or a person who exercises authority over the trafficked person, a public officer or employee, a member of the military, among others, contribute to the offense being considered as qualified trafficking.

1.6 THE PUSH AND PULL THEORY OF CHILD TRAFFICKING

The root causes of trafficking are complex and interrelated. Individual and family characteristics, including motivations and attitudes—many of which are highly variable—contribute to a child's

vulnerability and the decision to be in a situation of trafficking. It is important to note that each country or locality has different combinations of multiple factors that are specific and unique to it.

Generally, the phenomenon of trafficking follows the principle of supply and demand and involves three key actors: the trafficking victim, the user or buyer, and the trafficker. Children or their families would generally want the child to escape a situation of oppression, deprivation, or diminished opportunities and wish that he or she would reach a desired destination perceived to provide more freedom or greater comfort. These conditions contribute to the vulnerability of the child to trafficking. It is the child or the services that he/she provides that are the commodity in this equation.

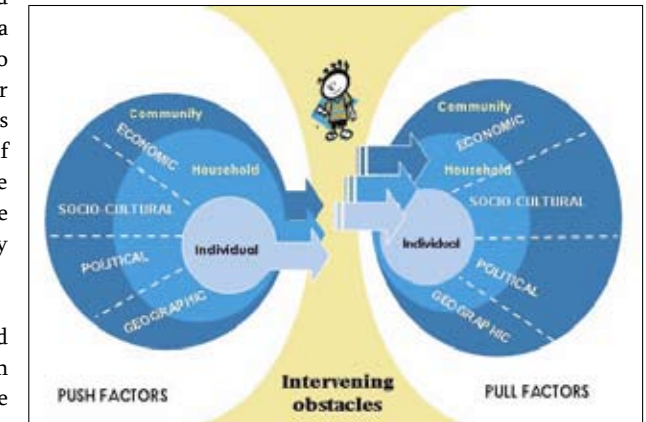


Figure 1-3 Push and Pull Theory: Illustrative Framework

Several literature use a push and pull framework, illustrated in Figure 1-3, to determine the underlying causes that trigger the trafficking of children. The framework takes into account movement—trafficking involves the transport of a child from a sending to a destination area. The child's desire to move will depend on the unfavourable conditions in his or her area of origin that push the child to leave, the attractiveness of the destination, and the capability of the child to overcome any intervening obstacles in between.

The user provides the demand side, triggering the whole process by placing a demand for the trafficking victim, presumably needing his or her presence for some purpose. The user and the contextual environment that he or she affords offer the attraction—the possibility of a better future for the potential trafficking victim and his or her family.

The trafficker, who may operate individually or represent an organization, provides the link between supply and demand. He/She recognizes the need of the child or the child's family and exploits it, while promising the possibility of a better future to them, and actually providing a steady supply of trafficked children for whatever purpose to the user. The trafficker works on the intervening obstacles and makes sure greater weight is afforded by the child or his/her family to the pull factors to favour a positive decision. It is the task of the trafficker to bridge the current contextual environment of the child with the attractive future, and to act on these obstacles in order to diminish the costs of movement.

The Push and Pull Theory of Migration, which shall be applied in this study, presents the circumstances at the place of origin, whereby individuals are repelled or pushed out towards other

¹⁰Asia's Children in Peril: A Regional Study on Child Trafficking (Country Profile: Philippines), Asia ACTS against Child Trafficking. Featured May 2003, <http://www.childprotection.org.ph>.

¹¹R.A. 7610, An Act Providing for Stronger Deterrence and Special Protection against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination, Providing Penalties for its Violation and Other Purposes, signed by both houses of Congress 7 February 1992 and approved by the President of the Philippines 17 June 1992.

places that exert a positive attraction or pull.¹² An interplay of internal (motivations and personal reasons) and external factors (community conditions) affect an individual’s decision to move from his/her place of origin to a chosen area of destination. As Everett Lee’s theory of voluntary migration states, “In every area there are countless factors acting to hold people in that area or attract people to it and there are others which tend to repel them.” Moreover, these factors could be classified as economic, socio-cultural or political in nature. In sum, the Theory takes into account the key elements that are present in the trafficking framework previously provided: the child, the household, the community, the trafficker, and the process.

Everett Lee further states that between the desire to move and the actual decision to do so, there are intervening obstacles, which are costs involved in moving from the origin to the destination, which may not only be economic in nature, but may also be psychological. More often than not, traffickers/recruiters shoulder the actual costs, like transportation and other expenses (i.e., food during transit, communications expenses), in order for the child to reach his/her employer. To reduce the psychological costs, recruiters allay the fears and anxiety of the children by recruiting the whole *barkada* or peer group, thus minimizing the child’s emotional loss. This form of “mass recruiting” is also more cost effective for recruiters and their employers, compared to small scale recruitment where children are recruited and transported individually or in smaller groups. In sum, the traffickers play an integral part in bridging the individual’s desire to migrate and the means to do so.

Push and pull factors are identified for each of the nine study areas.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review covers literature from 1995 to the present, and goes beyond the nine study areas. All relevant local and international materials that could be obtained within the project duration have been reviewed.

Most of the material has provided focus on the relationships between (a) migration and child trafficking and (b) child labour and its implications to sexual exploitation. Some of the referenced materials do not focus on children, but majority of the research participants and the case studies’ respondents were trafficked into prostitution when they were children/minors. These respondents were asked to recall their experiences of trafficking then and as it continued into their adult life.

2.1 THE GENERAL SITUATION OF CHILDREN IN THE PHILIPPINES

Filipinos generally believe that children are blessings and should therefore be treasured. Ironically, it is this same belief that allows parents to have more children than their individual and collective capacities can provide and care for financially, emotionally, and psychologically. On the average, Filipino families have six children. It is common to find families in the rural areas who have from four to 13 children.

2.1.1 Population

Around half of the entire population of Filipinos is young. Table 2-1 shows a projected population of 76,504,077 in 2000 (based on an actual 1995 census and a growth rate of 2.36 percent, one of Asia’s highest). According to these projections, 47.5 percent of the total population belongs to the 19 years old and below group, with an approximately equal distribution between males and females. Roughly, then, we presently have about 40 million children.

The children population of the country has significant

Table 2-1 Population by age group and by sex projected for Y2000¹

Age Group	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total	76,504,077	38,524,267	37,979,810
Under 1	1,917,431	986,506	930,925
1-4	7,752,071	3,965,426	3,786,645
5-9	9,694,781	4,962,013	4,732,768
10-14	8,949,614	4,541,197	4,408,417
15-19	8,017,298	4,017,830	3,999,468
20-24	7,069,403	3,522,518	3,546,885
25-29	6,071,089	3,053,616	3,017,473
30-34	5,546,294	2,804,522	2,741,772
35-39	4,901,023	2,496,821	2,404,202
40-44	4,163,494	2,120,314	2,043,180
45-49	3,330,054	1,696,712	1,633,342
50-54	2,622,316	1,318,632	1,303,684
55-59	1,903,649	943,133	960,516
60-64	1,633,150	786,137	847,013
65-69	1,138,843	533,469	605,374
70-74	797,970	361,614	436,356
75-79	505,356	218,622	286,734
80 and over	490,241	195,185	295,056

¹National Statistics Coordination Board website.

¹²Population Resource Bureau, 2004.

implications on our development programs. In a situation of continuing poverty and increasing lack of regular employment opportunities, child labour is a looming scenario.

Migration for work, both local and overseas, is also expected to rise. Given the trend of young people, including minors, going into employment to address the increasing household poverty level, it can be expected that trafficking of children will also increase.²

2.1.2 The Poverty Situation

Studies in child labour and child trafficking cite poverty as the major factor in the increasing number of children being trafficked. Table 2-2 shows the poverty incidence and ranks of the sixteen political regions (sometimes presented as 17 regions, with Region IV divided into A and B)³ of the country. The lowest ranking, or the richest, region is the National Capital Region (NCR), which is composed of several cities. The highest ranking, or the poorest, is ARMM, followed by Bicol.

The National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB) reported poverty incidence⁵ at an average of 28.1 percent in 1997 and 28.4 percent in 2000.⁶ Poverty estimates released by the NSCB also show that in 2000, 4.3 million families (26.5 million Filipinos), or more than one-third (34.0 percent) of the country's population, were living below the poverty line. These figures indicate an increase over the 1997 levels of 4.0 million families or 24.0 million Filipinos striving to make ends meet.⁷

Table 2-2 Poverty Incidence in the Philippines and regional ranking: 1997 and 2000.⁴

Region	1997 Poverty Incidence (%)	Rank 1997	2000 Poverty Incidence (%)	Rank 2000
National Capital Region (NCR)	4.8	16	5.7	16
Region I – Ilocos Region	31.4	10	29.6	12
Region II – Cagayan Valley	27.1	13	24.8	13
Region III – Central Luzon	13.9	15	17.0	15
Region IV – Southern Tagalog	22.8	14	20.8	14
Region V – Bicol Region	46.9	2	49.0	2
Region VI – Western Visayas	37.2	7	37.8	6.5
Region VII – Central Visayas	29.8	12	32.3	9
Region VIII – Eastern Visayas	29.9	5	37.8	6.5
Region IX – Western Mindanao	31.9	9	38.3	5
Region X – Northern Mindanao	37.8	6	32.9	8
Region XI – Southern Mindanao	31.1	11	31.5	10
Region XII – Central Mindanao	45.3	3	48.4	3
Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)	35.9	8	31.1	11
Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM)	50.0	1	57.0	1
Caraga	44.7	4	42.9	4

²De Vries, et. al., September 2001; Pacis, September 2001; Santos, 2002.
³Annex A shows a map of the Philippines with the provinces and major cities/municipalities indicated. A table also shows the provinces that are found in a given Region..
⁴"A Common View, A Common Journey", *A Common Country Assessment Report*. United Nations Country Team, 2004.
⁵Poverty incidence refers to the proportion of families with per capita income below the poverty threshold.
⁶Based on the new provincial poverty methodology recently approved by the NSCB Executive Board.
⁷<http://www.nscb.gov.ph>. NSCB, FS- 00310-SS1-01, posted 02 October 2003.

Based on the national per capita threshold of PhP 11,605 (US \$264), the poverty level in the Philippines remains much higher than any other nation in Southeast Asia. At 34 percent, it is even higher than during the 1997-1998 Asian financial crises.⁸ The most prosperous third of the population earns two-thirds of the national income, while the poorest third only 7.9 percent. Moreover, nearly two-thirds of the poor live in rural areas where more than seven in 10 farmers do not own the land they cultivate.

Figure 2-1 is a graphic presentation of the poverty incidence table. According to the NSCB poverty report, among the 79 provinces of the country and the four districts of Metro Manila, Sulu, which is found in the ARMM, consistently posted the highest poverty incidence in 1997 and 2000 with 67.1 and 63.2 percent, respectively.

On the other hand, the 2nd District (Mandaluyong, Marikina, Pasig, Quezon City and San Juan) and the 4th District (Las Piñas, Makati, Muntinlupa, Parañaque, Pasay City, Pateros, and Taguig) of NCR, posted the lowest poverty incidence with 4.1 and 4.9 percent, respectively. These are followed by Bulacan (1st District of NCR) and Batanes (Region II). NCR, with its cities and municipalities, is the richest region. The ten poorest provinces and their corresponding regions are: Ifugao (I), Masbate (IV), Camarines Norte (V), Romblon (IV), Sulu, Tawi-tawi, Maguindanao, Lanao del Sur (ARMM), Sultan Kudarat (XII), and Camiguin (X). Only four (Ifugao, Masbate, Romblon, and Camarines Norte), out of the ten provinces, are not found in Mindanao. Of the six found in Mindanao, four are actually ARMM provinces (Sulu, Tawi-tawi, Maguindanao, and Lanao del Sur). Camarines



Figure 2-1 Regions ranked according to poverty incidence, with 1 as poorest

⁸The United Nations Development Assistance Framework in the Philippines (2005-2009), 2004.

Norte, in the Bicol region, and one of the field areas in this study, stands as the 10th poorest province.

2.1.3 The Impact of Poverty on Children

Poverty greatly affects the capability of parents to provide for their children. Basic necessities are hardly met, if they are at all provided, especially in the extremely poor areas; children end up doing things which normally would not be expected of a child. Many children are forced or expected to work to help augment the household income. Under these conditions, the rights of both parents and children ought to be seen to by government, with interventions addressing economic as much as the social conditions of poor families. Clearly, even as this paper seeks to review the situation of children with respect to trafficking, the economic, cultural, and political conditions that children are subject to need to be considered as well.

2.1.3.1 Child Labor

The 2001 Survey on Children 5–17 years old⁹ shows that of the estimated 24.9 million children aged 5–17, about 4.0 million (16.2 percent) were engaged in some form of economic activity. This revealed an increase of 0.2 percent compared to the reported 3.6 million working children in 1995. The increase was more significant for the 5–9 and the 10–14 age brackets.

With a ratio of 173:100, male children were more likely to work compared with their female counterparts. The number of economically active male children exceeded the females for all age groups. Working children were revealed to also have a high propensity to drop out of school, with the children's loss of interest and insufficient household income to support their education cited as the two most common reasons.

Children are generally prodded by their families to engage in some form of economic activity. They, in return, succumb willingly or unwillingly to this prompting. It was shown that children's economic contribution to their households have largely augmented the household income and ensured not only their own but also their families' economic survival. The survey also shows that a considerable majority of the working children give their income partly or wholly to their families, revealing that poor households depended highly on the income generated by child labour.



Children scavenging for food and a living.

The increase in number of children engaging in work from 1995 to 2001 has been partly attributed to the effects of the 1997 Asian financial crisis and the heightened competition brought about by

the rapid pace of trade liberalization, which have adversely affected the employment situation and household income of every Filipino family.¹⁰

2.1.3.2 Education

Many studies point to education as an area where the impact of poverty is easily and concretely manifested.¹¹ Poor areas of the country are generally unable to provide or sustain basic education services at levels that can ensure that a child can break out of the cycle of poverty.

The National Statistics Office (NSO) admits that one out of every five Filipino children have no early education. Only 15 percent of children aged 3 to 5 years old are attending some early childhood program in pre-school, nursery, and daycare centres. More than half of the over 42,000 barangays in the country do not have provisions for a pre-school. Only 19 percent of children aged 4 to 6 years old are able to go to public and private pre-schools, and 61 towns in the country do not have a high school.¹²



A community day care center in Region III, where government facilities are at least five kilometers away

A great number of children of school age are engaged in both work and schooling. The 2001 Survey on Working Children shows that of the 2.6 million working children who attended school, 1.2 million or 44.8 percent admitted that they had difficulty working and studying at the same time. Only 590 thousand said that their work had negative effects on their schooling. The study indicates that the male working child is more likely to admit that they experience extreme difficulty in studying and working at the same time. This could be attributed to the kind of work that usually employs male children—specifically, work that requires hard physical labour.

Data on basic indicators in public elementary and secondary education¹³ show that the completion rate of elementary children dropped from 68.99 percent in School Year 1999-2000 to 66.85 percent in School Year 2002 – 2003. This means that out of every 100 enrollees in Grade 1, two less children completed Grade 6 in 2003 than in 2000. The cohort survival rates for elementary and secondary levels, respectively, for the same school year are 69.84 percent and 65.83 percent. The low cohort survival rates and completion rates, compared to relatively higher participation rates (which range from 95 to 100 percent) across the country, are seen to be a more realistic picture of access to and the sustainability of both provision and utilization of basic education services. Transition rates from elementary to high school are difficult, if not impossible to get, because of transfers and the much lesser number of high schools relative to elementary schools, especially in the rural areas. Because of distance, some children may not be able to proceed to high

⁹ National Survey on Working Children. National Statistics Office, 2001.

¹⁰ Op.cit.

¹¹ CLASP, 2001; "Filipino Children in the Face of Globalization," featured article for April 2002 in www.childprotection.org.ph; Flores-Oebanda, 2001; Racelis and Aguirre, 2000; Santos, 2002; de Vries et al., September 2001; De Vries, November 2002.

¹² Filipino Children in the Face of Globalization," ibid.

¹³ Basic Education Information System, Department of Education, 2004.

school at all, or they would have to go to another municipality or province. Clearly, even among those who complete Grade 6, not everyone is able to move on to the next higher level.

The average dropout rate is 7.34 percent for elementary and 13.10 percent for high school. More often than not, dropping out from school translates into a child working to help augment the family income.¹⁴ Where work is not available nearby, children, as a partly forced choice, go to other places to find it.

The vulnerability to trafficking therefore increases for out-of-school children, especially those who live away from home to work. The same children and their respective families are the first to express their desire for the child to finish school, knowing that a proper education will help improve their socio-economic conditions. However, too early in their life, work is often the only option for children.

2.1.3.3 Health and Nutrition

In a traditional culture where gender differentials are marked and age is a major consideration in terms of power and privilege, children and women have generally low status. Such practices as eating last and the least, especially in poorer households, is a situation that persists for women and children. Children therefore suffer most in terms of their nutritional requirements and their general health and well-being. A survey conducted by the Food and Nutrition Research Institute (FNRI)¹⁵ cites UNICEF as saying that the Philippines is among the top 10 countries with malnourished children aged below five years. Consistent with this observation, the Department of Health reveals that children aged five years and below account for about one-fifth of total recorded deaths every year.¹⁶



Children fetching water in less than healthy conditions.

Poverty breeds ill health and destroys a child's well-being.¹⁷ Possibly because of poverty and the lack of proper education of parents, eight out of every 10 Filipino children are underweight. There are also 10 in every 100 children aged six months to six years who are deficient in Vitamin A, a necessary input to prevent night-blindness and corneal defects. FNRI stresses that 10 million children are in danger of dying of preventable diseases like pneumonia, diarrhea, measles, meningitis, influenza, dengue fever, chicken pox, mumps, tuberculosis, and bronchitis.

Children in the labour force and in other abusive situations suffer many health problems, which include physical and mental illnesses. Employment in hazardous jobs include the burden of

¹⁴Santos, 2002; "Filipino Children in the Face of Globalization"; CLASP, 2001; Flores-Oebanda, 2001; Racelis and Aguirre, 2000; De Vries et al., September 2001; de Vries, n.d.).

¹⁵Nationwide Survey, Food and Nutrition Research Institute, 1998.

¹⁶Filipino Children in the Face of Globalization," ibid.

¹⁷National Survey on Working Children, <http://ipechil.tripod.com/papers/titles.htm>, n.d.

carrying loads beyond their capacity, deprivations such as lack of sleep and of recreational activities, exposure to criminality, and physical, psychological and sexual violence. Children who leave home to work sometimes become beggars or resort to stealing so they can feed themselves.

2.1.3.4 Child Abuse

Most of the studies that relate violence against children and/or child abuse and trafficking are in the form of case studies and surveys.¹⁸ The following statistics have been cited: of the 31 million children in the country,¹⁹ 17,929 are reported to be abused,²⁰ 60,000 are reported to be sexually exploited,²¹ and 4.2 million children are reported to be working.²² These figures are conservative estimates since many children who are abused or sexually exploited are not reported.

The Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) reported that in the period 1997-1999, some 26,446 children were abused. This figure includes abandoned children, child labourers, victims of child trafficking, and victims of armed conflict. Sexually abused children were estimated at 11,262 (victims of pedophilia, pornography, and prostitution). Neglected children totaled 5,331 for the same period.^{23,24}

Research studies conducted in schools show that for every three Filipino children, one child experiences abuse. During the first semester of 1999 alone, there were 2,393 children who were victims of rape, attempted rape, incest, acts of lasciviousness, and prostitution. The Philippine National Police (PNP), on the other hand, reports that from 1998-1999, some 7,149 children were sexually abused, and these figures included victims of rape and acts of lasciviousness. The rise in the incidence of sexual abuse among children may be a function of greater awareness of the problem resulting in a higher number of reports, or may be due to an actual rise in the incidence itself, or both. Studies that deal on the incidence of child sexual abuse have yet to be done. Most research uses the case study methodology in examining child sexual abuse, or deals with conceptual frameworks.²⁵ The NCSB website shows a rise of 17.2 percent in child labour cases between 2001 and 2002, though declines in other forms of child abuse are also reported.

Figure 2-2 shows a regional ranking of the total number of child abuse cases served by the DSWD based on more recent data.²⁶ In 2002, the Department served a total of 10,045 cases of child abuse. Among the 16 regions, NCR ranked first, with a total of 1,418 cases served, and CARAGA 15th, with 172 cases. The ranking is based on cases reported to and served by DSWD and therefore may not reflect the actual number of child abuse cases in each area. There was no data reported for ARMM, possibly because of the unique autonomous nature of governance in the region.

¹⁸Santos, 2002; Bautista, et al., 2001; Caagusan, 2000; Notre Dame University and DOLE Region XIII, 1998.

¹⁹UNICEF, "State of the World's Children 2001", <http://www.unicef.org/sowc01/tables>, 1 February 2001.

²⁰DSWD and PNP Statistics, 1999.

²¹ECPAT, 1996.

²²NSO Survey on Children, 2001.

²³DSWD, 1998.

²⁴DSWD and PNP Statistics, ibid.

²⁵Bautista, Roldan and Garces-Bacsal, 2001.

²⁶Compendium of DSWD and Selected SWD Statistics, CY 2003.



Figure 2-2 Regions ranked by total number of child abuse cases served by DSWD in 2002, with rank 1 being highest served

due to population density, more efficient reporting mechanisms, as well as the presence of a greater number of facilities that can serve child abuse victims.

A comparison between the regional ranking here and the regional poverty ranking shown in Figure 2-1 is attempted, with results that actually encourage more extensive research and analysis. It is interesting to note that the three richest regions—NCR, Region III and Region IV (ranking 16th, 15th, and 14th respectively)—are among the top four in the list of child abuse cases served. This may be due to the presence of social services which are efficient at reporting and documenting these cases. It also alludes to the possibility that, with economic conditions being much better in these regions, their more progressive areas provide situations that lend to the physical, emotional, and psychological abuse or exploitation of children, or they may be actual destinations of children trafficked from other areas of the country. Another insight is the possibility that it may not just be poverty that pushes children and their families to situations of child abuse and/or trafficking. The question of how individual and family values influence a

It should be noted that the provision of social welfare services is a devolved function. Variation among regions, as well as the deviation of served cases from actual for each region may be due to non-reporting. It may also be due to attribution of service provision separately to the department (field office) and the local government unit and the availability of the needed resources (personnel, technologies and facilities) to provide services to victims. Population and population density may also be a factor to the numbers obtained. The relatively high number of cases served by NCR, with the many cities and municipalities composing it, may be

child’s vulnerability to trafficking and other forms of abuse may have to be raised at this point.

It is worth noting, too, that Region IX, considered the fifth poorest region in the country, comes second to NCR in the number of child abuse cases (1,231) served by DSWD for the same year. Zamboanga City, found in Region IX, has been reported to have well-structured syndicates that recruit women and children for sexual exploitation and labour in Malaysia, as well as other parts of the Philippines.²⁷

Table 2-3 provides the details that are reflected as ranks in Figure 2-2. It typically illustrates how child victims of abuse were reported and classified by DSWD in 2002. The table shows male children being outnumbered by females as victims of all types of abuse—a manifestation of the greater vulnerability of females than males. The definition of child trafficking as given in R.A. 9208 is not applied in the table, which has two separate columns for victims of child trafficking

Table 2-3 Total Number of Abused Children Served by DSWD CY 2002, Community and Center-Based²⁸

REGION ²⁹	TYPE OF ABUSE																				
	TOTAL			Abandoned		Neglected		Sexually-Abused		Sexually-Exploited		Physically Abused/ Maltreated/ Battered		Children in Situations of Armed Conflict		Victims of Child Labour		Victims of Child Trafficking		Victims of Illegal Recruitment	
	Both Sexes	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Total Served	10045	2770	7275	519	560	1242	1307	64	4065	29	255	656	784	64	26	151	207	37	58	8	13
NCR	1418	311	1107	33	18	97	94	18	616	1	113	119	152	2	0	33	106	0	1	8	7
CAR	330	82	248	17	15	41	39	4	157	0	1	18	31	0	0	0	3	2	1	0	1
Region I	375	85	290	18	33	25	33	1	182	0	6	41	33	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Region II	687	251	436	13	24	168	155	3	182	0	7	26	37	7	0	25	21	9	10	0	0
Region III	1199	323	876	69	54	166	133	2	560	0	34	77	83	0	0	5	7	4	5	0	0
Region IV	776	128	648	34	45	55	63	1	480	0	24	25	32	0	0	13	3	0	0	0	1
Region V	344	106	238	13	10	69	53	1	151	0	1	19	21	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	0
Region VI	584	100	484	13	73	43	90	0	273	20	18	17	24	0	0	7	6	0	0	0	0
Region VII	701	189	512	21	29	78	106	2	288	0	9	84	68	0	0	4	12	0	0	0	0
Region VIII	542	141	401	26	30	65	71	22	243	0	26	26	22	0	1	1	5	1	3	0	0
Region IX	1231	490	741	131	110	200	192	7	295	4	5	81	91	15	4	33	18	19	26	0	0
Region X	619	216	403	33	34	94	81	0	218	4	3	48	46	27	18	9	0	1	3	0	0
Region XI	690	202	488	77	70	93	155	3	178	0	7	13	55	11	3	4	12	1	8	0	0
Region XII	377	128	249	15	6	45	37	0	127	0	0	55	74	0	0	13	5	0	0	0	0
CARAGA	172	18	154	6	9	3	5	0	115	0	1	7	15	2	0	0	4	0	1	0	4

²⁷Endangered Generation: Child Trafficking in the Philippines for Sexual Purposes, ECPAT Philippines and Terre des Hommes-Netherlands. March 2005. ecpatphi@i-manila.com.ph, tdhkt@indo.net.id.
²⁸Compendium of DSWD and Selected SWD Statistics, CY 2003.
²⁹The unique nature of local governance in the ARMM (autonomy from the national government) and the devolved nature of social welfare services may have affected data collection from the region and the absence of an estimate from ARMM in the table cited.

and illegal recruitment. As vague as the definition of trafficking may have been before R.A. 9208, it seems to have been considered distinct from illegal recruitment. The possibility that the victims of child labour, sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, etc. are also victims of trafficking cannot be discounted. It is also possible that one victim may have suffered more than one type of abuse. The most appropriate type of abuse under which to classify a victim would then be a major concern, and double counting of victims may be an issue.

One other area of concern is the capacity of mainstream health workers and professionals attending to children victims of sexual abuse to set up protocols of assistance beyond the biomedical aspects. Most medical curricula often capacitate medical professionals to diagnose the biomedical aspects of illness but lack child- and gender-friendly protocols. There are initial attempts to implement more responsive approaches in relation to the problem of violence against women and children in medical curricula, such as in the Vicente Sotto Memorial Hospital in Cebu City. This was part of a program launched by the Task Force Social Science and Reproductive Health (TFSSRH) in the late 1990s. The TFSSRH Secretariat was based in De La Salle University with regional partners all over the country. The adoption of similar programs in other areas of the country, especially where the incidence of child trafficking is high, remains a challenge.

2.2 CHILD TRAFFICKING AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL

Every year around the world over a million children are trafficked across and within country borders, as part of an annual trade in humans worth up to US \$7 billion.³⁰ The International Labour Organization (ILO) has estimated that in 2002 alone, some 1.2 million children worldwide were trafficked for child labour mostly but not exclusively in developing countries.³¹

About 200,000 to 250,000 women and children are trafficked for all purposes in and through the Southeast Asian region annually, though the countries of the region have difficulty securing accurate data and statistics on trafficking and its mechanisms. The problem is undoubtedly difficult to address, particularly because the organization of trafficking and traffickers is so complex that trafficking networks are able to adapt quickly when confronted with new obstacles and circumstances. Distinguishing between child and adult victims remains difficult, since false documents are often used. Victims are commonly provided with false documents and many are trafficked from countries with flawed birth registration systems or where they are denied citizenship. A great number are trafficked to countries with no visa or documentation requirements; others are trafficked internally.³² Aggravating the situation is the lack of coordinated and appropriate responses of many major players, such as political leaders who either deny responsibility for taking action or are, themselves, in cahoots with traffickers and recruiters. The issue of transitivity also arises when a child has been trafficked more than once, and from one place to another, so that his/her real point of origin is either unclear or can no longer be traced.

³⁰Kayte Fairfax, "Modern Day Slavery," *Action News*, World Vision, Autumn 2004.

³¹ILO-IPEC Annual Report, International Labour Organization: Geneva, 2002a.

³²Finelli, in ECPAT 2004

The Terre des Hommes Factsheet³³ describes the Southeast Asian Region thus:

- a. All the countries in the Mekong region are countries of origin as well as destinations of international trafficking in children and young persons, and many of them are also countries of transit.
- b. The economic conditions in the neighbouring countries differ. Thailand has the strongest economy in the region. Vietnam and Yunnan have a very diversified economic structure with international and regional trade relations. Cambodia, Myanmar, and Laos are poor, under-developed countries.
- c. Increased trafficking in children and youngsters accompanies the economic development of the region.
- d. Organized trafficking in children and young persons continues to profit from the illegal trade routes and structures that were set up during the Indo-China war and are still being used today.
- e. Regional migratory movements also encourage trafficking in children and young persons.
- f. There is a high social acceptance of child labour and child trafficking since the children have to and are also expected to contribute to the family income (a necessity for survival).
- g. The societies of Southeast Asia are primarily male-dominated. This results in the difference in expectations from both genders. Men visiting brothels is generally accepted, for example, whereas sexual norms that are significantly more restrictive apply to women.
- h. Thailand is one of the centres of the international sex industry. At the same time it is also one of the destinations of organized trafficking in children and young persons from the entire region.
- i. Difficulties encountered in the fight against child trafficking are also the result of (inadequacies in) national legislation and the absence of a uniform definition of child trafficking.

2.2.1 Policy against Child Trafficking

While there is a growing number of research and investigation on the topic, the continuing evolution of trafficking has hampered policy makers and governments from accurately assessing its processes and outcomes. Sociological categorizations and statistical reporting tools "tend to be inflexible and not easily adapted to particular situations as they arise or as awareness grows."³⁴

A study covering the Philippines, Indonesia and the Mekong Region (China–Yunnan province, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, and Vietnam) provides interesting results.³⁵ The countries in the Mekong region signified participation in the fight against trafficking in persons and the promotion of the rights of women and children in general. In 1979 all six of them signed and subsequently ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and in 1989 they signed and ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). These countries obtained individual membership or observer status in the 1992

³³Matilac and Florendo, op.cit.

³⁴Finelli, in ECPAT, 2004

³⁵Rosalie Matilac and Regina Florendo, "Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia," *FactSheet*, Terre des Hommes. February 2002.

Program of Action for the Prevention of Trafficking in Persons and the Exploitation and Prostitution of Others. In 1995 they joined the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women, and in 1996, the Stockholm Declaration and Agenda for Action against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children.

Until October 2001, though, none of the Mekong countries had signed the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Trans-National Organized Crime (the Trafficking Protocol). The national legislations on child trafficking in each of these countries also differ widely. In Laos for example, child trafficking is not an offense, but in Vietnam, trafficking and trade in children and women is punishable by law.³⁶

As of September 2003, 38 countries, including the Philippines, ratified a United Nations protocol to prevent, suppress, and punish abusers of women and children. In Asia, only the Philippines, India, Thailand, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Cambodia have a law on trafficking, and the Philippines is the only Asian country that ratified the UN Protocol in May 2002.³⁷ The Philippines has progressed more recently by implementing its international commitments with respect to child trafficking through R.A. 9208.

Child trafficking is seen by many as a labour phenomenon, and legislation that is expected to combat it should be able to address this. The vulnerability of children to trafficking is clearly linked to the poverty of parents, over which the laws have no control. The formulation of laws that ban trafficking may lead to its increase if these laws are imperfectly implemented—the occurrence of trafficking may become even more covert. It is proposed that the fight against child trafficking can only be won effectively by combining legislation with other policy measures that aim at reducing poverty, or increasing the opportunity cost of child labour, such as improving the quality of education, redistribution, and appropriately targeted poverty alleviation programs.³⁸

2.2.2 Dominant Forms of Exploitation of Trafficked Children

The same pictures of exploitation of trafficked children are shared by the countries of the Southeast Asian Region, with children filling the demand for cheap and malleable labour. The following list may be used to summarize these forms:

- a. **Commercial sexual exploitation and prostitution.** This is the most predominant form of exploitation in the Southeast Asian region (Philippines, Indonesia, Myanmar, Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, and Vietnam).³⁹ Even if the child is trafficked for a purpose other than sexual exploitation, the child is very vulnerable to sexual abuse and exploitation within the trafficking environment and then within the environment in which they are ordered to work.

³⁶Ibid.

³⁷<http://www.news.ops.gov.ph/archives2003/dec27.html>

³⁸Sylvain E. Dessy and Stéphane Pallage, "The Economics of Child Trafficking," CIRPEE et Département d'Économie, Université Laval & Département des sciences économiques, Université du Québec à Montréal, August 2003.

³⁹Matilac and Florendo, op.cit.

- b. **Participation in illicit activities** that include begging and street trading, stealing, drug trafficking, drug smuggling, and other criminal acts. This is common in the Philippines, Indonesia, Cambodia, Thailand.
- c. **Forced recruitment into armed groups and organizations.** The nature of child participation in wars ranges from active combat to support roles such as spying, mine clearance, and manning checkpoints. Young girls are made to provide sexual services for adult combatants. Since armed conflict does not discriminate in terms of gender or age, child soldiers often suffer greatly from the physical and psychological effects of violent conflict. They are exposed to atrocities such as mass murder, torture, and sexual abuse. Under the influence of drugs and alcohol, often they become the perpetrators of such brutality, sometimes against their own family members.⁴⁰
- d. **Forced child labor,** which may include employment in handicrafts and industry, fishery, agriculture, cattle breeding, building and construction trade, textile processing. Myanmar and Thailand employ children in forced labor conditions in the jewelry industry, in fishery, and construction work.⁴¹
- e. **Domestic labor,** where the child is employed in a home, and, though sometimes considered and treated as part of the family, may be required to perform heavy manual household chores.
- f. **Adoption.** This is common among children trafficked from Vietnam,
- g. **Forced marriage.**
- h. **Organ trading.** There are talks of children being trafficked so that one of their organs, such as a kidney, can be sold and used as a transplant for the child of a richer family. This is widely considered as an urban myth, and is the principal form of exploitation that poor families in many developing cities have heard of and fear, even in the absence of evidence. The available information suggests that, while actual cases exist, it is not as common as people think. In 1997 a working group set up by Colombia University in New York (US) reviewed the evidence of the trafficking of children for organ transplants and concluded, "The Task Force finds no reliable evidence to substantiate these contentions. Not one documented case exists of murder or kidnap or sale of children for their organs." While this statement asserts that child trafficking for this purpose does not exist, there does seem to be some evidence of cases that have occurred, but relatively few—far fewer than the urban myth implies.⁴²

The phenomenon of *enjo kosai*, which emerged in Japan some ten years ago, brought another element to child sexual exploitation. *Enjo kosai* is "compensated dating," where "dates" often involving sex with adults are usually done via an organized medium such as telephone registries and the Internet.⁴³ This is no longer just a Japanese phenomenon. This is already observed in the Philippines, with dates mostly contracted via mobile phones and Internet sites and shopping malls a favourite point of contact. Among young people, the term "eyeball" has been developed to refer to the one-on-one "date" after initial communication via mobile phone or Internet sites. This is not

⁴⁰Debbie Ariyo, op.cit.

⁴¹Matilac and Florendo, ibid.

⁴²Mike Dottridge, "Kids as Commodities? Child Trafficking and What to Do about It," Terre des Hommes Foundation, Switzerland and Germany, May 2004.

⁴³McCoy, in ECPAT, 2004

only happening in Metro Manila, but in other urban centres of the country. Whether the children/minors who are engaged in the “eyeball” phenomenon are trafficked or not is a subject for future inquiry.

Child trafficking goes on through a continuum. The tendency to view trafficking of children for certain categories, i.e., labour and sexual exploitation, hides the fact that there are children who are initially trafficked for labour in factories and other occupations but end up being sexually exploited.

2.2.3 Factors that Contribute to Trafficking

The majority of trafficked children are from China’s provinces of Myanmar and Yunnan, Laos and Thailand. In Thailand, official estimates say that some 80,000 women and children have been trafficked into the sex trade since 1990. In 1996, Thailand was thought to have almost 200,000 foreign child labourers, mostly from Myanmar, Laos, and Cambodia. It has been reported that Thailand also acts as a regional hub through which children are diverted to Malaysia, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Japan.

Though poverty is the immediate reply to a question of why parents allow their child to be trafficked, it should be noted that there are other familial, community and traditional (cultural) conditions that serve as push factors to trafficking; all the situations in which a child is found—social, economic, political, cultural, and geographical contexts—should be considered.

It is attempted in this section to cluster the more significant factors that lead to the trafficking of children. Where specific areas are concerned, the basis for clustering shall be the perceived dominant factor or condition of the area. The factors that are mentioned can be classified with respect to the trafficked individual as push and pull factors. The internal motivations as well as the immediate external situation of the child provide the push influences, while the view of a different and presumably better condition in the destination area provides the pull. The latter is essentially the demand side of a supply and demand equation for children.

2.2.3.1 Economic Considerations

Economic and development disparities in various regions have undoubtedly fueled the practice of child labour and the trafficking of children. The poverty arising from the economic underdevelopment of some regions of has proven to be an intrinsic and major determinant of this phenomenon. Generally, it could be observed that there is a higher incidence of child labour and cases of migration among communities of extreme poverty and inequity. It is this poverty that compels a large proportion of households to drive or allow their younger members to enter the world of work both within and outside their homes. The decision is made primarily on the perception that additional earnings from their children’s work are valuable and essential to augment their needs for economic survival.⁴⁴

⁴⁴Del Rosario, et. al., UP-IIR. 1986.

Globalization has added an international dimension to free market economy by interconnecting all or most markets. But given the disparity among nations, globalization has only succeeded in widening the gap between rich and poor countries, and in concentrating more power in the hands of a few. Information technology enabled global financial markets to unleash control over local economies. With one push of a button, multinational investment houses are able to move funds from one country to another, just like what happened during the Asian economic crisis of 1997. Such global mechanisms have been destabilizing communities and increasing socio-economic crises down to the village level.⁴⁵

Finelli posited that “... [a]nother important factor in assessing trafficking’s complexity is economic impoverishment and inequality.” In Asia, for example, the benefits of economic growth are not evenly distributed; Singapore, Taiwan, South Korea and Hong Kong, along with the more prosperous provinces of China and Thailand, have seen a rapid rise in wealth while neighbours such as Myanmar, Laos, Vietnam and Cambodia remain economically depressed. The widening gap between rich and poor not only contributes to the status of Southeast Asia and Eastern Europe as major trafficking zones, but it intensifies other push factors that complicate the understanding and analysis of trafficking. In this sense, the spread of economic disparity is important in analyzing how trafficking operates within a region and globally, and whether a region may be regarded as a place of origin, transit, or destination for victims of trafficking.

This issue is well-illustrated by the case of Cambodia, where, as a result of years of war, a wealthy, powerful and corrupt elite exists alongside a population that is very poor. Firstly, in the context of war, dictatorship, and the transition to peace, many Cambodians, including a large number of children, are trafficked and smuggled to wealthier parts of Southeast Asia. Secondly, years of disorder have facilitated an environment that is conducive to the trafficking of people through the country. Thirdly, postwar Cambodia has seen a growing divide between rich and poor. Aside from the presence of a minority of wealthy Cambodians, there has been an influx of aid accompanied by a highly paid business, development, tourism, and peacekeeping community. The presence of many people with money has seen a rise in demand for others who can be exploited for labour and sexual purposes, and children are commonly trafficked in for this reason. Cambodia is not only an origin country for trafficking victims who are sent to Thailand and further afield, but it is also a place through which victims pass, from Vietnam or China to Thailand, as well as a destination for people trafficked from Vietnam.⁴⁶

Traffickers have exploited economic disparity among countries. Global tourism operates on its seasonality, and thus there are seasonal destinations for trafficking, especially trafficking for sexual purposes. The concept of transit becomes blurred in the process, since victims are forced to stop at a tourist location, where they are sexually exploited, and then moved to the next destination or returned home.⁴⁷

⁴⁵“Causes of Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia.” www.stopchildtrafficking.info. 3 September 2003.

⁴⁶ Finelli, in ECPAT 2004

⁴⁷ Finelli, in ECPAT 2004; Caagusan, 2000

Trafficking in children is an extension of the free market, the laws of supply and demand and the movement of labour. Families desiring to experience the amenities of modern living become open to working abroad. But lack of education and training make rural people vulnerable to trafficking syndicates, exploitative agents, and employment rackets. Parents are tricked into virtually selling their children to employment brokers and agents who promise to take care of them. Poor people who are either despondent or desperate for a better life fall prey to the promises of a trafficker.

In addition to the general perspective of poverty and economic development disparities, the discussion involving the economics of child trafficking includes the following:

- a. Globalization, which has promoted consumerism and materialism, encouraging the material desires of individuals and their families. Import restrictions and the influx of cheap goods contribute to people abandoning a self-sustaining lifestyle and a rural environment for easy money and a seemingly convenient urban life.
- b. Material incentives and the model qualities of urban living attract children and their families.
- c. There is a preponderance of informal economy, which promotes consumerism.
- d. Traditional migration of adults within the framework of economic activities increases the risk of trafficking.
- e. Children have an increased desire to migrate in search of economic and social well-being.
- f. There is a growing demand for a cheap and docile labour force to serve the growing businesses.
- g. Sex tourism accompanies the growth of urbanized areas. Because of economic activities, mobile populations create the demand for prostitution. There are many myths that people use to justify child sex tourism. Some people believe that by paying a child for sex they are helping them because the money will help their family. The fact is most children NEVER see the money because it goes to pimps and brothel owners,⁴⁸ a situation that aggravates the exploitative nature of prostitution.
- h. Trafficking is a profitable, low-risk business (especially where legislation is weak or non-existent).
- i. The development of more new regions or places into centres of international tourism or business actually have accompanying negative effects (commercial sexual exploitation, begging).

2.2.3.2 Social and Cultural Factors

As has been shown in previous discussions, in most Southeast Asian countries, modern child trafficking can partly be traced to centuries-old traditions, behaviors, or forces, among which are the following:

- a. The expectation that children must contribute to the family income;

⁴⁸ "Tourism: Sun, Sand and Sexual Exploitation," *Child Sex Tourism*, ECPAT-USA, website, c2003.

- b. Economic obligations that force children to leave their parental home at a very early age and begin work;
- c. Generally low levels of education;
- d. Cultural traditions, like those which consider girls as chattel to be used in exchange for family benefits and survival;
- e. Gender discrimination, which provides for boys having better education and opportunities than girls;
- f. Socially accepted prostitution of girls and young women;
- g. Family or community dislocation and migration due to cultural practices, natural calamities or war, or the desire for economic betterment;
- h. A patriarchal social structure;
- i. Domestic violence;
- j. The breakdown of family and social structures;
- k. Little or no information on child trafficking; and
- l. Unawareness of the risks involved.

The caste system in India is one cultural tradition that is said to be responsible for the increase of child labour cases. According to the 1997 UNICEF's "The State of the World's Children" report, the rigidity of the caste system has, among other things, contributed to the mushrooming of child labour in the country. The report says that the dominant cultural group in India might not wish its own children to do hazardous labour but it would not be so concerned if young people from racial, ethnic or economic minorities did it.⁴⁹ The Dalit children, who are subjected to child labour, are victims of social exclusion, untouchability, discrimination, and exploitation. It was recognized that the country lacked the proper legislation to protect this group. Of note is the lack of recommendations addressed to policy makers and academicians towards the improvement of their access to education.

2.2.3.3 Political and Geo-political factors

Geo-political factors can be mutually reinforcing: porous or non-existent borders, geographic location, wars and post-conflict situations, organized crime, and the presence of international troops and expatriate communities of officers in non-family posts. A large part of child trafficking happens within the boundaries of the country itself. Virtually all countries are affected by cross-border trafficking as sending country (e.g., Indonesia), as receiving country (e.g., Japan) or as transit or passage before final destination (e.g., Thailand).⁵⁰ Complicating the issue of widely disparate legislation against child trafficking among countries are the following: easy-to-obtain visas, poor law enforcement, inadequate border control, existing ties, even among politicians, with smuggling and trafficking, protection of traffickers by the state, and other forms of corruption.

⁴⁹ George Kayange, op.cit.

⁵⁰ "How grave is the problem?" www.stopchildtrafficking.info, 27 August 2003.

2.2.4 Trafficking Routes

As a labour market phenomenon, trafficking is seen to operate on the principles of supply and demand. Countries are seen as sending, transit or destination areas. Children are trafficked within their own countries and from their home countries to places that offer better economic opportunities.

Child trafficking in Southeast Asia exists in the form of domestic trade within the borders of a country as well as cross-border trade between the countries. All the countries are affected by this cross-border trade, either as the country of origin, the destination, or as the country of transit. Here is a summary of these routes:⁵¹

- a. Country of Origin: Burma
Destinations: Thailand, China, Pakistan, Bangladesh
- b. Country of Origin: Indonesia
Destinations: Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei, Australia, Taiwan, Korea, Japan, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates (Qatar, Bahrain, Oman), Kuwait, Germany, Netherlands, Austria
- c. Country of Origin: Cambodia
Destinations: Thailand, Malaysia, Taiwan, Europe, Singapore, Hong Kong, Japan, Vietnam, South Africa
- d. Country of Origin: Laos
Destinations: Malaysia, Thailand, China
- e. Country of Origin: Philippines
Destinations: Japan, Costa Rica, USA, Malaysia, Australia, New Zealand, Taiwan, Europe, the Middle East, Northern Mariana Islands
- f. Country of Origin: Thailand
Destinations: Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, Japan, Germany, Netherlands, Switzerland, Australia, USA, South Africa, New Zealand
- g. Country of Origin: Vietnam
Destinations: China, Taiwan, Cambodia, Thailand, Europe, Hong Kong



Figure 2-3 The Southeast Asian Region

2.2.5 Key Players in the Child Trafficking Scenario

Child trafficking may occur with or without the knowledge or consent of the child or the child's family. Many times, because of the criminal nature of trafficking, it is conducted with deceit or under untruthful circumstances. Where knowledge of the transport of a child is present, it is possible that, because of the lack of understanding of trafficking and its consequences, a parent or responsible adult is, wittingly or unwittingly, involved. The range of actors involved therefore varies, and may include the following:⁵²

- a. Parents, family members and friends;
- b. Professional middlemen and traffickers in human beings;
- c. International, regional or local organized criminal groups;
- d. White slave owners;
- e. Employment agents;
- f. Government authorities or employees;
- g. Employees of the judiciary, the border authorities or the police;
- h. Brothel owners, pimps and prostitutes;
- i. Owners of handicraft workshops and industry ('employers');
- j. Drivers, accompanying persons and guides;
- k. Village heads;
- l. Teachers, doctors or bank employees;
- m. Employees of orphanages or public health services;
- n. Professional adoption agents; and
- o. Temple monks.

2.2.6 Consequences of Trafficking

Being vulnerable, children suffer immediate and long-term damage from trafficking and the exploitative conditions that result from it. Some of them are able to overcome these effects, but many bring into adulthood the physical, emotional, and psychological scars which affect both the way they live their lives and their outlooks. The discussion that follows also looks at the effects of trafficking on the places of origin of these children. Somehow, positively or negatively, changes happen in the socio-cultural milieu that trafficked children go home to. Where children are able to go back to their homes, their families are afraid to take them back for fear of prosecution. Children who stay away too long may no longer remember their families nor their places of origin.

2.2.6.1 On the Children

Trafficked children face extreme exploitation in unsafe conditions with no or low pay, beatings, rape, psychological damage, physical health problems including HIV/AIDS, and, in the worst

⁵¹Matilac and Florendo, op.cit.

⁵²Matilac and Florendo, op.cit.

cases, even death.^{53,54} In transit, children may be drugged and suffer injury and trauma from confined travel over rough and long routes. Most do not know their rights, and even if they did, could not enforce them. Cross-boundary travel exposes the children to places where they may not speak nor understand the local language. In transit or in their destinations, these children are often isolated from friends, family, or other people, sometimes in captivity or enslavement. Upon arrival at their destination, many of them are kept in debt bondage and forced to pay off inflated debts so they will not run away. Even if they have already paid off these debts, they may be resold. Because of their illegal status, and in the absence of documentation to attest to their identity, these children also are not able to have access to public social services like health and education.

The consequences of this kind of life are long-term and devastating. Children miss out on a healthy childhood; they do not get proper education nor are the conditions such that healthy mental development occurs.⁵⁵ They may face lifelong health problems and psychological trauma especially after physical or sexual assault. Many contract HIV/AIDS, for which no medical help is available. Many people also believe that children are less likely to be HIV positive, making them think it is safer to have sex with them. The truth is children are more susceptible to HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases, especially if they are involved in the prostitution business. The HIV risk among prostitutes in Cambodia is the highest in Asia, with 40 percent of its 50,000 commercial sex workers being HIV positive. Children have immature tissue in their bodies that tears much more easily than that of adults. Children who are sexually exploited rarely go on to a normal life. They suffer long-term emotional, physical and social problems. Girls may have reproductive problems due to the immaturity of their bodies when they become sexually active, resulting in greater reproductive health morbidity.

The children are forcibly integrated into the culture of a foreign land. They try to adopt its identity, even as they feel alienated, not knowing for sure whether or not they belong. Some children develop fear of men, of strangers, or of crowded places, after having become victims of sexual exploitation.

Reintegration into the community, if they are able to go back, is also a major concern. Many are not able to reintegrate, since they may carry with them the stigma of prostitution or slave labour. They are feared, with the community and, possibly, their family thinking that they may infect them with HIV/AIDS or STD. If they come home without their virginity or pregnant, they risk being rejected. The chances of finding good-paying employment are minimal, so the child tends to go back to a situation of continued trafficking and exploitation.

Since the child has been deprived of the benefits of a proper education, child trafficking and its consequent exploitative life would have condemned the child to a lifetime of abject poverty. Education would have allowed the child to make something positive out of his/her life. An uneducated child might be unable to function as a responsible adult and capable citizen.⁵⁶ An

⁵³Kayte Fairfax, op.cit.

⁵⁴Debbie Ariyo, op.cit.

⁵⁵"Impact of Child Trafficking on the Children and their Communities," SEAMEO website, library@seameo.org, 7 June 2000

⁵⁶Debbie Ariyo, op.cit.

example that has been cited is the decommissioning of child soldiers in Sierra Leone and Congo DR. Unless rehabilitation and reintegration processes are well thought out and successful, the consequences may be dire to both child and community.

2.2.6.2 On their Families and Communities of Origin

Families, communities, and countries are also affected by trafficking. All suffer heavily from the loss of young people, their earnings and potential. The country's development is impeded by the erosion of a young, healthy and productive workforce. This is further compounded by the need to cope with the effects of diseases like HIV/AIDS and the cost of rehabilitating trafficking victims. Having very little knowledge about the disease, communities offer little support to sick victims of trafficking. More often than not, countries with a high incidence of child trafficking do very little rehabilitation on its victims because of the costs it entails. Non-government organizations perform this function more than the government in many Southeast Asian countries.

The change in the values and beliefs of communities of origin is a very significant observation. Trafficked children become "models" upon their return. This influences the young, encouraging them to follow the paths of trafficked children, especially if they are perceived to be economically successful. In Vietnam, Yunnan, and the Philippines, returnees are able to show improved economic standing in the community, and therefore change the perspective of these communities towards them. They are perceived as travelers with gainful jobs abroad, hiding the real picture of sexual exploitation. In Keng Tung of Myanmar, the more enterprising members of the community opened brothels which catered to tourists as well as local residents who had come from Thailand and brought back with them the Thai male sexual culture.

For some parents, their efforts at searching for their missing children cause them to lose their property, as they exchange these for funds that may help them in their search.

Many times returnees who find their home communities too slow and less urbanized than the places they were trafficked to, regain the desire to go back. They sometimes leave behind their children under the care of family or friends—and so the cycle continues.

2.2.7 Regional Efforts to Combat Trafficking

The complex nature of child trafficking, in all its elements, requires the appropriate responses. In many societies, trafficked children are seen more as criminals rather than victims, with law enforcers focusing on their involvement with prostitution or immigration violations, not recognizing the elements of coercion, deception and power that contributed to the children's being there in the first place.

With the leadership of Romania, the UN Development Programme developed a manual of best practices for law enforcement in combating trafficking in human beings.⁵⁷ Strategies that would

⁵⁷"European Alliance Combats Human Trafficking," *Responses to Human Trafficking, Global Issues*, An electronic journal of the U.S. Department of State, ejglobal@pd.state.gov, Volume 8, Number 2, June 2003.

best be implemented at the government, community, family, as well as individual levels have also been identified.⁵⁸

The following discussion presents key strategies that encompass globally-identified practices against child trafficking. Very few organized efforts are deployed in the Southeast Asian Region.

- a. **Education and advocacy** – this includes activities that promote public awareness about child trafficking and its consequences; they are primarily targeted at communities, assemblies (tournaments, festivals), organized groups that play a role in the trafficking process (transporters, hotel operators, unions, etc.), with incentives provided for those who comply and sanctions for the violators. Information is collected and shared on the social aspects of sex tourism to improve understanding of this phenomenon.
- b. **Building a safety net for victims of trafficking** – activities that strengthen community relationships, the capability of duty-bearers to promote and protect the rights of children, and of victims of child trafficking. This would include the conduct of orientation seminars for police and public officials that emphasize their role in protecting children, educating communities about how to reintegrate trafficking victims, recognizing the work of non-government groups against child trafficking, witness protection, and other forms of victim assistance,
- c. **Prosecution of traffickers** – strengthening the capability of national courts and law enforcement officers to punish offenders. Legal vacuums in a country should be filled, with law enforcement officers and courts given enough power to apprehend and prosecute offenders. The proper incentives may have to be provided to them. In Andhra Pradesh, India, a law enforcement officer's performance appraisal is linked to his or her efforts to apprehend and investigate human traffickers.
- d. **Alliance-building and cross-border participation** – collaborative efforts among different agencies within a country and between countries, considering the trans-boundary nature of child trafficking. Cooperation between countries is necessary to arrest cross-border trafficking. Government has to work with civil society and the private sector. In Thailand, the government brings together government and NGO officials in an interagency working group to develop and implement comprehensive anti-trafficking strategies. NGOs work to identify victims and to pass that information along to the government, which can raid brothels and refer victims to the NGOs for shelter and assistance. NGOs uncover information—such as the traffickers' names and addresses—from the victims and then pass that information back to the government to assist police work. The process makes for a regular exchange of information at a tactical level. In the Philippines, a non-government organization stations itself near ports and intercepts suspected traffickers. They work in collaboration with port police and the crew of shipping vessels and transport companies.

⁵⁸"Developing Countries Take a Stand Against Trafficking," Responses to Human trafficking, *Global Issues*, An electronic journal of the U.S. Department of State, ejglobal@pd.state.gov, Volume 8, Number 2, June 2003.

- e. **Culturally-sensitive methods of reducing patronage of trafficked children** – includes the application of tactics that evoke feelings of shame, pride, and propriety among potential patrons of trafficked children. In addition to closing brothels that employ trafficking victims, South Korean police have threatened to publish the names of brothel owners and patrons. Many of the owners are prominent citizens and this strategy has proven to be a real deterrent. Similarly, in Manila, the Philippines, a mayor marked the doorways of establishments that promoted commercial sexual exploitation, and ultimately closed them down.
- f. **Stricter policies and practice to prevent the use and trafficking of children** – involves the identification of the specific trafficking situation and what promotes it, and devising the appropriate preventive strategy, with a policy base

2.2.8 Requirements for More Effective Interventions

Because of the diversity involved in child trafficking—both boys and girls are trafficked; children of all ages are involved, some young and some almost adult; and trafficked children are exploited in different ways—the opportunities for intervening to protect children need to vary as well.⁵⁹ In order to prevent children from being trafficked in the first place, it is necessary to understand the motives that children have for leaving home, or that their families have for allowing them to leave. The right preventive strategy must be adapted to match the particular motives that people have. Similarly, efforts to remove children from the control of traffickers must be tailored to the specific circumstances that children find themselves in.

Critics of efforts to combat child trafficking highlight the following shortcomings:⁶⁰

- a. Lack of social and legal definitions and categories that differentiate illegal migration from child trafficking; as a result, trafficked children are treated as illegal migrants and are faced with the threat of imprisonment and deportation;
- b. Lack of legal right for victims to claim aid from the government in the destination country;
- c. Lack of adequate relief and integration programs for the returning victims;
- d. Lack of cross-border aid programs; and
- e. Poor treatment of the returning victims by the authorities. On one hand there are no facilities for psychological treatment, on the other there is a risk of the victims being sent to camps and prisons. It is necessary to train the authorities and its employees to develop a basic and humane way of dealing with the victims that also take into consideration the victim's gender.

For efforts against cross-border trafficking to be successful in the region, Dottridge⁶¹ suggests that effective interventions against child trafficking should consider the following:

⁵⁹Mike Dottridge, *op.cit.*

⁶⁰Matilac and Florendo, *op.cit.*

⁶¹*Ibid.*

- a. The policies of each of the countries in Southeast Asia should develop a comprehensive strategy against child trafficking based on the UN protocols;
- b. There has to be a consensus on a common definition of child trafficking that is valid in all Southeast Asian countries;
- c. It is necessary to define child trafficking in the national legislation and to identify it as a criminal offence in each of the countries;
- d. Introduction, ratification, and implementation of international treaties and agreements for protection against child trafficking;
- e. Greater consideration of the rights and interests of children while educating and training members of the police and judiciary;
- f. Consistent prosecution of child trafficking as a crime by the national judiciaries;
- g. Bilateral treaties and cross-border cooperation between the authorities and the national and international NGOs;
- h. Development of long-term action plans that take into account the complex relation between child trafficking and other social problems such as discrimination against the indigenous populations, drugs, armed conflicts, HIV/AIDS or domestic violence;
- i. The high dynamics of child trafficking calls for continuous observation, studies and records of known cases in order to use the knowledge so acquired to formulate counter-measures; and
- j. A long-term political strategy is to establish child relief organizations that would take care of children and young persons in very different ways. Preventive awareness about child trafficking, offers to take care of and support illegal migrants, or political lobbying are only three possible examples of their work.

UNICEF's *Guidelines* cover 11 separate issues: the process for identifying children who have been trafficked; appointing a guardian for each trafficked child; their questioning by the authorities; referral to appropriate services and inter-agency coordination; interim care and protection; regularization of a child's status in a country other than their own (so that the child has a legal right to be in the country); case assessment and identification of what is called a 'durable solution'; implementing a durable solution, including possible return to a child's country of origin and own family; access to justice; protection of the child as a victim and potential witness in prosecutions of traffickers; and training for both government and other agencies dealing with child victims of trafficking. Although these *Guidelines* were developed in the specific context of Southeast Europe, all the guidelines are applicable to every child victim of trafficking anywhere in the world. However, in reality today hardly any of the guidelines are observed anywhere. They consequently provide non-governmental organizations and others involved in efforts to stop child trafficking with an agenda for action for the next few years.

2.3 THE TRAFFICKING SITUATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

The signing into law in May 2003 of R.A. 9208, the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003, has rendered obsolete most of the references already written on child trafficking. The expanded definitions of the terms trafficking, child, and the trafficking process go beyond what the older



Posters advocating against child trafficking found prominently at the gates of the Visayan Forum, an NGO serving trafficked children in the port of Matnog, Sorsogon.

literature consider as trafficking. It significantly includes the issue of vulnerability of the person and the receipt and giving of payment or benefits to secure consent. If the definition of child trafficking in the new law is to be applied into practical situations, parents of children who are recruited to work eventually in an exploitative manner or employment situation are liable. This is a new element that has to be considered in re-defining the meaning as well as the concerns about child trafficking.

The definition of child in R.A. 9208 mentions “. . . a person below eighteen (18) years of age or one who is over eighteen (18) but is unable to fully take care of or protect himself/herself from abuse. . .” as the initial qualifier. Understandably, 18 is the age of majority in the country, and once an individual reaches this age, he or she is expected to be able to fully take care of him or herself. This also means that even if a person is beyond 18 years of age, but manifests physical or mental incapacities to look after him/herself, he/she is still to be considered a child. What seems to be excluded from the definition is the 18-year old who, because of physical, mental, or similar constraints is “unable to fully take care of or protect himself/herself from abuse . . .” Perhaps the definition should be made to read “. . . a person below eighteen (18) years of age or one who is eighteen (18) or over but is unable to fully take care of or protect himself/herself from abuse. . .” when referring to a child.

2.3.1 Conceptual Issues: Terminologies and the Continuum of Trafficking

De Vries describes the trafficking operation as either being small-scale and informal or large-scale and organized. Small-scale trafficking may involve the sale and movement of children from one rural community to a nearby city. This is normally carried out by individuals who could be relatives, friends, or mere acquaintances with little resources but with a small network of employers. Large-scale trafficking, on the other hand, is undertaken both at the national and international levels by syndicates equipped with resources, contacts and expertise in coordinating the illegal and clandestine movement of people across borders.

Until R.A. 9208, advocates of child protection argued that there was no clear definition of child trafficking, and that a trafficker is defined only at the end of the process, where proof of exploitation of the child that he/she transported, could be obtained. The present law is expected to resolve much of this confusion.

Clarification further includes agreements on terms used especially where child exploitation is concerned. While many of these terms have been widely used, there are political implications that need to be reexamined, particularly in the use of the phrase “commercial child sexual exploitation,” which implies that there is “non-commercial child sexual exploitation.” Whether for commerce or not, viewing children as sexual objects is a human rights violation and need not be qualified. Moreover, in the recently-held First National Conference of Victim-Survivors of Prostitution attended by representatives of organized groups of survivors and women still active in prostitution from Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao,⁶² the conference statement emphatically called for the stopping of the use of the term “sex worker” or “commercial sex worker.” To the participants, which included women who started out as trafficked children, prostitution is a form of violence and therefore constitutes human rights violations against women and children.

2.3.2 Estimates of Child Migration and Child Trafficking

The extent of child trafficking in the country is not known. No official figures are available but many separate studies and assessments have been made: 54 percent of trafficked children in the Philippines are 15-17 years old. In 1999, there were 85 child trafficking victims documented by the Department of Social Welfare and Development.⁶³ However, the 2001 Survey on Children throws light on the possible number of children that have been trafficked as paid employees or unpaid family workers. It reveals that a total of 147,000 thousand (54.7 percent) working children living away from home were engaged in permanent jobs or businesses.

Table 2-3 in page 21 reports a total of 10,045 child victims of abuse who were served by the DSWD in 2003. It lists a total of 284 sexually exploited children, 80 children in situations of armed conflict, 358 children victims of child labour, 95 victims of child trafficking, and 21 victims of illegal recruitment. These groups of children, from among all the groups identified in the table, are, in all probability, victims of trafficking as it is presently defined. This gives a total of 838 children trafficked, or 8.3 percent of the total number reported. The assumption that these children are trafficked may or may not be correct. If it were correct at 8.3 percent, the count would seem low. But even if there is only one child who is trafficked, it is one child too many.

The Visayan Forum, a non-governmental organization, has been cited as one group that is able to monitor the trafficking of children in selected ports of the country. Despite this effort, the data are limited and only directly addresses the issues related to child trafficking as the organization comes in contact with these children.

Records from Visayan Forum indicate that in 2001, about 100 trafficked children and women intercepted in Manila passed through the Davao port. A study conducted at the Davao port showed that from November 2000 to February 2001, 70 victims of trafficking were intercepted. These victims were intercepted by government authorities at the Sasa wharf. Most of them came

⁶²The Conference was held on 19-21 October 2003, at Subic, Olongapo City with 70 representatives from various organizations, and a number of women's rights advocate groups that supported the Conference. Representatives from the Philippine National Police, the Department of Social Work and Development, and other government agencies also attended mainly as resource persons.

⁶³“How grave is the problem?” www.stopchildtrafficking.info, 27 August 2003.

from the rural towns of North Cotabato, Davao Oriental, Davao del Norte, Davao del Sur, Compostela Valley, Butuan City, and Davao City.⁶⁴

Since October 2003, when the Visayan Forum opened its halfway house in cooperation with the Philippine Ports Authority (PPA), it has served more than 2,000 victims of human trafficking. Many of the cases it has documented involve teenage girls from Mindanao.⁶⁵

2.3.3 Migration and Trafficking Patterns

Between the 1970s and 1980s, economic development was concentrated in certain provinces. The 1980s saw the expansion of specific areas in the country: industrial development, the mushrooming of new business centres, and the growth of towns and cities. Economic zones grew in the CALABARZON area and the growth triangle of Luzon. Businesses boomed in major cities of the country: Baguio, Dagupan, San Fernando, Cebu, Iloilo, Davao, and Cagayan de Oro among them. At the same time, countryside economic interventions were either absent or unsustainable. Many provinces and municipalities lagged behind. These developments encouraged internal migration. The continuing search for better economic opportunities encouraged overseas migration; the economic development in many parts of the world was far more advanced, and the quality of life there was perceived to be so much better than anywhere in the Philippines.

Migration is a major socio-demographic activity that people undertake in order to address individual and family economic requirements, thereby affecting the economic status of a community. It may enrich the communities of origin, or it may deprive these communities of valuable labour potential. Whether migration contributes to seeking a balance between economically developed and undeveloped or poorly developed areas is uncertain. Unless the migrant returns to his or her place of origin, or sends his/her earnings home, development of the source community would still be slow.

Alongside the legitimate movement for better economic opportunities, the illegal trade of human trafficking, especially of children and women, grew in strength and numbers.

Current statistics on migration do not show the specifics on the actual number of children who migrated for work or other purposes. Statistics from the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) only tally adults who migrate for overseas contract work. What is certain is that the pattern both of internal migration and overseas migration for work is from rural or semi-urbanizing areas to urban areas.⁶⁶

Victims of trafficking tend to justify their decision to migrate or be recruited even when they were not sure about the circumstances they would face in the destination area or country.⁶⁷ For many migrants, inadequate information about their destination or uncertainty about what might happen to them there are of little concern. The lack of income opportunities in their places of

⁶⁴Canuday, 28 April 2002.

⁶⁵Puod, 15 December 2003.

⁶⁶Santos, 2002; de Vries et al., September 2001; Pacis, September 2001; Flores-Oebanda, 2001; Lim, 2000).

⁶⁷Santos 2002; Flores-Oebanda 2001.

origin and the anticipation of good things happening to them in their places of destination contribute to their decision to migrate. “*Kapit sa patalim*,” which literally means holding on tightly to the dagger, is an oft-repeated phrase to emphasize the sense of desperation of these migrants.

2.3.3.1 Reasons for Migration

Various studies have pointed to the following factors as the major reasons for the steady increase in internal migration of families and individuals, including children:

- a. Unemployment and lack of income opportunities
- b. Food shortage caused by landlessness, environmental disaster, and ecological degradation
- c. Weak domestic markets
- d. Limited educational facilities for the children; there are few public schools in the province and most often the children of farming families are left out
- e. Services and technologies that improve access to information or even entertainment
- f. Economic disparities across regions in the country

Urbanization lures families and their children to the city, which is perceived as providing relatively comfortable and resource-rich opportunities and possibilities. The amenities and technologies that cities are perceived to offer heighten the desire of families and their children to migrate. Cities often have constant access to food supply, but the access is mediated by an appropriate city-oriented income. There may be more employment opportunities but often this is in the informal sector, such as ambulant vending or manual labour in factories, or backyard type industries which produce subsistence income or are low waged and untenured. Some cities, like Iligan City in Central Mindanao, have industries that attract rural families to converge there and avail of education and livelihood opportunities.⁶⁸

Not too uncommonly, children are drawn into the labor market to help the family earn the much-needed living wage. Poverty, low household income, and lack of work opportunities contribute to the decision of most households to migrate or to allow or force their children to work away from home.^{69,70}

2.3.3.2 Consequences of Migration

Migration has become a key economic option for many communities. In many instances it has become a highly acceptable option for many families, even assuming a high degree of acceptability in poor areas. It has also become a status symbol, as successful migrants are able to show off their material gains, often in the form of acquisition of the latest household technologies, and the improvement of their general economic status. Often, the remittances of overseas migrants are used to pay for medical expenses, tuition fees, or needs as basic as the staple, rice.⁷¹

⁶⁸Notre Dame University and DOLE Region XII, 1998.

⁶⁹Balisacan, 2001.

⁷⁰The State of the Women of Mindanao Report 2003,” Mindanao Commission on Women.

⁷¹Santos, 2002; Flores-Oebanda, 2001; Caagusan, 2000; Fabe, n.d.

Family migration, especially if frequent and economically motivated, may have disturbing effects on the overall welfare of children who do not enjoy the financial and moral security of a stable home environment. Children may find themselves in the situation called the double-day syndrome, where they have to work for income during the day and at the same time are expected to do household chores when they get home at night. Often, they are expected to assume the obligations of a normal working adult, such as working long hours in a hazardous work environment, endangering not only their physical but also their mental health. Exposed to risky, hazardous work situations and environments with low wages and little or no protection, the children have to learn to set up adult-like coping mechanisms that may impact on their long-term general well-being. Dropping out of school is one such coping mechanism, if only to maximize their opportunities to contribute more to income for the family’s needs.

It is suggested that annually, some 2.5 million girls and women of the estimated four million ferry passengers passing through Manila North Harbor migrate to or visit Metro Manila from outlying islands in the hope of finding work.⁷² “This human diaspora siphons a growing number of vulnerable young people lured into abusive work which, to date, still remains invisible.” The same study describes these girls and women thus:

“They are very young, mostly female, 14–22 years old, from poor regions in the south. Many are first-timers in Manila, often with only a one-way ticket at hand. Thirteen out of twenty children (65 percent) travel to their destinations without any information about their destination, work, and employers. Due to the absence of protective mechanisms, six out of ten (62 percent) revealed that their fare is deducted from their salary and 50 to 70 percent is added as a finder’s pay by the recruiters. Some children could not adjust to the language. Many (31 percent) confided they met problems related to having not enough money or none at all during the voyage. The port itself is full of illegal recruiters, pimps and vultures trying to entice stranded girls and young women into low paid domestic work or into covert bars and brothels and other underworld activities. These situations contribute to the success of the traffickers to convince their prey to keep their distance from people who will talk to them or intercept them during transit. While they are easy to spot, they can easily slip through the safety net.”

Migration and the phenomenon of street children have been cited as interlinked problems. In the mid-1990s, the number of street children was estimated at 1.5 million. According to the DSWD, this number increases annually by 6,365. Of the 1.5 million street children, 60,000 are prostituted.⁷³ In Baguio City, a small but bustling tourism destination, an estimated 1,300 street children were reported.

The phenomenon of street children is a key element in child trafficking. While in the streets, children are at risk of engaging in activities facilitated by traffickers, such as prostitution, illegal drug use, and other criminal activities. Their vulnerability to trafficking therefore increases, even if they still go home to their families. The lack of adult supervision and the severe lack of social

⁷²Flores-Oebanda, 2001.

⁷³ECPAT, 1996

services and programs by government agencies and non-governmental organizations contribute to these children ultimately becoming victims of trafficking.

Most studies on migration are on the profiling of Overseas Filipino Workers (OFW). Others deal with trafficking in women for sexual exploitation. A challenging task is culling the data for child trafficking concerns from the studies on OFWs and trafficking in women, since the latter most often were recruited into the prostitution system when they were in their teens, although the actual documentation of such cases happened years after their trafficking experience.

2.3.4 General Profile of Trafficked Children and their Families

It is apparent from a cursory view of the data that many individual, household, and community factors have to be appreciated in order to understand the trafficked child and the trafficking process. Individual and collective characteristics, as well as economic, social, cultural, geographic, and political factors all contribute to the situation that defines a child's vulnerability to trafficking. These individual and environmental conditions that provide the push for the decision to move, migrate or be trafficked, have to be considered. The internal motivations that recognize pull factors to be attractive enough to encourage movement also have to be understood.

2.3.4.1 Place of Origin of the Trafficked Child

Children are being trafficked mostly for labour and sexual exploitation from various parts of the country, and not necessarily only from specific areas, although it is safe to say that the poorer the place and the lesser the opportunities for employment and education, the higher the possibility of children either leaving home to look for jobs, or being trafficked to other places perceived to offer better opportunities.

De Vries noted in his study on the trafficking of girls for employment⁷⁴ that 19 out of the 24 trafficked girls whose cases they reviewed came from provinces in the Visayas, with only two from Surigao, and three from Bulacan, Kalinga-Apayao, and Manila. Another study found that those trafficked for sexual exploitation and eventually trafficked to foreign countries (e.g., Japan, Korea, Taiwan, Malaysia) were recruited in Davao City but came from outlying areas such as General Santos City and the rural areas of Davao.⁷⁵

In another study, it was found that most of the 95 children-respondents were from farming communities in Mindanao (Davao, Zamboanga, Sultan Kudarat), followed by those from the Visayas (Dumaguete, Cebu).⁷⁶ The last study was conducted in the port of Manila, and was limited to children who were found embarking from the ships. Those coming from Luzon, e.g., Bicol, would not be included in this documentation, as they would have come in to Manila by land.

⁷⁴De Vries, 2001.

⁷⁵Santos, 2002.

⁷⁶Pacis, September 2001.

In Iligan City, children in sexually exploitative situations originally came from Davao, Butuan, Zamboanga, Cagayan de Oro, Ozamiz, Bukidnon, and Cebu. They were lured to the city by perceived economic opportunities brought about by the presence of industries.⁷⁷

The Visayan Forum has documented cases of child trafficking where the children come from Davao, Zamboanga, Dumaguete, Cebu, and Sultan Kudarat. The same source noted that the relatively high number not only of children, but also of families disembarking in the project sites of the Visayan Forum may be due to the continuing civil conflict in Mindanao. Mindanao was seen as the source of the highest number of trafficked children. Visayas came a close second.

2.3.4.2 Family Profiles of Trafficked Children

Trafficked children are generally stowaways and school dropouts coming from poor families, "broken homes," or dysfunctional families. Some of them have been sexually abused either by a brother, an employer, stepfather or other blood relative.

Most of them also come from big families, often with other siblings that are either young or have no work. Some come from relatively small families whose parents have low educational attainment, or are in irregular work situations that prompt children to find their own source of income to help the family. The customary expectations of children looking after their elderly parents or parents with no work bear down especially on the girl-child.⁷⁸

2.3.4.3 Education

Most of the girls in the De Vries study only had elementary education. Five were high school dropouts. The inability to pursue schooling and acquire a degree was attributed to poverty. Majority of the children belonged to large families which had at least six children, and had parents with low educational attainment. Though many of the trafficked children seemed to have lost the opportunity to go back to school, others articulated a strong desire to finish their schooling, even if it were only as far as high school.

2.3.4.4 Early Life Transitions

Studies in other countries have shown that individuals sometimes go through a recurring process of victimization, usually initiated in their childhood.⁷⁹ This is true also in the country, where many of the women interviewed have experienced abuse—physical or emotional—from at least one family member. The difficulty of coping with physical and emotional trauma experienced in the early years makes them weak and vulnerable to traffickers. At times, the desire to escape from a continuing family situation of oppression, whether economic, physical or emotional, makes the child easy prey to traffickers. Some of the teenagers in the studies had an early marriage that

⁷⁷Notre Dame University and DOLE Region XII, 1998.

⁷⁸Santos, 2002; Pacis, September 2001; de Vries et al., September 2001.

⁷⁹Carcach, Carlos. "An empirical test of the life-course perspective to violent victimisation," Australian Institute of Criminology, A Paper Presented at the Workshop on Cross National Comparative Crime Victimization Research. University of Leiden, The Netherlands, 22-24 June 2001.

failed, and became solo parents. In the absence of economic support, they were forced to take on jobs that eventually led them to trafficking and prostitution.

In future studies, it might be interesting to employ an application of the life course perspective to adults who have been trafficked in their childhood. Their experiences as child victims, traced on to adulthood, would show what really pushed them to a trafficking situation, how they spent their lives, and how they coped and managed, subsequent to trafficking. Such a study may be useful in identifying preventive strategies as well as strategies for rehabilitation and community integration.

2.3.5 The Purposes of Trafficking

The Asia Acts regional study on child trafficking provides a historical perspective of the phenomenon in the Philippines. As far back as the Spanish era, children of poor parents suffering from the imposition of taxes and forced labour were brought from rural areas to work in Manila. Girls as young as 13 years old were recruited to become domestics in the cities. Eventually, some of these girls ended up being sexually exploited. Male youth found jobs in the construction of churches, government buildings, and ships—usually in places far away from home.

Presently, the same reasons for children forced or wanting to be away from home exist. Children are trafficked primarily for work and for sexual exploitation.

2.3.5.1 Trafficking for Labour

R.A. 7610, the Special Protection of Children Against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination Act, signed into law in 1992, provided for stronger deterrence and special protection against child abuse, exploitation and discrimination, and penalties for violations. In 1994, R.A. 7658 amended Section 12, Article VIII of R. A. 7610, to include specific provisions regarding the employment of children below 15 years of age for public and private undertakings. R. A. 7658 defines child labour as the illegal employment of children below 15 years of age and the employment of those below 18 years in hazardous or deleterious work. It also distinguishes between child labour and child work, the latter being defined as acceptable vocation for children. However, such a distinction cannot be seen in actual reality, as poverty is still the determinant for both child work and child labour. Parents are still forced to let their children work, say, in a mining site or fireworks factory, since this is the only way they could help augment the meager family income, working hazards notwithstanding. R.A. 7658 also provides exemptions to child labour as long as parents consent that the child engages in labour. This provision validates the fact that the economic status of



Fishing for food and income.

a family decides whether or not the child is forced to work at an early age.⁸⁰

Signed into law on 19 December 2003, R.A. 9231, otherwise called An Act Providing For The Elimination Of The Worst Forms Of Child Labour And Affording Stronger Protection For The Working Child, further amended R.A. 7610, as amended. The new law strictly regulates the employment of working children and fully defines hazardous work and activities, as well as provides for stiffer penalties against persons, including parents, who push children to engage in any of the worst forms of child labour. Further discussion on the laws covering child labour and child trafficking are discussed in Chapter 5 of this report.

It has been argued that economic liberalization policies have affected the employment opportunities in many of the developing countries. The Philippines is no exception. Businesses have closed down; children of displaced workers may need to take on economically productive activities to fill in the income gap. Survey findings show that two-thirds of working children are found in the rural areas of the Philippines. Most of the children are engaged in fisheries, farming, and forestry with other members of the family. The highest numbers of working children are found in Regions IV, VI and XI.⁸¹ Southern Tagalog ranked first with 11.5 percent, followed by Central Visayas at 9.7 percent.⁸² Eastern Visayas ranked third with 8.7 percent. Of the 2.308 million labour force of Eastern Visayas as of October 2001, about 17 percent belonged to the 15 to 19 year old age bracket. The proportion increased to 18 percent a year later.

Most of the children cited in these case studies are assigned to hazardous types of jobs. In Cebu, for example, women and young workers are assigned to sanding and polishing jobs in the furniture industry. The children workers' ages range from 9 to 17 years old, with 14 as mean age. Most of them were born in Cebu, to families with an average of five siblings. Parents of working children generally have low educational attainment.

Studies point out that those children who were trafficked or have migrated to Manila for employment opportunities are:

- a. often young and had been working while they were very young—often in the informal sector in their province of origin as domestic helpers, farm hands, or as street vendors;⁸³ a case of a survivor of trafficking revealed that she worked as early as seven or eight years old as a movie house cleaner in her small town, and often would be castigated by her parents if she failed to bring home some money;⁸⁴
- b. first timers in Manila, expecting that they could find jobs in the city; they also wanted to pursue their education, in the hope that this would give them the opportunity to be employed in a good job;
- c. from poor families where the parents have low educational attainment; or
- d. generally from large families (more than six members).

⁸⁰Arci Cultura E Sviluppo, Southeast Asia, n.d.

⁸¹Ibid.

⁸²Sun Star Cebu. 13 October 2000.

⁸³Santos, 2002; Pacis, September 2001; Flores-Oebanda, 2001; de Vries et al., September 2001.

However, the real extent of illegal child labour cannot be definitive since employers hide the children or do not report them at all. There are no studies that try to cull out from any child labour statistics how many children were actually trafficked.

2.3.5.2 Trafficking for Sexual Exploitation

A recent study of the NGO End Child Prostitution in Asian Tourism (ECPAT)⁸⁵ focused on seven high-risk areas in the Philippines: Metro Manila, Laoag City, Bicol, Cebu, Dumaguete City, Cagayan de Oro City, and Zamboanga City. It cites sexual exploitation as the most popular purpose for child trafficking in the Philippines, second to labour. In Iligan City, Barangay Santiago and Barangay Saray have been reported as places where the presence of children in prostitution have been noted. There are no studies that are able to estimate the number of children who are trafficked into the so-called “entertainment industry.” At best, one can only extrapolate from the numbers that are reported—and oftentimes, the numbers vary according to the sources. Some possible sources of information are the Social Hygiene Clinics, the DSWD, Philippine National Police, and halfway homes or refuges managed by NGOs. Estimating actual numbers would still be difficult since the children referred to these agencies would be limited only to those that had contact with law enforcers and children’s programs.

Estimates per city or region on children involved in prostitution and especially those trafficked for the sex industries are difficult to ascertain. Since minors are not allowed to work in entertainment establishments (e.g., karaoke, videoke, clubs, bars, massage parlors) that often act as fronts for prostitution, establishment owners are silent about the real ages of the children. Oftentimes, the children themselves fake their real ages or produce fake birth certificates so that they could be hired as waitresses, guest relations officers, bartenders, ago-go dancers, and the like.

A more important aspect of the problem is the fact that, more often than not, children involved in prostitution are invisible to the eye of the law since there have been reports of the involvement of local government officials in the recruitment and operations of prostitution fronts. Vested interests of both private individuals and public officials are often cited as a key factor in the proliferation of child prostitution.⁸⁶

The Thai-based ECPAT estimated that in the Philippines some 300,000 children are in prostitution. According to UNICEF and non-governmental organizations, the Philippines ranks 4th among nine nations with most children in prostitution—estimated to be between 60,000-100,000. The top five areas for prostitution and sex tourism are Metro Manila, Angeles City, Puerto Galera in Mindoro, Davao, and Cebu.

The DSWD claims that the annual average increase of prostituted children is 3,266.

⁸⁵Endangered Generation: Child Trafficking in the Philippines for Sexual Purposes, ECPAT Philippines and Terre des Hommes-Netherlands. March 2005. ecpatphi@i-manila.com.ph, tdhjkt@indo.net.id.

⁸⁶Santos 2002, Caagusan 2000

Local estimates are lower, hovering around 60,000⁸⁷ from a low of 40,000⁸⁸ to 75,000,⁸⁹ to the often-quoted figure of 100,000. Other estimates that include women and children vary from 300,000 to 375,000.⁹⁰ Most of them are from semi-rural and urban backgrounds, aged 15 to 20.

The following statistics may be cited:

- a. Of 500 prostitutes in Angeles City, 75 percent are children.⁹¹
- b. Cebu has also been reported to be one of the top provinces that employ children in the sex industry, estimated to be around 10,000 young girls in Cebu City alone. The number of registered prostitutes in the city rose from 1,500 in 1993 to 4,500 in 1997. One NGO has recorded another 534 women and girls trafficked for sexual purposes from 1997 to 2000. Antonia de Oviedo, an NGO also working in the area, recorded 22 girls trafficked from 1999 to 2002.⁹²
- c. In 1993, there were 80 prostitution establishments in Davao City. By 1997 there were 135, increasing the number of registered and unregistered prostitutes by 2,000. More than half of these numbers are teenage girls. To avail of their services, customers pay as little as 50 cents to US \$2.50.
- d. Police in Cagayan de Oro City recorded 14 child trafficking cases, for unspecified purposes, from 2002-2003. DSWD, on the other hand, reported four trafficking cases for sexual purposes in 2001 and two cases in 2002.⁹³
- e. CATW reports that Pagadian has been noted as one of the major sources of trafficked children, done through Zamboanga.⁹⁴

Reporting and recording cases of child trafficking will continue to be a challenge until key stakeholders agree on common definitions and monitoring and information sharing techniques have improved.

Several studies show that the ages of girls engaged in prostitution vary from as young as nine to 18 years old. There are studies that describe the girl-children as “young, attractive, innocent-looking and with very strong sex appeal.” One revealed the partiality of foreign customers of entertainment establishments in Cebu for young women (14-18 years old) because they are regarded as having the “best bodies,” “fresh” and “clean,” and less likely to have diseases. The 2005 ECPAT study cites victims’ ages as ranging from 14 to 17 years old. These children were offered jobs in restaurants, promotion agencies, factories, and households in Metro Manila. Some of them were trafficked for both sexual purposes and labor: storekeepers at daytime, and sexual slaves at night.

⁸⁷Tan, 21 March 1997.

⁸⁸BBC News UK, 4 April 1998; Serjeant with Reuters 1 April 1998.

⁸⁹Agnote with Kyodo News, 18 August 1998.

⁹⁰PDI, 26 July 1997.

⁹¹Juvida, 12 October 1997.

⁹²ECPAT, March 2005.

⁹³Ibid.

⁹⁴Interview with Noreen Belarmino, 3 February 2004.

The preference of customers for children and young women often leads to the recruitment of minors and the falsification of the age of recruits. Some children are said to use the birth certificates of their older siblings or another person, just to pass the age requirement and secure the needed legal documents for travel.

Some studies have offered poverty as a major cause of prostitution. Others have attempted to look beyond poverty and into other more specific factors that continue to deepen the entrenchment of prostitution in the landscape of Philippine society. To a growing number of poor households and young persons, prostitution—which needs no previous job experience, requires no specialized skills or knowledge, and is an open market for income to anyone wanting to enter it—has been a relatively easy solution to poverty and socio-economic deprivation.

Negligence of parents, the lack of decent job opportunities, and the flourishing sex trade business in metro-cities and tourist spots have been cited as major factors in child prostitution in the country. Other studies point to drug abuse and family problems as contributing factors in the abuse and exploitation of children.

Gender-based discrimination, i.e., the treatment of women and children as sexual commodities by men, has begun to emerge as a key factor in the growth of prostitution and sex trafficking.

Socio-cultural values and beliefs also affect child prostitution and trafficking, including the following: (a) the concept of child and family, where the child is expected to support the family particularly during difficult economic and social situations; and (b) the concept of *bahala na* (come what may), which denotes lack of concern and a systematic preparation for the future. Also, *pakikisama* is a value that predisposes a child to engage in commercial sex due to peer influence.

The effect/impact of prostitution on the children cuts across the different areas of their lives—the physical, psychological, social and spiritual. Physical changes include working long, irregular hours; engaging in vices such as smoking and drinking; and the use of condoms and other contraceptives. Majority of the workers are later overcome by feelings of shame, self-hate, and guilt. Socially, child workers have to deal with physical separation from their loved ones.

In Davao City, the *buntog* phenomenon is akin to the issue of child sexual exploitation. The phenomenon has been traced to the early to mid-1990s. *Buntog*, an expression referring to a quail that flies from nest to nest, is a term that connotes gang activity like hanging out in discos or clubs, alcohol and drug use, sex, and even rioting when attributed to young people organized into gangs. A Cebuano word used only in Davao, *buntog* is more related to the loose sexual activity among youngsters and is a derogatory term used to refer to those engaged in such acts. The rapid rise of the *buntog* phenomenon has brought about concerns such as teenage pregnancy, abortions, sexually transmitted disease, and even child prostitution. *Buntog* children are vulnerable to trafficking.

Typical of a full-blown business, prostitution in the country has developed a language unique to itself. There are various terms⁹⁵ used by those in prostitution and/or their clients to refer to the children and women. Some of these are: pick-up girls, akyat-barko, gimik, lapag, etc. These terms and their corresponding definitions are included in the glossary found in Annex C.

One study points out, “No effort has been exerted yet to fully document the cases of prostitution involving children in the area in terms of magnitude, distribution and responses of GOs and NGOs to the problem.” Considering the rising numbers of sexually exploited children, a study of this nature remains a challenge.

2.3.5.3 Trafficking for Other Purposes

Trafficking for other purposes is an area with very little data, and in fact, remains mostly at the level of anecdotal reports. One topic of inquiry lately is the use of children as soldiers in armed conflicts.

While there are no conclusive estimates on the number of trafficked children for use as soldiers in armed conflicts, there is some literature on the issue. Most literature contain case studies of specific children. Some studies focus on the child-soldier as victim and perpetrator of violence.⁹⁶ Also, the relationship between child trafficking and the use of children in armed conflict is, on the whole, largely assumed in existing studies.

In Mindanao, where armed conflict has been raging for decades, an estimated 51,000 families or about 304,908 individuals were displaced in 1999.⁹⁷ In the year 2000, the World Bank reported that a total of 456 barangays, or nearly 5 percent of the barangays in Mindanao and more than a million, people were affected by the hostilities. Of these, half a million, many of them women and children, were displaced. Subsequently, the number of displaced persons decreased to at least 135,000 in 2001 and roughly 100,000 in 2002.⁹⁸

It is safe to assume that children would continue to be recruited into armed situations by the simple fact that as part of communities that are in conflict, children and particularly boys, would be affected and influenced by adults who are either their parents or relatives and are already engaged in soldiering for armed groups. In volatile situations, especially when their own lives and futures are threatened, cultural and political contexts—and even religious beliefs—may be trigger points for the recruitment of children.

It is popularly assumed that in Mindanao, especially in areas where the decades-long struggle of the Muslim communities for autonomy is strong, children are politically potent recruits into armed groups. It is considered part of their religious commitment to defend family and person from aggressors. In this context, participation of children in armed conflict is allowed by them, and therefore not considered an exploitative activity.

⁹⁵Notre Dame University and DOLE Region XII, 1998.

⁹⁶Protacio-de Castro, 2001.

⁹⁷ECDFC 1999, cited in Ferrer 2003.

⁹⁸State of the Filipino Women Report 2001-2003, Draft. NCRFW, February 2004.

Mostly at the level of anecdotal data and feature articles or news items, other trafficking forms include children involved as donors for organ sale, and other criminal activities, like the use of children as drug pushers. In Cebu City, there are an estimated 1,300 children involved in the city’s drug trade, with the majority between the ages 14-18.

In Zambonga City, a report about a missing child from Barangay Talon-talon who was eventually found dead with his organs missing was noted by another researcher.⁹⁹ No proper investigation was done, and the case remains anecdotal. Trafficking for organ selling is an emerging phenomenon that needs serious scrutiny.

2.3.6 General Profile of Traffickers

The trafficking process, in its complexity, involves many actors. Generally, three key actors are mentioned: the recruiter, who is also seen as the trafficker, the child victim and the user or buyer, of the trafficked child’s services.

The trafficker occupies a central function between the supply and demand for children. On the one hand, their role is to increase the supply of trafficked children through recruitment, often using false information, fraudulent identification, deceit and opportunism to entice their victims and their families. On the other hand, they try to boost the demand by providing easy access to a steady supply of trafficked persons.¹⁰⁰

Operations of traffickers could be categorized into three types: through organized international trafficking networks, through local trafficking rings, and through occasional traffickers. In Southeast Asia, specifically in the Philippines, local trafficking and occasional traffickers are more preponderant than those operated by international trafficking organizations or syndicates.¹⁰¹ The difference among these three types lies mostly in the extensiveness of coverage of their operations, sheer volume of victims they are able recruit, and the frequency of their operations. Generally, the modus operandi of all three types of traffickers does not distinctly vary from one another—all three types of trafficking operations often use false information, fraudulent identification, deception, and usually prey on the more vulnerable individuals, households, and communities for their operations.

In the Philippines, local trafficking is more prevalent and pervasive. Local traffickers usually have extensive networks or links to home villages, towns, communities and even with government institutions in their operating areas. Traffickers are commonly linked together with a chain of middlemen; these middlemen could be friends, neighbours and relatives (even the child’s parents) of the child victims, pimps, bar owners, videoke bar owners, and other individuals proximate to the area they are operating in.

⁹⁹Interview with Noreen Belarmino of the CATW, February 2004.
¹⁰⁰UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre. Trafficking in Human Beings, Especially Women and Children, In Africa.
¹⁰¹European Conference on Trafficking in Women. "Trafficking of Women to the European Union: Characteristics, Trends and Policy Issues," 1996.

Recruitment, is operated on the basis of trust. The recruiter gains the confidence of the child, the family, or the community. Typical recruiters believe that they are just helping the children realize their dreams of employment. On many occasions, frontline recruiters are older women or gays; they may have certain behaviors that allow them to gain the trust of women and children very easily. Traffickers who are strangers to the community oftentimes work through other people who do the direct recruitment for them, and these are known as “middlemen,” “cannvassers,” field representatives,” or “runners.” Cannvassers in Zamboanga City and the field monitors in Dumaguete City allegedly monitor the whereabouts of their recruits because they are supposedly answerable to the employers as well as the parents.

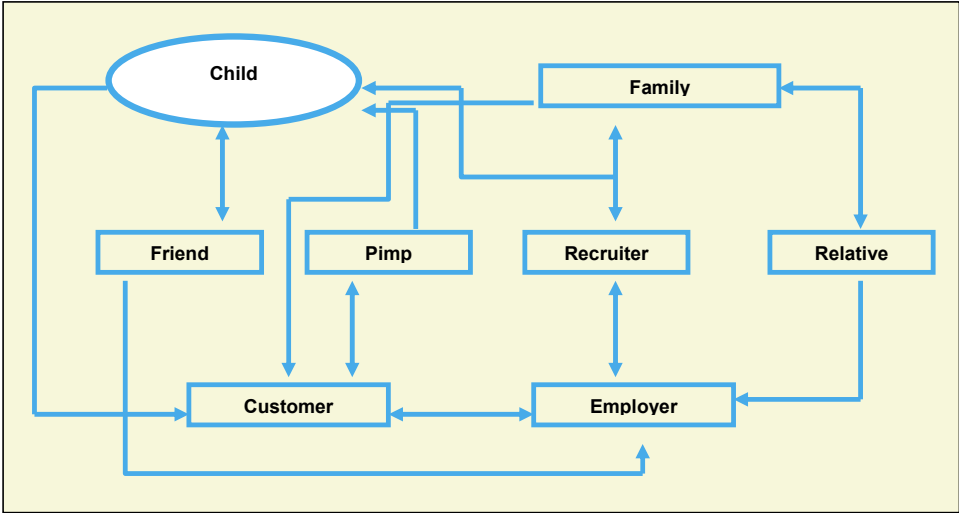


Figure 2-4 Direction of Approach in the Recruitment of Children

Children trafficked for the purposes of sexual exploitation are recruited in a number of ways, using an intricate web of actors that facilitate or carry out the trafficking process (see Figure 2-4). They are enticed by friends, their relatives, and even their parents to serve initially as domestic helpers or workers in the tourism industry and eventually lured into prostitution. However, there are other recruitment patterns that are very upfront with their offers and terms of employment to their victims to work as prostitutes. Recruitment may also be done by pimps, brokers, or nightclub agents, casa owners, or individuals who are indirectly or directly involved in the prostitution industry.¹⁰²

Local trafficking syndicates also operate using an “employment agency,” “placement agency,” or “promotions agency” as a guise to victimize children into the trafficking trade. Local traffickers who use this modus operandi usually employ “recruitment agents” to lure young men and women. These agents function as headhunters for prospective victims to be trafficked, establish contacts

¹⁰²Edralin, D. "In Depth Study on the Situation of Children in Prostitution", September 2002.

within the community where the agency operates, and serves as the conduit between the employer and the victim.

With R.A. 9208 and the wider definition that it provides, participation in the trafficking process cannot be alluded only to the recruiter or the person who actually does the transport of the child from point of origin to destination. Although the law does not have a clear-cut definition of trafficker, it contains provisions distinguishing categories of trafficking into three: (1) acts of trafficking in perons; (2) acts that promote trafficking in persons, and (3) qualified trafficking. People who facilitate the transport of children by allowing it, e.g., parents who give permission, or those who falsify documents to show that the individual is no longer a child, and those who harbor the trafficker and victim while in transit, are just as liable. Adults who come in contact with the trafficked child and the trafficker all throughout the process are responsible for its continuance. The responsibility of the duty bearers to ensure that the child's rights are protected prevails.

2.3.7 Processes and Mechanisms

Migrating children are often accompanied by adults, and they travel in groups. In Dumaguete City, young women are recruited in groups of 10-15, sent to either Metro Manila to be seasoned for sexual exploitation or Zamboanga to be trafficked directly to countries such as Malaysia. Some children travel alone.

The Department of Labor and Employment, Region VII, reports that Central Visayas is a sending and receiving area for child labourers, most of whom travel by passenger vessels where they cannot be easily detected.

The Visayan Forum, whose work in the ports has monitored the arrival of migrants, reports:

“The Manila North Harbor port, the biggest port in the Philippines, is a notorious place for new arrivals. The port itself is full of illegal recruiters, pimps and vultures trying to entice stranded girls and young women . . .

*“Once they exit the port and shipping terminal, the chance to help victims disappear as they dissolve into the city . . . We also found out that the Manila Port is also the most common place most trafficked children victims run to when they escape from their exploitative work because they take their chances that somehow they can beg for a free voyage home.”*¹⁰³

Generally, recruiters maintain a level of misinformation to establish their hold on the children. They order the children to declare false names and ages, and strictly prohibit contact outside of the group during transit. They are also told to lie about their ages and the purpose of their travel. As they arrive in the terminals, the adult minders usually disperse and regroup in pre-arranged

¹⁰³Flores-Oebanda, 2001.

waiting areas. To prepare for inspection by authorities, they further instruct the recruits to claim that they are relatives.

The parents of the eight recruited minors from Albay were given money ranging from 1,000 to 1,500 pesos per family, as down payment or *paunang-bayad* for the work ostensibly to be rendered by the girls. The girls were all brought to San Fernando, Pampanga where they were sold to a local pub-cum-brothel. The same study showed that minors recruited in Davao City were directly approached either by a Japanese recruiter or through a local intermediary. Others were recruited via a recruitment agency that held auditions in a well-known local hotel. Still others were recruited by recruits themselves. The respondents in the study said that they enticed their friends to join them in the auditions or to accept the job offers.

Children are usually promised good-paying, respectable jobs. A handful is told about the specific jobs they will be given at the point of destination. This may or may not be what the children actually get when they arrive.

It is common for an out-of-town recruiter to associate with an influential local person. A respondent in one study stated that a recruiter in Albay managed to entice several applicants supposedly for placement in Japan because she stayed in the house of a local government official. Locals thought that because she was with the official, she could be trusted.

2.3.8 Transit and Preferred Places of Destination

Many places, such as Zamboanga and Metro Manila, serve both as transit point as well as destination. Zamboanga is often a destination for internal child trafficking from nearby provinces in Mindanao and the Visayan region. It also appears to be another favourite transit point for recruiters for those to be trafficked outside the country, mainly for Malaysia and its neighbouring countries.

Metro Manila, on the other hand, is often a transit point for trafficking outside of the country, and both a transit point and destination for many internal migrants and trafficked children. Young women and minors who were trafficked to other countries from Davao came from neighbouring places such as General Santos, Bulacan, Olongapo, and Pampanga have been cited as destination areas for children trafficked from the Visayas. Government and non-government organizations in the Bicol region point to Masbate as a major source of children and trafficked women. Legaspi City and other areas in Bicol are apparently convenient transit areas for children from Masbate. In Dumaguete City, many women and children are recruited from the neighbouring province of Siquijor and sent via Cebu.¹⁰⁴

Cebu was found by the 2005 ECPAT study as a transit area. In contrast with Manila, Dumaguete, Bicol, Cagayan de Oro, Laoag, and Zamboanga City, Cebu was not seen as a source. Transit areas obviously serve several purposes. They may provide opportunities for on-the-job training for inexperienced children in bars or lesser brothels. This process is called “seasoning” by some

¹⁰⁴Taken from interviews conducted by Aida Santos, 1998-2000.

authors, to imply that the child is taught the skills needed for the job waiting in the destination area. Completion of travel and work documents may also happen in the transit area; in the meantime the recruiter may have the additional opportunity to recruit more children for the rest of the journey.

2.3.9 User (Buyer) Profiles

The distinction between users/buyers and traffickers is crucial in order to understand the various patterns and to designate effective interventions against trafficking. Users or buyers could act individually or as a group linked with each other through access to activities that are illegal in nature (such as prostitution or sexual abuse of children). They may also seek to reduce costs by using cheap labour and easily manageable workers (child labour and children in domestic work). Very often, they do not perceive themselves as part of the trafficking network, although they are, in fact, the engines in the machinery of exploitation.¹⁰⁵

In the Philippines, users vary depending on the purpose that the traffickers have intended for their victims. Children who were recruited for the purpose of labour are sent to farms and factories or to households as *kasambahay* (househelp). Children who have been trafficked for sexual exploitation are either sent to casas and brothels or are made to prowl the streets for customers as “freelancers” or “street walkers.” The users and buyers of these children vary greatly depending on the location of the brothel, club, establishment or street which they ply.

Most of the men hiring prostitutes in Pasay City are taxi drivers, labourers, businessmen, foreigners, and male teenagers eager to lose their virginity.¹⁰⁶ Foreign men are mainly the users of children and women who are sexually exploited in Angeles City, a centre of prostitution surrounding the former Clark U.S. Air Force base in the Philippines.

Major cities in the Philippines share a mix of local and foreign users/buyers. It has been observed that the major cities such as Manila, Cebu, and Davao are where the concentration of users and buyers of trafficked children could be found. These areas are particularly considered as tourist and business hubs of the country.

Users/buyers could also be classified according to classes, whereby each class differs from the other with respect to their spending capacities for sexual services. Specifically, a recent study by Asia ACTs on child trafficking for sexual purposes in the NCR classified users/customers/buyers into four groups:

- Class A – Foreigners such as Chinese, Koreans, Japanese, or rich local businessmen
- Class B – Local professionals
- Class C – Local drivers (jeepney and bus), farm workers and construction workers
- Class D – Military and police officers who are regular customers but are usually non-paying.

¹⁰⁵UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, loc. cit.
¹⁰⁶San Juan, 26 July 1998.

2.4 THE PUSH AND PULL FACTORS TO CHILD TRAFFICKING

Very few researches approach the child trafficking situation using the push and pull theory. Asia ACTS Against Child Trafficking published in its website¹⁰⁷ a paper that discussed the push and pull factors to child trafficking in the Philippines. Table 2-4 lists these down. The factors were classified as social, cultural, personal or economic. A view of child trafficking using this theory hopes to be able to understand better the more significant contributors to child trafficking in all dimensions, and from the point of view of where that particular contributory factor may be addressed.

Table 2-4 Identified push and pull factors to child trafficking¹⁰⁸

Push factors	Pull Factors
Social/cultural ▪ Social obligation to help and support the family financially ▪ Desire for financial independence ▪ Gender socialization ▪ Pressure from peers ▪ Parent's attitude towards their children ▪ Consumerism/materialism ▪ Desire to be urbanized ▪ Discrimination against ethnic minorities ▪ Work within the city will make skin fairer Personal ▪ Wanting to leave family because of disintegration and/or experience of abuse, neglect and abandonment Economic ▪ The 1997 financial crisis seems to have led to an increase in migration from home to urban areas ▪ Areas where there is poverty, unemployment, underemployment, landlessness, and armed conflict are natural targets for unscrupulous recruitment agencies ▪ When a family can no longer cope with responsibilities due to financial problems they resort to other means in order to meet their basic needs and other requirements in life. ▪ Natural disasters in the area of residence reduced the opportunities for employment and livelihood	Social/cultural ▪ Demand for sexual services created by presence of military servicemen and fulfilled by women (includes girl children) as providers of this service ▪ Demand for virgins as 'safe' sexual providers ▪ Existence of informal network (relatives in the cities acting as referrals for 'jobs') ▪ Desire to keep up with successful neighbours and peers Economic ▪ Opportunity for financial upliftment/ rewards ▪ Demand in the urbanized cities for domestic workers and for children in prostitution ▪ Demand for children in prostitution created by tourist/pedophiles ▪ Demand created by information technology/internet for bride sale/prostitution ▪ Demand for child labourers because they are cheaper and non-problematic in terms of asserting their rights as workers ▪ Greed and lack of respect of the traffickers for basic human rights Political ▪ Policies such as the labour export policy, tourism program and the Visiting Forces Agreement (VFA)

2.4.1 Socio-Cultural Factors

Socio-cultural factors such as values and beliefs play critical aspects in the trafficking of children. Traditional values, such as the sense of family and the obligation to contribute to the family's upkeep, are passed on from parent to children, and become entrenched in the family's belief and

¹⁰⁷<http://www.childprotection.org.ph>
¹⁰⁸"Asia's Children in Peril: A Regional Study of child Trafficking." (Country Profile: Philippines), Asia ACTS, May 2003.

values systems, especially in the rural areas. During hard-pressed times, such belief systems exert pressure on young children to seek work even outside their homes in order to augment family income. A study on child labourers in the agricultural sector reveals that there exists an economic dependence on children, a dependence that is explained by the strong ties distinct in Filipino families. Though already seen as significant, it is factors like these that need to be explored further.

Peer pressure is seen as integral to the decision-making of the trafficked child. Key informant interviews with trafficked children show that they are extremely influenced by their *barkada* to leave their homes for the cities. People who are most proximate to the children are the ones that bear great influence on the child's motivation to work and eventually be trafficked. Members of these kinds of peer groups, who encourage one another to brave work far from their families, share similar experiences at home—parental neglect and dysfunction in the household. Exploitation, abuse, neglect and violence at home push children to leave home and take to the streets, increasing their vulnerability to trafficking.

Interestingly, the desire to be urbanized or to live in progressive urban areas was also one of the common motivations of children who have been trafficked. The myth about having fair skin once an individual lives or works in cities continues to prevail in poor, rural communities. In fact, this myth is widespread in these areas and has been used by recruiters as additional enticement to unsuspecting victims.

Consumerism/materialism and the desire to keep up with successful neighbours could be seen as similar motivations or factors that prevail among households of children who have been trafficked. To cite an example, one of the children interviewed from Samal Island in Davao was emphatic about desiring the same things that her aunt, who worked as an entertainer in Japan, was able to buy. She avers that leaving home and complying with the recruiter's requirements so she could work as a guest relations officer/dancer in Manila were a small price to pay for the material benefits she gained.

2.4.2 Economic Factors

Poverty remains to be the most potent impetus that perpetuates child trafficking. Poor families usually depend on their children for economic support and survival.¹⁰⁹ In turn, some children are forced to drop out of school and seek employment outside their homes, in order for them to contribute to the family's upkeep.

Apart from the economic circumstances pervading the household, the child's decision to work is affected by norms embedded in the community. Mothers from Barangay Sasa in Davao City all agree that working in the entertainment industry in Japan was a viable career for their daughters after high school. The difficulty of securing higher education, the lack of employment opportunities, and the visible benefits to families and the community of having a family member

¹⁰⁹ Del Rosario, 1986; UP-IIR, 1986; Ruiz et. Al., 1986; ILS 1994.

working in Japan all contribute to this shared norm.

The disparity in economic development among regions in the country is another factor that makes child trafficking more pervasive. These destination points are usually key cities in the country like Manila and Cebu. Adults and children migrate to areas where relatively better economic opportunities are available. It is argued that it is also in these areas where situations of exploitation are integrated with viable businesses like tourism, labour recruitment, and the like.

2.4.3 Political Factors

Generally, the "livability" of an area is a reflection of how it is governed. The existence and stability of political structures, especially those that promote the rights of the citizens are important considerations. Access to basic social services, the presence of technologies, and the general openness of the community to growth and development affect the state of well being and lifestyles of individuals and families.

Corruption also significantly affects the vulnerability of an area towards trafficking. It is a facilitating condition especially where key duty bearers are those who protect or tolerate the illegal operations of traffickers.

2.4.4 Geographic Factors

In addition to physical location, topography, and the area's development potentials, access to and availability of transport clearly affect the possibilities of trafficking for a child. Distance from what is perceived to be a more attractive area—thriving businesses, social and economic activities, tourism, and existing opportunities for growth—can both deter and prevent migration and trafficking. The wise trafficker would prefer to recruit from far-flung areas where the assumptions are: people are not very aware of their rights and the law; they do not know the dangers in the urban areas nor the possible harm that may come to them; news and communication from the city is difficult, if at all present; and more importantly, it would be difficult for the trafficked child to go back home in case they do not want to proceed with the arrangements. On the other hand, distance is a deterrent to children and their families—transportation to the more progressive areas may be difficult, if at all available, or the cost is high.

2.5 THE LITERATURE REVIEW IN RETROSPECT

By and large, literature on child trafficking remains at the level of estimating numbers, using case studies to determine such information as the profile of trafficked children and their families, with some attempts at explaining the social, political and economic contexts of trafficking. Other studies describe factors that contribute to the vulnerabilities of potential victims of trafficking.

There seems to be enough data to make certain generalizations about the profiles of trafficked children and their families. What may need to be strengthened would be information about the

communities—the social, political, economic, and cultural conditions that would favour or disfavour the occurrence of trafficking. Ex ante strategies to solve the child trafficking problem would benefit from a contextualization of the conditions surrounding a potential victim.

Trafficking has also developed mechanisms and processes where even the parents or guardians of children are brought into the system willfully or unpremeditatedly. Though several modus operandi are known, very little is known about the psychology of the trafficker. What is certain is that poverty, whether of a sense of moral values and human responsibility, or the desire for material satisfaction, is a key condition that remains a push factor. Interestingly, this also applies to the child, the family, and the community, as much as it does to the trafficker.

Other vulnerability factors which are often invisible, such as violence against and abuse of children including incest, patriarchal values and traditional culture, are yet to be fully explored. Parents and communities are sometimes unwitting instruments of traffickers. Government agencies are either under-resourced to handle situations of child trafficking, or are insensitive to child sexual exploitation, often adopting a victim-blaming approach.

The need to use a gender-responsive and human rights perspective in the conduct of studies on children and trafficking could very well give new insights into the complex push-and-pull factors that affect children who are being trafficked or have the potential to be trafficked.

Trafficking, being a criminal activity, will always lack sufficient documentation. Its complexity will also require a continuous investigation of all its dimensions. This will always remain a challenge to social scientists as much as it will to individuals and institutions who seek to eliminate it as a social problem and address its consequences.

It is interesting to note that in all the aspects of child trafficking, there is very little difference between the Philippine situation and those of other countries in the world. The same situations prevail. Similar processes are employed. The same destructive effects are felt by the children and the society to which they belong.

3. THE CHILD TRAFFICKING VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT MODEL

The likelihood of a child becoming a victim of trafficking is determined by diverse factors ranging from individual/family-specific to community, economic, socio-cultural, political, geographic, and perhaps more. The modus operandi of child trafficking groups is just as varied. This part of the study intends to come up with a tool that, considering key dimensions and parameters, will aid in determining the probability of the occurrence of child trafficking within an area. It is expected that this tool will contribute to the design of interventions that are better placed at the more critical points along the child trafficking continuum.

3.1 OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE OF STUDY

Child trafficking has been shown to involve recruitment, transport, harboring and sale of children, generally for the purpose of employment, whether legal or illegal. Trafficking itself being illegal, it is generally carried out in a covert manner, through deception, violence, threat, kidnapping, and other similar acts. In the end, the child finds himself or herself in exploitative conditions. The vulnerability of a child and a child's family to the enticements and processes of trafficking are discussed here from a labour perspective and on the basis of published material on the topic.



The supply of children willing to work in places away from the family is seen as the outcome of a household decision-making process. In this view, the household comes to a series of sequential or hierarchical decisions ending on whether or not to send or allow a child to leave home for work. The complex decision-making process is simplified into two stages. In the first stage the household decides whether the child will work or not. This is the child labour supply decision. In the second stage, the household decides whether the child will stay home or leave. This is the migration decision. The decision to migrate may intersect with recruitment of children for employment, leading to the phenomenon of child trafficking. This intersection indicates vulnerability to child recruitment or child trafficking.

Vulnerability assessment aims to identify the best indicators of community vulnerability to child trafficking. These indicators may be individual, household, or community attributes that are

significantly related to the probability of a child becoming a trafficking victim. The objective here is to put together these indicators into a composite indicator or index that could serve as a measure of the vulnerability of communities or areas to child trafficking.

3.2 THE DETERMINANTS FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING IN THE PHILIPPINES

To achieve its objective, this study uses the net benefit framework of migration. It highlights the economic determinants of the decision to migrate, including labour market conditions in the place of origin and destination, moving costs, information costs, uncertainties, and so on. The model also explains the way the child recruiter operates. The recruiter induces the household to send a child to work in another place by raising its calculation of the net benefits of migration. He/she gives a promise of employment in the city or another country, the offer to advance the cost of transportation, or to leave the family the equivalent of a month's salary or two. The recruiter thus bridges the gap between home, the current location of the child, and the potential trafficking destination. Known to the community, he or she recruits from among neighbours and relatives. Travel is done in groups or batches, thereby allaying fears and easing uncertainties of both parent and child.



A child begging in the streets of Manila

In the absence of observations on children trafficked for employment, this modeling discussion relies on observations of children working and living away from home. Data on children living away from home comes from the 2001 Child Labour Survey, a nationally representative survey conducted by the National Statistics Office. While not a perfect indicator of child trafficking victims, children living away from home are likely to include among them victims of trafficking.

The study finds several individual (the child), household and community characteristics as important indicators of vulnerability to child trafficking. At the individual level, gender (being female) and age are positive indicators of vulnerability. Household wealth, educational attainment of members, and the number of children are significant determinants of vulnerability at the household level. At the community level, the region of residence, the income class of the town or city, and the underemployment rate are important indicators of vulnerability to child trafficking.

What follows is a brief survey of the available literature on child trafficking in the Philippines, from the perspective of migration and working children living away from home. This is followed by a discussion of the net benefit model of migration, which serves as the starting point of our discussion on determinants of vulnerability to child trafficking. The characteristics of working children living away from home are then examined by comparing them with working children staying at home using simple statistical tables. Regression analysis using the probit model is employed to estimate a model of vulnerability to child trafficking. The model measures the impact of each of the determinants of vulnerability on the probability of a household member becoming a victim of child trafficking.

In the Philippines, the extent and magnitude of child trafficking for employment is not known. Previous studies refer to the number of children living away from home as indicative of the magnitude of the problem. The 1995 Survey of Working Children conducted by the NSO estimated that some 410,000 children were living away from home. Of this number, 191,000 were working. A subsequent survey in 2001 counted some 240,000 such children, which shows a rather significant decline from the level six years before. Of this number, 147,000 were working; the rest were either studying or combined work with study. While the survey did not obtain information on how the children left home, it is likely that this subset of the children population includes victims of child trafficking.

Most of the studies done cite that majority of trafficked children are between 14 and 17 years old, the upper age bracket of children, and therefore indicative of initiation into the working age population. Girls make up the majority of documented victims owing, mostly likely, to the demand for domestic or service sector workers, including sex workers. The female bias for trafficked children is in contrast to the dominance of males among working children in general.¹

The literature points to some household-level determinants of child trafficking. Parental education and occupation, household resources, and the number of children appear to be highly correlated with child trafficking. Parents of victims have low educational attainment, reaching only elementary or high school level. Given poor educational background, most parents are either unemployed or work in non-regular, low-paying jobs. Children are expected to augment a grossly inadequate household income.

It has also been observed that most child victims come from big families with five or more siblings. Big family size is partly explained by lack of information on or access to family planning methods. The cultural value of children as family treasures may also be a factor. Many times, a big family size is also a strategy employed by poor households to increase the number of potential income-earners. In any case, a big family exerts

¹NSO, 1995.

additional pressure on already meager household resources, pushing the household to send children out for gainful work.

Community characteristics also come into play. Field observations show that the majority of victims came from poor areas in the Visayas and Mindanao. This points to the importance of community attributes—level of economic development, the incidence and intensity of poverty, availability of employment opportunities, the presence of public infrastructure (roads, schools, utilities, health centres, etc), distance, the level of government spending, and so on—as determinants of child trafficking.

Case studies, however, go beyond the demographic and economic determinants of child trafficking. They also explore the social and cultural environment within the family as well as the larger community in which the phenomenon claims its victims. These studies also trace the process, the perilous journey, so to speak, that child victims go through, and the deep and long-term consequences on victims.

3.2.1 Some Theoretical Considerations

We begin with a basic migration model as given below in Equation 1. In this model, vulnerability V_p is a function of the present value of the net benefits of sending a child to work away from home, which, in the case of child trafficking, means sending the child with the recruiter.

The net benefit of working away from home is evaluated by the household or the child, depending on who is making the decision on whether to go with the recruiter. For brevity, it is assumed that the household makes the decision.

Essentially, the household will allow the child to go if it sees that, on the whole, the gains or benefits from migrating (expected earning, exposure, learning and experience) will be more than the total cost that will be incurred: expenses needed for documentation and other physical preparations, transport (financial costs) as well as the emotional and psychological pain of leaving the family (psychological costs). This is presented below,

Equation 1.

$$V_p = \sum_{i=1}^T \frac{(E_2 - E_1)}{(1+i)^i} - \sum_{i=1}^T \frac{C}{(1+i)^i} - (Z_c - Z_b) \quad V_p = \sum_{i=1}^T \frac{(E_2 - E_1)}{(1+i)^i} - \sum_{i=1}^T \frac{C}{(1+i)^i} - (Z_c - Z_b)$$

where

V_p is the present value of net benefits from migration, E_1 is the expected earnings in the place of origin, E_2 is the expected earnings in the place of destination, i refers to the

discount rate, n the years over which costs and benefits will accrue, C is the cost of moving, Z_c the psychological costs of moving and Z_b are the psychological benefits.

As the equation shows, the present value of the net benefits of sending a child away is the sum of three considerations: the expected earnings differential, the monetary cost, and the net psychological costs of migration. The model applies the familiar cost-benefit analysis to child migration. Manipulation of the equation will show that a positive value of V_p is obtained if the benefits outweigh the costs. It implies that the expected earnings gain exceeds the combined monetary and net psychological costs. If the present value of the net benefits is positive, the household will agree to the recruiter's offer. If V_p is negative, which means that monetary and net psychological costs exceed the potential earnings differential, then the household will not agree and the child will stay.

We assume a two-step decision-making process on the part of the household. In the first step, the household decides whether a child will work or not. That is, the household decides whether it will supply child labour. In the second step, the household decides whether the working child will stay at home or leave home. Leaving home for work implies agreeing to the child recruiter's offer of employment in another place. This assumption of a two-step decision-making process facilitates analysis of the data (comparative analysis of working children at home and working children living away from home; regression analysis using probit model).

The two-step process also highlights a crucial aspect of the analysis. That is, child trafficking or the recruitment of children for employment differs from child labour and migration in important ways, but the socio-economic forces driving these phenomena are closely related. Indeed, child trafficking is probably fueled by the same forces in their extreme form. Poverty is at the root of the phenomenon of child labour; extreme poverty forces families to send a child or two with a recruiter whose nefarious activities are often an open secret to the community.

3.2.2 Applying the Equation: Practical Considerations

Interpreted broadly, the basic model explains some aspects of child trafficking. The first term of the equation refers to the discounted (or present value) annual earnings (or wage) differential ($E_2 - E_1$) between leaving and staying home. It is worthwhile delving into the term.

First of all, the earnings gap is an expected value being the difference between two expected value terms, E_2 and E_1 . E_2 , the earnings in the place of *destination* is the product of the probability of finding a job and the wage rate there. The household's estimate of the expected earnings may diverge from the "true value" as a result of the lack of information or possession of wrong information. For example, the child may not be told the true amount that she/he will receive in wages. Likewise, the child may not be informed of the contractual or short-term nature of employment and the difficulty of

finding another job. At the time of recruitment, however, it is expectations of the wage level and the certainty or uncertainty of landing a job that enter into the household's calculation.

By contrast, the wage rate in the area of origin is known with some certainty by the household. Still, the earnings in the place of *origin* are a function of the probability of finding work and the wage rate in the area. Low-wage areas are therefore more vulnerable to trafficking. In the same manner, the lack of job opportunities at home contributes to the vulnerability to child trafficking.

Secondly, sending a child away for employment involves risk-taking on the part of the household. Compared with the working child at home, sending a child away for employment is a "high-risk, high-return" proposition. Families of children living away from home are not unaware of the dangers involved. Success stories exist side by side with sob stories. Given few, if any, other opportunities to improve their lot, poor households are willing to take the risk and become vulnerable to child recruiters.

The second term of the equation refers to the discounted monetary costs of migrating. Transportation cost is one major cost; recruitment fee could be another. Transportation cost depends on the distance of travel and the mode of transport. High transportation cost reduces the net benefits of moving, hence discourages migration. There is, however, another side to distance. In the case of child trafficking, physical distance and the cost of transportation may increase vulnerability to trafficking by making it difficult for victims to escape from their employers or recruiters in the face of intolerable working conditions.

The final term refers to the net psychological gains from migration. Psychological costs in the case of children leaving home for employment are enormous. Leaving the care of parents, the comfort of family and friends, and being subjected to inhuman conditions of employment at an early age can have serious long-term effects on personal development. Leaving for an unknown destination entails psychological costs. But there are also psychological gains from living away from home such as getting away from violence or abuse at home. The social prestige attached by the community to living or working in the city or in another country is another important psychological benefit.

The recruiter plays a central role in child trafficking by facilitating the movement and employment of children. In this framework, the recruiter aims to raise the *perceived* net benefits from migration by manipulating the terms in the equation. For example, false promises of jobs other than what actually awaits new recruits raises the probability of getting hired and the expected earnings from the new job. The recruiter targets poor areas where job opportunities are scarce and wages are low. The low opportunity cost of labour in such areas make menial, low-paying jobs in the city look attractive.

Usually, the recruiter shoulders the cost of transportation. This may be deducted from the child's earnings, but it removes a major cost of moving. Familiarity with the recruiter, who is often a relative or member of the local community, reduces the psychological costs of migrating. The new recruit's fears of an unknown destination is further allayed by the fact that he or she is traveling with a group composed of friends and other familiar faces. By reducing the monetary and psychological costs of moving, the recruiter reduces the decision to a calculus of the annual earnings differential. In this sense, socio-economic factors explain much of child trafficking. Grinding poverty and the lack of prospects of a better future ensure that child trafficking persists. Natural calamities and wars that dislocate families and entire communities drive children into the arms of traffickers.

Various factors besides the annual earnings differential influence the discounted present value of the total earnings and costs streams and thereby affect the present value of the net benefit and the decision of the household to send a child away for employment. These factors or determinants of child trafficking may fall into three groups: individual characteristics such as age, gender, educational attainment, position among siblings, and so on; household characteristics including resource levels, parent's educational attainment, labour status of household members; and community characteristics, among them, distance from major migration destinations, level of economic development, the size of government, and so on. Identifying these determinants and quantifying their relative importance are the objectives of the exercise that follows.

To identify the determinants and quantify their relative importance, two methodologies are employed. The first is a comparative analysis using simple tabulations of the individual and household attributes of working children staying at home and working children living away from home. The second employs regression analysis using the probit model to identify the determinants of child trafficking and to estimate the marginal effects of these determinants on the probability of child trafficking.

3.3 DATA AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The impact of individual, household, and community characteristics on whether a child works and lives away from home, our proxy for a trafficked child, is examined. Individual and household characteristics are drawn from two household surveys: the 2001 Survey of Children (SOC) and the October 2001 Labour Force Survey (LFS). The 2001 SOC is a nationwide survey of children five to 17 years old, which monitors the existence of child labour.

Figure 3-1 shows how a region fares against others with respect to the proportions of working children and those who live away from their respective homes. The region with the highest percentage of working children is Region IV, at 11 percent, followed closely by Region VII at 10 percent and Regions V, VIII, and XI, all at nine percent. A

comparison of these values with the regional poverty ranking (Table 2-2), shows that for Region V, the second poorest region, and which also shows the highest percentage (13 percent) of children who live away from home, poverty may be the single most important factor. For Region IV, the third richest region, to have the highest percentage of working children, employment opportunities may possibly be determining. The poorest region, ARMM, registers only two percent of working children and 1 percent of children living away from home. Cultural considerations may contribute to the reluctance of ARMM parents to let their children work, more so live away from home.

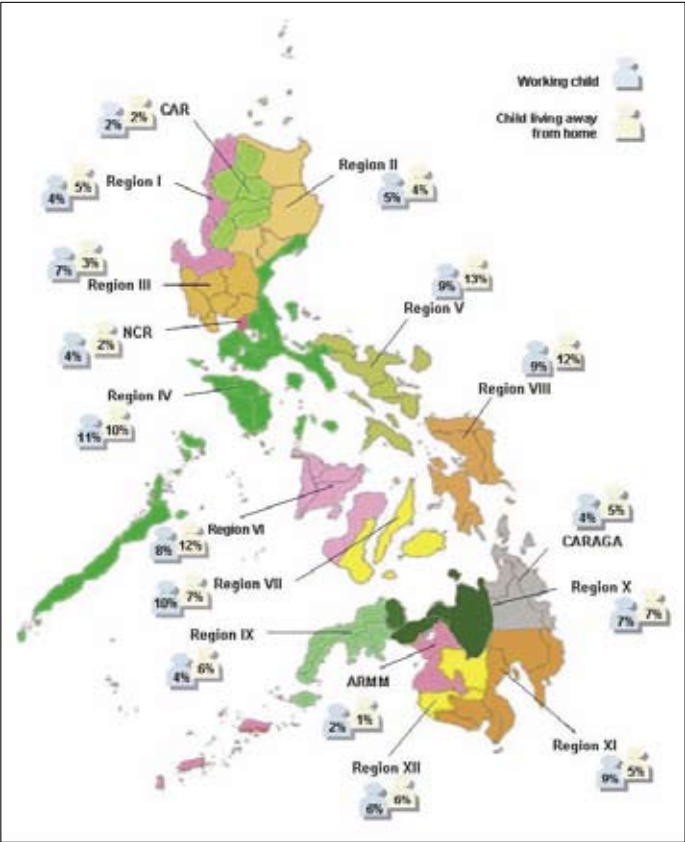


Figure 3-1 Regional distribution of working children and children living away from home

The details of the regional distribution of working children are presented in Table 3-1. The majority of both groups come from rural areas; they also come from the same regions, mainly those in the Visayas and Mindanao. Bicol accounts for the largest regional share of children living away from home—roughly 37,000 or 13 percent of the total. It is one of only two regions in Luzon (the other being Cagayan Valley) whose share of working children exceeds its share of the children population, 8.6 percent versus 7.1 percent. Western and Eastern Visayas are regions whose share of children living away from home is significantly higher than its share of working children, suggesting a combination of low incomes and lack of employment opportunities in those regions.

The 2001 SOC provides information on the size and key characteristics of working children—their working conditions, home and school activities—as well as information

Table 3-1 Regional distribution of working children

Region	Working Children		Living Away from Home	
	Number	% share	Number	% share
I Ilocos	155,547	4%	13,344	5%
II Cagayan Valley	201,993	5%	10,280	4%
III Central Luzon	262,010	7%	8,148	3%
IV Southern Luzon	461,201	11%	27,967	10%
V Bicol	344,201	9%	36,813	13%
VI Western Visayas	327,466	8%	33,927	12%
VII Central Visayas	388,409	10%	20,454	7%
VIII Eastern Visayas	349,050	9%	34,333	12%
IX Western Mindanao	166,143	4%	18,034	6%
X Northern Mindanao	293,847	7%	19,465	7%
XI Southern Mindanao	341,691	9%	13,898	5%
XII Central Mindanao	232,337	6%	16,195	6%
NCR	168,096	4%	4,411	2%
CAR	64,553	2%	5,728	2%
ARMM	85,311	2%	2,173	1%
CARAGA	176,031	4%	15,012	5%
Total	4,017,886	100%	280,182	100%

demographic and economic characteristics, labour force participation, employment status, occupation, industry group, hours worked, and so on. Using the same sampling design (although the SOC uses a smaller sample than the LFS), the two databases were merged so that information on children and households in the SOC can be matched with the labour market characteristics of the household head and spouse contained in the LFS.

The LFS data was also used to compute underemployment rates at the provincial level, a key community variable based on the migration model discussed above. Other community characteristics come from the Commission on Audit (COA), which tracks the income and expenditures of local government units (LGUs), and the Department of Budget and Management (DBM), which classifies the country’s provinces and municipalities into six income classes based on average LGU revenue. Municipal/city level data on LGU expenditures on basic social services as well as LGU income class were matched with household location in the SOC.

Subject to data availability, this fiscal profile of communities can be expanded to include barangay characteristics such as the presence of basic infrastructure and facilities, as well as the number and type of establishments, both private and public. This type of information can be extracted from the 2000 Census of Population and Housing (CPH). Studies show that community characteristics such as the household location (region, province) and the type and number of public and private establishments in the community are good indicators of household welfare, a major determinant, no doubt, of the presence of child labour and trafficking.

on household socio-economic characteristics, children living away from home, and awareness of child recruitment and of government programs concerning children and family. It has a national sample of 26,964 households, some 104,000 household members, including 462 children living away from home.

Labour market characteristics, including educational attainment of the household head and spouse, come from the October 2001 LFS. The LFS contains information on over 200,000 individuals, including

3.3.1 Comparative Analysis of Working Children at Home and Those Living Away from Home

The net benefit model discussed previously, with its two-stage decision-making process, supports the observation that there are two groups of concern: children who are allowed or asked to work by their families, and children who live away from home. These two groups are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

The relevant decision on the part of the households that is linked with trafficking is whether the child works at home or away from home. This decision is based on factors that impact on the household’s comparative valuation of the benefits from the two options. Put differently, the factors that affect the household’s decision to send a child away from home to work—in other words, the determinants of child migration—differ from the determinants of child labour.

This much is clear from the sequential household decision-making outlined above. In the second step, the household decides between a *working* child staying or leaving home. This means that to identify the determinants of child migration, we can compare the characteristics of working children living away from home compared with their counterparts at home. This section compares the individual and household characteristics of working children away from home vis-à-vis working children at home.

Table 3-2 Individual characteristics of working children

Characteristics	Working Children		Living Away from Home	
	Number	% share	Number	% share
Total	4,017,886	100%	280,182	100%
Gender				
Male	2,547,666	63%	104,494	37%
Female	1,470,220	37%	175,687	63%
Highest grade completed				
No grade	115,741	3%	8,277	3%
Elementary level	1,608,268	40%	90,664	32%
Elementary graduate	712,850	18%	55,359	20%
HS level	1,291,346	32%	81,737	29%
HS graduate	258,827	6%	41,234	15%
College undergraduate	30,855	1%	2,911	1%
Age				
5	3,998	0%	762	0%
6	22,467	1%	2,182	1%
7	33,924	1%	1,029	0%
8	73,404	2%	4,586	2%
9	112,534	3%	5,977	2%
10	228,524	6%	10,141	4%
11	310,936	8%	10,200	4%
12	382,734	10%	16,931	6%
13	468,900	12%	21,954	8%
14	543,145	14%	26,072	9%
15	579,971	14%	31,603	11%
16	649,121	16%	62,677	22%
17	608,229	15%	86,068	31%
Urbanity				
Urban	1,212,868	30%	76,535	27%
Rural	2,805,019	70%	203,647	73%

3.3.2 Individual Characteristics

According to the 2001 SOC, there were over four million working children (five to 17 years old) in the country that year. The same survey reports 280,182 children living away from home. Of this number, 47 percent (132,562) were studying, or were studying and working at the same time. The rest, 53 percent, were either working or looking for work.

Table 3-2 presents the profile of working children at home and away from home. There are important differences between these two groups. First, girls comprise the majority, 63 percent, of children living away from home. The opposite mix obtains for working children living with their families: 63 percent were boys. The predominance of females among children living away from home may be a function of the nature of jobs in demand, mainly, domestic work and jobs in the service sector.

Second, children living away from home tend to be older than working children at home. Thus, children living away from home are likely to 15 years old or older. By contrast, working children are likely to be below 15 years of age. Besides job requirements, the risks involved in working in another place favour older children.

Children living away from home appear to have higher educational attainment. For example, 15 percent of children who left home finished high school, compared with six percent of working children. The proportion of those with only elementary education was lower among children living away from home than working children, 32 percent versus 40 percent. Closer inspection, however, shows that this

Table 3-3. Highest grade completed within the household

Grade Level	With working child		With children living away from home	
	Households	% share	Households	% share
No grade	7,931	0.3	-	-
Elementary level	209,896	7.8	38,643	15.7
Elementary graduate	363,523	13.4	41,059	16.7
High school level	659,590	24.4	63,627	25.9
High school graduate	735,427	27.2	57,078	23.2
College undergraduate	452,160	16.7	24,826	10.1
College graduate	274,745	10.2	20,683	8.4
All households	2,703,272	100.0	245,916	100.0

Table 3-4 Number of children per household

Number of children	With working child		With children living away from home	
	Households	% share	Households	% share
0	90,189	3.3	-	-
1	219,334	8.1	2,828	1.2
2	349,407	12.9	20,101	8.2
3	498,064	18.4	44,799	18.2
4	539,614	20.0	53,804	21.9
5	393,798	14.6	38,999	15.9
6	315,345	11.7	44,590	18.1
7	156,846	5.8	23,454	9.5
> 7	140,674	5.2	17,340	7.1
Total	2,703,271	100.0	245,913	100.0

pattern is largely a function of age. Because children living away from home are older, they also have higher educational background compared with children at home who are younger, hence have lower educational background.

3.3.3 Household Characteristics

Household characteristics indicate the level of resources available to the household, an important determinant of the decision to supply child labour, as well as knowledge of key decision-makers of the implications of certain decisions on the welfare of household members. By and large, the data confirms what is known about the household characteristics of trafficked children.

Table 3-3 confirms the observation that victims of child trafficking come from families with poor educational background as shown by data on highest grade completed among members of the same household. For example, 32 percent of children living away from home come from households where members have at best elementary education, compared with 21 percent of working children.

Only 19 percent of children living away from home came from households where a household member reached college. By comparison, 27 percent of working children came from households with at least one member reaching college. Poor educational background indicates lack of awareness among key decision-makers such as the parents, of the consequences of children living

Table 3-5 Labour market characteristics of household head and spouse

Employment Status	With working child		With children living away from home	
	Households	% share	Households	% share
Employment status of household head				
Employed	8,755,375	87.4	227,820	93.3
Not employed	1,258,022	12.6	16,246	6.7
Unemployed	393,287	3.9	10,138	4.2
Not in the labour force	864,735	8.6	6,108	2.5
Total	10,013,397	100.0	244,066	100.0
Employment status of spouse				
Employed	4,520,935	53.1	132,982	64.4
Not employed	3,998,959	46.9	73,561	35.6
Unemployed	206,043	2.4	6,008	2.9
Not in the labour force	3,792,916	44.5	67,553	32.7
Total	8,519,894	100.0	206,543	100.0
Underemployment status of household head				
Underemployed	1,741,481	19.9	74,561	32.7
Not underemployed	7,013,894	80.1	153,259	67.3
Total	8,755,375	100.0	227,820	100.0
Underemployment status of spouse				
Underemployed	642,372	14.2	30,166	22.7
Not underemployed	3,878,563	85.8	102,816	77.3
Total	4,520,935	100.0	132,982	100.0
Underemployment status of both parents				
Underemployed	412,251	4.0	19,566	8.0
Not underemployed	9,783,909	96.0	226,347	92.0
Total	10,196,160	100.0	245,913	100.0

away from home in order to work. It is also an indicator of employment opportunities open to household members, initially in their original places of residence. The low educational attainment within the household which characterizes children living away from home is in contrast to the relatively high educational background of these children as noted previously. It suggests that leaving home to find work elsewhere is a strategy to escape the grinding poverty at home, which is partly due to the low educational attainment of the parents. But even this strategy is open only to children with relatively higher educational attainment.

Table 3-4 supports the observation that trafficked children come from large families. Households with four or more children account for 73 percent of children living away from home, compared with 57 percent for working children. The high number of children in the household exerts a tremendous pressure on resources, pushing even young household members to look for work. At the same time, this makes it easier for the household to send children away to look for employment without disrupting household production.

Interestingly, the data does not seem to support the observation that the parents of trafficked children are likely to be unemployed as can be seen in Table 3-5. Indeed, the employment rate is higher among households with children living away from home than households with working children, 93 percent versus 87 percent. This is true for both household head and spouse and should not be a surprise: it has been argued that the poor cannot afford to be unemployed, thus they take up any manner of job available to support their families.

What the data show is that underemployment is much higher among households with children living away from home than those with working children. This holds true for spouses as well. Moreover, both parents of children living away from home are twice

Table 3-6 Housing conditions

Indicators	With working child		With children living away from home		All	
	Households	% share	Households	% share	Households	% share
Housing made of strong materials	1,106,508	40.9	79,965	32.5	5,418,582	51.9
With access to tap water	1,013,765	37.5	84,925	34.5	4,954,895	47.5
With flush toilet or pit latrine	2,068,049	76.5	167,479	68.1	8,874,154	85.0
With access to electricity	1,684,990	62.3	128,966	52.4	8,069,470	77.3
Without radio nor tv	516,063	19.1	75,930	30.9	1,312,604	12.6
All households	2,703,272	100.0	245,913	100.0	10,442,073	100.0

more likely to be underemployed than parents of working children.

Data on housing conditions show that while working children come from poor households, children living away from home tend to come from the poorest of the poor. Table 3-6 presents the data on housing conditions and selected asset ownership. In the first four indicators of household wealth, the latter consistently show poorer conditions.

Table 3-7 Average household monthly expenditure

Monthly Expenditure PhP	With working child		With children living away from home		All Households	
	Number	% share	Number	% share	Number	% share
Less than 2,000	296,415	11	34,655	14	798,086	8
2,000-2,999	497,119	18	64,405	26	1,448,794	14
3,000-4,999	816,291	30	81,898	33	2,859,094	27
5,000-9,999	728,995	27	46,290	19	3,050,686	29
10,000-14,999	229,401	8	13,650	6	1,338,017	13
15,000 and over	135,051	5	5,015	2	947,395	9
Total	2,703,272	100	245,913	100	10,442,073	100

Table 3-7 presents the distribution of households by average monthly expenditure. Again the data shows that children living away from home tend to come from the poorest households. 40 percent of households with children living away from home have monthly expenditures below PhP 3,000 in 2001, compared with 30 percent of households with working children and 22 percent of all households.

Children living away from home, however, tend to contribute a larger share to family income than their counterparts at home as shown in Table 3-8. Thus, 39 percent of the former contribute at least 10 percent of family income, compared with 22 percent of working children.

Finally, Table 3-9 shows that households with working children and with children living away from home are more aware of the recruitment of five to 17-year-old children in their locality than the general population. This may suggest actual experience with recruitment among the former group of households. But there seems to be no significant difference between households with working children and those with children living

Table 3-9 Awareness of recruitment and government programs

Response	With Working Child		With Children Living Away From Home		All Households	
	Number	% share	Number	% share	Number	% share
Aware of recruitment?						
Yes	457,235	17	42,471	17	1,150,532	11
No	2,246,038	83	203,442	83	9,291,541	89
Total	2,703,272	100	245,913	100	10,442,073	100
Aware of government programs?						
Yes	1,573,654	58	140,428	57	5,850,817	56
No	1,129,618	42	105,485	43	4,591,257	44
Total	2,703,272	100	245,913	100	10,442,073	100

away from home. These patterns hold true in terms of awareness of government programs for children.

Two conclusions can be drawn from a comparative analysis of the individual and household characteristics of working children and children living away from home.

The first is that, save for one or two observations, the profile drawn from the 2001 SOC used in this study largely conforms to what is known about trafficked children based on field and case studies. This gives us some level of confidence that children living away from home can be used as a good proxy for trafficked children.

The second conclusion that clearly emerges from the analysis is that absence of a child from home for reasons of employment is associated with extreme poverty. Working away from home at a young age is possibly a household and individual strategy to escape grinding poverty. It is a strategy, however, that is subject to certain minimum requirements in terms of age, education, and even gender.

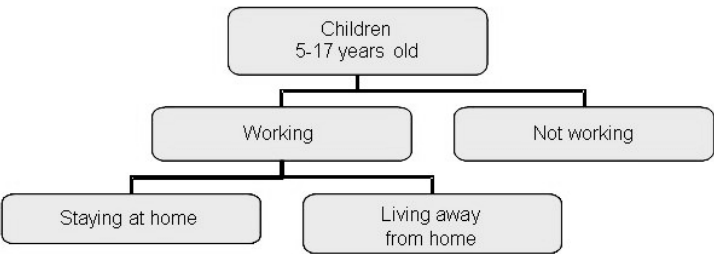
3.4 REGRESSION ANALYSIS: THE SUPPLY OF TRAFFICKED CHILDREN

Child trafficking for employment in this study is modeled as part of a household decision-making process regarding the supply of child labour in general. Decisions are thought of as being made in a sequential or hierarchical manner. For our purposes, the otherwise complex decision-making process is simplified into a two-stage process. First, the household decides whether the child will work or not. Then it decides whether the child will stay home or leave. The sequential probit model is employed to capture the sequential decision-making process.

Figure 3-2 shows the schematics for the sequential probit regression. For example, children between 5 and 17 years of age can be divided between those who are working and those who are not working. From these observations, one can estimate the probability of a child working for employment. This is the first stage of the household decision-making process.

In turn, working children can be subdivided into those living at home and those living away from home. The latter is our proxy for trafficked children. Using this subpopulation (working children), we can estimate the probability of a child living away from home. Only this second stage is modeled in this study. The dependent variable equals unity if the child is living away from home and working. Children working and studying at the same time are not considered potentially trafficked children. Explanatory or independent variables are the individual, household, and community characteristics of the sample children.

Figure 3-2 Schematics for sequential probit regression



The present task is to determine which of these independent variables actually affect the decision for a child to work away from home. Details of the discussion on regression analysis of the data are shown in Annex B. Table B-1 in this Annex lists down all the independent variables that are explored. The sample size for this estimate was reduced to 6,648 observations with the removal of observations with incomplete data.

3.4.1 Regression Results

The results of the second regression are presented in Table B-2, also shown in Annex B. The dependent variable is the status of the working child. It takes a value of 1 if the working child is living away from home.

3.4.1.1 Individual Characteristics

The results identify several significant explanatory variables. First, the child’s gender is highly significant, a pattern that was also gleaned from the tabular analysis in the previous section. Being a girl raises the probability of leaving home by as much as 2.7 percent relative to being a boy. Among working children, the probability of a child living away from home is around 1.3 percent. Thus, being a girl doubles the probability of living away from home.

As noted above, the preference for girls may be due to the type of work largely available in major urban areas, namely, domestic and service sector work. With few job opportunities for girls at home, an offer of employment for a girl in a low paying job in another place is viewed by the family as significant compared to staying at home unemployed.

Second, the child’s age is positively related to the probability of leaving home for work. All else equal, the older the child, the more likely he or she migrates. A 10 percent increase in the child’s age (say from 14 to 15.4) raises the probability by 0.8 percent, a 60 percent increase given the 1.3 percent overall probability of living away from home. This is not surprising considering that the age of children in our sample ranges between 10 and 17. Note that the peak age in our sample, which is the end of high school, marks the start of job shopping. Age may also be related to the demands of the job, thereby raising the earnings differential. For example, younger children command lower pay than older ones. Age may also relate to the ability to cope with the risks and adversities facing trafficked children, thus reducing the psychological costs of migrating.

Third, the child’s educational attainment is not a significant determinant of the probability of a child living away from home. Put differently, the child’s educational attainment does not matter as long as she is of the right age. This is not the same as saying that schooling deters child migration. Unfortunately, the data on the educational attainment of the working children does not allow us to test this hypothesis. The survey does not provide information on whether the child attended school at the time the decision to leave home was made.

3.4.1.2 Household Characteristics

Household characteristics turn up among the major predictors of a child leaving home. Household wealth is a major predictor. Wealth is measured by an index of ownership of household durables and assets, housing characteristics, and access to basic utilities. Being in the second poorest group raises the probability of a child leaving home by 3.5 percent relative to being in the richest decline. That is, it raises by almost three times the overall probability of child migration. Likewise being in the poorest 20 percent of households increases this probability by a significant 2.9 percent compared to being in the richest 20 percent of households.

Extreme poverty makes sending a child away for work a very attractive proposition. For one, it raises the household’s valuation of small wage differentials. For another, it raises the household’s discount rate, and in turn, increases the present value of the wage differential. Thus, small remittances become extremely valuable to the household.

The number of children in the family is another major indicator of vulnerability. Households with five or more children are extremely vulnerable. On the one hand, a large brood exerts tremendous pressure on already scarce household resources. On the

other, it ensures that household tasks left by the migrating child are taken up by a sibling, minimizing dislocation within the household. Combined with poverty, a large family makes the household highly vulnerable to child trafficking.

The third significant household indicator of vulnerability to child migration is the educational background of the household. The presence of a household member (other than the child) with a high school education significantly reduces the probability of a child working away from home. This may be related to the economic status of the household: educational attainment is a major determinant of the economic status of the household. Higher educational background also implies greater awareness of the risks and difficulties of migrating for employment.

Labour market characteristics of the household head or spouse do not appear to be significantly related to the likelihood of child migration. As expected, households headed by unemployed persons are likely to have children living away from home, but this relationship is not statistically significant. The same holds with respect to the spouse. Likewise, households headed by waged workers are less likely to send a child away, but then again this is not statistically significant. The variable head works in industry has the wrong sign, i.e. we would expect those working in industry to be better off, hence they are less likely to have children living away.

Labour market variables at the household level deserve a second look. It may be the case that the category unemployed is hardly appropriate for poor families. It has been noted, for example, that the poor are more likely to be underemployed rather than unemployed. Poor households cannot afford to remain unemployed; hence they are likely to take up any activity to make a living. Finally, the awareness of recruitment of children or government programs for children does not have an impact on the likelihood of a child living away from home.

3.4.1.3 Community Characteristics

Two community variables emerge as significant predictors of the presence of a child living away from home. The first is the region of residence. Residing in Regions VIII, IX and I raise the likelihood of a child living away from home. Regions VIII and IX are known sending areas of child internal migrants, but not Region I. It should also be noted that Region IX has been described as the fifth poorest province, while Region VIII the sixth. It has been implied in previous discussions that poverty, measured at the regional level, may not be the only or the most important factor to child trafficking. Since the dummy variables in this regression analysis represent several regional characteristics, it is important to identify those characteristics. Poverty, joblessness, high drop out rates (measured at the community level, i.e. provincial level at least), and geographical factors such as distance to the major destinations should be related to the probability of a child living away from home.

The underemployment rate at the province of origin is positively related to child migration and is significant. A 10 percent increase in the underemployment rate (say from the 20 percent, which is the average rate, to 22 percent) raises the probability of a child living away from home by 15 percent. Poor households cannot afford to be unemployed, hence they are likely to take up any job to support their families. In such a situation, underemployment is a better indicator of labour market conditions.

The other significant determinant of child migration is the income class of the municipality or city in which the household resides. Income class is based on fiscal revenues of the local government and could therefore represent the level of development and the size of government. First class local governments are the richest and sixth class the poorest. The coefficient of the income class dummy rises from the 2nd to 4th class then declines for the two poorest groups. Coming from a 4th class town is a significant indicator of vulnerability. For example, the likelihood that a household residing in a 4th class municipality will have a child living away from home is 70 percent higher than that of a household residing in a 1st class town.

Urbanity does not emerge as a significant variable. So is being in a municipality or a city. Other fiscal indicators used in this study are not statistically significant. Per capital fiscal expenditure has the correct sign. All else equal, a higher per capita spending by the local government decreases the number of children living away from home. Likewise, a higher proportion of the budget spent on basic social services discourages child migration. But these relationships are not statistically significant.

3.4.2 Summaries: The CTVAM

The main objective of this study was to estimate a child trafficking vulnerability assessment model. The exercise aimed at identifying the major determinants of child trafficking and assess the vulnerability of communities as sending areas of potential child victims. In the absence of direct observations of child trafficking or child migration for employment, the study relies on observations of working (as opposed to schooling) children living away from home.

The analysis assumes that the sub-population of working children living away from home carries the characteristics of children recruited for work in the major urban centres. While not all of them would have gone through the harrowing journey that child traffic victims go through, the factors that initially drove these children away from their families in order to find employment would be similar. In other words, the latter is merely a subset of the former.

Indeed, an examination of the profile of children living away from home shows that it largely conforms to the profile of reported/documented cases of victims of child trafficking. This gives us some level of confidence that a study of the larger subset of

children living away from home could throw light on the dynamics of child trafficking, in particular the socio-economic factors driving the phenomenon.

The findings of this study confirms by and large what previous case studies of child trafficking based on small samples of child victims have shown, perhaps more comprehensively and in more detail. The value of the current exercise is that it validates this picture using nationally representative data.

The study estimated a model of vulnerability to child trafficking. Such a model identified the significant determinants of a working child living away from home. These determinants are interpreted as indicators of vulnerability to child trafficking. The model identified individual characteristics (age and gender), household characteristics (wealth, household members' educational attainment, and the number of children), and community attributes (region, income class, and the underemployment rate) as important indicators of vulnerability.

The model could be improved by adding community variables that indicate distance or access to the major urban destinations of child migrants. The hypothesis is that since the monetary cost of moving, mainly transportation cost, is usually shouldered by the child recruiter, distance becomes positively related to child recruitment. This is because households in isolated places have little information about the true situation in the place of destination. Moreover, distance makes it more difficult for the trafficked child to escape from an abusive recruiter or employer. All else equal, the recruiters prefer children from far away places.

Indicators of the level of development of an area and better measures of the presence of government could also improve the model. The hypothesis is that the presence of government deters the recruitment of children for employment.

The section that follows shows an attempt to transform the results of the model into a composite index which ranks provinces according to their vulnerability as sending areas of trafficked children.

3.5 PROVINCIAL VULNERABILITY RANKING

A second objective of this study is to develop an index of vulnerability to child trafficking. Such an index would be useful for ranking provinces as sending areas. The survey data used in this study gives a ranking of sending areas at the regional level, but not at the provincial level. This is because the sample used for the survey was not designed to be summarized at the provincial level. For purposes of targeting interventions, however, the province offers a more manageable political and geographical unit. Wide differences in socio-economic conditions across provinces within regions can render regional aggregates and averages misleading.

There are several ways to approach the development of an index of this nature. One approach is to pick out the most significant—and perhaps intuitively appealing—determinants of child trafficking as identified in the econometric model. Individual and household variables are then transformed into provincial level variables while provincial level variables are maintained. For example, the wealth index of households can be transformed to the percentage of households in a province belonging to the poorest 40 percent of households nationwide since the two bottom quintiles are statistically significant. Using some desired statistical technique, the variables may then be given their appropriate weights and an index is derived. Provinces are then ranked using such index.

An alternative and less intuitive approach, which this paper takes for practical reasons, namely, the lack of provincial level variables, is to use the econometric model to predict the probability that a child, given certain characteristics, is vulnerable to trafficking. It involves taking the equation derived from the data set used in this study (Survey of Children in 2001) and applying it to another data set. A practical requirement is that the out-of-sample observations must have the necessary variables. More important, the sampling design must allow the tabulation of results at the provincial level, which is the object of this exercise.

Fortunately, the Annual Poverty Indicator Survey 2002 (APIS) fulfills these requisites. The APIS is a national survey of individual and household socio-economic characteristics. Among others, it

Table 3-10 Predicted number of children living away (CLA) from home, top 20 provinces

Region	Province	Predicted CLA	Predicted Rank	SOC 2001	SOC Rank
TOP 10					
X	Bukidnon	9,294	1	11,048	1
VII	Cebu	4,559	2	6,088	10
VI	Negros Occidental	4,327	3	6,254	8
VI	Iloilo	4,239	4	6,783	5
V	Camarines Sur	3,784	5	5,938	11
IV	Quezon	3,023	6	6,336	7
XI	Sarangani	2,843	7	1,151	39
VII	Negros Oriental	2,575	8	4,136	13
VIII	Leyte	2,421	9	9,505	2
XII	Lanao Del Norte	2,291	10	3,858	15
NEXT 10					
IV	Oriental Mindoro	2,205	11	3,100	22
XII	Cotabato (North Cotabato)	2,157	12	3,598	16
VI	Capiz	2,046	13	2,311	29
IX	Zamboanga Del Sur	2,024	14	8,503	3
V	Masbate	1,923	15	6,913	4
XI	South Cotabato	1,921	16	6,136	9
III	Nueva Ecija	1,920	17	915	44
III	Bulacan	1,882	18	951	42
V	Albay	1,805	19	2,946	25
I	Pangasinan	1,798	20	1,070	40

identifies working and non-working children, five to 17 years old. This is necessary for our purposes since our model was derived using only observations on working children. It also has all the variables used in the model. Finally, the sample allows tabulation of results at the provincial level, besides it being a fairly recent survey.

The results of this exercise are presented in Table 3-10 which gives us estimates (prediction) of the number of children vulnerable to trafficking by province. The predicted total figure is less than the actual survey, which is expected given that the model cannot perfectly predict actual outcome. At this point, we are more interested in the relative ranking of provinces which could serve as a guide in identifying priority areas and crafting appropriate interventions.

The third column gives the predicted number of children leaving home based on the estimation model. The fourth column presents the provincial rankings based on the predicted values. Thus, the province of Bukidnon ranks as the most vulnerable area. Cebu is a far second, followed by Negros Occidental, Iloilo, and Camarines Sur, which have numbers of predicted vulnerable children that do not differ much from each other. And so on down the line.

How plausible is this ranking? There is simply no way of ascertaining in the absence of reliable numbers at the provincial level. What is done here is the comparison of the ranking of provinces using the survey data used in this study. Note that, strictly speaking, the survey data cannot be summarized at the provincial level. For lack of an alternative, it is done nevertheless. The aim is to get a rough idea of relative vulnerability of provinces.

Columns 5 and 6 present the number of children living away from home based on the SOC 2001 and the rank of each province. Focusing on the top 10, several observations are worth noting. First, six out of the predicted top 10 provinces using the APIS 2002 are also in the top 10 provinces based on the SOC 2001. We may infer from this that these provinces, namely, Bukidnon, Cebu, Negros Occidental, Iloilo (the top 4) plus Quezon and Leyte, are hard-core sending areas.

Second, nine out of the predicted top 10 provinces are also ranked among the top 15 provinces based on the SOC 2001. Thus in addition to those in the SOC 2001 top 10, Camarines Sur (rank 5), Negros Oriental (rank 8), and Lanao del Norte (rank 10) are in the next five provinces.

Third, there are a few surprises. For example, Sarangani is ranked 39th in the SOC 2001 but lands in the top 10 using the predicted probabilities. Similarly, Nueva Ecija, Bulacan, and Pangasinan are in the top 20 provinces, but are further down in the SOC ranking. Possibly these provinces represent one type of error, namely, overcoverage, that is, provinces that should not be covered but are covered anyway. A more conservative interpretation would be to consider their inclusion among the most vulnerable provinces as an early warning, a sort of red flag. What is needed is to countercheck the validity of these results through other means. Furthermore, one should rule out the possibility of pockets of vulnerability within these provinces which may have gone largely unnoticed, hence account for the perceived discrepancy.

Another type of error is referred to as undercoverage, that is, some provinces that should be in the list are not included, hence potentially excluded as targets of policy. The Samar provinces are the most obvious examples of undercoverage. Northern Samar is number 6 in the SOC rankings but 53rd in our own rankings. Western Samar is 12th in the SOC, but 40th in the predicted rankings. Eastern Samar holds the same rank in both rankings, 32nd. Fortunately, in the case of the island of Samar, undercoverage is less of a problem since the area is long known to be a major sending area of migrant labour and is therefore unlikely to be left out by policy interventions.

Discrepancies such as these are only expected. For one, it is highly likely that our model is lacking in some important determinants. For another, the rate of previous migration has been identified in the literature as a significant determinant of migration. The cost of transportation and the conditions of access to a place also influence the rate of movement. Disaggregated data at the provincial level for these variables, however, are not readily available. In other words, much work needs to be done to validate the above results.

4. RAPID ASSESSMENT OF CHILD TRAFFICKING IN SELECTED AREAS

The Philippines is an archipelagic country consisting of 7,107 islands clustered into three major geographical areas: Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao. It spans 1,854 kilometers from north to south, and has a total land area of 300,000 sq. km.¹ The archipelago is divided into three major island groups: Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao. The largest island, Luzon, occupies the northern portion. In the middle, the Visayas consists of about 6,000 islands, including Samar, the third largest in the country. Mindanao, the second largest island, is in the south.

The various divisions existing in the country—geographical, political, religious, and socio-cultural—lead to an unequal distribution of resources and, basically, visible differences in income classes and in political, commercial and socio-cultural development. Filipinos are divided culturally into over a hundred ethnic groups, each with their own practices that may either contribute to or hamper development. Filipino, based largely on Tagalog, has been declared the national language, though there are about 95 other languages and dialects spoken throughout the archipelago. The people are predominantly Roman Catholic. Other religions being practiced are Islam, Buddhism, and Protestantism. This diversity in language, culture, religion, and interests, in addition to political factors, has contributed largely to the economic disparities in the country, with development happening rapidly in the more urbanized cities and their environs. All the three major island groups have their bustling areas of business: Metro Manila in Luzon, Cebu City in the Visayas, and Davao City in Mindanao. Presently, other cities and municipalities are rapidly growing, with the government's efforts to diffuse business and population out of the major cities. Far flung municipalities and those that are difficult to access are being left behind.

The prevailing perception that highly urbanized cities provide better opportunities favours migration and provides the potential for trafficking.

The country has 16 political subdivisions called regions, 79 provinces, 117 cities, and 1,500 municipalities. Some cities, because of their income (at least PhP 50 million per annum) and their population (not less than 200,000), are classified as highly urbanized cities (HUC) and are independent from the provinces where they are located. Those cities that have not yet attained HUC status are called component cities, and are under the general supervision of the province. The country's capital, Manila, has been expanded into Metro Manila, which actually includes the City of Manila, 13 other cities, and three municipalities. It is the seat of the national government, and the centre of commerce and industry, education, culture, and the arts.

¹ Fast Facts about Philippine Provinces, Conrado M. Lancion, Jr., c 1995.

4.1 OBJECTIVES, SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE FIELD STUDIES

This report presents the results of the rapid assessment of the child trafficking situation in nine areas: Camarines Sur and Metro Manila (Pasay City, City of Manila, and Quezon City) in Luzon; Cebu City, Iloilo City, and Northern Samar in the Visayas; and Mindanao, Zamboanga del Sur, and Davao City in Mindanao. Though not representative of the whole country, these areas were expected to provide a picture of some of the cities and provinces in the three major island groups. The study was expected to yield information about the following:

1. Profile of children trafficked in the nine areas;
2. Profile of the traffickers, the trafficking process and the trafficking routes; and
3. Area-specific factors (push and pull factors) in the context of child trafficking.

It is also expected to validate the findings of the child trafficking vulnerability assessment model presented earlier in this report, through the generation of qualitative data. The field studies attempt to look at other factors that may not have been seen as significant in the model but are contributory to a child's vulnerability to trafficking. To the extent possible, this report discusses the specific contexts of the nine sites selected to explore the social, cultural, economic, geographic, and political contexts in which child trafficking occurs.

The report seeks to update previous research on child trafficking, and provide an insight into the problem, particularly in the context of the passage of the new anti-trafficking law that covers children and adults.

The main research approach, rapid appraisal, necessarily provided the data collecting parameters. Three data gathering methods were used: individual interviews with trafficking victims, focus group discussions at the community level, and key informant interviews with NGO workers and representatives of relevant government agencies. Other source documents were utilized to enrich the primary data gathered. The areas chosen for the conduct of focus group discussions were those that were already known to have a high probability of child trafficking incidence. Respondents selection was targeted. Several limitations were therefore seen to affect the research, including the following:

- a. Choice of key informants and participants in the focus group was dictated by the people in the study sites who had either direct or indirect contact with/knowledge of people, children included, who had child trafficking experience. Some were quite helpful, and brought the project team to their communities or service beneficiaries, but others were not so eager to part with their data or to refer the team to possible interviewees.
- b. The delicate and confidential nature of the subject of research contributed to little knowledge of its occurrence and therefore the small number of key informants. It also led to a reduced degree of information sharing especially where victims were concerned.
- c. Most of the child victims who were interviewed were victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation. Maybe because of the visibility of sexual exploitation, and the magnitude of the business, many NGOs work in that field. Generally, too, the connotation of trafficking

- is sexual exploitation; the expansive definition of child trafficking is not yet common knowledge, and trafficking for other purposes is very difficult to find.
- d. Lack of data from informants and government sources. In nearly all the sites, there was little information exclusive to trafficking. In many sites, child-related concerns are generally (domestic) child abuse and petty crimes. Children who are caught under the vagrancy law, for example, are not screened for possible trafficking background. Refugees or repatriated persons (e.g., in Zamboanga City) were also not screened for possible trafficking background. Only those cases which are obviously of the nature of and have the outward elements of trafficking are recorded. The lack of data appears to be a result of inadequate mechanisms that would enable government agencies to identify trafficking cases, document them, and prosecute offenders.
 - e. Low awareness of the anti-trafficking law. Many government agencies, while they may be generally aware of the anti-trafficking law, exhibited inadequate knowledge of the provisions of the law.

Some attempt is made to quantify the data, although the qualitative descriptions of the children’s and the communities’ experiences in child trafficking are seen to be of greater value.

4.2 PROFILE OF TRAFFICKED CHILDREN

A summary profile of the 29 trafficked children interviewed in all nine areas is provided in this section. Age, family size, educational attainment of the children, and a general description of the socio-economic status of their families are given. Respondents were provided by NGOs who are working with children in prostitution and labour. Many of the interviews were done in the presence of social workers handling the cases. In many instances, the social workers or peer educators also provided translation services and additional data. The interviews were conducted where the children could be found—some inside the bars or *casas* while they were having a break from work, others in a barangay health station or in a government multi-purpose centre.

A total of 29 victims of child trafficking were interviewed, 26 girls and three boys.

4.2.1 Age

The respondents’ age ranged from 13 to above 20; with 21 of them or about 72 percent belonging to the 13 to 17 age group. The narratives of those who were older than 18 were about their experiences when they were below 18 years old. It was noted that female respondents usually give a much

Table 4-1 Age of respondents

Age	Number <i>n</i> = 29	Percent
13	3	10.3
14	4	13.8
15	7	24.1
16	3	10.3
17	4	13.8
18	2	6.9
20 - above	5	17.2
Unknown	1	3.4

Table 4-2 Household size of respondents

Household size	Number	Percent
3 – 4 members	4	13.8
5 - 10 members	22	75.9
11 and more	3	10.3

older age, as they have been accustomed to do. About a fourth of the respondents were 15 years old during the interview. Except for those with ages above 20 years, the trafficking experience of the respondents was quite recent (past one to two years). The ages when they were trafficked actually ranged from 13 to 17 years old, though many of them had already worked even before they were trafficked.

4.2.2 Household Size and Relationships

Twenty-two out of the 29 respondents came from households with five to 10 members. Three of the respondents, or about 10 percent, were from families with 11 or more members in a single household. The ordinal rank of a child within the families did not seem to be a major factor in the decision for that child to work. A number of the respondents grew up with relatives such as their grandparents or aunts—some because they were orphaned at a young age, others because their parents were ill and could not work, or they were simply sent to live with their grandparents and other relatives for various other reasons. Some of the children chose to live away from their parents, saying that their families were dysfunctional—the main reason why they decided to live away from their homes.

4.2.3 Educational Attainment of Respondent

Except for one child, almost all of the children had some schooling. A little more than half of the respondents reached first year high school, while the rest had some elementary education. Most of the children showed little or no interest in completing their education; they had already decided that they were better off working and earning some money now rather than continuing formal education, for which they would have to incur some expenses. Most of these children were forced out of school because their parents or immediate relatives could no longer support their schooling; others decided to quit school to join their *barkadas* in the streets, while two of the respondents ran away from home and therefore dropped out of school.

4.2.4 Educational Attainment of Parents

Most of the children (about two-thirds) did not know the educational attainment of their parents. A few parents finished high school. Only two male and one female parent had college education. Apparently, the respondents came from families that put little value on education, with the

Table 4-3 Educational attainment of respondents

Respondent’s Educational Attainment	Number	Percent
None	1	3.4
Elementary level	8	27.6
High school level	16	55.2
College Level	1	3.4
Undetermined	3	10.3

Table 4-4 Educational attainment of respondents’ parents

Father’s Educational Attainment	Number	Percent
None	0	0.0
Elementary	1	3.4
High school	5	17.2
College	2	6.9
Undetermined	21	72.4
Mother’s Educational Attainment	Number	Percent
None	0	0.0
Elementary	2	6.9
High school	4	13.8
College	1	3.4
Undetermined	22	75.9

parents not aspiring much for them, probably because the need to support their families begged for prime attention.

4.2.5 Employment of Parents

Most of the children said they did not have an idea of the nature of their parents’ jobs. This may be because many of their parents are engaged in seasonal and odd jobs. Most of the parents are employed, though, and only three are reported to be no longer working (a father of a respondent is paralyzed). Those whose parents were farmers mentioned that their income was always insufficient to sustain the needs of their respective families. Some resorted to odd jobs in the informal sector, such as food vending.

When asked whether their mothers were working, the respondents’ initial answer was no; the mothers were unemployed or at least perceived to be working at home. Yet, when probed, it turned out that some of the mothers held odd jobs as vendors or as seasonal farm hands. It was unclear why the children were not initially willing to disclose information about their mothers’ work.

All of the children saw their families to be very poor; they see their parents struggling to provide for them basic necessities such as food and clothing.

4.2.6 Nature of and Age at First Work

The respondents were asked to recall their ages when they first worked and the kind of work they did even before they were trafficked. Only six of the 29 children were not working before they were trafficked.

More than half of them had already engaged in some form of work or economic activity when they were ten years old. Almost all of these previous jobs were in the services and informal sector. Five respondents were candid enough to relate their previous experience in prostitution. Some already had three to five different jobs before the incidence of trafficking occurred.

Gender stereotyping of jobs was observed. Most of the females provided domestic services, commercial sex in brothels, videoke or karaoke bars, or worked as helper in a *carinderia*. On the other hand, the males worked in small scale businesses (e.g., piggery, bakery), or street vending.

Table 4-5 Parents’ occupations

Father’s Occupation	Number	Percent
Truck driver	1	3.4
Farmer	3	10.3
Hog raiser	1	3.4
Barangay Captain	1	3.4
Sakada	1	3.4
Vending	1	3.4
Fisherman	1	3.4
Unemployed	3	10.3
Unknown	17	58.6
Mother’s Occupation	Number	Percent
Bar manager	1	3.4
Store/carinderia helper	3	10.3
Strip dancer	1	3.4
Vegetable vendor	1	3.4
Farmhand	2	6.9
Domestic helper	1	3.4
Barangay Employee	1	3.4
OFW	1	3.4
None	7	24.1
Unknown	11	37.9

4.2.7 Experience of Abuse and Violence

The respondents were asked about the kind of family life they had, and whether they experienced any kind of physical, verbal, sexual, or psychological abuse, or any form of emotional and psychological neglect. Though only four definitely expressed not having experienced abuse at home, before they were trafficked, a large number (10) did not respond as explicitly. Half (15) of the respondents experienced some form of abuse and violence at home. This ranged from the more passive emotional and physical neglect to verbal, emotional, psychological, and physical battering.

Table 4-8 lists down the reasons cited by the respondents for their leaving home. Top of the list is the desire to help augment the family’s earnings. To escape an abusive family comes in third—these reasons, however, are not mutually exclusive.

A girl who was constantly abused verbally by her grandmother, who called her *puta*, even when she did not understand what the word meant, finally left her home and became a prostitute. One girl was disowned by her father and subsequently sold by an aunt to a *casa* manager in Cebu. Another respondent was subjected to constant physical battering by her father and her brothers; this forced her to leave their house and roam the streets of Quiapo, Manila. Eventually she joined a gang and engaged in spurious activities. One girl admitted that she was sexually abused by her father, cousin, and uncle when she was six years old. This abuse continued until she was 12. At the age of 13, she packed up, gathered her siblings, and left home.

The home is supposed to be where a child is to be cared for, protected and loved. An abusive family home increases the probability of a child wanting to leave—this means he or she is more vulnerable to trafficking. For many of these kinds of children, an uncertain future may be a better alternative to an abusive family life.

4.2.8 Motivations and Aspirations

Various combinations of reasons and circumstances have caused the children to be disengaged from their families. When asked about their motivations to leave home, the most common response among the children was that they wanted to help their parents and their siblings. Most of

Table 4-6 Nature of and age at first work

First Work	Number	Percent
Storekeeper	3	10.3
Street vendor	1	3.4
Domestic helper	4	13.8
Fast food employee	1	3.4
Farmhand/livestock handler	2	6.9
Strip dancer/shine girl/prostitute	5	17.2
Bakery helper	1	3.4
Did not work	6	20.7
Undetermined	6	20.7
Age	Number	Percent
5 to 9	1	3.4
10 to 14	10	34.5
15 to 18	8	27.6
Did not work	10	34.5
Undetermined	0	0.0

Table 4-7 Previous experience of abuse, neglect and violence

Experience	Number	Percent
Revealed experience of abuse	15	51.7
Did not experience abuse	4	13.8
Did not reveal experience of abuse (undetermined)	10	34.5

these children perceive themselves to be very poor, and they sacrifice themselves so their younger siblings are able to continue their schooling. Despite their very young age, these children already have a sense of responsibility for contributing to the family income. Some of them feel guilty when they see their parents having to struggle hard to provide for them. This sense of guilt has provided the added impetus to push them out of their homes to find work.

On the other hand, 13 children said that they wanted to earn their own money, so they could buy for themselves the things that their parents could not provide, like clothes and food. One female respondent in a brothel in Iloilo was emphatic about her desire to prove to her family that she could earn for herself and be useful to her family just like her older siblings. Another was specific about what material things she could get for her family (e.g., furniture, appliances, a house), just like what her aunt did when she went off to Japan and eventually married a Japanese man. The two top ranking reasons could be viewed as a combination of an acquired sense of materialism and as a strategy to escape the extreme poverty at home.

Some of the children also said that they wanted to see Manila, thinking that they would be able to see celebrities, movie stars or *artistas*, and visit the malls, which are not found in their communities. Commercialism has painted the cities very attractively, and most of those who are fascinated by the lure of “Manila life,” presumably fun and enjoyable, are easily enticed by their peers or *barkadas* to leave their homes.

Three female respondents, all recruited from Samal Island in Davao, were enticed by the promises of the recruiter that they would be able to improve their appearance (e.g., nose, breast and buttock augmentation, fairer skin complexion) as part of their preparation for jobs as “entertainers.” A Western and highly commercial notion of beauty is prevailing over many Filipino societies, and the poor are no exception. Especially in this area of Davao, girls who have come back from working as entertainers truly look better and more beautiful—possibly because of the time and care that they spend on themselves, as a requirement



Buses and vans, in addition to covered trucks, are frequently utilized by traffickers who bring children from as far as Bukidnon and Davao in Mindanao to Manila, then on to other destinations. Port police and NGOs work these ports in the hope of intercepting traffickers and repatriating children back to their places of origin.

Table 4-8 Reasons for leaving home

Motivations/Reasons for Leaving Home	No. of Responses <i>n</i> =60	Rank
To work to help augment family's earnings (poverty)	16	1
Financial independence	13	2
Escape abuse in the family	10	3
To see the city (Manila)	8	4
Peer pressure	8	4
Desire to have fair skin and improved appearance	3	5
Others (to look for a sibling and to experience a new job)	2	6

for the job. The young of the community find these “returnees” as very interesting models worth emulating.

4.2.9 Reflections of Children on Their Present Situation

Nearly all of the respondents did not know nor understand that they were trafficked. They did not see that the process they went through brought them into a continued state of exploitation. To a number of the respondents, life was much better now, because they had money of their own and were able to spend for themselves. They simply wanted to work and earn money to help their families, and themselves. As their educational attainment is generally low and their work skills limited, they thought they could not get better jobs and were therefore satisfied with what they already had. Some of them knew what exactly they were being recruited for. If ever there was initial resistance, they could not run away because they had no fare money. In time, they got used to the work and found it acceptable. Given the same opportunity to earn, they would still leave home and do exactly what they were doing presently.

4.3 TRAFFICKING: TRAFFICKERS AND THE TRAFFICKING PROCESS

This section describes the recruiters/traffickers and the processes and mechanisms that are involved in the trafficking of children. The modus operandi of traffickers is described, as well as the trafficking routes (sending, transit, and destination) found in the nine study areas. The discussions are not limited to the specific recruiters of the 29 respondents, as the interviewees and the FGD participants were also able to cite other recruiters/traffickers who operated in their respective areas.

4.3.1 Profile of Traffickers/Recruiters

There were more female than male recruiters from among those who recruited the study respondents. Women are less likely to be perceived as dangerous. In the Filipino culture, people generally become more comfortable with a woman than a man. One out of the 11 male recruiters was a homosexual who tricked one of his recruits to work as a GRO in a *casa* in Bacolod.

Table 4-9 Gender distribution of traffickers

Sex	Number <i>n</i> =26	Percent
Male	11	42.3
Female	15	57.7

As the trafficking framework has shown, trafficking is a systematic process. Each stage of the process requires specific approaches and skills. Traffickers do not necessarily follow a cut and dried process for recruitment; adaptation marks their trade and makes it difficult for communities to distinguish one trafficker or group of traffickers from others. It may also be necessary for the trafficker to change or adapt his or her modus operandi to fit a situation or to avoid being caught or apprehended.

Child trafficking involves various actors, each with distinct roles and specific functions. There are some situations whereby a single actor may assume different roles and perform various functions,

to facilitate the whole process of trafficking children. Interviews with child trafficking victims provided information to identify some of the actors and their roles and functions.

Actors involved in the trafficking of children are:²

- 1. **“Recruiter,” “Head Hunter,” “Canvasser”** – responsible for screening the recruits; the one who convinces the child, negotiates or connives with the recruit’s parents or relatives, and coordinates with the employer in the destination.

In most cross-border trafficking cases, the recruiter is also responsible for conniving with the parents, authorities or any other individual for the production of fake or tampered personal documents of the recruit, such as birth certificate, baptismal certificate, and passport, for securing a barangay clearance, and other similar concerns so that the child could pass off as an adult.

- 2. **“Local Contact”** – identifies individuals to be recruited; most of the time, these are neighbours, community members, relatives, friends or *barkadas* and even parents of the recruits. Local contacts serve as the conduit between the recruit and the recruiter.
- 3. **“Transporters”** – their primary role is to accompany the recruits till they reach their area of destination. Transporters also use deceitful techniques to evade sentries or guards who are tasked to identify ongoing recruitment operations in a vessel. They give their recruits specific instructions on how to answer questions and keep close watch over them while in transit, so as to minimize suspicion of their operation. In most cases, the recruiter is also the transporter. He/she is responsible for securing tickets and boarding fares and paying for other expenses needed during transit. The transporter would have a keen knowledge of the various schedules and routes of major transportation facilities available in the area of operation.
- 4. **“Fetchers”** – the main role of the fetcher is to make sure that the recruits reach their final areas of destination; they could be company drivers of the employer or a hired driver by the recruiter or transporter.
- 5. **“Freelancers”** – this refers to an individual who can assume all the roles, they are more flexible in terms of recruitment because their contacts in the recruitment, as well as the transit and destination areas, are well entrenched.
- 6. **“Employers”** – this refers to those who “order” or seek the assistance of recruiters in an area. They could be *casa* owners, bar and night club operators and managers. They may also be farm owners or couples seeking househelp. They usually negotiate and transact with recruiters and transporters.

²Classifications were taken from a study conducted by the Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. Foundation, Inc. “Trafficking of Women and Children in Manila North Harbor” and from interviews with social workers and children who have experienced being trafficked.

All these actors are in the business for a fee. Some recruiters get as much as PhP 1,000 per child that they are able to place. Others require from 50 to 70 percent of the child’s one month salary as finder’s fee. Still others may ask for more. Whatever the recruiter’s rate, there is a proportionate distribution of the fee according to the involvement of the other actors, if there are any. It is to the financial benefit of these actors if more children are recruited, transported, and placed. Each child contributes to the fee of these actors, with this contribution deducted from subsequent salaries either in a lump sum or amortized.

Jobs Commonly Offered By Recruiters

Dishwasher
Kitchen helper
GROs or entertainers in a bar, videoke, casa, club
Canteen workers (*serbidoras*, waitress)
Domestic helper (*kasambahay*)
Pig farm worker

The responsibility of the recruiter ends upon turnover of the recruit to the employer. In most cases, the recruiter no longer follows up the recruit he or she places, so he or she would be unaware of living and employment conditions nor of retention of the recruit in that particular employer. Transferring from one employer or one form of work to another is possible, and the child may be lost in the maze.

In many cases, parents of the trafficked children could no longer locate the recruiter, or their children.

The Story of Three Girls from Samal Island, Davao

Victoria, Mariz, both 13 years old, and Kathleen, 17, all minors, were invited by a male recruiter to work as “entertainers and guest relations officers (GRO)” in Manila. Apart from the promise of a “high pay,” the recruiter enticed the three girls by telling them that they would look beautiful; accepting the terms of employment would enable them to access services like skin bleaching, buttocks and breast augmentation, etc. The recruiter preyed on their impressionable minds, painting a highly commercial but, to these young minds, very attractive picture of beauty and of city life. He was able to gain the trust and confidence of these three girls.

At the least, the recruiter was honest with them, explaining to them the kind of work that awaited them in the club. The recruiter specifically told them that “entertainment” meant sitting down with the customers, making them feel good, and flirting with them. This meant allowing the customers to touch their private parts. Though they expressed disgust over what they heard, the girls nevertheless accepted. While in transit to Manila, they were already asked to practice smoking and drinking beer—supposedly to make them look more sophisticated. One pursued her own preparation for the job by watching pornographic videotapes.

Kat, the oldest among the group, was less sure of her fate. She was a bit overweight, and the recruiter told her she would be placed somewhere else, apart from her friends. Afraid to be by herself, she decided to talk to a friend by mobile phone, and tell her where she was.. Her friend arranged for the Coast Guard to rescue them upon reaching Manila.

4.3.2 Recruitment Process

Recruiters’ or traffickers’ informal and formal network is characteristically well entrenched in the area where they operate. According to the experiences of the respondents, they got acquainted with the recruiters through their friends, peers or *barkada* who enticed them to leave home. Others were introduced through neighbours, nearby community acquaintances, and even through their own relatives (uncles, aunts, etc.) Often, they were recruited on a one-on-one basis, or in a small group of four to five children.

Generally, the recruiter enters the community through a respected or prominent member (local official, elder). In one area, the recruiter befriended the wife of the pastor of the local church. She then brought the recruiter around, introducing her to the members of the community. As the pastor’s wife was respected and credible, everyone trusted the recruiter and befriended her. The pastor’s wife unwittingly participated in the trafficking process. In another town, the son of the Barangay Captain was the

first recruit. Seeing this, parents of other children agreed to send their child with the recruiter, thinking that the Barangay Captain would already have verified the credentials of the recruiter or, at the least, trusted him. This initial process of confidence-building is common to many recruiters. They need to be able to get around the community in order to check on family and individual vulnerabilities and ultimately choose the child they will recruit.

Alongside the recruiter’s intentions and processes, the child’s situation may already be such that his or her vulnerability to trafficking is high. The child may just be waiting, albeit unconsciously, for an opportunity to leave an abusive home, fulfill long held dreams of comfort and financial independence, or satisfy materialistic desires. The interviews revealed that, for children who have been trafficked for prostitution, most of them had already been away from their families, either living in the streets with their friends or sharing a home with their peers to escape the abuse in their homes.

The male children, on the other hand, were recruited by men or by a group of men. Boy recruits were usually greater in number; one case involved 21 boys/young men at one time.

After the recruiter has identified the potential recruit, he or she commences the negotiation with the child or the child’s family. During negotiations, recruiters either withhold very important information from their victims and the victim’s family or they tell falsehoods. Deceit is a common attribute and practice among recruiters. They may give false information about the child’s employment or remuneration. The interviews revealed that a great number of the female respondents were told that they would be hired as waitresses, dishwashers, or storekeepers in Manila and that they would be paid with what would seem as adequate monthly salary. Most of the time, the situation at the destination is different; the children are either employed as GROs, sold to *casas* or prostitution houses, or employed in households and farms under the worst working and living conditions. Worse, they do not get the payment that was promised, or they are not paid at all for their services.

However, there are some recruiters that are very upfront with their offers to their victims, even if the terms of employment means working as “entertainers” in clubs, videoke, and/or girlie bars.

From Zamboanga to Malaysia

Trafficking has become a lucrative endeavor in Zamboanga City, with the short distance and the convenient and highly accessible transport system between itself and neighbouring Sandakan and Sabah in Malaysia. There is one trip from Zamboanga through Bongao to Sandakan every Monday and Thursday, and the return trip is every Tuesday and Friday. The boat fare is quite cheap. This “backdoor” trafficking is now a normal way of life for many Zamboangueños. Women and young girls are transported like commodities by trafficking syndicates.

Zamboanga – Sandakan Boat Fares

Economy Class	1,550.00 + 200.00
Tourist	1,600.00 + 200.00
First Class	1,700.00 + 200.00

Bongao – Sandakan

Economy Class	1,300.00 + 200.00
Tourist	1,350.00 + 200.00
First Class	1,450.00 + 200.00

Source:

- SRN Fastcrafts, Ground Floor Amil’s Tower Pilar Street, Zamboanga
- FGD and KII interviews in Zamboanga City

4.3.3 Means of Transport

In provinces that have a relatively good road system, land transport (buses, vans, and taxis) is the most common mode used by recruiters or traffickers. Inter-island travel is facilitated by the RORO (Roll On-Roll Off)—a land and sea transport system using barges to ferry vehicles across; fast passenger ferries also ply the ports of major cities and towns of the country (e.g., Davao, Cebu, Iloilo, Zamboanga). Recruiters of children being trafficked to Manila from Mindanao are brought on vans, buses or trucks that cross the sea by barge. Some of the bigger cities have airports with regular flights of differing frequency. Air travel is rarely used in in-country trafficking, though, probably because of cost. Only transboundary trafficking would require travel by air.

The trafficker risks being seen and therefore intercepted or apprehended if public transport is used. More recently, traffickers have resorted to using private vehicles—cars or vans, which are more difficult to monitor.

All of the respondents were brought to their places of destination by land transport. None of them were transported by air.

4.3.4 Trafficking Routes

From the interviews, it appeared that local authorities and the general public have a fairly accurate sense of the trafficking routes; this includes points of boarding, drop off points, and disembarkation. Though the concept of distinct places of origin, transit, and destination has been blurred in the narratives of the children, what is very distinct from all their accounts is that the places of destination are often bigger cities where employment is seen to be more probable. Manila remains the dream destination of many of the children, although places leading to Manila may serve as transit points or final destinations.



4.3.4.1 Camarines Norte

Camarines Norte occupies the northwestern portion of the Bicol Peninsula. It is bounded in the north by the Pacific Ocean, in the east by San Miguel Bay, in the southwest by the province of Quezon, and in the south by Camarines Sur. The national roads are well paved. The capital, Daet, is at the centre of the route linking Manila to Naga City and Legazpi City. Land travel to Manila can easily be done by bus, and would take about seven hours. Air travel from other cities in the Philippines is usually done via Manila, through to Naga City. One would then have to go to Daet by land.

Vessels like these, which ply the provincial routes, provide convenient transport to legitimate travelers and traffickers alike. Advocacy and preventive activities while the vessel is plying its route to its destination help curb child trafficking.



Figure 4-1 Trafficking routes based on the field studies

The children from Camarines Norte, possibly more out of desire than convenience, were trafficked out to Quezon, Metro Manila, Bulacan, and Pampanga. Camarines Norte was seen as a source for boys who were generally sent to work in bakeries, piggeries, and similar farms in Bulacan and Pampanga. The highly accessible buses that ply the 7-hour route from Camarines Norte to Quezon City provide the means of transport.

Some trafficking occurs into the province also; the small-scale mining towns towards the north are sites of videoke bars that employ sex workers, some of whom are children, from places other than the province. In this sense, Camarines Norte serves as a destination. Many of the child sex workers are said to come from the capital, Daet, Manila, and other places in the country. These mining towns, Paracale, Jose Panganiban, Labo, etc., also attract families who leave their hometowns and migrate there, in search of gold. Work in the small mines is open to anyone who is willing to sweat it out, and that includes five year old children of local as well as migrant families. Clearly, this is a case of child labour. Whether trafficking occurs there remains to be explored.

4.3.4.2 Northern Samar

Northern Samar occupies the entire northern portion of Samar Island, and is bounded in the north by the San Bernardino Strait, in the east by the Pacific Ocean, in the west by the Samar Sea, and in the south by the province of Samar. The province belongs to the Visayas group of islands, and is in Region VIII. One of its closest neighbors to the north is Sorsogon (which is part of the Bicol Peninsula). Air travel to Northern Samar can be done through Manila, which has daily flights to Legaspi City, then by bus or hired vans on to Matnog, Sorsogon. The province can also be reached overland from Manila through the Pan Philippine Highway that crosses by ferry from Matnog, to Allen, Northern Samar. This puts Northern Samar in a strategic position—it links Mindanao and the Visayas, by land and sea transport, to Luzon. Traffickers ply the Manila-Matnog-Allen-Leyte-Davao route to recruit children from the Davao provinces, Bukidnon and Cotabato, and bring them to Manila and other destinations. Again, because the prospects in the big city are brighter, children from Northern Samar are trafficked to Metro Manila. The province also serves as transit area to traffickers and trafficked children from the provinces of Mindanao and Leyte. One of the 29 respondents interviewed came from one of the bigger towns of Northern Samar. She was recruited in her hometown and brought by bus to Manila to work as a domestic.



The Matnog-Allen route is a convenient and commonly used route. Coming from Mindanao, the trafficked child would pass through several Visayas provinces. Entry into Luzon and a life of exploitation would be marked by this welcome sign found at the Matnog, Sorsogon side.

4.3.4.3 Cebu City

Cebu City is the capital of the island province of Cebu, found in the Central Visayas. Its

neighbour to the left, across Tanon Strait, is the island of Negros. To the northeast is the province of Leyte, below which is the island province of Bohol. Fast sea craft connect the city to its neighbours. Buses and other land transport brings people from the city to its 48 towns, most of which, if not all, are coastal. There are four other cities on the island: Mandaue, Lapu-lapu, Danao and Toledo. Cebu City is highly urbanized and is one of the favoured destinations for trafficked children. Information gathered through the FGDs in Barangay Kamagayan (an area in the city where there is sex trade) showed that many of the children sex workers there were trafficked from Iligan City, Butuan City, and Cagayan de Oro City, all in Mindanao. Some *casa* owners do active recruitment by going to these places and bringing back women and children to work in the sex trade.

Anecdotal evidence was gathered about Cebu being a source of children recruits to supply the sex trade in Manila and Los Baños, Laguna. Locals of Barangay Kamagayan mentioned that Manila- and Laguna-based recruiters for bars/videoke/clubs frequently visit the area searching for new recruits. The neighbouring cities of Mandaue and Lapu-lapu are also destination areas for Cebu City natives who want to engage in the sex trade. The interviewees explained this by saying that, because of its nature, girls and women generally don't want it known by friends and neighbours that it is the work they do, so it is usually done outside one's own home or place of origin. No Cebuanos could therefore be found in Barangay Kamagayan as sex workers.

4.3.4.4 Iloilo City

The province of Iloilo is in the island of Panay in Western Visayas. It is bounded in the north by the province of Capiz, in the east by the Visayan Sea and the Guimaras Strait, and in the south by Panay Gulf and the Iloilo Strait. Iloilo City is a highly urbanized coastal city, situated near the island of Guimaras, to the southeast of the province. Bacolod City is also accessible to people from Iloilo by fast sea craft across the Guimaras Strait. Land travel to the other towns of Iloilo or to the neighbouring provinces is very accessible and frequent.

The respondents in Iloilo City originally came from Manila, Kabankalan, Talisay (Negros Occidental, another island), and Bacolod City (also in Negros Occidental). Kabankalan is two hours from Bacolod City while Talisay is the next town, 20 minutes away. Common to some of the respondents is having been recruited from Bacolod City. Often, the respondents came through Bacolod as a transit point. The girls came from poorer municipalities in Negros Occidental and within the province of Iloilo itself.

The Bacolod-Iloilo City child trafficking exchange appears to be highly organized and systematic. NGO sources in Iloilo and in Bacolod observe that recruiters and bar managers have good communication and logistical capabilities for transporting the children in order to keep up with the fluctuating demand for entertainment in the two areas. The use of cell phones, the presence of a dynamic port area in both Iloilo and Bacolod, and other technologies, have made it easy to bring children and women to wherever they were needed. Sex workers who had handlers were the only ones to which this exchange was applied; the trafficking system for "freelancers" or street prostitutes was not known.

4.3.4.5 Davao City

Davao City, part of the province of Davao del Sur, is found in the southeastern part of the island of Mindanao. The province is bounded in the north by Davao province, in the east by Davao Gulf, on the west by Cotabato Province, Sultan Kudarat and South Cotabato, and in the south by the Mindanao Sea. Davao City is highly urbanized. Among the respondents there were children who were trafficked from the province of Davao to Tacurong in Cotabato and eventually to Manila. Trans-boundary trafficking was found to persist in Davao City, where women coming from Davao City are first trained in Manila and then trafficked to Japan. In response to the increased incidence of trafficking of children and women, the local government has set up monitoring systems in bus stations to detect and intercept potential victims of trafficking. Buses have been the most popular means of transporting the trafficking victims. However, according to NGO sources, traffickers now use private vans and taxicabs. Children are transported in groups of 5 or 10, with traffickers taking the guise of family members or relatives as they travel. This has made the task of the local government more difficult.

Known Trafficking Routes in Davao

- Davao City – Cagayan de Oro City
- Davao City – Cebu City
- Davao City – General Santos – Cotabato – Zamboanga
- Davao City – General Santos – Marbel – Tacurong

Presently, the deteriorating peace and order situation in the area has necessitated the reorientation of many of the checkpoints to focus on the anti-terrorism campaign.³ This turn of events has favoured the traffickers further.

Another system of transporting children, called the "shuttle type," was mentioned in interviews with children, NGO sources and the local police. Shuttle type services are provided by the trafficker, where children are picked up at around two in the afternoon in Davao City by a van, brought to Tacurong to work as GROs, dancers, etc., until four the following morning, and then transported back to Davao City.

Interviews with personnel of the City Social Welfare and Development Office (CSWDO), Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE), the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), the National Economic Development Authority (NEDA), and the Philippine National Police (PNP), revealed that these government agencies had difficulty estimating the number of children trafficked in the area. They all agreed, though, that trafficking of children for sexual exploitation was more prevalent.

4.3.4.6 Zamboanga del Sur

Zamboanga del Sur is the southernmost of the Zamboanga provinces, which are on the Zamboanga Peninsula, in northwestern Mindanao. Its neighbouring provinces are Zamboanga del Norte, Zamboanga Sibugay, which cuts through its length, and, Misamis Occidental, Panguil Bay and Lanao del Norte to its east, and, to its south, are the Moro Gulf and the Basilan Strait. Farther

³While the local government has issued a memorandum deploying checkpoints in exit points of the province to monitor trafficking, according to the Women and Children's Desk of the PNP, the check points have now been refocused to address anti-terrorism concerns.

south of the Peninsula and across the sea are the island provinces of Basilan, Sulu, and Tawi-Tawi. Still a little further would be Sabah, Brunei and the rest of Malaysia. The province has Pagadian City for its capital. It houses Zamboanga City, a chartered city, which is found along the coast at its southernmost tip, and is a convenient entry point to this part of the country by air. The next closest airport is already in Pagadian City.

Interviews with government officials, NGOs and community residents in Zamboanga revealed that “backdoor” trafficking happens in a kind of straightforward fashion; the victims are transported using the advertised shipping lines that ply between the city and Bongao in Tawi-Tawi, Jolo, and Sabah. Key informants relate that even if the Philippine Coast Guard manages to identify a trafficking incident, its ability to catch up with the much efficient and faster sea craft of the traffickers is hampered by the low technology and slow boats of the authorities. Once the traffickers cross the territorial boundaries of the Philippines, the authorities could no longer continue pursuit.

There were stories of children trafficked to Manila from Zamboanga who were transported by air. This does not happen as often, though, since the cost of air travel is prohibitive.

On the other hand, there were reports of women trafficked to Zamboanga. Most of them reportedly came from neighbouring provinces that are much poorer or have less employment opportunities than Zamboanga City.

4.3.4.7 Quezon City

Quezon City is one of the 11 cities that make up Metro Manila (the National Capital Region, or NCR) It is a highly urbanized city, and like the other cities of the NCR, densely populated, has a thriving commercial area, industry, both private and public schools, and other businesses. Many offices of the national government are found in the city.

An interview with a social worker at the Quezon City Municipal Social Welfare and Development Office revealed that some of the children who worked as freelance prostitutes in the bars along Timog and Quezon Avenue were from the far provinces of the country. She said that the children were from Cebu, Samar, Leyte, Davao and Zamboanga. Some of these children were reportedly recruited from their home provinces and were told that they would work as “waitresses” in Manila. Instead, they were made to work as GROs or dancers in these night clubs. Others went into street prostitution.

The coordinator of SAGIP-K, a community project that aims to curb the prostitution trade in Quezon City, confirmed that most of the young girls who were into prostitution were migrants from the Visayas and Mindanao, though some were also from Manila. SAGIP-K has exerted initial efforts at profiling these young women and children.

Quezon City suffered from the declaration by the City of Manila (City Ordinance No. 1183) to prohibit within it the operation of saunas, massage parlors, karaoke bars, beerhouses and night

clubs, and the like. Most of these establishments transferred to Quezon City, which was not prepared to control the migration and the subsequent operation of these businesses.

4.3.4.8 Pasay City

Pasay City, found south of both Quezon City and Manila in the NCR, is the smallest of the three. Historically, it is the least progressive of the three cities, although the rise of big business, shopping malls and other structures related to commercial development have contributed to its growth. Pasay City is home to the biggest international airport of the country. It also has the domestic airports, with smaller planes covering interisland travel. By air, Pasay City would be the most convenient and accessible entry and exit points to Manila and out.

The social workers in SERRAS Youth Home for Girls revealed that most of the children who were involved in street prostitution were not locals of the City of Pasay nor were they from the Metro Manila area. Information gathered through their outreach intervention in the streets and in the bars in Pasay show that these children are mostly from the far provinces of the Visayas and Mindanao, such as Samar, Leyte, Cebu, Negros, Zamboanga, Davao, Butuan City, and General Santos City. Moreover, these children are active freelance workers and usually look for customers in the Malate, Harrison, EDSA, and Dakota areas, which are frequented by local and foreign tourists.

4.3.4.9 Manila

The City of Manila, the country’s capital, is the oldest among the three. It has the biggest ports in the country, both for passengers and cargo. It is the most popular entry point to Luzon by boat, with several shipping lines plying on a regular basis from the various cities and major towns of the country.

Manila remains to be the final destination for local trafficking of children. Through the perspective of the child, the lure of the big city is one of the major considerations why they brave the world of work and why their families agree with their decision to leave their homes. For the traffickers, Manila, compared to other cities such as Metro Cebu and Metro Davao, is known to have a greater number of “entertainment establishments,” though diffused in its numerous cities, and has the greater share of the market that demands sexual services from children. Manila is known as a tourist and entertainment hotspot and is therefore very attractive to those who would like to profit from related businesses, including the sexual exploitation of children.

Manila has also become both transit and sending area for cross-border trafficking. Children and women from various provinces of the country go to Manila for training and then on to foreign countries like Japan and the Middle East. The FGD participants in Barangay Sasa, Davao City, cited Manila as a transit point for women wanting to be entertainers for Japan. The Philippines Centre for Transnational Crime has also discovered that women in Manila are being recruited for prostitution in Sandakan, Malaysia; recruiters transport the women from Manila by sea to

Zamboanga City, where they are eventually transferred to fast crafts through the Malaysian borders.

4.4 CHILD TRAFFICKING FINDINGS IN THE NINE STUDY AREAS

The pages that follow show specific cases of child trafficking in each of the nine areas, and the push and pull factors for each. Relevant profiles of the area, where available, are included in the discussion. Annex G shows, in tabulated format, a more detailed picture of the research activities, information on specific areas visited, children interviewed, key informants, FGD participants, and the secondary data gathered.

4.4.1 Camarines Norte

Camarines Norte was found by the research team to have a highly organized coordinative structure, where information sourcing, planning, and inter-agency coordination with respect to the study were concerned. The team was very well guided as to the areas to be visited and the respondents who could give us the best data. The provincial government was set on making the province a first class province—not impossible, as it had already jumped a couple of categories into being a second class province in the past few years.

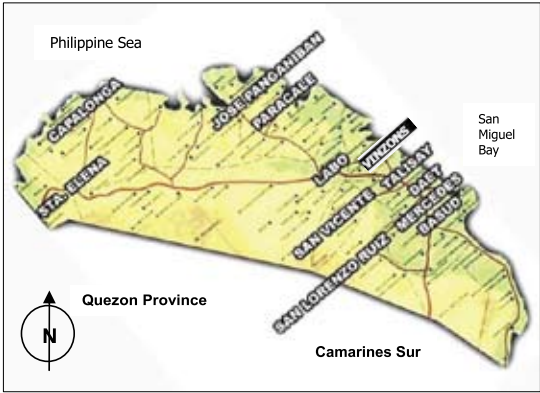


Figure 4-2 Map of Camarines Norte

Camarines Norte is one of the six provinces of the Bicol Region (Region V), which is ranked the second poorest region in the country, and has been perceived to be a rich source of child labour. Its neighbour to the south, Camarines Sur, comes out fifth among all the provinces with respect to the Child Trafficking Vulnerability Index (CTVI) developed in this study, and 11th in the SOC. In contrast, Camarines Norte is 46th on the list (43rd, SOC). The disparity between the two Camarines provinces with respect to this indicator on children living away from home has interesting implications. Migration has been seen from Camarines Sur to Camarines Norte, mainly of families seeking their luck in the mining towns of the north.

4.4.1.1 Socio-economic Profile

Camarines Norte is classified as a second class province. It has a total land area of 220,012 hectares, with 12 municipalities. The topography of the province is characterized by rolling hills and mountains in the interior and fertile plains and valleys along the coast. The population of the province in 2000 was 470,654. It had a population growth of 1.50 percent between the years 1995

and 2000. It has a population density of 213 with Daet and Vinzons as the most populous municipalities at 794 and 418 persons per square kilometer, respectively.

A total of 323,000 persons categorized under the working age group of 15 years old and above were identified; 91.7 percent are employed and 8.3 percent are unemployed. More than two out of five are employed in the service sector; a third is employed in the agricultural sector, while about 14 percent are employed in the industry sector. Even as the province's economy is still very much agricultural in nature, it has given priority in terms of development and promotion to the jewelry craft, gifts/toys/house wares, and the coconut and pineapple industry.⁴ Camarines Norte is classified as a rich mining area.⁵ For years, it benefited from the business of large mining companies operating in Paracale, Jose Panganiban, and other areas with abundant reserves of gold, iron, copper, uranium, lead, and zinc. It is still predominantly agricultural, with coconut and abaca the main products. A thriving fishing industry is found along its coast.

The province has an infant mortality rate of 14.42 as of 2003, which is lower from the previous year's value of 18.06. The top three leading causes of infant mortality are pneumonia, congenital anomaly, and respiratory disease syndrome. Majority of the households in the province has access to safe drinking water (70 percent) and sanitation facilities at 68 percent.

The basic literacy rate of the province is 97 percent and the functional literacy rate is at 90 percent. The public elementary education has a participation rate of 93 percent, and a survival rate of 83 percent as of the school year 2002-2003, and a dropout rate of 0.59 percent. Teacher-student ratio at the elementary level is 1:36. The secondary education level posted a lower participation rate of 73 percent and a cohort survival rate of 71 percent with a high dropout rate of 10 percent compared to the elementary level. Secondary school teacher-student ratio is 1:47.⁶ It is interesting to note that although participation rates for both levels are lower than the national average for the same year, the province's survival rates are significantly higher and the dropout rate noticeably lower. It is possible that selection in the education system has happened even before enrolment, when parents and children alike agree that, given family conditions, the child cannot pursue elementary or high school education, and therefore decide not to enrol.

4.4.1.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response

Camarines Norte is seen as both a sending and a destination area for traffickers. Based on the cases handled by the Provincial Social Welfare and Development Office of Camarines Norte, the victims of trafficking belong to the 9-13 year old bracket.

⁴Socio-economic Profile Brief, Provincial Planning and Development Office, June 2004.
⁵Conrado M. Lancion, Jr., *East Facts About Philippine Provinces*, 2000.
⁶The Situation of Women and Children in Camarines Norte, CY 2003

The agricultural nature of most of the province still allows for a large proportion of poor households among the population. Children augment family income by working with their parents in the farms or by working in small-scale mining ventures. The big mining companies abandoned the area some years ago, and small-scale miners, both local and migrant, have taken over. It is said that a local child already starts working in the mines as early as the age of five. This early exposure to work, some of it hazardous, conditions the child to assume responsibility for contributing to the sustenance of the family, an attitude that may increase a child's vulnerability to trafficking.

One of the key informants in Daet was a professional, who described the work he did in the mines at the age of five. He was panning for gold, and the excitement of the find was strong. He had two good things going for him: he had a mother who knew how to invest and manage their finances, and he went back to school. For him, education was clearly a major way out of poverty and an exploitative life.

Many of the families whose children were working away from their homes had from 6 to 13 children. The inability of parents to provide enough of all the needs of their children was a significant push factor in this area.

One girl who said she was 18 years old, but looked about 16, allowed herself to be recruited to Japan by an employment agency. She had been waiting for almost two years for a visa, and was almost sold for a million pesos to a Japanese man by the agency owner. Her motivation to leave home by all means was to disengage herself from possibly ending up like her mother, living in the province with 13 children, no work, and not enough money to feed and send all children to school. Leaving home and getting a Japanese boyfriend was the only way out for her.

A case of trafficking of nine children and young adults—seven boys and two girls—was reported in Barangay Aguit-it, which can be reached by tricycle or jeep in 45 minutes from the municipality of Vinzons. Unemployment in the municipality is quite high, and the main sources of income, which are seasonal, are farming and fishing. These children were recruited by a man who was not affiliated with any organized or formal recruitment agency. He befriended a respected member of the community, who assisted him in identifying potential recruits for work in Bulacan and Pampanga. The story of Tony and Lino in the inset represents the story of this group. The recruiter transported them by private van, and gave strict instructions for all of them to remain quiet all throughout the eight-hour trip to Manila, then on to Bulacan and Pampanga. The two girls were sold to a night club in Pampanga to serve as guest relations officers. The recruiter was paid about PhP 3,000 for each of them.



Tony and Lino's repatriation triggered the search for the other members of the group. The parents made use of the network of barangay officials in their province and in the provinces of Bulacan and Pampanga. The offices of the Department of Social Welfare and Development in all provinces also participated in the search. They were able to locate the other boys, but repatriation was slow because they did not have fare money back to Camarines Norte.

Learning from their experience, the FGD participants made the following recommendations:

- All new entrants to the community should sign up in their logbook;
- The Barangay Captain will talk to any recruiter first and warn them that they will be prosecuted should they put their children in an exploitative situation;
- Parents should be responsible for taking care of their children to avoid a similar situation;
- Should children need to work, the PESO (Public Employment Services Office) Coordinator may be asked to check first the identity of the recruiter. Families should not believe quickly and promises of a better life; and
- As police officers would have it, parents should encourage their children to study and go to school.

Barangay Dalas, in the municipality of Labo, did not have any trafficking experience. This barangay's main sources of income are farming and small-scale mining. Their concerns therefore revolve mainly around child labour and the hazards that families expose children as young as five years old to when they ask them to work with them in community mining endeavors.

The group shared an incident of child trafficking in neighbouring Barangay Anahaw. The recruiter was female and she encouraged girls aged 17 and 18 to run away from home. She was supposed to meet them at a rendezvous point and transport them by van to Laguna. Fortunately, the parents got wind of the plan and learned of their departure soon after. Police checkpoints were set up

A Taste of Life and Work in Manila: The Story of Tony and Lino

Tony and Lino, aged 16 and 18, respectively, come from one of the coastal towns. They grew up with little education (Grade 6 and first year high school), worked in the farm and fished for food and income for themselves and their families. Like seven other friends and relatives, they had gotten tired of the kind of lives they led, and wanted to experience comfort and a better life.

A recruiter befriended the local Pastor's wife and was introduced to their parents, one of whom was the Barangay Captain. The nine children (seven boys and two girls) were offered the opportunity to work in Manila as farmhands or domestics, and for a salary. The remuneration and the thought of working in the big city were enticing. When the Barangay Captain gave Lino his permission, all the other parents also gave their children permission to go. The recruiter knew the lynchpin decision-maker was the Barangay Captain.

The nine boys and girls were brought to Pampanga, where they were asked to line up in an open field to be viewed by prospective employers. Apparently, there were no ready employers to take them in—those who were not chosen were taken by the recruiter one by one and peddled to fish pond owners, homes, a printing press, and piggeries. Tony and Lino landed in the printing press, but they did not last long (six days). The work was different and too much for them. Food was measured, rationed, and did not satisfy their hunger. They managed to call a relative who picked them up, but had to pawn his cellphone in order to pay the PhP 3,000 recruitment fee for the two of them. Within days they were able to go back home.

The fate of the others was not as good. As of the interview, which was about two months after they were recruited, the two girls could not be found. One mother, a widow, who desperately needed her son and the income he could contribute, could not locate him. Two other boys were found; similarly, they were not happy where they were placed and wanted to go home, but they did not have enough money to pay the bus fare from Bulacan all the way to Camarines Norte. In the meantime, the recruiter could not be found.

along the highway and the van was intercepted. This was another case of quick and coordinated action of the people and authorities.

The small-scale mining in specific areas of the province allows for fluctuating incomes. It is an accepted practice to allow children to work in the mine, even as early as the age of six. As a child grows he will learn how to do gold panning, the extraction process using mercury, and eventually learn how to do tunnel work in the mine. When there is a “jackpot,” meaning a lode of gold is found, people celebrate and spend. The prospects of increased economic activity has given rise to videoke bars beside the community in a barangay of Jose Panganiban town, Luklukan Sur, situated in a relatively isolated area in the mountains one hour away from the centre of town. The videoke bars employ girls and women who come from Manila, the Visayas, and other parts of the country. In this context, Camarines Norte is a destination—girls are trafficked into the mining sites. The Criminal Investigation and Detection Group (CIDG) of the local police raided the bars one time when they learned that there were children who were sexually exploited. The owners were forewarned—before the police arrived, the girls had already escaped, so no children were rescued. Rescue, apprehension and prosecution are quite difficult activities in the whole process of working against trafficking. Ultimately, the owner/protector of the videoke bars that were seen to employ children was identified, fired from his government position, and his bars were closed.

Religious and civil society organizations in the community protested against the presence of videoke bars in Luklukan Sur, prompting the local government to act. On February 2004 a raid of videoke bars in Bgy. Luklukan Sur was made through the joint efforts of the DOLE, Municipal Health Officer, MSWDO and CIDG. 30 female workers from the videoke bars were rescued and 12 were confirmed to be minors through the identification made by a dentist who was present during the raid. Three of the 12 rescued victims were residents of Jose Panganiban. The first child, known to be a “freelance prostitute,” was gang-raped prior to becoming a prostitute. The second child was the daughter of a prostitute in the area; she was sired by an unknown customer. Upon their release, the child was brought to Pasay City by her mother, probably to ply their trade again. Essentially, the mother in this case trafficked her own child. The third child was the daughter of the owner of one of the videoke bars and was reunited with her family. Consequently, instead of filing charges against the owners of videoke bars, the 12 minors were charged for not securing the necessary health permit from the municipal health office.

In June 2004, the local government of Jose Panganiban organized the quick response team under the municipal council for the protection of children which is composed of the following offices: Office of the Mayor, local PNP, municipal health office, municipal social welfare and development office, municipal court and Kabalikatan Civikom.

In recognition of the role of civil society organizations in local development, the municipal government of Jose Panganiban made the town’s parish priest a regular member of the municipal peace and order council. True to its commitment to curb prostitution and child labour, the local government of Jose Panganiban also passed a municipal order banning female waitresses below 18 from being employed by videoke bars. The local ordinance also clearly defined that a female employee of videoke bars shall be limited to work only behind the counter or as servers, but never

as entertainers to be tabled by customers. The ordinance also controls the number of hours a bar may operate in a day: up to midnight from Sunday to Thursday, and up to 2am from Friday to Saturday. It also mandates that the volume of the bars’ sound systems be lowered by 10:00 p.m. to lessen the inconvenience brought to nearby residents.

Capalonga, a coastal town, is said to be the site of child sexual exploitation where the children climb up small fishing boats to provide sexual services. The parents of these minors themselves serve as pimps. The children are paid with some of the fish catch of the fishermen instead of cash, and they have to sell these fish so they have money for their families’ other needs. Clearly this is a case of sexual exploitation. The question of whether it is trafficking if the children and their families are residents of the coastal town may be asked, though it does not diminish the gravity of the violation of the child’s rights.

One of the glaring cases of trafficking they recently handled was from the town of Mercedes. The recruiter went by the name of “Assunta” and her *modus operandi* first involved recruiting majority aged women who wanted to work as household helpers outside Camarines Norte. The first batch of recruits came back to the community successful (with some savings and visible physical improvements). Assunta then proceeded to recruit minors to work as household helpers, store helpers, or farmhands. It was, however, unclear where Assunta brought her recruits. There was no definite destination for these recruits. The child victims of Assunta were rescued by the police and follow up rescue operations were made in Candaba, Pampanga where the children were brought. At present Assunta is in prison and awaiting prosecution.

The provincial government of Camarines Norte has issued an executive order that institutionalized the Provincial Council for the Protection of Children and had it replicated down to the barangay level. Sagip Batang Manggagawa, spearheaded by the DOLE, acts on cases of child labour.

Table 4-10 Push and pull Factors to child trafficking in Camarines Norte^{7,8,9,10,11}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural ▪ Lack of education ▪ Children’s lack of interest in studying ▪ Peer pressure ▪ Desire to experience a new kind of work ▪ Lack of sustained mechanism for making people aware of what they should be (values system) ▪ Lack of access to proper information ▪ Large households compel parents to oblige their children to produce additional income for the family ▪ Family conditions are such that minors suffer abuse and exploitation from their own families Economic ▪ Poverty ▪ Lack of employment opportunities ▪ Low family income ▪ High cost of education	Social/Cultural ▪ Increased household income with more members working in the mine, consequently also decreasing amount of investment per capita ▪ Mentality to earn more money in a very short time if the mine yields high grade gold ores Economic ▪ “Gold rush” in a mining community brings in many prospective miners ▪ Increased economic activity due to gold rush gives the residents the luxury to afford entertainment activities and vices Political ▪ Lack of enforcement on local ordinances prohibiting minors from hazardous work Geographic ▪ Presence of shallow veins (less than 50 meters) of high grade gold bearing ores

⁷Camarines Norte CPC V Local Plan of Operations, 1999-2003.
⁸Result of Interview with Fr. Rodelas of SPACFI.
⁹Result of FGD in Vinzons and Labo, Camarines Norte.
¹⁰Interview with trafficking victims in Vinzons.
¹¹Baseline Survey of Working Children in Nine Small-scale Mining Villages in Camarines Norte.

4.4.1.3 Push and Pull Factors

The stories of child trafficking in Camarines Norte and of migration for work in general highlight economic and socio-cultural factors. The agricultural nature of the province and its mineral-rich land imply a great need for manual labour and capitalization. For both major types of income generation activities, involving the whole family in the process will reduce the cost of labour as well as maximize earnings. Agriculture though, is a seasonal livelihood. And so is mining. Sometimes one hits it rich, but the gaps between this occurring again may be long and far between. The push and pull factors to child trafficking for Camarines Norte are presented in Table 4-10.

4.4.2 Northern Samar

A mention of child trafficking in Northern Samar immediately brings up the Allen-Matnog crossing connecting the islands of the Visayas to Luzon. This part of the province is a known transit area for travelers and recruiters/ traffickers alike.

4.4.3.2 Socio-economic Profile

The province of Northern Samar is classified as a second-class province and has a total land area of 3,498 square kilometers. The 2000 NSO survey cites the total population of the province as 500,639 with an average growth rate of 2.11 percent. The average size of a household is 5.30. The 1998 National Statistics Poverty Indicators Survey describes the province as having 69.9 percent of its households living below the poverty threshold. The annual per capita poverty threshold of the province is Php 9,166 and the average family income is Php 80,144 per annum.

Aside from its rich aquatic resources, the province largely depends on agricultural products such as coconut and palay for its income. Majority (73 percent) of the workers employed in the province belong to the agricultural sector. A total of 307,000 persons categorized under the working age group of 15 years old and above were identified, with 90 percent employed and 10 percent unemployed.¹²

¹²Provincial Profile, Northern Samar, May 2004.

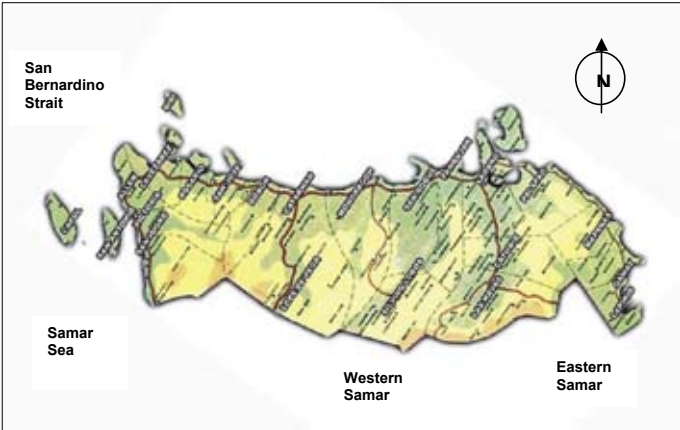


Figure 4-3 Map of Northern Samar

Performance indicators for elementary education showed a participation rate of 87 percent and a survival rate of only 54 percent. Teacher-student ratio at the elementary level is 1:35. The secondary education level posted a much lower participation rate of 54 percent and a cohort survival rate of 79 percent. Secondary school teacher-student ratio is 1:31.¹³

Based on the National Statistics Coordination Board data of 1995, the infant mortality rate is 66.5 for every 1000 live births. The top three leading causes of infant mortality are pneumonia, diarrhea and tetanus. Majority of households (75 percent) have access to safe drinking water and three out of five households (61 percent) have access to sanitary toilets.

Northern Samar ranks 6th in the SOC study on children living away from home. Its Child Trafficking Vulnerability Index (CTVI), as calculated in this study, is 53—quite far from the SOC value. This is perhaps due to the lack of actual data on Northern Samar, but should be taken as a warning; the province may need to be on the priority watch list for child trafficking.

4.4.3.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community’s Response

Liza’s story, mentioned later in this chapter, is the only case of child trafficking with Northern Samar as sending area that was surfaced by this study. Liza was actually first interviewed in Manila, where she narrated a sad story of recruitment by a trusted person, her teacher, exploitation as a domestic in Manila, and a dragging labour case against her employers, which she eventually won. And instead of being cared for towards healing while waiting for her case to prosper, she was again asked to work by her grandmother, to whom she was entrusted, who also took a portion of her earnings. In the end, her case can be cited as a success story with respect to rescue and repatriation, with Liza going back to her family after over two years of exploitation, seeking and receiving justice and redress.

Most of the study was spent in the Matnog (Sorsogon) base of the Visayan Forum, which operates a halfway house at the port. This NGO has established highly effective partnerships with the Philippine Ports Authority and the management and crew of the shipping lines that ply the Matnog-Allen route, the boats of which are used by traffickers to move their recruits from the Visayas on to Luzon.

The Visayan Forum conducts advocacy activities, distributing cards containing information about child trafficking to passengers and speaking in buses and on board the ferry boats, in order to make people more aware of its occurrence and evils. They also conduct training for the ship’s crew, so they can identify potential or suspected victims, and relay them to the Visayan Forum or on to the proper authorities. The staff also conduct surveillance activities aboard ship. Relayed information is dispatched by them—interception is done at the port, with the aid of the Port Police. The Visayan Forum has formed a strong network with the Matnog PNP, PNP-Traffic Management Group, Port Security, Key PPA personnel, PNP-maritime group, shipping

¹³CPC V Local Plan of Operations, Northern Samar, 1999-2003

companies, and stevedores. The Visayan Forum also embarked on educating the members of partner organizations on R.A. 9208, on the identification of potential trafficking victims and their functional roles. With the Visayan Forum in Matnog placing specially made posters in strategic locations such as the PPA counter, port lounge, ships entrance, and canteen area, the public is informed about child trafficking.

The children are processed in the Visayan Forum halfway house, called “Silungan sa Daungan.” Similar houses are also operated by the NGO in Davao City and in Manila. Unfortunately, many of the recruits, although they look very young, have birth certificates and other documents attesting that they are at least 18 years old. Many of these documents have obviously been tampered with. But with little proof and weak, faded photocopies, the Visayan Forum cannot insist on detaining intercepted children. Once in a while, and especially after the Visayan Forum social worker talk with them, a child or her/his friends speak up and reveal their true ages. Only then can the Visayan Forum have reason to detain the child, and not give him/her back to the recruiter.

One case witnessed by the project team was that of an 18-year old Manobo (an ethnic tribe in Northern Mindanao), who was brought by a friend to the recruiter without the knowledge of her parents. They were on their way to Manila when intercepted by Visayan Forum, who recognized that the Manobo would just suffer especially because she could not speak nor understand Tagalog. The possibility of working comfortably as a domestic when one does not know the local language is quite difficult. She was detained in the home, and later repatriated.

In some instances, children or young adults who are trafficked/recruited and are having second thoughts about it just walk up to the Visayan Forum and give themselves up for custody.

4.4.2.3 Push and Pull Factors

Discussions with the social workers and representatives of responsible government agencies in Matnog, Allen, Catbalogan, and Tacloban City (Leyte) revealed the push and pull factors presented in Table 4-11 for Northern Samar.

As in other provinces, poverty is one of the major push factors for children to be trafficked from Northern Samar. The provinces’ economy is still largely dependent on agriculture and aquatic resources and occasional natural calamities directly affect their harvest and ability to earn, and this is also aggravated by limited economic opportunities in their community. Such factors add up to their lack of access to basic social services such as education and health, which then forces the

Recognizing Exploitation

Arman and Chito are cousins, both recently turned 18, and they were recruited by a placement agency to work in Manila. They are from Balingasag, Misamis Oriental in Mindanao and were brought to Manila through the Matnog-Allen route.

When the cousins got to their prospective employers, they were told they would not be receiving their salary for the first two months because the employer already paid the recruiter PhP 3,300 for each of them to cover transportation, processing of their papers and food during travel. Faced with the grim proposition of having no money to start life in the big city, and the possibilities of exploitation, the two traced back their steps to Matnog and walked up to the Visayan Forum halfway house where they were accommodated.

Though no longer minors, the two were allowed to stay until they could save up enough fare money.

children to share in the burden of bringing in additional income for the family. The family’s poverty drives children to fall prey to their own kin, neighbours, or unknown recruiters who entice them to work in Manila on the promise of better living conditions.

Table 4-11 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Northern Samar^{14,15,16, 17}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural ▪ Lack of access to basic social services such as health and education ▪ Lack of access to basic information ▪ Deteriorating family values ▪ Mentality that children share the burden of raising the whole family ▪ Influence of peers Political ▪ Weak enforcement of laws pertaining to women and child protection Economic ⁴ ▪ Poverty ▪ Falling agricultural production ▪ Lack of economic opportunities within the community ▪ Prevalence of natural calamities	Social/Cultural ▪ Informal network of referral (relatives or neighbours living in the cities acts as referrals or directly hire the minors for household work) ▪ Presence of an agent of a licensed domestic recruitment agency in the community Geographic ▪ Accessibility of transportation Economic ▪ High pay and the luxury of availing nice clothes, make-up, and beauty regiments Personal ▪ Desire to experience working in Manila

One glaring attribute of the province with respect to the trafficking process is that it serves as the gateway from the Visayas and Mindanao region to Luzon through the Allen or Dapdap ports. The highly accessible transport works very well to the benefit of organized recruitment agencies in transporting their recruits to Manila because they could have the option of utilizing safe and inexpensive public transport, or, if a more covert method were needed, private vans or covered cargo trucks that can pass unnoticed, without catching the attention of authorities.

4.4.3 Cebu City

Cebu City is the melting pot of the south. People go to Cebu for education, business, as well as tourism. Its rapid economic development in the past years have brought with it the ravages of development: an increasing population resulting in congestion in many areas, traffic and pollution, as well as social ills like prostitution.



Figure 4-4 Map of Cebu

¹⁴CPC V Local plan of operations, Northern Samar, 1999-2003.
¹⁵Key informant interview results at Matnog, Sorsogon and Allen, Samar.
¹⁶Case summary of intercepted trafficking victims at Bahay Silungan sa Daungan.
¹⁷Interview of client of Bahay Silungan sa Daungan, Matnog, Sorsogon.

4.4.3.1 Socio-economic Profile

Cebu City is the capital province of the province of Cebu and the regional capital of Central Visayas. It is the core of Metro Cebu which is composed of other rapidly urbanizing and industrializing cities and municipalities. The city has a total land area of 330.29 square kilometers and the topography is characterized to be mountainous. Human settlements and economic activities are concentrated in a small strip of flat land along the coast which comprises only 15 percent of the total land area. Its central location and the existence of a major harbor are important factors that have transformed the city into a major trans-shipment point and centre for commerce, recreation, transportation and other service industries. Based on the 1995 census, the city's population is already 687,269 with a population density of 2,093 per square kilometer. A 1992 survey showed that 58 percent of the population lived in informal settlements which pose a challenge for the city government.

Based on the 1995 study made the National Statistical Coordination Board, the city's infant mortality rate is 44 per 1,000 live births. Majority of the households (96 percent) in the city have access to safe drinking water and sanitary facilities (63 percent). A high participation rate averaging 99 percent was achieved for both elementary and secondary education level across a five year period (SY 1994-1998). Cohort survival among elementary students improved for SY 1998-1999 at 82 percent compared to SY 1994-1995 of only 79 percent. Secondary education cohort survival showed great improvement in SY 1998-1999 at 76 percent compared to SY 1994-1995 of only 54 percent. Drop-out rate in elementary level decreased to 1.44 percent in SY 1998-1999 from 1.90 percent in SY 1994-1995. However, drop-out rate in the secondary level increased to 9.18 percent for SY 1998-1999 from 5.50 percent in SY 1994-1995.

4.4.3.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response

Various organizations that work for the protection of children admit that it is very hard to ascertain the exact number of children who have been trafficked to and from Cebu City, primarily because these vulnerable groups are "hidden" or operate covertly. However, reports from two NGOs (FREELAVA and BIDLISIW Foundation, Incorporated) that work with prostituted children showed that most of these prostituted children have been trafficked from neighbouring provinces of Cebu and the Visayas to the major urban areas of Cebu such as Metro Cebu, Lapu-Lapu City, and Mandaue City. This phenomenon of child trafficking is partly explained by the history of rapid migration into Cebu, one of the tangible results of economic development in the province.

A 2002 study done by the Philippine office of Save the Children-UK (SC-UK) in Barangay Suba identified various factors that explain why Cebu City is seen as a land of opportunity by migrants from poorer neighbouring provinces. The study takes into account the various socio-economic and geographic factors that have caused a massive influx of migrants into Cebu City. It shows that there are five major factors that triggered massive migration to Cebu City, particularly to Barangay Suba: the food shortage caused by the El Niño in the outlying provinces, the high unemployment rate, the weak domestic markets for the agricultural produce of the neighbouring areas, the instability of income from agriculture, and the limited education facilities for children.

With the rapid increase of the population in Cebu City, the squatter communities have also proliferated and brought in a growing number of urban poor. Children are said to suffer most from the consequences of increased poverty in the urban areas. Children of poor migrant families quickly fall into street life and prostitution.

Apart from low paying activities in the informal sector, prostitution has been one of the primary means for survival for the unskilled population of Cebu City. In 2003, FREELAVA and BIDLISIW Foundation estimated that 15 percent of the total sex workers in Cebu City are minors, and are highly mobile, staying in one place only for at least a month. Furthermore, 85 percent of the sex workers, which includes minors, are victims of trafficking. Sixty to 65 percent of these women are reported to be from Mindanao while 35 to 40 percent both come from provinces of Luzon and the Visayas, such as Bohol, Leyte, Samar, Cebu and the NCR.

Trafficking of children for prostitution and other forms of abuse continue to persist in Cebu and its major cities. The perception of Metro Cebu and other urban areas like Lapu-Lapu City and Mandaue as a "land of promise" could be attributed to the existing socio-economic and geographic factors that motivate migrants into searching for better opportunities that they believe lie in those areas. Unfortunately, this situation is being exploited by those who are in the sex trade who recruit children in order to supply an ever growing demand for new flesh in prostitution. In sum, unless development takes place in the surrounding areas of Cebu, where the cycle of poverty migration and prostitution pervades, there is no doubt that child trafficking shall continue to persist and worsen.

Barangay Kamagayan is known to be an area where numerous *casas* and brothels are situated. An FGD with 17 participants showed that most of the residents in the barangay are into the pimping and prostitution trade. They say that pimping and prostitution has been part of the notoriety of the barangay for some ages already and has been the primary means of income for many of its residents.

One male FGD participant, a local pimp, admits that pimping or *pang-iitik*, a local term for the trade, says that it is a viable source of income. Part of the tricks of the trade involved duping foreigners out of their dollars. There is a great demand for sexual services in the city, partly because of the presence of both local and foreign tourists that frequently visit the province especially during festivals. As an old-timer of the pimping trade, he recalls that though the pimping business is not as lucrative as a few years back, he is still in the business because the demand is always there and most of the time, they get the better share of the transaction between the customer and the prostitute. A pimp sells a prostitute to a prospective customer for as high as he can make it—from PhP 1,000 to PhP 3,000, depending on the gullibility of the customer. The transaction is usually done with the pimp describing the girl and without her in full view. What the girl receives is standard—oftentimes about PhP 500, which is equally shared by her and the *casa* owner.

Interestingly, information reveals that Cebu is more pronounced as a destination area. Most of the prostitutes from the area are really not from Cebu or even from its neighbouring provinces from the

Visayas. They say that young women who come to their barangay to work as *casa* girls were from Butuan, Iligan City, and Cagayan de Oro.

Moreover, the FGD also revealed that Cebu is also becoming a sending area to Laguna and Manila. One young participant candidly said that recruiters frequently visit their barangay, looking for women who could be brought to Manila or Laguna to work as videoke girls. He said the fair-skinned, sophisticated-looking and well-dressed young women are regarded to be beautiful and are then sent to Manila, while those who are not as attractive are sent to Laguna.

Prostitution is a way of life in this place. When one asks if there are children, the immediate response is that hiring children in the *casa* is illegal, and the Barangay Captain will get any girl caught working there and send them home. But there were many girls seen there, who were of the ages 15 to 17. One 15-year old, Marina, had already been there for about a year. She arrived with a friend of the same age, and immediately started to work. Her friend suffered the misfortune of getting a bad-tempered customer one night and was stabbed to death. The incident did not stop Marina from working there. She stoically explains that it is part of the job, and one just needed to learn how to talk and explain to the customer in a nice way. She was waiting to meet a foreigner who would eventually marry her and bring her away from the place.

Various government agencies have tried to come up with strategies to assist the victims of child trafficking and sexual exploitation. The Municipal Social Welfare and Development Office (MSWDO) of the city came up with a “velvet room.” It is basically a facility that provides exploited women and children with all the services and assistance they would need in order for them to recuperate from their harrowing experience of violence and abuse. Specifically, the velvet room provides psychological counseling and treatment facilitated by MSWDO’s social workers and health care by medical and health practitioners. Women and children are also provided legal assistance through the coordination efforts of MSWDO with partners from both government and the NGO network.

Other NGOs in Cebu have also responded to the needs of those that have been victims of exploitation and abuse (prostitution and trafficking). FREELAVA provides free health services to women and children who are in the prostitution industry. They also conduct studies and research to better understand the prostitution situation in Cebu City in order to be able to come up with appropriate interventions.

Government has not done much to curb sexual exploitation, which may be the most common purpose for trafficking into the city. This may be because it is an additional service to tourists, no matter how destructive it may be to the community. One reason that was articulated was that a more aggressive approach to apprehending owners of brothels as well as prostitutes themselves would only serve to bring the trade underground, where it would be most difficult to monitor, and the spread of disease could be disastrous. The government seeks to apply a health approach to a social problem.

In sum, all these efforts are characteristically *ex post* measures in addressing the problem of child prostitution and child trafficking, two of the most immediate problems that face the city in terms of child protection or welfare. There are, however, no interventions that seek to prevent or protect vulnerable women and children from being victimized by unscrupulous traffickers.

4.4.3.3 Push and Pull Factors

The push and pull factors for the city are enumerated in Table 4-12. The attraction that Cebu City offers lies in its commercialism. Regular transportation by land, sea, and air, from many of the towns and cities of the country favour going to Cebu. Manila may be too far and the fare too expensive, if one comes from Mindanao. Cebu, being half the distance, is the next best thing.

Table 4-12 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Cebu City^{18, 19, 20, 21, 22}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural - Limited education opportunities given to children - High cost of sending children to school - Peer influence - Parents and relatives directly sell their children to prospective clients or employers - Precocious sexual behavior (having boyfriends and engaging in premarital sex at an early age) - The children share the financial burden for the upkeep of their household due to large number of family members - The burden of raising the family is passed on by the parents to the child - Weakening of traditional moral values of the family Personal - Experience of first hand abuse from their own family - Disintegration of family Economic - Poverty Political - Special bodies created to enforce laws and implement programs and mechanisms designed to protect children remain inactive. - Lack of knowledge and sensitivity of local officials to the needs and concerns of children in need of special protection	Social/Cultural - Lack of sensitivity among media practitioners in handling reports concerning women and children - Lack of respect to basic human right and dignity by the recruiters Geographic - The city’s central location, accessibility and existence of a major harbor and other transportation facilities Economic - The city, being the economic centre in the Visayas region and next biggest metropolis in the country, generates economic activities for trade, finance, recreation and service-related industries. Personal - Growing attitude of consumerism among victims - Desire to experience the comforts of urban living Political - Special bodies created to enforce laws and implement programs and mechanisms designed to protect children remain inactive.

4.4.4 Iloilo City

The city of Iloilo, a highly urbanized coastal city, is, like Cebu City, a major entry point to the province and the island of Panay. It is also the way out of the province and the island, from the many inland towns of Panay, to neighbouring provinces. A common characteristic of the provinces of Panay are

¹⁸Survey on the demographic origins of commercial sex workers in Cebu City, Free Legal Assistance Volunteers Association, Inc. (FREELAVA, Inc.).
¹⁹Workshop results: The child trafficking situation in Cebu City, Centre for WINGS
²⁰Special report on the rescue operation of prostituted women and children, December 2003.
²¹Interview results with trafficking victims in Cebu
²²CPC V Local plan of operations, Cebu City, 1999-2003

fiestas, or annual festivals done in celebration of the town patron saint, or cultural festivals. These are only some of the attractions of the area, which somehow affect the flow of people, and, consequently, of child trafficking into, out of, and through the city.

Iloilo City is found in Region VI, which is midway across the 16 regions on the poverty scale. Like Region VIII, the highest value for children living away from home is 12 percent. Going by the premise that a high percentage of children living away from home indicates a relatively high probability of child trafficking, we get the impression at the outset that this is prevalent in the area.

4.4.4.1 Socio-economic Profile

The city of Iloilo has a land area of 56 square kilometers and is classified as a first class city. As of 2000, the city’s population was 365,820 or 19 percent of the province’s total population of 1,925,002. Iloilo City’s population growth of 1.93 is slightly lower than that of the province which is 2.10 (1995-2000). Average family income per annum is PhP 283,604.

The province continuously leads as a rice producer in the region and as having fertile fishing grounds, giving credit to its reputation as the food basket and rice granary of Western Visayas. The city’s service sector is also continuously growing.

The basic literacy rate of the province is 97 percent; functional literacy rate is at 90 percent. The public elementary level has a participation rate of 82 percent and a cohort completion rate of 69 percent as of school year 2001-2002 and a drop-out rate of two percent. The secondary education level posted a lower participation rate of 57 percent but a higher cohort completion rate of 84 percent compared to elementary and a high drop out rate of six percent. Crude birth rate in the province as of 2002 was 18.6 per 1,000 population and infant mortality rate of 13.19.

4.4.4.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community’s Response

PROCESS Foundation, an NGO working with prostitutes in Iloilo City, revealed in an interview that the city serves as both sending and destination areas of trafficked children, mainly for prostitution. Government agencies and NGOs believe that the persistent trafficking trade happens primarily as an exchange between Iloilo and the neighbouring city, Bacolod (of Negros Occidental) and sometimes with other provinces of Negros. The team went to Bacolod City to conduct a focus group discussion and validate the data obtained from Iloilo. The FGD participants from Bacolod affirmed that trafficking was an issue in their area. They cited that children, usually from the coastal barangays, are trafficked to Manila as domestic workers while children trafficked for



Figure 4-5 Map of Iloilo

prostitution are sent to Iloilo. However, the recruitment of children has somehow been mitigated after the Visayan Forum conducted community level interventions in the coastal areas of Bacolod.

Social workers of the Visayan Forum state that they are now focused on setting up a systematic information system to closely monitor the child trafficking incidence in Bacolod as well as in other neighbouring regions. Specifically, they are starting to build up their information database using the barangay’s information on local residents. Involved government agencies and NGOs also observe that trafficking operations are at their peak during festivals like *Maskara* in Bacolod and *Dinagyang* in Iloilo. According to these agencies, it is especially during these times that the demand for sexual services by both local and foreign tourists increase—which has proven to be very lucrative for recruiters, *casa* managers, and others who are involved in the prostitution business. The exchange of young sex workers in Iloilo with Bacolod has been made possible through the bustling ports and logistical capacities of recruiters in the area. Presently, government and NGO workers are continuing their efforts to control the health risks associated with prostitution, specifically, the spread of sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV. Interventions are in the form of providing centre-based medical interventions, such as pap smear test for sex workers employed in the *casa* or freelance prostitutes.

In Bacolod City, most, if not all, of the FGD participants were NGO workers from the Visayan Forum Foundation and individuals who belonged to a community-based organization called Bantay Bata sa Komunidad of Barangay Uno. The participants consisted mostly of mothers and youth. Most of them live in a coastal barangay known in the past to be a site for child trafficking prior to the intervention of the Visayan Forum. The trafficking activity in the area was observed to have been reduced since the community was organized. In the past, recruiters or headhunters were active in their communities. Most of those recruited were sent to Manila as domestic helpers or *kasambahays* while some were heard to be recruited as entertainers for Japan. None, however, had any direct experience as parents of those recruited or in assisting victims of trafficking. They believed that the main reason for trafficking is poverty and the lure of the big city, which was also a major enticement for the youth to leave their poverty-stricken communities. When the participants were asked whether a child in a poor family should work or not, the participants opined that ideally, children should stay at home and continue their studies, but they said that extreme poverty in the homes have been the reason why parents allow their children to leave home and work elsewhere, coupled by the desire of their children to get out of their respective homes.

Key informants from the Commission on Human Rights (CHR) assert that there are no specific interventions that address the issue of child trafficking in the area, despite reports that children and women are recruited and trafficked from the nearby areas of Negros Occidental to Iloilo, and the trafficking exchange of Iloilo City and Bacolod City.

Most of the government’s monitoring of prostitution is merely a preventive measure against the spreading of sexually transmittable disease and HIV. They provide free health check-ups and pap smears to women and children working in brothels as well as to freelancers.

The CHR states that specific and concrete actions remain to be taken in order to respond to the pervading problem of child trafficking in the Iloilo City. At the moment, there is non-complementation of efforts among relevant agencies such as the DSWD, CHR, the municipal government of Iloilo, DOLE, local NGOs, and the PNP in addressing child protection and welfare problems.

4.4.4.3 Push and Pull Factors

Unique to Iloilo City is the informal network that pimps, traffickers, and sex workers have built, which allows them to move around from one city or town to the other. These movements are triggered and timed by the fiestas that are celebrated around the area. In a sense, these women and girls, as providers of a particular service, go to where there is a high concentration of clientele at a given time. The health and other social implications of this kind of behavior are scary.

All the other push and pull factors that were seen to affect child trafficking in Iloilo City are found in Table 4-12.^{23, 24, 25}

Table 4-13 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Iloilo City

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural - Consent given by parents to their children to work in order to support their family - Children do not find interest in going to school due to geographic location and distance - Strong peer influence - Burden of earning for the family is passed by the parents to their child - Solo parenting and lack of employment opportunity Personal - Children leave their homes due to conflict, disintegration and neglect - Children suffered firsthand abuse (physical, sexual, verbal) from their family, relatives and peers Economic - Poverty - Lack of alternative sources of livelihood due to seasonal nature of work in haciendas	Social/Cultural - Presence of informal network of recruitment (referral made by neighbours and friends) - Deception made by recruiters to the victims on the grandeur of "Manila" and the comfortable living it offers - Demand for prostitution created by tourist (local and foreign) during festivals (Maskara) - Opportunity to improve one's appearance through beauty treatments and other methods (surgical and non-surgical) Economic - Promise of high pay given by recruiters Personal - Desire to experience urban living and "see celebrities"

4.4.5 Davao City

Davao City is, based on income class, a first class city. It is found in Region XI, which has the fifth highest number of working children living away from home. It is also the biggest in terms of land area. Its size allows for distribution of the population, yet congestion is an impending problem.

²³Results of FGD in Bgy. Uno, Bacolod City.

²⁴Results of interview with trafficking victims.

²⁵Key informant interview with CHR and local NGO.

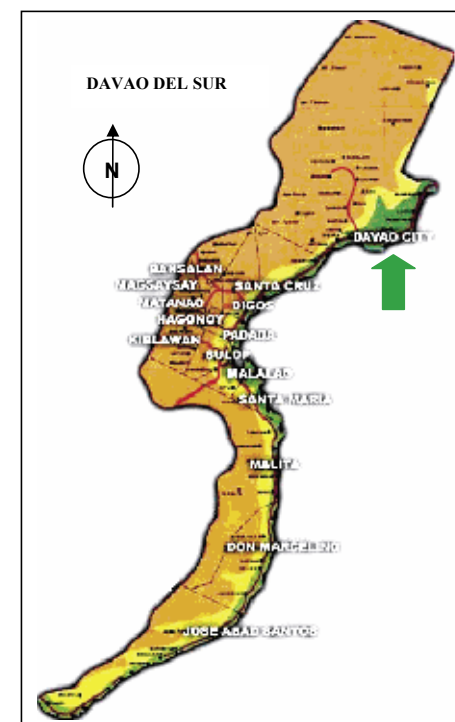


Figure 4-6 Map of Davao

The city contains all the conveniences of a big city, but it has been able to maintain its small town ambience.

4.4.5.1 Socio-economic Profile

Based on the census population report, Davao City has a population of 1,006,840 and is projected to increase at an annual rate of 3.22 percent. Migration continues to be the major factor in the increase of population. Davao City has a land area of 244,000 hectares and is the largest city in the world in terms of land area. It has a thriving agriculture-based economy that relies on diversified farming that produces crops such as banana, coconut, rice, corn and coffee, pineapple, cacao and citrus. Livestock, poultry, fishery and forest products also contribute to the city's economy. The growth of the manufacturing, trade and distribution industry is supported by the continuing development of infrastructure facilities to facilitate transport of goods such as the international airport and fish port complex and Philippine-Japan Friendship

highway that links Metro Davao with the Visayas region.

The city's infant mortality rate in 1995 was 29.3 percent per 1,000 live births (NSCB 1995). The overall participation rate in elementary level education slightly improved at 89.39 percent in SY 1997-1998 from the previous school year's participation rate of 89.2 percent. There was a significant drop in cohort survival rate in SY 1998-1999 at 75.87 percent from 83.6 percent in SY 1997-1998. This has been attributed to the Asian economic crisis and the El Niño phenomenon.

4.4.5.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response

Child trafficking has been one of the major concerns of Davao City. Key informant interviews with PNP and NGOs (Talikala and Tambayan) reveal that children are transported to nearby provinces of Davao and other areas in Mindanao, such as General Santos City and South Cotabato, to work as prostitutes in KTVs and videoke bars. Tambayan Center for the Care of Abused Children (TCCAC) reports that from 2000 to 2004, a total of 77 children, mostly residents of Davao City, had been trafficked to various regions of the country and other foreign countries such as Japan and Malaysia. Ages of the children ranged from 14 to 17 years old. They came from the communities of Agdao, Bangkerohan, Boulevard, and Isla Verde. 74 out of the 77 children were trafficked for prostitution while the others were for domestic work. Statistics show that in the

areas mentioned, the community is greatly involved in the recruitment process. In fact, 68 percent of the trafficked children were recruited by their peers, neighbours, family and close relatives. Thirty-seven percent of victims had their parents' consent and used fake personal documents in order to facilitate the whole recruitment. The report indicates an alarming prevalence of recruitment in various areas in Davao City.

Though it is recognized as a sending area, various literature on child protection show that Davao City is the next city to watch as a destination, following the trend in key cities like Cebu and Manila. The KABIBA Alliance for Children's Concerns, an NGO that is involved in research undertakings on child prostitution, notes that it is a valid inquiry whether Metro Davao is the next city to watch. The promotion of the once sleepy island of Samal as a major tourist hub poses great potential for young women to move from neighbouring provinces in order to supply an emerging demand for prostitution and other forms of sexual exploitation. This is partly due to the aggressive promotion strategies that characterize the current efforts of the tourism sector, which, as one of the top foreign exchange earners of the country, has somehow attracted a market for sexual services, both local and foreign.

An FGD was held at the barangay hall in Barangay Sasa. It was attended by 16 participants, mostly mothers of young women currently employed as entertainers in Japan. There were also participants who previously worked as entertainers in Japan, a father of a Japanese entertainer and a young woman waiting for her new contract to go back to Japan.

The FGD revealed that Barangay Sasa is known to be frequently visited by popular recruitment agencies in the Davao area. Most of the girls were recruited by a popular recruitment agency that goes by several names. This agency was found out to be blacklisted, and no longer considered by DOLE as an accredited recruitment agency. Everybody agreed that the agency had just changed its name and continues to recruit young women aspiring to be entertainers in Japan. The participants all agreed that in an ideal situation, children should stay at home and go to school and they should not be working. However, the mothers admit that they could not dictate to their daughters nor control what they wanted for themselves. They eventually give in to their children's desire to work abroad, with employment as entertainers being the most feasible option for them. Women in their area look forward to going to Japan as entertainers as soon as they finish high school.

The desire to work abroad grew out of the need to escape the poverty of their families. The girls felt that working and earning abroad was the better alternative to staying in the Philippines, marrying a bum, and having their own children. Seeing those who have returned from working abroad also encouraged the girls to go the same route.

The participants are all looking forward to the development plans in Sasa where the new international airport and a refurbished wharf would bring in more investments to the community and more tourists who can spend their money in Davao. Maybe, they said, they don't have to send or encourage their children to work abroad if these development plans pushed through. Poverty, lack of employment opportunities, their children's desire to experience working in Manila or abroad, the need to keep up with another neighbor's success, and a deeply entrenched sense of

materialism have pushed the community, particularly those who attended the FGD, to "allow" their children, even those younger than 18, to work. The presence of relatives already working in Japan was cited as another pull factor, since the participants think that having relatives would guarantee the safety of their children. In fact, the participants admitted that increasingly, it is the relatives who are already recruiting in their community.

Generally, the recruitment of minors appears to be a common practice in the community. Recruiters fake the age of minors so they can travel and work. The borrowing of birth certificates is a commonly accepted practice. Once the women reach 18, as some participants confessed, they go back to using their real—or legal— documents.

A young woman who recently came back from Japan is waiting for her next contract. It was an uncle who recruited her. Since she already had relatives in Japan, presumably also employed as entertainers, she did not hesitate to go abroad, confident that her relatives would look after her.

There are some recruitment agencies in the city which, according to the participants, are connected to Manila-based or Cebu-based agencies. But they were not sure if these agencies were legal or not. Often, their source of information about the legality of a recruitment agency is by word of mouth. When shown a list of POEA-approved recruitment agencies in Davao, some of them expressed surprise, having had no prior knowledge of such a list. When asked whether those who recruited their children were legally approved agencies, they expressed uncertainty. Recruitment through the informal channel, i.e., through friends, family members, and neighbours, appears to be the more common method. However, the participants agreed that going through recruitment agencies has its benefit: they do not have to fork out money for the travel expenses and other costs of becoming an entertainer. They know, though, that the money advanced by the agency would have to be amortized by their children/daughter. The perceived ease of earning money abroad reduces the cost of this debt.

According to TAMBAYAN (Center for the Care of Abused Children), between the year 2000 to February 2004, a total of 23 children were trafficked from the Agdao area with parental consent, bearing fake or illegal documents. Of these, seven children were recruited or trafficked more than once. In the same period, some 40 children worked in prostitution-related activities mostly in Tacurong, Marbel and Cotabato. Nine of the 40 children were rescued in Manila and Japan by TAMBAYAN in coordination with government agencies.

In the Bankerahan area, from June 2001 to December 2003, a total of 37 children were recruited/trafficked. Their age range is from 13 to 17 years old. The destinations included Tacurong, Marbel, South Cotabato, Manila, Zamboanga, Sultan Kudarat, Gen. Santos, Tagum in Davao, and Japan.

The Visayan Forum also operates a Bahay Silungan sa Daungan, in Davao. Its strategic location in the port allows it to monitor the inflow and outflow of passengers and investigate suspicious groups as they pass through the port. It shared its mid-year report which included, by region, a list of client's distribution by case categories, nature of cases, referring parties, gender and age,

educational attainment, reasons for coming to Manila, previous work situation, success of indicators, and types of services provided.

Interviews with the Davao local police (the PNP Women and Children’s Desk) reveal that child trafficking is a recognized problem in the area. In light of the persisting problem of trafficking of children in the city of Davao, the local police installed various checkpoints at major entry and exit roads of the city; vehicles are inspected to detect possible incidences of trafficking of children. However, efforts to detect and curb trafficking operations within the city were dampened when the checkpoint operations were re-focused to controlling and securing the area from terrorist attacks. Key informants from the local police admit that child trafficking has rapidly worsened primarily because trafficking operations and the growing prostitution industry both within and outside the city’s periphery were left unchecked.

The Davao police have also placed sentries in bus terminals situated within the city to inspect and apprehend individuals suspected of conducting trafficking operations. However, key informants admit that this kind of strategy had minimal success in curtailing the problem of trafficking of children. Information shows that the traffickers had resorted to using vans and taxis to transport their recruits. The traffickers had also devised a “shuttle type” transport system for recruited children to and from Davao City. The Davao police say that traffickers in Davao have been extremely systematic in conducting their operations and are, through time, increasingly creative in evading detection from local police authorities.

Table 4-14 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Davao City^{26, 27, 28}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural - Community's open acceptance of recruiter's presence in the community - Children support their studies independently by doing odd jobs due to lack income of the family to support his/her schooling - Children experience difficulty in coping with the high cost of school materials and transportation expenses - Buntog Phenomenon - Necessity of using children as farmhands Political - The initiatives of the local government units and concerned agencies in the protection of children's rights are not systematic, coherent and framework-based Economic - Poverty and lack of employment opportunities in some areas of Davao City - Inadequate income of the parents forces older children to seek employment - Desire to supplement the family's income	Social/Cultural - Presence of informal network (referral made by neighbour and friends) - Unscrupulous employers take advantage of hiring minors due to cheap pay and subservience to elders Economic - Production, manufacture distribution and trade are ably supported by transportation and communication facilities that meet world class standards. Davao represents a healthy mix in the sectors of commerce and entertainment

²⁶FGD results in Bgy. Sasa, Davao City
²⁷Children and Youth in Selected Communities in the City of Davao: A Quick Appraisal, Institute of Philippine Culture, Ateneo de Manila University
²⁸Factsheet on the Children of Southern Mindanao, National Statistics Office, Regional Office XI.

Other local NGOs, such as the TAMBAYAN and TALIKALA, provide a haven for trafficked children, offering counseling services to them. They also monitor and update statistics on the actual number of children who have been trafficked in their respective intervention areas, which are concentrated in highly vulnerable barangays where most recruitment activities have been reported, such as in Agdao, Sasa, and Bangkerohan.

4.4.5.3 Push and Pull Factors

Davao City is seen as a sending area, mostly through organized recruiters to foreign countries. The level of education and exposure of the children in Davao City may have contributed to their being marketable in Japan, the Middle East, etc. Davao City is also a receiving area. Many towns in neighbouring provinces are actually much poorer towns, and migration to the city generally happens. Table 4-14 shows the push and pull factors for Davao City.

4.4.6 Zamboanga Del Sur

Zamboanga del Sur, together with the other Zamboanga provinces, is found in Region IX, which is the fifth poorest region, and the second highest with respect to the total number of abused children in 2003. Residing in Region IX has been found in the Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model to increase the likelihood that a child will be trafficked. The prevailing poverty in the region may be a factor; its peace and order condition may also have affected the values of these indicators.

4.4.6.1 Socio-economic Profile

The province of Zamboanga del Sur has a total land area of 735,769 hectares and is classified as a first class province. As of 1995, the total population reached 1,217,758 distributed in the 42 municipalities and one city. Almost half of the population (49 percent) is comprised by the zero to 17-year-old age bracket. The total labour force of the province, composed of the 15 years old and above population, reached 524,020, with a participation rate of 76 percent.

Elementary participation rate in SY 2002-2003 reached 87 percent but was 1 percent lower from SY 2001-2002, which had a participation rate of 88 percent. Cohort survival rate in elementary only reached 54 percent, much lower than the national average, and dropout rate is 1 percent. Teacher-student ratio in elementary is 1:37. Meanwhile,

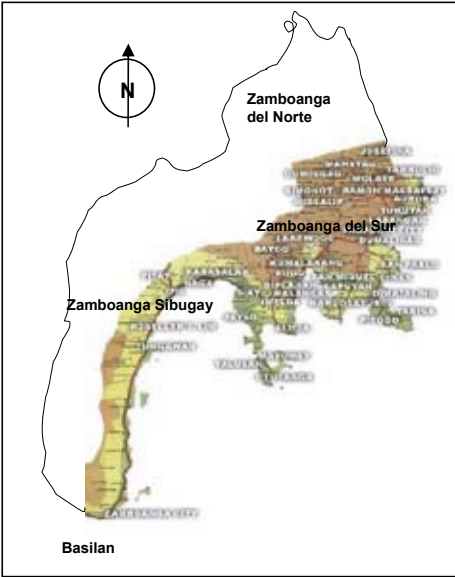


Figure 4-7 Map of Zamboanga del Sur

secondary education participation only reached 41 percent but cohort survival rate is high at 69 percent compared to elementary. Dropout rate in secondary school is quite high at 6 percent and 1 percent point higher than the previous school year (SY 2001-2002). Teacher-student ratio is 1:39.

The crude birth rate of 19.9 per 1,000 as of 2002 was lower compared to 22.1 per 1,000 in 2001, and the crude death rate of 343.2 per 100,000 is higher than the death rate in 2001, which was only 318.3 per 100,000. The infant mortality rate of the region is 11.3 per 1,000 live births; however, Zamboanga del Sur registered an even higher infant mortality rate at 12.7 per 1,000 live births. The decrease of access to potable water from 79 percent in 1996 to 78 percent in 1997 is notable, and so is the decrease of access to sanitary toilet facilities, which was at 72.9 percent in 1996 and declined to 73 percent in 1997. Apparently, many of the indicators for well-being and education have decreased in value.

4.4.6.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response

Zamboanga del Sur is besieged by issues on child labour, child prostitution, massive influx of repatriates from Sabah, Malaysia and increased poverty and massive out-migration to Malaysia. Although there is less published data on the child trafficking situation in the area compared with Cebu and Davao, it is highly possible that child trafficking for the purpose of prostitution and child labour has existed for some time and continues to persist.

The Department of Labor and Employment's survey on child workers in the ports of Zamboanga City indicates that most of the child labourers were Muslims coming from the island of Sulu while a considerable proportion are repatriates from Sabah, Malaysia. The children are predominantly male, with ages ranging from 11-15 years old. The survey findings show that some of the child workers in the ports no longer live with their families. Most of these children have become street dwellers in Zamboanga City. The common reason given by the children for leaving home was neglect, abuse, and violence in their homes. There is a high probability that many of these children have been trafficked from their homes in Sulu.



According to key informant interviews with the Philippine Center on Transnational Crime (PCTC), Western Mindanao Office, women and young children are trafficked to Sandakan, Malaysia to work in brothels and various establishments in Sandakan's red light district. Young children were reported to be recruited and eventually sold to bar managers and *casa* owners in Sandakan.

Young women are mostly preferred by clients in the sex trade in Malaysia. Narratives from the cases handled by PCTC's Western Mindanao office note that fees for sexual services of young women or minors are enormously higher compared to women who have been working as prostitutes for quite some time. The trafficked girl-children are recruited from Manila, Zamboanga del Sur, and other parts of Western Mindanao. There is a strong indication that residents of

Zamboanga City know the trafficking routes as they were revealed by the PCTC and participants in the FGD conducted in Sta. Catalina, a Barangay in Zamboanga City. Both sources say that women are transported primarily by illegal operators of fast craft—sea vessels that are far better and faster than those used by the Philippine Coast Guard—that make it easier for traffickers to avoid being caught by coastal authorities. Reports show that these fast craft take the Zamboanga and Tawi-Tawi transit points or Zamboanga to Sulu routes. The PCTC suspects collusion between Philippine and Malaysian immigration authorities has facilitated and perpetuated the trafficking of children across national borders. Zamboanga del Sur's strategic location from Sandakan, Malaysia and the accessibility of transportation and other mechanisms for cross-border migration are considerable factors why cross-border trafficking are persisting in the area. The employment opportunities that lie in Sandakan, Malaysia and the easy access to facilities for migration attracts women and young children from neighbouring provinces and regions.

The FGD in Sta. Catalina was attended by the Barangay Kagawad, the community's health inspector and local residents of the area. The locality recently launched a Bantay-Bugaw project in collaboration with the Coalition Against Trafficking in Women (CATW).

The FGD revealed that trafficking is a common occurrence in their communities, and that although they lack specific data on the actual number and magnitude of the problem, the participants have a good idea that it is a continuing and growing problem. In fact, one participant was a victim herself of trafficking to Kuwait. She reported that dozens of Filipino women are languishing in jails in the Middle East, particularly in Kuwait, for many months and others for some years now, adding that they were recruited when they were still minors. Another problem that they see in their community is the increasing prevalence of internal migration. In Barangay Sta. Catalina, there has been an observable entry of people from other areas of Mindanao, particularly from where there is a high level of armed conflict. Internal migration to their barangay is a concern because the participants noted a marked increase in criminality after the massive influx of migrants.

The trafficking of Muslim minors and women are also rampant in Zamboanga City. However, these incidences are not reported and are not given much attention by the authorities. According to the informant, a Muslim herself, the myth that Muslim people are less likely to be trafficked because of their distinct culture and customs is not true. Further research needs to be done among Muslim communities on their vulnerability towards trafficking.

Around the barangay, the proliferation of videoke and karaoke clubs has been most dramatic in the last few years. Young women and minors work for these establishments, some of which are fronts for prostitution. The women are hired as waitresses, helpers, and the like. According to reports that reached the FGD participants, a number of the minors are recruited from other areas in Mindanao. There was a consensus that those recruited for work in the "entertainment" industry locally and internationally are young, vulnerable, and come from poor families. They also acknowledged that the informal way of recruitment, e.g., word of mouth and house-to-house, is now well entrenched in the communities.

The PCTC’s West Mindanao field office has made some strides in combating the trafficking of women and children in their specific areas of operations. It coordinates with other law enforcement agencies and NGOs in the exercise of its own law enforcement function against all transnational crimes. The PCTC officially covers the provinces of Zamboanga del Sur, Zamboanga Sibugay, Zamboanga del Norte, Basilan, Sulu and Tawi-Tawi, Lanao del Norte, Misamis Occidental, Camiguin Island, Bukidnon and the cities of Zamboanga, Iligan, Cagayan de Oro and Marawi. One of their accomplishments was the dismantling of a human trafficking syndicate in Zamboanga City in 2001. The syndicate had been facilitating the recruitment and transportation of minors to supply the prostitution dens in Sabah, Malaysia.

Key informants of PCTC revealed that despite their relative success to detect and pin down syndicates that recruit minors within their areas, none of those they have apprehended were prosecuted for child trafficking. Most of the syndicates were usually charged with illegal recruitment. They recommended that there should be capacity and awareness building on the child trafficking law among members of the law enforcement groups. Child traffickers should be prosecuted. They also mentioned that apprehending transporters of children from Zamboanga City to nearby provinces of Tawi-Tawi, Sulu and Sandakan, Malaysia is extremely difficult since transporters have faster and better sea craft compared to the Philippine coast guard.

4.4.6.3 Push and Pull Factors

Table 4-15 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Zamboanga del Sur^{29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural ▪ Separation of the children from their parents due to deportation from Sabah ▪ Low functional skills of the household head thus limiting their earning capability ▪ Children drop out of school due to family's inability to provide for daily allowance, school supplies and food ▪ Parents prefer their children to work to help them defray the cost of family expenses ▪ Parent's distorted notion that sending children to work early prepares them for the future and develops in them a sense of responsibility Economic ▪ Poverty ▪ Low household income Personal ▪ Experience of abuse, neglect, and maltreatment at home Political ▪ Weak enforcement of laws protecting women and children	Geographic ▪ Strategically located transit or jump off point to nearby trafficking destinations such as Sandakan, Malaysia Economic ▪ Expected increase in trade and commerce due to the development and improvement/upgrading/expansion of seaports and airports in the region Political ▪ Alleged collusion of illegal recruiters with Malaysian coast guard and immigration authorities in transporting victims to Sabah or Sandakan, Malaysia

²⁹Situation of Child Labourers in the Zamboanga Port Area, Zamboanga City
³⁰A study on the incidence of child labour in Sibutad municipality, Zamboanga del Norte, DOLE – Regional Office 9
³¹CPC V Local plan of operations, Province of Zamboanga del Sur, 1999-2003.
³²Poverty in the Philippines: An update and reexamination, A. Balisacan, 2001.
³³The RDC communicator, 2002.
³⁴Focus group discussion results at Sta. Catalina and Key informant interviews with DSWD social workers.

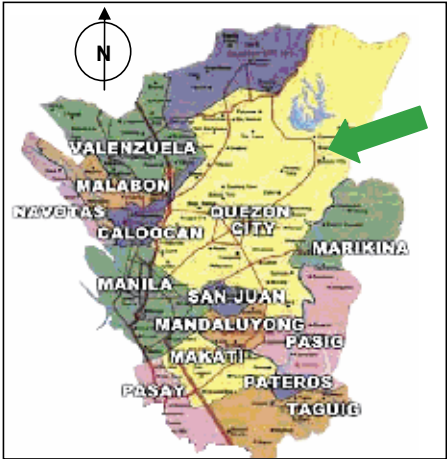


Figure 4-8 Map of Quezon City

4.4.7 Quezon City

Quezon City is highly populated, with a lot of business and residential areas. It also has many clubs, restaurants and entertainment establishments. It is one of the richer cities in Manila.

4.4.7.1 Socio-economic Profile

Quezon City has a land area of 16,112.12 hectares which is one fourth of the National Capital Region. The topography of the city is largely rolling with alternating ridges and lowlands. It has a population of 2,173,31 and its annual population growth rate during the five-year period (1995-2000) was observed to be at 1.92 percent. The city’s

population density is 135 per hectare. The major sources of income for the city are small and medium scale establishments engaged in the distribution of products and the provision of basic personal services.

4.4.7.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community’s Response

The prostitution trade in Quezon City continues to thrive and flourish. The actual magnitude and extent of the industry, however, cannot be established. Yet various studies reveal that more and more young girls and boys are being lured into the fold. Undoubtedly, the problem of prostitution among children in Quezon City continues to escalate.

A study conducted by the UP-CIDS (2001) on children involved in the sex industry in Quezon City reveals that it is primarily concentrated in Quezon Avenue and Timog Avenue. These are the areas where the entertainment establishments such as bars, clubs and beerhouses are concentrated. In these areas, the children and young women can be found in the malls, theaters, discos, and restaurants; a famous park constructed in honor of a late Philippine president is where boys mostly congregate to look for gay customers.³⁵

Information from Suporta at Gabay sa Ikalalaya sa Prostitusyon ng Kababaihan or SAGIP-K, a community movement that seeks to end prostitution in Quezon City, reveals that prostitution has flourished in the area for more than a decade. However, the system of prostitution has started to worsen in the Quezon City area after 1993. When the former mayor of the local city government of Manila approved City Ordinance No. 1183 of March 1993, which prohibited the establishment or operation of businesses such as saunas, karaoke bars, and other establishments that affect the

³⁵ The World of the Children Involved in the Sex Industry: Reducing the Risks and Harm of Sexual Exploitation, STD and HIV/AIDS in Filipino Children.

moral welfare of the community, most of those establishments transferred to Quezon City. The prostitution trade in Quezon City spread fast, attracting customers from the city’s periphery, turning it into a centre for flesh trade.

SAGIP-K, through their nightly operations, was able to identify 181 women considered as “freelancers” or street prostitutes. Fifty-three percent are mostly young women, with an age range of 14 to 22 years old. These prostituted women prowl the streets of Quezon and Timog Avenues, where they have local pimps hailing at prospective customers. Most of the children SAGIP-K is currently assisting are from the provinces of Cebu, Samar, Laguna, Davao, and Zamboanga.

Most of these women are not originally from Manila. Forty-five percent of the women interviewed are from the Visayas and Mindanao regions. These women and children were born and reared in Leyte, Masbate, Cebu, Bacolod, Negros Oriental, Negros Occidental, Davao, Misamis Oriental, Misamis Occidental, and Surigao. The other 21 percent were from the provinces of Northern and Central Luzon, such as Nueva Viscaya, Isabela, Cagayan Valley, Nueva Ecija, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Tarlac, and Pampanga. Information also shows that most of these children and young women reached Manila after they graduated from high school from their respective provinces. There was not much information on how they migrated and moved from their areas of origin. However, it is highly probable that a huge number of these children and young women were trafficked from their respective homes.

Like other major cities such as Cebu and Davao, Quezon City with its numerous entertainment establishments commands a great share of the demand for new recruits to be trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation. There is very limited information on the extent and magnitude of children being trafficked to and from Quezon City, however, sources suggest that most of the children brought into the city are recruited for prostitution. This was confirmed in an interview with a social worker from the Municipal Social Welfare and Development Office (MSWDO) who assisted in SAGIP-K operations.

The social worker explains that these children were primarily driven out of their provinces by extreme poverty. The difficult situation in their homes forced them to venture out into the city of Manila to look for work, primarily to support their families’ basic needs and the schooling of their siblings. Unfortunately, these children became victims of recruitment agencies that deceived them by promising them work as waitresses or as sales ladies. The young girls were made to serve as waitresses for a few months inside bars and nightclubs along Quezon City. Eventually they were made to work as GROs. They either entertain customers in the bar, or they could be “taken out” for a price of three to four thousand pesos for one or two hours of sexual service.

SAGIP-K is currently pursuing the measure of accurately determining the profiles of these young children. The profiling includes their socio-economic situation and their regions of origin. According to the coordinator of the movement, profiling these young women and children is a very difficult task. Most of them do not readily disclose information about their experiences; or, if they do, they provide false information. However, the findings reveal that most of the prostituted women and children are from the far regions of the country like Visayas and Mindanao.

Unfortunately, the profiling documents do not include detailed information on the history of their migration, which could shed light on whether or not these children had been trafficked.

4.4.7.3 Push and Pull Factors

Table 4-16 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Quezon City

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural - Children share in the responsibility of bringing money for the family - Dysfunctional family - Consent given by parents for children to work away from home - Early pregnancy - Influence of peers Economic - Poverty Personal - Experience of 1st hand abuse from family	Social/Cultural - A stable/increasing demand for sexual services among children - Pervading prostitution in the commercial areas within the city. Economic - The need to earn big to support their family and children

4.4.8 Pasay City

Pasay City, the smallest political subdivision in NCR in terms of land area, is also classified as a highly urbanized city.

4.4.8.1 Socio-economic Profile

Pasay City has a total land area of 18.5 square kilometers, five square kilometers of which is the city proper. The city is known for its entertainment, business and food establishments, especially those located along Roxas Boulevard. The city’s population as of 2000 was already 421,058 with an increase of 3.05 percent from the 1995 population of 406,610. The population density slightly increased based on the 2000 census at 30,292 from 1995 which is 29,396. The population growth rate between 1995 and 2000 is 0.66 percent per annum. Pasay City’s labour force participation rate as of 2000 is 59.4 percent lower by 1.9 percent from the previous year. Still, the employment rate grew at 84.5 percent from last year’s growth of 82.8 percent. The 1998 annual poverty indicator survey showed that 10.28 percent of families in the city live below the poverty threshold. The crude birth rate of the city is 23 per 1,000 live births as of 2000, with a crude death rate of 5.00 per 1,000 population. A majority of households (99 percent) have access to safe drinking water and sanitary toilet facilities at 94 percent.

The functional literacy rate of the population of 10 years old and above improved from 97.51 percent in 1994 to 98.2 percent in 2001. The functional literacy rate of the ten years old and above

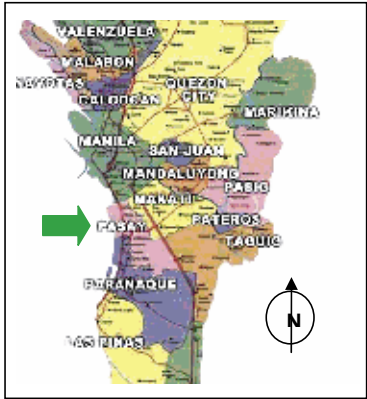


Figure 4-9 Map of Pasay City

bracket also rose to 96.5 percent in 2001 from only 94.5 percent in 2001. The elementary level participation rate of 93.32 percent in 2000 slightly decreased from the previous year’s record of 94.57 percent. In spite of this, the cohort survival rate showed good results at 91 percent for the year 2001 which is slightly higher by 0.05 percent from the previous year. For secondary school participation rate, the city continues to post an improvement of 86.28 percent compared from the previous year of 84.49 percent. The cohort survival rate in secondary education also showed positive results at 91 percent compared to the previous year’s survival rate of 89.67 percent. Pasay City seems to have performed well, based on its education and health indicators.

4.4.8.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community’s Response

Partial data from PNP in 2001 shows that violence and abuse against children have been rising since 1998. Although the increase could partly be attributed to the rise in drug dependency, the negative effects of lewd movies and tabloids, and the increased data collection due to heightened awareness on the rights of the child among police officers and parents,³⁶ the figures still indicate that violence and abuse of children in Pasay is alarming and needs to be immediately addressed. The PNP Women’s Desk and the Pasay City Police show that almost all abuses against children and violence against young women have been increasing steadily every year. The 2004 figures from the Drop-in Program (Temporary Shelter) assistance of SERRAS Youth Home for Girls show that there were 44 young girls that experienced abuse from their own homes. Twenty-eight out of the 44 children were sexually abused, three were prostituted, three others were street children and the rest were physically maltreated. The literature suggests that violence against children is one of the potent factors that makes them highly vulnerable to trafficking.

Violence and abuse of children highly predisposes these children to escape these violent relationships and in the process, makes them easy prey to traffickers and recruiters.

Pasay’s development plans favour its becoming a destination area for trafficking. Pasay’s development is hinged on two of its major economic drivers: trade and commerce and tourism. The tourism sector of Pasay capitalizes on the strategic location of the city and its tourist-oriented facilities available in the area. In fact, Pasay has been known for its numerous night clubs, girlie bars, and similar entertainment establishments that cater to the ever growing clientele of locals and foreign tourists searching for sexual services.

Interviews with social workers in SERRAS³⁷ revealed that a considerable population of young female children in Pasay is involved in street-based prostitution. In 2004, through their street education/bar outreach, the social workers were able to identify 107 girls involved in “freelance” or street-based prostitution. These children prowl the streets of Metro Manila, specifically in Harrison, Baclaran, Dakota, Luneta, and Malate.

These children were from Samar, Leyte, Cebu, Zamboanga, Davao, Butuan City, General Santos City, in the Negros provinces, and not from Manila. Although there is limited information on how

³⁶ Pasay City Comprehensive Development Plan for Children (2002 – 2005)
³⁷ The SERRAS centre for girls provides preventive, protective and rehabilitative care to sexually abused/prostituted children.

they were able to reach Manila, it is likely that some or most of these young children were trafficked from their respective places of origin. Most of the young girls were from poor families. Unskilled, and unable to get formal employment, they were forced into street prostitution for survival. In the meantime, advocacy efforts were being done in order to extract these children from their current means for survival. These children have been endorsed to the Pasay City health officers for monitoring. They are encouraged to undergo regular STD check ups to prevent their acquiring and spreading STD and HIV.

4.4.8.3 Push and Pull Factors

Table 4-17 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in Pasay City^{38, 39, 40, 41}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural ▪ Low value put on education by parents ▪ Lack of parental support due to low level of education of parents themselves ▪ Unabated movement/relocation of informal settlers in the city due to demolitions ▪ Peer influence ▪ Deteriorating family values Economic ▪ Poverty ▪ Low income of families to support the education of their children	Geographic ▪ The re-development of Roxas Boulevard and other tourist-oriented facilities to attract more local and foreign tourists ▪ The city being one of the main tourist hubs of the country attracts a number of local and foreign tourists in search for 'entertainment' Political ▪ The city government's plan of further promoting local tourism to push the city's economic development Economic ▪ The presence of numerous night clubs along Roxas Boulevard and other entertainment establishments in the city

4.4.9 City of Manila

Manila, the oldest city in the country, is highly populated and up to this day, maintains many of its old businesses and structures. It is one of the major tourist hubs in the country. It has many restaurants, night clubs, hotels, a casino, and other entertainment and recreational facilities. Many areas of Manila accommodate the informal sector.

4.4.9.1 Socio-economic Profile

The City of Manila has a land area of 38.3 square kilometers that is occupied by two million people during daytime and 1.7 million at nighttime. Its population density is presently placed at 43,789 persons per square kilometer. Unabated domestic migration continues to be a challenge to the city government due to livelihood

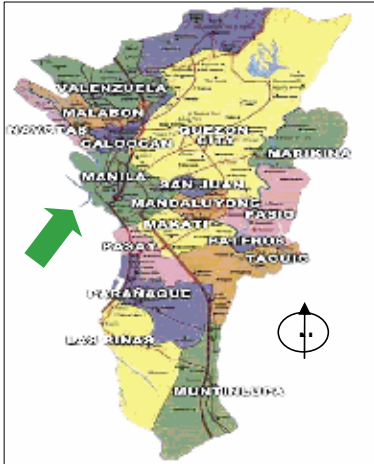


Figure 4-10 Map of Metro Manila showing the City of Manila

³⁸ CPC V-Local plan of operation, City of Pasay, 1999-2003.
³⁹ Comprehensive land use plan of Pasay City.
⁴⁰ Result of FGD in Pasay.
⁴¹ Interview with mother of trafficking victim

The Story of Liza

Liza was born the younger of two children to farmer parents in a town in Northern Samar. The family got by with her parents selling copra harvested from coconut trees growing on a piece of land that they owned.

One summer, Liza was offered a job by her school teacher, who was both their neighbour and her parents' friend. She was to work as a "kasambahay" (house help) for a couple in Manila. The teacher promised her monthly pay that could help ease up their family's finances; she was also told that she would be allowed to continue her schooling even as she was working.

The teacher went on to ask for her parents' consent and, eventually, they agreed to the offer. Though Liza did not want to leave, she accepted the decision of her parents, taking it as an indication that they really needed for her to earn. Her father's permission contributed strongly to her acquiescence. She could not forget the sight of her parents waving goodbye as she boarded the bus for Manila. Despite the company of her teacher and her constant assurances that Manila was beautiful, with its big shopping malls and a chance to see movie stars, her sadness could not be allayed.

Things were different from her teacher's promises when she arrived. She was never enrolled in school. She was gravely maltreated by the couple who employed her. She was abused physically and verbally. Once, her employer pelted her with a dinner plate. At another time she was placed inside a sack which was then tied up and hung outside the house. Liza lacked sleep, as she had so much work to do: house chores, baby sitting and other errands. She had no rest day. She had scars, both emotional and physical, when she was interviewed. A highly visible scar was the one on her arm, which was burnt with a flat iron. And yet, she was never paid for her services.

After a year of employment, Liza could no longer bear the harsh treatment and abuse. She ran away from her employers, and found a home in the Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. (VFFI), an NGO that provides assistance to trafficked children. VFFI filed a labour case on Liza's behalf against her former employers. In the meantime, the NGO thought she would be able to recover much better if she was in the care of relatives. She was therefore transferred to a grandmother in Cavite. The VFFI later found out that Liza was asked by her grandmother to work again as a domestic. Though she was no longer abused by her employers, she had to give part of her salary to her grandmother. This prompted VFFI to take custody of Liza again. She was then provided with counseling services and nonformal education. Liza's labour case was resolved after two years; she won the case and was paid back wages and damages by her former employers. She was then moved from Manila to the VFFI's halfway home *Silungan sa Daungan* in Matnog, Sorsogon, along the way to repatriation.

The VFFI made the necessary investigation, processing of papers, and all the activities preparatory to repatriation. After about a month's stay in Matnog, Liza finally was able to go home, to end almost three years of separation and uncertainty.

unaware of the working conditions and terms of employment, trafficked children brave the situation, keeping in mind the bright future working in Manila might bring to them.

In the North Harbor FGD, the participants included Philippine Ports Authority (PPA) personnel, social workers, stevedores, PPA police, and members of the Coast Guard. The FGD was conducted after the group's regular meeting. It was obvious from the discussion that most, if not all, the members of the group were familiar with the issue of child trafficking, since its mandate is to assist

opportunities which rural migrants believe could only be realized in Manila. The new migrants usually relocate in one of the city's 232 depressed barangays where they form clusters or colonies. It is estimated that a total of 70,000 families live below the poverty threshold; due to limited resources, however, the city government, through the services of the Manila Department of Social Welfare, can only help around 50 percent of this group.

The infant mortality rate of the city is 27.59 per 1,000 live births (NSCB 1995). 100 percent of the households in Manila enjoy access to potable water. DOH findings in 1997 reveal that sanitary facilities are available to 91.8 percent of households. Elementary participation rate for SY 1997-1998 was exceedingly high at 113 percent but with a cohort survival rate of only 78.5 percent.

4.4.9.2 Child Trafficking Cases and the Community's Response

The City of Manila continues to have its old luster in the minds of trafficking victims who still believe that it promises good employment, a high salary, and a comfortable life. This is why Manila remains to be one of the major receiving areas for trafficking victims. Even if they are

the Visayan Forum in its program to rescue children trafficked in the North Harbor. The Visayan Forum office in the harbor is also a halfway house. The discussions focused mainly on the group's actual experiences in rescue operations of children who regularly arrive at the Port Harbor. They know that there are criminal syndicates involved in child trafficking and they come from many places in the country.

Recruited children come in ships from ports like Cebu, Iloilo, Davao, Zamboanga and other places through which these ships pass. In one instance, 80 children were rescued in the port. Apparently, recruiters bring in children in batches of 20. These batches are boarded in each of the ship's stopover ports. This story implies that the trafficker has connections on land who recruit and prepare the children for boarding at a particular schedule.

In Pandacan, members of the Bantay Bata sa Komunidad attended the FGD. They were mostly officials and members of the community-based group and beneficiaries of the Visayan Forum programs. The members of the Bantay Bata sa Komunidad are presently focused on interventions regarding child abuse.

According to the participants of the Pandacan FGD, there are working children within their community. They work mainly as stevedores in a nearby huge shopping district and as street vendors in the neighbourhood. They also spoke about minors going off to other provinces to work to augment the family income. But none of them could be certain whether these children/youth were trafficked. Most of those who work as stevedores and street vendors come home to their parents at the end of each day. They blame poverty as the main cause of children working at such an early age.

When asked whether there are recruiters in the area, the participants answered in the affirmative, but could not give any other details. Their knowledge can be categorized as hearsay because none of them actually knew for certain who the traffickers were, and how they conducted their business. One of the things they heard around the community was that young women were being recruited to work as entertainers in Japan.

Since the participants belonged to an organized group, whose focus is child labour, their knowledge about trafficking was relatively high. They expressed their disappointment over the issue. It appeared in the discussion that since they were organized, the trafficking of children for work had disappeared, and was no longer seen as a real problem.

The participants believed that the presence of working children is part of their community life. Children are forced to work because of poverty. Parents do not find anything wrong with child labour for as long as this is not illegal and does not harm the children. Harm meant that the child suffered physical, sexual or psychological abuse or exploitation. As far as they knew, none of the working children in their community were being abused or exploited this way. According to them, many children are forced to drop out of school because of their work.

There was no substantive information regarding the recruitment of children/minors, profile of recruiters, and the recruitment patterns.

4.4.9.3 Push and Pull Factors

The factors affecting trafficking which were shared by the FGD participants and the interviewees are summarized in the table that follows.

Table 4-18 Push and pull factors to child trafficking in the City of Manila^{42, 43}

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural - Consent given by parents for child to work away from home - Children share the burden of raising their family - Peer influence - Children are exposed to work at an early age Economic - Poverty Personal - Experience of sexual abuse from father and relatives	Social/Cultural - Belief in the abundance of livelihood opportunities in Manila - Trust given to relatives and neighbours who directly recruit children for domestic work in their own household - Deception used by recruiters - Desire to see the cityscape and experience urban living Economic - The pay in an urban area is perceived to be much higher than in the province Personal - Desire to locate a missing family member

4.5 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The field studies validated most of what was already known as initial data from the literature review, but generated specific information about the nine areas. It especially matched the dimensions and variables that were considered in the Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model (CTVAM). What may need more investigation is the fact that poverty really has so many dimensions, and one child or family blaming poverty as the reason for their having been trafficked or their allowing a child to be trafficked, may have, deep inside, a meaning for poverty that is different from another’s.

4.5.1 The Results of the Field Studies vis-à-vis the Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model

In most of the areas, the children who were trafficked consisted more of females than males—an observation that is aligned with the model, which shows that the likelihood of being trafficked is increased by the child’s being a female.

It is enlightening to apply the child trafficking model as a perspective in looking at the whole process, from recruitment down to rehabilitation and reintegration of the child, and all in the context of the three strata of variables: the individual, the family and the community. The case of

⁴²CPC V-Local plan of operation, City of Manila, 1999-2003
⁴³Interview results of victims in Manila

Liza gives the story of one trafficked child, from recruitment to exploitation, down to rescue, rehabilitation and repatriation. Her case may be said to have achieved some success—she was rescued from an exploitative employer, and won the labour case against said employer. But there is no account of her trafficker being brought to court and penalized for what she did. Liza’s attributes matched those mentioned in the model: female, poor, coming from Region VIII, with a father who had a seasonal job, and low level of education for both parents. The importance of an external entity that advocates against trafficking is shown in her case—an NGO rescued and cared for her until she was able to go home.

Traffickers assert a position of trust and power, albeit subtly. In Liza’s case, the trafficker was her teacher. In the case of Tony and Lino, the pastor’s wife influenced their parents to allow them to go. Deception is a common characteristic of the process. Promises are made—of a good job, good pay, favourable working conditions, and other benefits. But many times, these do not come true. The trafficker may be male or female. The complexity of the trafficking process may show that more than one trafficker is actually involved: whoever assists the trafficker in identifying children, convincing them, preparing false documents, etc., is equally guilty.

Generally, trafficking leads to sexual exploitation. There are other purposes for trafficking which may not have been seen well enough by this study. Child labour outside of the services sector is a hidden occurrence and greater effort may have to be exerted to examine it. There is practically no data on organ trading, although some authors start to see it as an emerging purpose for trafficking.

One of the more significant factors that contribute to the decision to leave the home is psychological, and not economic in nature. A child who is abused, neglected or exploited at home finds it more beneficial to him or herself to leave the home. A life of perceived independence and greater control of self is preferred such that the exploitation is masked. This is why many children who are sexually exploited see themselves as being better off than when they were in their homes. This psychological benefit outweighs the risk of contracting a disease, or being isolated from family and friends.

It may also be important to note that the field studies revealed trafficked individuals who were 18 years old and over but who, because of certain differentials—language, emotional and psychological maturity and exposure, intelligence, as well as health effects of the abject poverty they grew up in—were affected by the trafficking experience as much as a child. In a Filipino family, where children are generally allowed to live with their families even after marriage, it may be interesting to see whether a contextual definition of the term child needs to be made.

4.5.2 The Push and Pull Factors to Child Trafficking – A Consolidated View

There is not much difference between the results of the field studies from what has been described in literature. A better understanding of the child trafficking process may be gained, though from an expanded discussion of culture and values as they affect the decision-making process of both child and family. The table that follows consolidates all the push and pull factors to child

trafficking as obtained from literature, from inferences using the CTVAM, and from the field studies.

Table 4-19 Summary of push and pull factors to child trafficking, field studies and literature on child trafficking in the Philippines

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Social/Cultural <i>Individual</i> ▪ Teenage adventurism ➢ Desire to prove oneself ➢ Desire to experience new kind of work, new environment ➢ Desire to have the experience of working in Manila ➢ Feeling of independence and the challenge of living by oneself without the burden of family and the supervision of parents ➢ Desire to see the cityscape and experience urban living ▪ Peer influence ▪ <i>Bahala na</i> attitude (come what may / fatalism) which allows children to just shrug off their futures and let the trafficker take charge. ▪ Concerns in schooling ➢ Loss of interest in studies ➢ Trouble with peers at school ➢ Feelings of inadequacy to finish school ▪ Mentality/attitude that gives value to earning more money in a very short time <i>Family</i> ▪ Sense of family ➢ Children share the burden of raising their family ➢ Family members are supposed to help each other in times of need ➢ Each family member is expected to share in the sacrifice for the welfare of the family ➢ The desire to locate a missing family member ▪ Large families (six or more members) ➢ Large households compel parents to oblige their children to produce additional income for the family ▪ Poor parenting styles/value system ➢ Lack of parental supervision—neglected or abandoned children find their own means of getting acceptance outside the home and are easy prey to traffickers. ➢ Lack of parental support given by parents due to low level of education/functional skills of parents themselves ➢ Belief that exposing children to work early in life is the most effective way to teach them about life's realities, and will make them responsible and productive individuals ➢ Consent given by parents for child to work away from home ▪ Traditional belief that there is upward movement for the family if a child is working away from home; having a child who works at home is a status symbol ▪ Notion that women should be subservient to men contributes to trafficking of girls	Social/Cultural <i>Individual</i> ▪ Sense of family – if one has a family member who is already in the potential destination area; wanting to join them, be together ▪ Modeling – “returnees” or children and adults who have spent some time working outside their community are seen as successful, improved, “more beautiful” and therefore worth emulating. They also paint a very attractive, fun- and opportunity-filled picture of their workplaces. <i>Family</i> ▪ Family members who are already working in the big city and apparently doing well, and possibly can watch over the child; ▪ Relatives and neighbours who have migrated and directly recruit children for domestic work in their own household (informal referral network system)

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
▪ Firsthand abuse (physical, verbal, and sexual) and exploitation from their own families and relatives ▪ Weak family ties <i>Community</i> ▪ Limited educational facilities ▪ High cost of education ▪ Lack of access to basic social services such as health and education ▪ Limited access to basic/proper information ▪ Lack of sustained mechanism for making people aware of what is important (values system) ▪ Unabated movement/relocation of informal settlers in the city due to demolition	<i>Community</i> ▪ A beautiful community in the destination area that is perceived to be much better than one's own, and will provide a better way of life ▪ Perceived positive benefits of urban living ➢ Basic services are available and relatively accessible ➢ Easier to go to school since urban areas have more schools ➢ Urban lifestyles perceived to be more comfortable ➢ Abundance of livelihood opportunities and higher pay in Manila or wherever is perceived as more progressive than one's community
Economic ▪ Unemployment ➢ Lack of desire to work or find the right job in one's home community ➢ Lack of employment opportunities ➢ Jobs are generally offered only to relatives ▪ Underemployment ➢ Low wages ➢ Family income is not enough to meet basic needs ➢ Poor or low qualification for available jobs ▪ Seasonal jobs ▪ Unstable family income because of the uncertainties of agricultural production ▪ Parents lack money for tuition, projects, or transportation of children ▪ Need to supplement the family income so there is enough to spend on emergencies like medical expenses ▪ Weak domestic market for the buyers of local produce; lack of farm to market roads	Economic ▪ Perceived positive benefits of urban living ➢ Wages in an urban area are much higher than in the province ➢ More opportunities for employment ➢ Greater access to food supply and other material goods ➢ Stable family income ➢ Low inflation rate in the city ➢ The luxurious life that is presented by a city: material comforts, nice clothes, make-up, beauty aids, etc. ▪ Economic opportunities outside one's place of residence are generally perceived to be much better than the poverty one has been born into
Political ▪ Lack of awareness of trafficking in general ▪ Lack of knowledge even by local authorities of the anti-trafficking law ▪ Poor enforcement of laws pertaining to women and child protection ▪ Corruption – some government officials benefit from traffickers, are themselves involved in trafficking, or provide protection to traffickers ▪ Perceived inability of local government to provide basic services to the community	Political ▪ Lack of knowledge even by local authorities and prospective employers of the anti-trafficking law ▪ Poor enforcement of laws ▪ Ambivalent attitude, if not indifference, of government and other authorities to prostitution, labour and other exploitative conditions for children ▪ Corruption – some government officials benefit from traffickers, are themselves involved in trafficking, or provide protection to traffickers ▪ City government's plan of further promoting local tourism to push the city's economic development
Geographic ▪ Uneven economic development between regions/cities/municipalities of the country ▪ Regional shortage in food and agricultural produce; the need to look for a means of livelihood farther from home ▪ Distance from market or the state of roads which limit the movement of farm produce and a stable source of income ▪ Prevalence of natural calamities in some areas encourage people to leave	Geographic ▪ Accessibility of transportation out of the community to transit points leading to major urban or urbanizing areas; includes bus terminals, ports, and other transportation facilities ▪ Development of tourism in urban and urbanizing areas, which has encouraged the proliferation of commercial and entertainment establishments therefore attracting people from the less developed areas

4.5.3 The Child Trafficking Framework: Challenges to Face at Each Stage of the Process

The table that follows summarizes the findings from the interviews and the discussions according to each stage of the trafficking process.

Table 4-20 Summary of trafficking processes found in the field studies and in the literature on child trafficking in the Philippines

Stage / Actor(s)	Strategy/Process	Challenges
Pre- recruitment Main: Recruiter or trafficker Secondary: Member of the community whom the trafficker approaches (or works on) to establish trust, credibility, and a sense of belonging in the community	Confidence/Trust-building ▪ Trafficker lives in the community or frequently visits so as to be known and accepted by its members Enticement ▪ The trafficker offers an attractive job to the child and to her family, along with the promise of an adequate paying job in a major city (e.g. Manila). He or she takes advantage of the child and his/her families' fertile hopes of soon finding a more or less stable income from one of the household members. In some cases, traffickers provide a month or two of advanced payment of the child's expected earnings in his/her future employment. This entices the child's parents or immediate relatives to accept the terms of employment. ▪ The trafficker also knows how to use the prevailing belief systems to lure children and their families. What the community may perceive important and of great value are used by the recruiter to entice its victim. These enticements may be psychological (being able to visit and work in a major city, being able to leave one's community) and financial in nature (being able to provide for the needs of the household left in the place of origin, the acquisition of material possessions such as jewelry, cell phones etc.). Deception ▪ The trafficker does not disclose full information of the child's terms of employment, most of the time providing a vague picture of the actual circumstances that the child will have to face while on the job. The traffickers also withholds information, such as the terms of payment for the child's services, the conditions of the child's workplace, and other important information that would provide security to the child. ▪ In the case of trafficking for prostitution, children and their families are usually told that they will work as waitresses, storekeepers, or sales ladies. Some of the children do end up in the jobs they were offered; however, these jobs often merely serve as a form of initiation for them before they are coerced into the	▪ Capability of the community members to discern well-meaning visitors from potential traffickers of their children ▪ Lack of information, education and the proper family values - extremely vulnerable families and/or communities need to be aware of the dangers of trafficking so that they can protect themselves. Families are often lured with promises of material rewards and a better life. ▪ Prevailing poverty in most rural areas - parents and children need to be taught practical skills that will allow them to find viable alternatives rather than migrating for work. ▪ Collusion of some family members/ relatives, and issuing officials with recruiters, particularly on faking documents or the production of illegal documents ▪ Inadequate media attention - Media can be an important element in fighting trafficking through awareness and education of communities. Radio, television, and newspapers are effective in disseminating information to the communities as well as for the reporting of trafficking issues which can encourage, influence, or pressure government and civil society groups to respond through concerted and coordinated efforts. ▪ Family dysfunction which push children to leave home and stay on the streets – these children, and their peers, are easy prey to traffickers ▪ De facto legalization of prostitution which allows the continued operation of fronts for prostitution (e.g., in Iloilo where the karaoke/videoke establishments are openly selling sexual services of children/women; in Kamagayan, Cebu where the entire community is replete with brothels). The acceptance of prostitution as a "necessary evil" normalized into the daily landscape has opened the doors wide for poor and young women and children to be captive victims in the light of the fact that they have no employable skills due to their low level of education. ▪ Some communities have also accepted "entertainment" as a job that poor women and girls can easily go to. There is a prevailing notion that sexual exploitation is a personal battle that the victims can ward off if they have "good values."

Stage / Actor(s)	Strategy / Process	Challenges
	prostitution trade. ▪ In some cases, traffickers prey on street children or those who are already detached from their immediate family. This makes their task far easier compared to having to convince both the child and his/her family. In this form of pre-recruitment, the trafficker or a friend of the main trafficker hangs out in town plazas or malls where most street children congregate and this is where the transactions and negotiations take place. Traffickers are getting extremely proficient in this pre-recruitment strategy.	▪ Presence of recruiters within communities, especially as an informal recruitment mechanism that have become acceptable to many communities ▪ Seeming lack of awareness of public authorities of the law, e.g., R.A. 9208 or existing local ordinances to protect children and women's rights and their duty in implementing it
Recruitment Main: Recruiter or trafficker Secondary: Member of the community who the trafficker approaches to establish trust, credibility and a sense of belonging in the community	Confidence/Trust-building ▪ Recruitment is done in groups to allow for peer relationships as well as to allay apprehensions of both child and parent about traveling alone ▪ Recruitment is done by batches, or at least a promise to do so, in order to draw a picture of the recruiter returning, further building his trustworthiness Deception ▪ Three out of five (65 percent) leave home without any information about their destination, work or employer ▪ Domestic work is the usual ploy	▪ Increasing the cost for the recruiter to get the child or decreasing the perceived benefit for the child ▪ Review of individual and family values system
Transport Main: Recruiter or trafficker Secondary: Driver/Fetcher	Mode of Transport ▪ Depends on the route taken ▪ Generally by land when trafficking is done between contiguous or adjacent towns or cities—by bus, car or van, sometimes by trucks where the children are covered and hidden like cargo ▪ A combination of land and sea transport (or via the RORO)—bus, cars or vans Mechanics ▪ Trafficker pays the cost of transport ▪ Trafficker usually positions self either in a seat or berth far from recruits, if traveling by bus or boat, or in a different vehicle, if by car/vans ▪ If the latter, it is the driver who generally takes care of the recruits when they disembark; there is a prearranged meeting place. ▪ Children are not allowed to talk to other passengers. ▪ They are ordered to declare false names and ages, if asked, and to lie about their relationship with the recruiter, to say he or she is a relative.	▪ Checkpoints and sentries placed on major sea ports, bus terminals, and major highways should be strengthened in order to counteract the traffickers' modus operandi of transporting children. These measures should acknowledge the fact that the trafficking trade is a dynamic trade, thus, a constant review of detection strategies should be employed. ▪ Informing, educating, and sensitizing major transportation companies and their employees on the child trafficking and securing their collaboration as partners in preventing child trafficking as well as in detecting, intercepting, and repatriating victims
Employment Main: Employer	▪ In cases of trafficking for prostitution, children are first "seasoned" by exposing them into the trade of paid sex. By this process, children are first made to work as waitresses or storekeepers in a videoke bar, girle bar, or a club. After the child has gotten used to the environment and situation where he/she works,	▪ Wde dissemination of the law prohibiting the employment of children – the general public should know the law and its sanctions ▪ More effective strategies for detecting, reporting, investigating, and prosecuting cases of child labour. Visible seriousness of government in its

Stage / Actor(s)	Strategy / Process	Challenges
	she is then forced to join the others to work as GROs, dancers and prostitutes. - Neither the children nor their families really know how much he/she really should earn for her services. Most of the time, trafficked children are made to work without any monetary remuneration, the children are told that they have to pay the costs that the employer incurred to facilitate his/her recruitment. - Children, detached from their social support circles are left vulnerable to the exploitation and violence of their employers. They are either deprived of sleep, physically maltreated (e.g. pelted with hard objects, burnt, scalded, etc.) deprived of proper nourishment, suffer from enormous stress and psychologically abused.	efforts to eliminate the exploitation of children through labour will serve as a deterrent to prospective employers - Community watch or participation mechanisms where community people will initiate efforts at reporting traffickers or trafficking cases once they are detected in the community 'Safety nets' or refuges where a trafficked child may run to for protection and, ultimately, assistance in repatriation would have to be provided and publicly known
Rescue Main: Police, DSWD, complainant Secondary: CIDG, Parents	- Child is identified as trafficked and removed from the trafficked state. - Involves the collaborative efforts of police, labour officials, healthworkers, social workers	- Poor reporting mechanisms; delayed response time and corruption among the groups involved – these determine whether a rescue effort is property and successfully carried out - Capability of law enforcement agents to quickly and correctly identify a child as trafficked and exploited. - Government agencies involved have to level off on their appreciation of the law and how it is applied; this is critical to the handling of trafficking victims - Ability and capacity of traffickers to develop quick innovations in their processes and mechanisms of recruitment
Repatriation Main: NGO , DSWD	- Initial debriefing is done by a social worker at this stage - Child is returned home. Preliminary investigation is done to ascertain the child's family and home address. Done by an NGO or government social worker - Since funds for this process are generally scarce, non-government organizations partner with bus companies for free transport of the child. A social worker generally meets the child at a pre-arranged transit point to check and sends him/her further on his or her journey. This is considered a risky process, as the child generally travels alone, entrusted to the bus driver or conductor.	- Facilitation of travel home: proper coordination with family, local government authorities and local social workers; requires adequate funding - Possibility of further exploitation during the process of repatriation – where the child's home is quite far, it usually takes a long time for this process, especially if funds are short; the child is still at risk
Rehabilitation Main: Family, Psychologist, social worker	- Child is debriefed, provided psychological services and counseling, medical service – done by a local social worker, where services are available. - Therapy (home care service), if needed, is also provided.	Prompt and appropriate psychological interventions designed to help the child overcome the trauma are not well identified nor available; if they are, sustained provision of these services until the child heals is uncertain

Stage / Actor(s)	Strategy / Process	Challenges
Reintegration Main: Family Secondary: Community, NGO Prosecution Main: Fiscal/Lawyer Secondary: Investigating officers (PNP, DSWD, NBI, CIDG)	- Child is back in his/her family and community, relating with them; reception by the family may vary, depending on previous relationships, the nature of the trafficking and exploitation the child went through, and the family culture in general. - Where the family is, at the outset, dysfunctional, and the reasons for the child's leaving unresolved, the child may leave again – reentry into the trafficking cycle is possible. - Very few traffickers are prosecuted. Where the trafficker is apprehended, it is required that a complainant file a case against him or her; otherwise the trafficker is released. The child complainant is generally taken in by the Department of Social Welfare and Development, housed in one of their centres, or by an NGO while the case is ongoing. This delays repatriation of the child. - Sometimes parents of trafficked children choose to just bring their child home and not file a complaint anymore because of the time and effort it takes.	- Family has no capability to do rehabilitation - The child is seen by the family not as a victim but as a criminal - Social stigma is attached to victims and the community may not behave very kindly towards them - Lack of a deeper understanding of the nature and processes of trafficking and the law on anti-trafficking. There is still a prevailing notion of child trafficking as cases of illegal recruitment only. - Lack of a shared comprehensive database on child trafficking, between and among government agencies as well as NGOs - Insensitivity of the judicial system; lack of political will to pursue cases of trafficking – they have been cited as themselves encouraging victims to drop charges even when the recruiter/trafficker has already been apprehended - Lack of resources to attend to child trafficking cases (e.g., the Women's Desk of PNP Zamboanga do not even have guns/weapons that they can use to protect/defend themselves when conducting raids; coast guard's vessels are no match for the fast-moving vessels of the traffickers)

5. ASSESSMENT OF THE EXISTING INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR COMBATING CHILD TRAFFICKING

A review of existing policies, legislation, initiatives, programs and services pertaining to trafficking in persons was done to identify good practices and assess the effectiveness of such policies and programs so measures that could address gaps and issues could be recommended. Information and relevant data were taken from existing literature, country reports/papers, agency inputs and the results of the Key Informant Interview conducted with selected critical agencies. The current policies and programs on trafficking in persons largely deal with both women and children. Thus, the subsequent discussion may not necessarily distinguish whether such policies affect children solely except when properly indicated.

The review focused mainly on the translation of the laws and policies to macro or national level structures. How these structures are translated at the lower levels of government, and the efficiency to which they implement their mandates may vary from one province, city or municipality, to the other. Little was done to examine such implementation in the nine project areas, other than to determine which structures were present, and how they fitted in the community picture of child trafficking; this discussion was done in the preceding chapter.

5.1. POLICY AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

5.1.1 International

The Philippines is a signatory and/or a State Party to a number of international human rights instruments that promote and protect the rights of women and children. Among the significant ones are described below.

Foremost of the international human rights instruments for children is the **Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)** (1989) which was ratified by the Philippine government in 1990. It is regarded as the most widely ratified UN Convention. It codifies the rights of the child contained in various international human rights instruments, particularly the child's rights to survival, development, protection, and participation. It adopts certain principles in the application of child rights such as the "best interests of the child," "respect for the views of the child," "survival and development," and the "principle of non-discrimination."

Specifically, the CRC provides for the rights of the child to be protected from abduction, sale or traffic for any purpose; to be protected against physical or mental violence, injury, abuse, neglect, maltreatment or exploitation including sexual abuse; to be protected from economic exploitation

or performing any work likely to be hazardous, to interfere with education, or be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual or social development; and to be protected against all other forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse.

In 2000, the UN General Assembly adopted the **Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography**, which the Philippines has likewise ratified. **The Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime** (2000) is the most recent international instrument that focuses entirely on trafficking in persons. It defines trafficking in persons for the first time in international law.¹ It mandates State Parties to extend assistance and protection to trafficked persons such as protecting the privacy of the trafficked person, including making the legal proceedings confidential; measures for physical, psychological and social recovery including appropriate housing, counseling, medical, psychological and economic assistance, employment, education and training opportunities; measures to ensure the physical safety of trafficked persons; and the possibility of obtaining compensation. Special emphasis is given to the special needs of child victims, especially in regard to housing, education, and care. The Philippines has likewise ratified the Protocol.

The **ILO Convention No. 182, Concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor** (1989), which seeks to prohibit and eliminate worst forms of child labour which include all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery like trafficking in persons, was ratified by the Philippine government in 2000. It highlights the importance of education to prevent child labour, taking into account the special situation of girls.

The **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)** (1979), which imposes the obligation upon States to eliminate discrimination of women by any person, organization or enterprise and abolish discriminatory laws, regulations, customs and practices, was ratified by the Philippine government in 1981. It mandates State Parties to take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation or prostitution of women.

The **UN Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Their Families** (1990) prohibits slavery, servitude, forced or compulsory labour. It sets out comprehensive protection standards such as labour conditions, remuneration, medical care, and social security for all migrant workers whether in regular or irregular migration situations. It calls for effective protection by the state against violence, physical injury, threats and intimidation and guarantees the rights to liberty and security of person of all migrant workers.

¹Article 3, "(a) 'Trafficking in persons' shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery and practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs

(b) The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in paragraph (a) have been used."

The 1949 Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation or the Prostitution of Others is one of the earliest instruments purportedly to cover trafficking in persons. It does not, however, define trafficking but simply addresses prostitution and the movement of persons into prostitution. It considers nonetheless prostitution as “evil” and “incompatible with the dignity and worth of the human person.”²

5.1.2 National

In the Philippines, a number of legislations have been enacted to address the issue of trafficking in persons especially women and children.

The “**Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003**” (Republic Act No. 9208)³ is the most recent and the most relevant law against trafficking in persons in the Philippines. Enacted on 26 May 2003, the law defines trafficking as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer or harboring, or receipt of persons with or without the victim’s consent or knowledge, within or across national borders by means of threat or use of force, or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or of position, taking advantage of the vulnerability of the person, or the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation which includes at a minimum, the exploitation or the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery, servitude or the removal or sale of organs.”

“The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall also be considered as ‘trafficking in persons’ even if it does not involve any of the means set forth in the preceding paragraph.”⁴

The law further provides legal protection and establishes mechanisms for the support of trafficked persons. It contains the following salient features:

1. Considers trafficked persons as victims rather than as offenders;⁵
2. Recognizes the right to privacy of trafficked persons during investigation, prosecution and trial;⁶
3. Gives trafficked persons preferential entitlement under the government’s Witness Protection Program;⁷
4. Provides protection and assistance to trafficked persons who are foreign nationals;⁸
5. Mandates government agencies to establish and implement preventive, protective and rehabilitative programs for trafficked persons;⁹

²“Human Rights and Trafficking in Persons: A Handbook,” Global Alliance Against Trafficking in Women, 2001, p. 23.

³An Act to Institute Policies to Eliminate Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, Establishing the Necessary Institutional Mechanisms for the Protection and Support of Trafficked Persons, Providing Penalties for its Violations and for Other Purposes.”

⁴Republic Act No. 9208, Section 3 (a).

⁵*Ibid.*, Section 17.

⁶*Ibid.*, Section 7.

⁷*Ibid.*, Section 18.

⁸*Ibid.*, Section 19.

⁹*Ibid.*, Section 16.

6. Establishes a trust fund to be used exclusively for prevention, protection, rehabilitation, and reintegration programs;¹⁰ and
7. Creates the Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking in Persons¹¹ which is mandated, among others, to formulate a comprehensive and integrated program to prevent and suppress trafficking in persons including a reintegration program for trafficked persons and to develop a mechanism for the timely, coordinated and effective response to trafficking cases.

On 19 December 2003, the President signed into law **Republic Act No. 9231**, otherwise known as **An Act Providing for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor and Affording Stronger Protection for the Working Child, Amending for the Purpose Republic Act No. 7610, As Amended, Otherwise Known as the Special Protection of Children Against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination Act**. Under the said law, the engagement of children in the worst forms of child labour is prohibited. Worst forms of child labour include all forms of slavery as defined under R.A. 9208 or practices similar to slavery such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory child labour, including recruitment of children for use in armed conflict.

Prior to the enactment of R.A. 9208, there have been several existing laws that are relevant to the trafficking process. These include, among others, laws that regulate recruitment especially the recruitment of children for both public and private undertakings, passport applications, and laws that criminalize certain activities, such as the manufacture or production of fraudulent documents and the provision of “mail-order bride” services. These laws include the following:

1. **The Philippine Passport Act (R.A. 8239)**, which mandates the State to maintain the integrity of passports and travel documents and provides stiff penalties for offenders.
2. **The Inter-Country Adoption Law (R.A. 8043)**, which sets the policies and procedures in inter-country adoption including penalties for violations. It also creates a Board as the central authority on matters relating to inter-country adoption.
3. **The Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act (R.A. 8042)**, which defines the crime of illegal recruitment and prescribes penalties therefore. It provides for mandatory repatriation of underage migrant workers and strengthens government assistance through the country team approach.
4. **The Special Protection of Children Against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination (R.A. 7610)**, which provides for stronger deterrence and special protection against child abuse, exploitation and discrimination. It specifically punishes, among others, child trafficking¹² and attempts to commit child trafficking.¹³

¹⁰*Ibid.*, Section 15.

¹¹*Ibid.*, Section 20

¹²SEC. 7. Child Trafficking – xxx trading and dealing with children including, but not limited to, the act of buying and selling of a child for money, or for any other consideration, or barter, xxx”

¹³SEC. 8. Attempt to Commit Child Trafficking – There is an attempt to commit child trafficking under Section 7 of this Act:

- (a) When a child travels alone to a foreign country without valid reason therefore and without clearance issued by the Department of Social Welfare and Development or written permit or justification from the child’s parents or legal guardian;
- (b) When a pregnant mother executes an affidavit of consent for adoption for a consideration;
- (c) When a person, agency, establishment or child-caring institution recruits women and couples to bear children for the purpose of child trafficking;

5. **Special Protection of Children Against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination Act (R.A. 7658)**, an amendment of Section 12 of R.A. 7610, which states that children under 15 years of age should not be employed in both public and private undertakings.
6. **The “Mail Order Bride Law” (R.A. 6985)**, which penalizes the practice of matching Filipino women for marriage to foreign nationals on a mail-order scheme.
7. **Revised Penal Code (Act No. 3815)**, which punishes certain acts that relate to the purposes of trafficking such as Corruption of Minors and White Slave Trade.

The Philippines also lobbied very strongly to address the issues of both violence against women migrant workers and trafficking in persons, especially women and children, in the programs of action that emanated from the various international conferences aimed at implementing international human rights instruments at the domestic level.

CEDAW and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action have been the framework for Women in Development and Nation-Building Act,¹⁴ the Philippine Development Plan for Women and the Philippine Plan for Gender Responsive Development, a 30-year plan (1995-2025) providing for developing actions for the promotion of the status of women.¹⁵

Using the CRC as framework, a Philippine Plan of Action for Children was adopted in 1991 and was updated through the 25-year long-term Philippine National Strategic Framework for Plan Development for Children, better known as “Child 21 – A Roadmap for Filipino Children.” Adopted through Executive Order No. 310, series of 2000, Child 21 serves as the blueprint and is a comprehensive response to the promotion and protection of the rights and welfare of children. Part and parcel of Child 21 is the Framework for Action Against Commercial Exploitation of Children (2000-2004) which was adopted pursuant to the Philippine commitment to the World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children held in Stockholm.

The Philippines, therefore, has an impressive line-up of legislation and policies that address trafficking of children. However, the implementation of these laws, particularly the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act (R.A. 9208), remains to be seen. The success of the implementation of these laws depends largely on how much the government will invest to fuel the programs and the services of the agencies concerned as mandated by the law. It is notable that the anti-trafficking law does not provide for any appropriation; it merely mandates government agencies to include in their annual appropriations the necessary budget to implement programs and services.

There is likewise a need to make these laws, particularly R.A. 9208, known across various sectors. Communities, parents, women, children, community and frontline workers, and other stakeholders should be made aware of the existence of the law. Law enforcers and prosecutorial agencies including the bench and bar, should be familiarized with the gender and human rights

(d) When a doctor, hospital or clinic official or employee, nurse, midwife, local civil registrar or any other person simulates birth for the purpose of child trafficking; or

(e) When a person engages in the act of finding children among low-income families, hospitals, clinics, nurseries, day-care centers, or other child-caring institutions who can be offered for the purpose of child trafficking.

¹⁴Republic Act No. 7192.

¹⁵“Trafficking in Women and Children: A Philippine Perspective”, a paper presented by Foreign Affairs Undersecretary Benjamin Domingo for the Presidency of the European Union, 15 June 2000, Makati City.

perspectives of the issue of trafficking in persons and their respective roles and responsibilities in the implementation of the law.

5.2 INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS/MECHANISMS

Several inter-agency bodies and offices were likewise established to principally provide policy directions against trafficking in persons and institutional support for trafficked persons.

The **Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (IACAT)** is the national central coordinating body on issues and concerns affecting trafficking in persons especially women and children. Created under RA 9208, the Council is mandated, among others, to formulate a comprehensive and integrated program for the prevention of trafficking and the protection and support for trafficked persons, including an appropriate reintegration program. It shall also establish a mechanism for the timely and coordinated response to trafficking cases.

The IACAT is chaired by the Secretary of Justice and co-chaired by the Secretary of Social Welfare and Development. Its members include the Secretary of Foreign Affairs, the Secretary of Labor and Employment, the Administrator of the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration, the Commissioner of Immigration, the Director-General of the Philippine National Police, the Chairperson of the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, and three representatives of non-government organizations each from the women, overseas Filipino workers, and children sectors.

Prior to the IACAT, the **Senior Government Working Group (SGWG) on Human Trafficking and People Smuggling** was created by the President to develop and carry out a national strategy to address trafficking in persons and people smuggling, and to ensure the fulfillment of Philippine commitments under the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC) and its Supplemental Protocols. The SGWG was chaired by the Secretary of Foreign Affairs. The functions of the SGWG were later on absorbed by the IACAT.

Even before the SGWG on Human Trafficking and People Smuggling, an inter-agency body called the **Executive Council to Suppress Trafficking in Persons, Particularly Women and Children** was constituted with the Secretary of Foreign Affairs and the Secretary of the Interior and Local Government as chair and co-chair, respectively. The said council, however, was never activated and has since been abolished.

The **Office of the Undersecretary for Migrant Workers Affairs (OUMWA)**, which operates under the Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA), has a Trafficking Desk that handles all concerns regarding human trafficking and serves as the focal and coordinating office within the DFA on issues relating to trafficking in persons and human smuggling.

The **Philippine Center on Transnational Crime (PCTC)**, created through Executive Order No. 62, s. of 1999, is principally tasked to formulate and implement a concerted program of action of all

law enforcement, intelligence and other government agencies for the prevention and control of transnational crime such as trafficking in women and children, particularly through improved coordination, research, and data banking.

Pursuant to Administrative Order No. 98, s. 1993,¹⁶ the **Task Force on Passport Irregularities**¹⁷ was created to collate and review existing passporting procedures, including the redesigning of a tamper-proof passport; to adopt and formulate implementing guidelines for the effective enhancement of the integrity of the Philippine passport; to establish the blueprint for achieving a coordinated approach to the problem of passport fraud by defining the roles, obligations and accountabilities of each member agency/department; and to formulate an effective law enforcement action against those responsible for passport irregularities and related frauds.

The **Sub-Committee on Human Trafficking of the National Law Enforcement Coordinating Committee (NALECC)** meets regularly for purposes of sharing data on human trafficking, briefing on actions being done in the prosecution of human trafficking cases and adopting measures to strengthen a coordinated approach against the problem.

The POEA has established **Anti-Illegal Recruitment Coordinating Councils (AIRCCs)**. AIRCCs are inter-agency groups composed of different sectors concerned with illegal recruitment, and serve as a venue at the grassroots level for consultation and sharing of experiences and mapping out strategies to improve the anti-illegal recruitment program of the government.

There are also **Local Councils for the Protection of Children**, established at the provincial, city, municipality and barangay levels, to assist in identifying conditions that may lead to child abuse, neglect and exploitation, and facilitate immediate response to reported cases of child abuse and exploitation.

On 24 January 2004, the President issued **Executive Order No. 265** defining the approach and institutional mechanism for the government's comprehensive program on combating transnational crime which includes trafficking in persons. The said E.O. has defined the principles governing combating transnational crime. It likewise calls for a comprehensive program which shall include the following components: strengthening information and intelligence gathering; conduct of strategic researches; intensifying law enforcement operations; and capacity-building and empowerment for major stakeholders. It also created the **Office of the Special Envoy on Transnational Crime** with the mandate of setting policy directions and program design standards and serving as the focal point for coordinating, integrating and evaluating the efforts of law enforcement and other government agencies involved in the campaign against transnational crime.

¹⁶As amended by Executive Order No. 426, s. of 1997.

¹⁷Renamed as Inter-Agency Committee Against Passport Irregularities through EO 426 (1997) composed of the Department of Foreign Affairs as Chairman; Department of Justice as Vice-Chairman; and the following as members: Department of the Interior and Local Government; Department of Tourism; Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas; Bureau of Immigration; National Bureau of Investigation; Directorate for Intelligence, PNP; Directorate for Operations, PNP; National Intelligence Coordinating Agency; Intelligence Service, AFP; Philippine Overseas Employment Administration; and National Statistics Office.

Executive Order No. 325 was also issued on 9 July 2004 creating the **Presidential Anti-Illegal Recruitment Task Force (PAIRTF)** to coordinate with existing bodies, agencies, and other instrumentalities currently involved in the campaign against illegal recruitment; to monitor the progress of illegal recruitment cases it has caused or directed to be investigated or prosecuted; and to conduct surveillance and entrapment operations of persons alleged to be engaged in illegal recruitment including, but not limited to, "escort services" at international airports and other ports of departure, among others.

There also exist several initiatives, alliances, and networks among non-government organizations to address trafficking in persons particularly against child trafficking.

The Visayan Forum, a non-government organization, has spearheaded the establishment of the **Multi-Sectoral Network Against Trafficking in Persons**. The said network is a national alliance composed of civil society, government agencies, and private groups committed to provide immediate response mechanisms to address trafficking in persons with the end in view of supporting government efforts. A Memorandum of Agreement (MOA) was signed by the partners of the network, adopting a comprehensive strategy to complement the national strategy developed by IACAT. Part and parcel of the said MOA is a document identifying the areas of coordination between and among the partners towards a unified action in combating trafficking in persons.

ECPAT Philippines, as core organizer of the Anti-Child Trafficking Campaign in the Philippines, launched the nationwide effort called **Philippines Against Child Trafficking (PACT)**. PACT aims to intensify awareness on the child trafficking phenomena in the country through the conduct of activities that advocate children's rights to be protected against child trafficking, while encouraging the involvement of media, artists, communities, schools, international agencies, embassies, and churches, among others. It also puts emphasis on the participation of young people in the campaign.

As may be gleaned from the above discussion, while IACAT is the primary coordinating body on issues affecting trafficking in persons, a number of offices and bodies were created before and even after the advent of R.A. 9208 to address transnational crime in general, which includes trafficking in persons, and other specific crimes which are necessarily involved in the commission of trafficking in persons like illegal recruitment and passport irregularities.

The more important structures/legal entities that have been created to combat trafficking in persons are listed in Table 5-1, and compared among each other.

Table 5-1 A comparison of institutions created to respond to issues on trafficking in persons

Basis	IACAT	SETC	PCTC	PAIRTF	TFPI
Legal Basis	R.A. 9208	E.O. 265, s.2004	E.O. 62, s. 1999	E.O. 325, s. 2004	A.O. 98, s.1993, as amended by E.O. 426, s.1997
Coverage	Trafficking in persons through illegal recruitment, use of fraudulent passports and travel documents, among others	Transnational crimes including trafficking in persons	Transnational crimes including trafficking in persons	Illegal recruitment through, but not limited to, "escort services," spurious passports and travel documents	Passport irregularities
Specific mandate	IACAT	SETC	PCTC	PAIRTF	TFPI
Policy formulation and plan development	- Develop comprehensive and integrated program to prevent and suppress trafficking in persons - Develop reintegration program for the reintegration of trafficked persons - Develop mechanism to ensure timely, coordinated and effective response to trafficking cases - Create measures and policies for the protection trafficked persons who are foreign nationals - Promulgate rules and regulations	- Set policy directions and program design standards - Develop a comprehensive program on combating transnational crime			- Collate and review existing passporting procedures, including the redesigning of a tamper-proof passport - Adopt and formulate implementing guidelines for the effective enhancement of the integrity of the Philippine passport
Research and development	Ensure that proper agencies conduct continuing research and study on the patterns and scheme of trafficking in persons which shall form the basis for policy formulation and program direction		Establish a strategic research on the structure and dynamics of transnational organized crime in all its forms; predict trends and analyze the relationships of given factors for the formulation of individual and collective strategies for the prevention and detection of transnational organized crime and for the apprehension of criminal elements involved		

Basis	IACAT	SETC	PCTC	PAIRTF	TFPI
Coordination, monitoring and evaluation	- Monitor and oversee the implementation of R.A. 9208 - Coordinate the programs and projects of the various member agencies to effectively address the issues and problems attendant to trafficking in persons - Coordinate the conduct of massive information and dissemination campaign on the existence of the law and the various issues and problems attendant to trafficking through LGUs, concerned agencies and NGOs - Direct other agencies to immediately respond to the problems brought to its attention - Coordinate with DTI, DOTC and NGOs in monitoring the promotion and advertisement of trafficking in the internet	Serve as the focal point for coordinating, integrating and evaluating efforts of law enforcement and other agencies involved in the campaign against transnational crime		- Coordinate with existing bodies, agencies and other instrumentalities currently involved in the campaign against illegal recruitment - Monitor the progress of illegal recruitment cases it has caused or directed to be investigated or prosecuted	- Establish the blueprint for achieving a coordinated approach to the problem of passport fraud by defining the roles, obligations and accountabilities of each member agency or department - Monitor the effectiveness of enforcement action in preventing and/or stopping passport irregularities
Capacity building	Initiate training programs in identifying and providing the necessary intervention or assistance to trafficked persons		- Design programs and project aimed at enhancing national capacity building in combating transnational crime, as well as supporting the related projects of other ASEAN and international centres - Explore and coordinate information exchanges and training with other government agencies, foreign countries and international organizations involved in combating transnational crime		

Basis	IACAT	SETC	PCTC	PAIRTF	TFPI
Data management and collection	Complement the Shared Government Information System for Migration established under R.A. 8042 with data on cases of trafficking in persons		- Establish a shared central data base on criminals, methodologies, arrests, and convictions on transnational crime - Establish a shared central data base on national and international laws and jurisprudence		
Law enforcement and prosecution	Assist in filing cases against individuals, institutions or establishments		Supervise and control conduct of anti-transnational crime operations of all government agencies and instrumentalities - Conduct surveillance and entrapment operations of persons alleged to be engaged in illegal recruitment including, but not limited to, "escort" services at international airports and other points of departure - Cause or direct the immediate investigation and speedy prosecution of cases involving	Formulate an effective law enforcement action against those responsible for passport irregularities and related frauds	
International cooperation	Recommend measures to enhance cooperative efforts and mutual assistance among foreign countries through bilateral and/or multilateral arrangements to prevent and suppress international trafficking in persons		Explore and coordinate information exchanges and training with foreign countries and international organizations involved in combating transnational crime		

Basis	IACAT	SETC	PCTC	PAIRTF	TFPI
Other functions	- Secure from any department, bureau, office, agency, or instrumentality of the government, or from NGOs and other civic organizations, such as assistance as may be needed to effectively implement R.A. 9208 - Exercise all the powers and perform such other functions necessary to attain the purposes and objectives of R.A. 9208	- Represent the Philippine government internationally for a that deal on transnational crime - Advise the President on all matters regarding transnational crime	- Select personnel from within the NAPOLCOM, PNP, and other government agencies for detail with PCTC - Enlist assistance of any department, bureau, office, agency or instrumentality of the government including GOCCs to carry out its functions, including the use of their respective personnel, facilities and resources - Perform other functions as may be directed by the President	Perform other powers and functions as may be necessary for the effective discharge of its functions or as may be directed by the Oversight Committee*	

*The Oversight Committee is composed of the Secretary of Labor and Employment as Chair, with the following as members: Secretary of Foreign Affairs, General Manager, MIAA; Director, NBI; Chief State Prosecutor; DOJ; Chief, PNP; Administrator, POEA; and Commissioner, BI. Its function is to ensure the active participation and cooperation of government agencies and instrumentalities involved in anti-illegal recruitment efforts.

From the above table, it appears that the IACAT has a more direct, more focused, and wider mandate than the other bodies/offices. Its functions spread over the areas of policy formulation and plan development, research and development, coordination and monitoring, capacity building, data collection and management, law enforcement and prosecution, and international cooperation. While there appears to be an overlapping of functions among these bodies, the efforts of these bodies must be harmonized to complement the work of each other to achieve greater results in suppressing and combating trafficking in persons. For instance, the PAIRTF, whose primary function pertains to illegal recruitment, may have encountered cases of trafficking in persons through illegal recruitment. The PAIRTF and IACAT can therefore coordinate on cases involving trafficking in persons through illegal recruitment in order to enable the design of appropriate prevention strategies and to ensure that appropriate services and interventions can be provided to the victims. The PAIRTF can also check on the activities of airport authorities particularly in stopping the practice of “escort services” at international airports that facilitate trafficking in persons. The TFPI can also address trafficking in persons through the use of fake documents especially passports and visas. The PCTC, on the other hand, can complement the database of IACAT in terms of providing information on criminals and methodologies.

Given the number of bodies dealing with trafficking in persons, IACAT should effectively coordinate the activities of these bodies to ensure harmony and complementation of efforts. There is a need, however, for a more pronounced and well-defined coordination mechanism between

and among these bodies. The coordination between and among agencies should be actualized and observed.

Another important matter that should be addressed particularly by the IACAT is the absence of a national database on trafficking in persons that results in the lack of reliable and sufficient national data to measure the extent of trafficking in persons in the country. While several government agencies and institutions as well as NGOs have their respective data on trafficking in persons, such data are often not shared with critical agencies or bodies for use in coming up with or enhancing existing policies and programs relevant to trafficking in persons. Moreover, the existing data may not necessarily involve specific trafficking cases in view of the absence of common standards in data gathering. Aside from that, some of the data include statistics covering the period where the trafficking law was not yet in effect. The absence of a standardized reporting format and inter-agency reporting mechanisms/channels allow for highly useful and substantial data to remain in and be confined to the agency/institution that gathered such data.

5.3 CURRENT INITIATIVES, PRACTICES, PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

The Philippine Government has acknowledged the problem of trafficking in women and children and has carried out activities through the collective efforts of various national and local government units in collaboration with non-government organizations and the private sector in the areas of prevention, protection prosecution and rehabilitation and reintegration.

Under Section 16 of R.A. 9208, several government agencies are mandated to implement various programs and services for the prevention and suppression of trafficking in persons and the protection of trafficked persons.¹⁸ These agencies and their respective roles and responsibilities in the implementation of the anti-trafficking law are summarized in Table 5-2.

¹⁸(a) **Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA)** – shall make available its resources and facilities overseas for trafficked persons regardless of their manner of entry to the receiving country, and explore means to further enhance its assistance in eliminating trafficking activities through closer networking with government agencies in the country and overseas, particularly in the formulation of policies and implementation of relevant programs.

The DFA shall take necessary measures for the efficient implementation of the Machine Readable Passports to protect the integrity of Philippine passports, visas and other travel documents to reduce the incidence of trafficking through the use of fraudulent identification documents.

It shall establish and implement a pre-marriage, on-site and pre-departure counseling program on intermarriages.

(b) **Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD)** – shall implement rehabilitative and protective programs for trafficked persons. It shall provide counseling and temporary shelter to trafficked persons and develop a system for accreditation among NGOs for purposes of establishing centres and programs for intervention in various levels of community.

(c) **Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE)** – shall ensure the strict implementation and compliance with the rules and guidelines relative to the employment of persons locally and overseas. It shall likewise monitor, document and report cases of trafficking in persons involving employers and labour recruiters.

(d) **Department of Justice (DOJ)** – shall ensure the prosecution of persons accused of trafficking and designate and train special prosecutors who shall handle and prosecute cases of trafficking. It shall also establish a mechanism for free legal assistance for trafficked persons, in coordination with the DSWD, Integrated Bar of the Philippines (IBP) and other NGOs and volunteer groups.

(e) **National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW)** – shall actively participate and coordinate in the formulation and monitoring of policies addressing the issue of trafficking in persons in coordination with relevant government agencies. It shall likewise advocate for the inclusion of the issue of trafficking in persons in both its local and international advocacy for women's issues.

(f) **Bureau of Immigration (BI)** – shall strictly administer and enforce immigration and alien administration laws. It shall adopt measures for the apprehension of suspected traffickers both at the place of arrival and departure and shall ensure compliance by the Filipino fiancés/fiancées and spouses of foreign nationals with the guidance and counseling requirement as provided for in the Act.

(g) **Philippine National Police (PNP)** – shall be the primary law enforcement agency to undertake surveillance, investigation and arrest of individuals or persons suspected to be engaged in trafficking. It shall closely coordinate with various law enforcement agencies to secure concerted efforts for effective investigation and apprehension of suspected traffickers. It shall also establish a system to receive complaints and calls to assist trafficked persons and conduct rescue operations.

Table 5-2. Agencies Mandated by RA 9208 and their Corresponding Responsibilities. ¹⁹

Government Programs under RA 9208 and its Implementing Rules and Regulations	Implementing Agencies
Effective prosecution of trafficking cases	DOJ, POEA, LGUs
Reintegration and rehabilitation programs resulting in gender-responsive and anti-trafficking oriented activities	DSWD, OWWA, CHED, DepEd
Counseling and temporary shelter	DSWD, OWWA
Participation in bilateral, regional, international, initiatives, and arrangements against trafficking; protection of integrity of Philippine passports	DFA, NCRFW, CFO, BI
Pre-marriage and pre-departure counseling services for intermarriages/OFW	DFA, OWWA, CFO
Comprehensive community education, advocacy and information campaign programs on trafficking	POEA, NCRFW, BI, DILG, LGUs, CHR, PIA, OWWA, DOTC
Monitoring and documentation of trafficking cases	DILG, LGUs, DOLE, OWWA, DOTC
Establishment of database for law enforcement and prosecutory efforts	DILG, LGUs, POEA, PCTC
Mandatory free legal assistance and services	DOJ, DSWD, POEA, CHR, IBP
Medical, psycho-social services, temporary shelter	DSWD, DOH
Livelihood, educational, entrepreneurial and skills training	DSWD, OWWA, TESDA, DepEd
Educational assistance to trafficked children	DSWD, OWWA, DepEd
Complaints, investigation and apprehension system	PNP, BI, NBI, CHR
Monitoring of trafficking related activities in the internet	DOTC, DTI
Integration of anti-trafficking efforts in the barangay level and monitoring government compliance with international human rights treaties	CHR
Advocate, monitor, promote frameworks and adopt policies on trafficking against children	CWC
Prevention and detection of trafficking with transnational crime dimensions and coordination with international law enforcement agencies	PCTC, NBI

There are also various initiatives being undertaken by government and NGOs to address issues affecting trafficking in persons especially along the areas of prevention, protection, rehabilitation and reintegration.

5.3.1 Prevention

It is said that early detection and prevention are essential in forestalling the occurrence of trafficking. Advocacy, information and education on women's and children's rights among policy makers, executives, service providers, communities, parents and the women and children themselves are undertaken. Programs to empower communities, parents and children are also being done to capacitate them to prevent, repel and address violence within the family and community settings. However, some of these programs and services are not designed exclusively for trafficking in persons but for all forms of child abuse and exploitation. The **Department of the**

(h) **Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA)** – shall implement an effective pre-employment orientation seminars and pre-departure counseling programs to applicants for overseas employment. It shall likewise formulate a system of providing free legal assistance to trafficked persons.

(i) **Department of the Interior and Local Government (DILG)** – shall institute a systematic information and prevention campaign and likewise maintain a databank for effective monitoring , documentation and prosecution of cases on trafficking in persons.

(j) **Local Government Units (LGUs)** – shall monitor and document cases of trafficking in persons in their areas of jurisdiction, effect the cancellation of licenses of establishments which violate the provisions of the Act and ensure effective prosecution of such cases. They shall also undertake an information campaign against trafficking in persons through the establishment of the Migrants Advisory and Information Network (MAIN) desks in municipalities or provinces in coordination with DILG, Philippine Information Agency (PIA), Commission on Filipinos Overseas (CFO), NGOs and other concerned agencies. They shall encourage and support community-based initiatives which address the trafficking in persons.

¹⁹TUCP Primer on the Trafficking in Persons Act, 2003, Second Edition.

Interior and Local Government (DILG) has issued memorandum circulars in relation to the organization of the Local Councils for the Protection of Children and for the support of training programs for barangay and community leaders on the activation of such councils in every city and municipality.²⁰

The **Special Committee for the Protection of Children** chaired by the Secretary of Justice has conducted trainings with the five pillars of the criminal justice system on the rights of the child and on laws affecting children. Included in the said trainings is the discussion of laws on child abuse including child trafficking. The Committee has also formulated the Comprehensive Program on the Protection of Children which includes strategies and proposed measures on the prevention, protection, rehabilitation, and reintegration of children who are victims of abuse and exploitation.

In 1996, the **Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD)** produced the TV program “Helpline” with hotlines for reporting cases of child abuse. This was followed with the establishment of DSWD Crisis Intervention units (CIUs) nationwide. The CIU is a 24-hour action centre that receives reports on child abuse and intervenes accordingly.²¹

Complementing DSWD’s efforts is the **ABS-CBN Channel 2 Bantay Bata 163 Hotline** which aims to raise public consciousness and understanding on child abuse.²²

Pursuant to the provisions of R.A. 7610, the DSWD issues travel clearance for unaccompanied minors or minors traveling with one parent. The Bureau of Immigration personnel at the airports require this clearance before the child is allowed to embark.

The DSWD also implements the Child Protective Behavior program. The program addresses issues relating to safety, including abuse of children, adolescents and adults. It aims to provide simple practical skills and strategies to keep children safe; assist children in identifying and coping with situations which may be unsafe; encourage children to recognize early warning signs; encourage children to further develop communication, problem-solving, and inter-personal relationship skills; assist children to increase their self-protective skills against forms of abuse and assault; and encourage children who recognize these early warning signs to network with trusted adults and report their concerns. It also implements what is called the National Family Violence Program. It is a community-based strategy of preparing family members to protect themselves against violence and manage conflict within the context of family resolution. It intends to mobilize the communities and inter-agency groups/structures to consolidate efforts at helping families at risk or exposed to family violence.

The **Department of Tourism (DOT)** has advocacy programs designed to provide information for tourists/foreigners for an enjoyable but safe stay in the country including information on the danger of engaging in the drug and flesh trade. By the same token, DOT carries out continuing linkages with hotel security officers in order to strengthen cooperation and improve information

²⁰Framework of Action Against Commercial Exploitation of Children, A Vision and Framework for Action, 2000-2004, Council for the Welfare of Children, p.19.

²¹Ibid.

²²Id.

sharing and surveillance to identify suspected pimps and traffickers. It also conducts roundtable discussions with members of the local community in some tourist destinations focusing on the ill-effects of commercial sexual exploitation of women and children.²³

The **Commission on Filipinos Overseas (CFO)** has been undertaking community awareness and information programs on the realities of migration since 1987. It also conducts counseling services for Filipino fiancés/fiancées and spouses of foreign nationals to provide them with adequate information and advice on the realities of intermarriages and migration, their rights and obligations, available support networks and other useful information.²⁴

The **Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA)** is actively engaged in the campaign against illegal recruitment. It conducts anti-illegal recruitment seminars nationwide, distributes anti-illegal recruitment materials, publishes monthly travel advisories in newspapers of general circulation and conducts job fairs.

Under the stewardship of the **Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE)**, a National Program Against Child Labor (NPACL) was adopted. The NPACL has implemented advocacy and information, education and communication (IEC) activities such as national and regional consultations for various groups/stakeholders, as well as for the production and distribution of materials, telephone brigades, production of video documentaries and special media events. Through these activities, national awareness on the issue of child labour has increased,²⁵ and the alliance with and coordinative work among multi-sectoral partners have broadened and strengthened.

Under several administrative orders issued by the **Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE)**, firms employing young workers are placed under its inspection and authority, with trained labour inspectors stressing on the development nature of child employment as a contracted regulatory approach.²⁶

Since August 2000, the **Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. (Visayan Forum)** has been operating a halfway house in the Manila North Harbor called “**Bahay Silungan sa Daungan**” (Halfway House in Ports). Considered as a haven for migrants in transit, the half-way house provides 24-hour services for victims of trafficking, particularly women and children, such as emergency temporary shelter towards reintegration, information assistance about travel, employment and possible support networks, quick referral of cases, telephone hotline counseling, regular outreach for passengers, training and advocacy to port community members, research and volunteer immersion.²⁷ This project is being undertaken in coordination with the Philippine Ports Authority (PPA). At present, Visayan Forum has established similar half-way houses in Allen, Samar, and in Matnog, Sorsogon.

²³Philippine Country Paper and A National Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Women and Children, p. 11

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵From 57% in 1995 to 71% in March 2000

²⁶Framework of Action Against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, supra., p. 19.

²⁷Philippine Country Paper on Trafficking of Children for Labour and Sexual Exploitation, Undated, p.p. 6-7.

The Visayan Forum has likewise implemented in Negros Occidental a community-based program for the prevention of migration for three pilot communities with support from Caritas Switzerland. It addressed the issue of illegal recruitment of children for abusive work by providing training for community members that enhanced their basic understanding about the risks for children who work away from home. For two years, it conducted a series of creative workshops to process the experiences of 120 children and youth leaders focusing on their psychosocial perceptions developed in work, school, family and community. The program strengthened their community child watch network that serves as a safety net against abuses and illegal recruitment of children. It likewise provided a database of families with children working away from home and was able to trace at least 20 young workers in Manila who have lost contact with their parents for many years.²⁸

In Cebu City, the **Cebu Port Area Vendors Group (CPAVEG)**, a group of stall vendors, set up at their initiative what they called the **“Accommodate and Feed the Strangers Program”** to respond to problems of passengers at the port. Members of CPAVEG would often provide immediate accommodation to stranded passengers. Other members would voluntarily contribute money, food, or clothes after being informed of the passengers’ cases during meetings. They keep records of these cases including those that they have referred to institutions such as the Cebu Ports Authority, DSWD, police, or hospitals.²⁹

The **Trade Union Congress of the Philippines (TUCP)/Solidarity Center/USAID Anti-Trafficking Project** has developed a **National Advocacy and Implementation Plan** (January 2003–August 2004) which include, among others, the conduct of information dissemination and awareness raising campaign against trafficking; the publication of public advisories on hazardous destinations, suspected illegal recruiters, illegal practices, and a list of accredited recruitment agencies to all barangays. They have developed a primer on trafficking in persons and R.A. 9208, and translated it into Tagalog, Cebuano, and Waray. They have also published a compilation of laws, rules and regulations and a sample local ordinance on trafficking to serve as template for local legislative bodies to enact. They have also undertaken or sponsored the conduct of capacity building activities for judges, prosecutors and law enforcers.

There is a **national coalition of NGOs** that actively addresses the issue of child sexual exploitation through advocacy and public awareness, research and documentation. The coalition is composed of Childhope Asia, the Center for the Prevention and treatment of Child Sexual Abuse (CPTCSA), Defence for Children International (DCI), Salinlahi International, Christian Children’s Fund (CCF), the National Council on Social Development (NCSD), End Child Prostitution in Asian Tourism (ECPAT), and STOP Trafficking of Pilipinos.³⁰

The PACT with ECPAT being the focal point has undertaken a number of activities to mobilize and intensify the campaign against trafficking in persons. On 4-12 December 2003 a week-long campaign was conducted against trafficking through the following activities: holding of regional

consultations in Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao; National Conference of Community Educators; fora and symposia in Bacolod City and Iligan City; children’s parade and contest in Zamboanga City; community dialogue in Montalban, Rizal; multimedia campaign; and public event/concert in Manila. As of July 2004, ECPAT has conducted 497 community sessions on trafficking in persons.

Advocacy campaigns against child trafficking, particularly the conduct of awareness-raising activities on the dangers and effects of trafficking of children, shall have to be enhanced. The campaigns should focus on local officials, communities, families, children themselves, and other stakeholders.

5.3.2 Prevention: Issues, Challenges and Next Steps

Local officials must be mobilized into action to support the campaign against trafficking of children by enacting ordinances that will provide local policies to combat trafficking, allocate a sizable amount for advocacy and training, support community-based initiatives on child protection, and implement rehabilitation and reintegration programs.

Communities must be empowered to address abuse and exploitation of children and capacitate them to address those situations. Community organizations and barangay leaders must be able to distinguish legitimate recruiters for legitimate work from illegitimate or illegal recruiters for exploitative work. Communities must be provided with adequate information on those licensed to undertake recruitment for legitimate purposes. They must be vigilant of those persons coming to their areas to undertake recruitment activities.

Families must have realized the need to protect their children from recruitment that may unnecessarily expose their children to abuse and exploitation. More than ever, schools must likewise be actively engaged and involved in preventing trafficking in persons.

Communities, community workers, schools, barangay leaders, parents, women, and children must likewise be able to know where to report incidents and acquire protection or assistance for victims.

There is also a need to raise the awareness of the authorities in places where trafficking may likely be committed, like port officials and personnel. In a cursory assessment made by Visayan Forum on the ports of Matnog, Sorsogon and Batangas City as trafficking routes, there is an apparent lack of awareness on the trafficking issue among port employees. In the same vein, similar activities should be undertaken with respect to airport officials and personnel and land in transportation terminals.

While many organizations, both government and NGOs, are conducting education and awareness campaign on trafficking in persons, there are some areas, and there could be more, where a number of organizations are working for the same type of audience. This results in the unnecessary and unwise use of available resources. There is a need to reach out to more communities, sectors and agencies to raise awareness on and mobilize support against trafficking.

²⁸Id., at p. 7.

²⁹Id.

³⁰Framework of Action Against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, supra., at p.19.

The formation and strengthening of alliances, partners and networks must be undertaken to expand coverage. A mapping of the areas where advocacy and prevention activities are conducted must be initiated to ensure that one agency or institution does not duplicate the initiatives of others.

While massive tri-media campaigns were launched in the past on child abuse and exploitation in general, no massive information campaign on trafficking through the use of tri-media has been undertaken.

5.3.3 Protection (Law Enforcement, Investigation and Prosecution)

Various task forces, units, divisions and other institutional mechanisms were established by government agencies to respond to the growing incidence of child abuse, and with the advent of the new law on trafficking. These bodies provide specialized approaches and focus on child abuse cases including trafficking in persons.

At the law enforcement level, the **Philippine National Police (PNP)** has established the **Women and Children Concerns Division (WCCD)** at the national headquarters to provide protection to victims of abuse and exploitation. It has also set up the Women and Children's Desk in every city and municipal police station.

The **National Bureau of Investigation (NBI)** has organized the **Violence Against Women and Children Division** with a child-friendly investigation studio. It is complemented with lawyers, investigators and staff that are trained in handling cases of abuse and exploitation of women and children. With the enactment of the law on trafficking, it created a **Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons** that conducts surveillance activities and responds to and investigates cases of trafficking in persons.

The **Philippine Center on Transnational Crime (PCTC)** has created field offices in various parts of the country to monitor and respond to cases transnational in nature including trafficking in persons. They have conducted several case operations against trafficking in persons and have filed appropriate cases at various prosecution offices.

The **Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD)** provides protective custody and temporary shelter and other protective services to abused and exploited children. It runs Crisis Intervention Units (CIU) that serve the needs of victims of abuse. It likewise maintains the International Social Welfare Services for Overseas Filipinos which delivers psycho-social services to overseas Filipinos and their families and operates social welfare desks in diplomatic posts with large concentration of Filipinos. At present, DSWD has a Social Welfare Attache in Malaysia only.

Supplementing DSWD's efforts in extending protection to victims of abuse particularly children, the **University of the Philippines-Manila** and the **Philippine General Hospital (UP-PGH)** has established the **Child Protection Unit (CPU)**. It provides round-the-clock diagnosis and intervention for abused children consistent with the highest standards of medical practice. The

unit's strategies and scope of services include medical and psychological intervention which encompasses direct medical care, rapid diagnosis and evaluation, mental health services and continuing case coordination, among others.³¹

Quick Action Teams were formed nationwide under the **Sagip Batang Manggagawa (SBM)** (Rescue Child labourers) of the **National Program Against Child Labor (NPACL)**, an inter-agency mechanism for detecting, monitoring and rescuing children in abject conditions. A **National Sagip Batang Manggagawa Task Force** has likewise been created to respond to sensitive cases needing special attention. The team is composed of social welfare officers, labour inspectors, police officers and representatives from NGOs.³² From 1993 to the first semester of 2004, 567 rescue operations were conducted in all regions where 1,984 child labourers and 1,335 adult workers were rescued. Most of the rescued child labourers were victims of illegal recruitment. A number of these children were employed as guest relations officers (GROs) in KTV bars and music lounges.

Also under the SBM, an operational plan to curb trafficking for exploitative employment in the Visayas region was developed and approved by the Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE) in 2001. The plan consists of intra- and inter-regional schemes designed to closely monitor children being illegally recruited from the provinces. Strategies include convergence of resources, networking, setting-up of anti-child labour desks in entry and exit points, dialogues with bus operators and shipping owners, rescue operations, and the provision of livelihood programs to parents and siblings of rescued children.³³

The Department of Justice has created the **Task Force on the Protection of Women and Children** composed of specially designated prosecutors that handles cases involving children and women. Another unit called the **Task Force on Trafficking in Persons** was constituted by the Department to handle cases involving violations of R.A. 9208. The Department also implements the Witness Protection Program and the Victims' Compensation Program.

The **Department of Foreign Affairs** spearheads the **National Task Force on Passport Irregularities** which ensures that passports and visas are regulated and issued only for legitimate purposes.

The **Commission on Human Rights (CHR)** has its **Child Rights Center (CRC)** with the primary function of monitoring child rights violations, as well as extending legal and financial assistance to victims of human and child rights violations. **Barangay Human Rights Action Centers (BHRACs)** are likewise set up at the community level to address human rights violations.

The **Supreme Court of the Philippines** has issued the **Rule on the Examination of Child Witness** which aims to create and maintain an environment that will allow children to give reliable and complete evidence, minimize trauma to children, encourage children to testify in legal proceedings, and facilitate the ascertainment of truth.

³¹Protecting Women and Children, A Handbook on Community-Based Response to Violence, Maria Leny E. Felix and Regina de la Paz-Ingente, 2003, pp. 197-198.

³²Philippine Country Paper on Trafficking of Children for Labour and Sexual Exploitation, supra., pp.5-6.

³³Ibid. at p.6.

5.3.4 Protection (Law Enforcement, Investigation and Prosecution): Issues, Challenges and Next Steps

Despite these various initiatives, there are still gaps, issues and challenges that come along the way in protecting trafficked persons. These pertain largely to the capacity of the individuals providing protection, inadequacy or the lack of coordination among major players, and non-compliance with existing regulations or the lack of its implementation. These affect the investigation and eventual prosecution of cases of trafficking.

There are, however, various reasons that contribute to the limited number of investigation and prosecution of trafficking cases.

The first and most important step in any recovery and assistance system is to identify a victim of trafficking in persons as such. The lack of accurate victim identification is one of the obstacles to implementing effective anti-trafficking measures. It is critical to correctly identify a person as trafficked since the failure to do so is likely to result in the further denial of that person's rights and a delay in the provision of immediate and necessary protection measures and services.

The clandestine and syndicated nature of trafficking operations also severely hinders the capacity of law enforcement agencies to recover trafficked persons and to prevent potential victims from being victimized in the first place. The surveillance and monitoring of the activities of suspected illegal recruiters must be undertaken. Constant exchange of information among law enforcement agencies on the dynamics, trends and methodologies of syndicates or organized groups involved in trafficking in persons must be held regularly.

Wrong expectations of how a "victim" should behave often leads to misinterpretation by both authorities and service providers, which may often shift the blame on the trafficked person. For many trafficked persons, they are not "rescued" from their situation, but are "captured" by the authorities. It is important to address trafficked persons who are "hostile victims" and witnesses, and who may not be willing to cooperate with the authorities.³⁴ Those who are trafficked abroad do not see themselves as "victims." Filipino migrant workers may prefer to suffer exploitative labour conditions in a wealthier destination country and be able to support their families rather than face impoverishment back home. To emphasize this point, according to Anti-Slavery International:

*"People who migrate in search of employment or a better life, and end up being trafficked, tend to be those who had the initiative and courage to change their situation, by seeking better fortune and opportunity in migration. These are not people who will always blame others for misfortune, and they certainly do not start by seeing themselves as victims."*³⁵

³⁴According to a draft ILO Information Guide (Preventing Discrimination, Exploitation and Abuse of Women Migrant Workers, Booklet 6, Trafficking of Women and Girls), it is necessary, for example, to recognize that their hostility may be a direct result of the situation of abuse they have suffered and that treatment by authorities generally compounds, rather than overcomes, this. Since trafficked persons are rarely treated or identified as victims of crime, they are unlikely to be helpful in assisting in prosecutions right away.

³⁵See E. Pearson, *Human Traffic, Human Rights: Redefining Victim Protection*. (London, Anti Slavery International, 2002), pp. 32-33.

The shame and stigma associated with being a prostitute, particularly for victims of sex trafficking, hinder them from returning and reintegrating with their families and communities of origin. Those who are not able to overcome the stigma are most prone to becoming re-victimized.

In the case of cross-border trafficking, apart from the logistical limitations that the Philippines face, Foreign Service personnel are yet to undergo a comprehensive capability training on handling trafficking cases, including identifying trafficked persons. The role of our embassy and consular officials and members of the mission is very important in securing the safety of the trafficked person when located and rescued. Foreign posts shall provide temporary shelter and other protective services while trafficked persons are prepared for repatriation.

Another problem that the country faces in ensuring the protection of trafficked Filipinos abroad is the limited number of foreign posts. Filipinos are found in over 90 countries worldwide. The Philippines, however, has only 83 foreign posts abroad. In areas where there are huge concentrations of Filipinos such as Saudi Arabia, where there are almost a million Filipinos, there are only two Foreign Service posts. This severely curtails the Philippines' ability to promptly and proactively meet the needs of its citizens abroad, especially those who are in distress. To illustrate this, the Philippine post in Nairobi has jurisdiction over 20 African countries. To further aggravate the situation, some trafficking destinations are beyond embassy range. Moreover, trafficking syndicates can change routes as often as they change modus operandi to evade interception by law enforcement agents.

While security is a priority in the country of destination and during the journey, there is a lack of consideration for the safety of the victim upon return. The victim may suffer from reasonable fear of reprisals from traffickers. Their unwillingness to cooperate in the prosecution of the traffickers is largely due to serious threat to their lives and safety or that of their families.

Moreover, in both countries of transit and destination, trafficked persons are often treated as criminals rather than as victims. While in the country of destination, they may be prosecuted and detained for violations of immigration and labor laws as well as anti-prostitution laws.

Another critical area where international trafficking can be arrested is through the strict implementation of pre-departure regulations. The airport authorities must ensure that departing passengers have passed through the primary inspection of the Bureau of Immigration and that all documents necessary for their departure are checked and verified. The inconsistent policies on pre-departure requirements also contribute to the problem. The constitutional right to travel restricts the immigration authorities from requiring additional documents aside from a validly issued passport and return ticket to prevent those who have no legitimate reasons to go out of the country. The additional requirement of affidavit of support for departing Filipino tourists was abandoned.

It is almost impossible for airport authorities not to detect fraudulent passports and visas as there are several occasions where such documents are presented and checked. Before entering the airport, the police or security guards check the passport and ticket to determine the identity of the

passenger. Such documents are also presented to airline representatives at the check-in counters. Immigration authorities at the primary inspection booths likewise scrutinize the said documents. They also conduct random check of the passengers while waiting at boarding gates. Airline ground personnel likewise check the documents prior to boarding.

One factor that makes the departure of persons who lack necessary documents, or bear fraudulent documents, easier is the continued practice of “escort service” within the international airports that facilitates trafficking in persons. Thus, measures should be adopted to prevent the collusion of airport authorities with illegal recruiters and traffickers.

It is also necessary that airport authorities and their personnel be trained to identify potential trafficking victims. Strict regulations must be observed with respect to those leaving the country as tourists. For instance, on-the-spot interviews must be conducted on those leaving as tourists for non-tourist destinations, and those leaving as tourists for tourist destinations without any visible means of support. Coordination with airline authorities must also be undertaken to ensure that those who have been returned from the port of destination are reported to the Philippine Immigration authorities prior to their return so that they may be met at the airport and their case may be appropriately investigated by the immigration authorities. This will also enable Philippine authorities to determine the appropriate assistance that may be provided to them to prevent their re-victimization.

With regards to domestic trafficking, the DOLE has issued a Department Order dated 5 June 1997 providing for the Rules and Regulations Governing Private Recruitment and Placement Agency for Local Employment pursuant to the authority of the Secretary of Labor and Employment under Article 25 of the Labor Code of the Philippines.³⁶ The said rules and regulations provide the steps to be followed in the recruitment of persons.³⁷ A cursory examination of the said steps would show that there are apparently enough safeguards to ensure that the recruitment agency is licensed and that the recruits are qualified to work as regards their age. Verification procedures are also put in place within DOLE to check whether the requirements are properly observed and that the recruits are properly documented. It was, however, gathered that these procedures are not enough to address the continued recruitment of minors. The list of recruits verified by DOLE Regional Office

³⁶Presidential Decree No. 442.

³⁷Sec. 20. Steps to be Followed in the Recruitment of Persons. The following procedures shall be followed by the licensed Agency or its duly authorized representative in the recruitment of persons:

- a. The Agency or its duly authorized representative shall present to the PESO, Provincial and District Office where the recruitment activity is to be undertaken, copy of existing license, and original copy of authority to recruit issued by the Regional Office concerned.
- b. The representative shall require the recruit to submit a copy each of the following:
 - (1) birth certificate from the local civil registrar; and
 - (2) medical certificate issued by a government physician or by a reputable private medical practitioner.
- c. The Agency or its authorized representative and the recruit shall enter into a recruitment contract, duly notarized a copy of which shall be submitted to the Regional Office where recruitment activity was undertaken.
- d. The Agency or its duly authorized representative shall submit a list of the names and addresses of its recruits, together with copy of documents specified in procedure (b) above to the Regional Office or the appropriate Provincial/District Office where recruitment was undertaken for appropriate authentication and validation; copies of these documents shall be furnished the Regional Office if destination of the recruit.
- e. After the recruitment activity, the Regional Office of origin shall issue a certification to the Agency or its duly authorized representative that the recruitment activity has been in accordance with this Rule, copy furnished the Marine Police/Coast Guard/Philippine National Police, as the case may be.
- f. Provide the recruit with a stamped envelope and form indicating the name, address of recruit and the name, address, telephone number of his/her employer to be sent to the parent.
- g. Prior to deployment the Regional Office of origin shall notify the Regional Office of destination of the arrival of the recruits, and the latter shall see to it that the terms and conditions of the recruitment contract are followed strictly.”

is sometimes altered by recruiters by inserting names of recruits who have not passed the verification procedures. Moreover, DOLE has no capacity to verify whether the recruits were actually placed according to the contract they have signed prior to departure. The rules do not require the recruiter a post-report to indicate whether the recruits were actually placed for employment. The rules only state that the recruiter shall provide the recruit with a stamped envelope containing relevant information on his/her employer which shall be sent to the parents. It is, however, only assumed that the recruit shall be the one to send it to his/her parents and not the recruiters.

It was also gathered that those who have been found out to have violated the recruitment procedures were able to recruit again under a different name. The DOLE must take an active step towards preventing those who have been stripped of their licenses to recruit from conducting recruitment activities again.

The community, the parents, and even the recruits must also be made aware of these requirements. Pre-departure orientation for recruits must likewise be conducted prior to departure or other means should be made to inform them of their rights and provide them with a directory of agencies from whom they can request assistance if necessary.

Visayan Forum has acknowledged that despite having established a strong coordination with shipping owners, port authorities, and DOLE personnel in its efforts against trafficking of children, certain problems are still being encountered. The success of their undertakings at the ports of embarkation and disembarkation may be affected by the apparent collusion between the recruiters and some members of the ship crew, and port authorities. The presence of DOLE personnel at the ports to verify the license of recruiters and the approved list of recruits is also deemed necessary. At present, if any discrepancy is noticed, the DOLE office concerned will still have to be notified. Therefore, its presence at the ports will help facilitate the verification process. Moreover, the fast turn-over of law enforcement personnel and security guards trained in and accustomed to anti-trafficking procedures requires that there be constant regular training for newly-assigned personnel.

With regards to the conduct of rescue operations, much has to be desired to ensure the coordination between and among agencies. The rules and regulations of R.A. 9208 provide that before conducting operations, law enforcement agencies must be able to coordinate with the DSWD in order for the victims to be properly received and provided with the appropriate intervention as soon as they are rescued.

It was also reported that some law enforcement agents leak confidential information prior to the conduct of rescue operations or inspection of establishments. This enables the establishments or employers to prepare, thus, some rescue operations and inspections yield no positive results as reported. A clear example of this scenario would be the rescue operation conducted in Jose Panganiban, Camarines Norte, as cited by all the representatives of government agencies in the province. Since information of the operation was leaked out to the videoke bar owner, most of the

children who were employed as bar girls and were sexually exploited were no longer in the area when police arrived.

Another problem besetting rescue operations is the insufficiency of shelters to accommodate rescued victims. DSWD centres are reported to be overcrowded, thus, unable to accommodate more rescued victims. While some NGOs provide temporary shelters, they still can not maintain a large number. This results in the immediate return of the victims to their families which results in the dismissal of cases for lack of complainants and witnesses. The policy of immediate return should be revisited, especially where the victims are needed in order to pursue a case against the trafficker.

The lack of knowledge on legal procedures and documentation also affect the prosecution of trafficking cases. There were cases that were reportedly dismissed because a search warrant and a warrant of arrest were not served. Some prosecutors are even unaware of the new trafficking law—resulting in the downgrading of offenses from trafficking in persons to simple illegal recruitment. Law enforcement agents and prosecutors must be acquainted with the necessary evidentiary requirements to effectively and successfully prosecute trafficking cases.

It is imperative to establish a clear referral and response mechanism by all relevant actors to ensure a well-coordinated and synchronized approach to the problem. It is critical to develop a manual or handbook for law enforcement agencies, prosecutors, and other stakeholders to guide them in the conduct of surveillance, rescue, investigation and prosecution of trafficking cases.

There is also a strong need to deepen the understanding of frontline workers and concerned authorities on the issue of trafficking in order to educate them on how to distinguish between criminals and victims, and how to respect and protect the rights of victims in all cases. Their sensitivity to issues on children should be sharpened in order to decrease the possibility of the collusion between law enforcement officers and other authorities with traffickers and other criminals who prey on children.

5.3.5 Repatriation/Return, Rehabilitation and Reintegration

The eventual and successful reintegration of trafficked persons to enable them to live a normal life should be the centerpiece of all trafficking efforts. This remains to be a challenge. Without effective repatriation/return, rehabilitation and reintegration, efforts on prevention and protection will fail as trafficked persons only may be re-victimized.

With regards to international trafficking, there are a variety of government responses that address the needs and interests of overseas Filipino workers as a result of the enactment of the Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995. Existing policies, programs, and services which generally apply to distressed migrant workers and Filipinos overseas similarly apply to trafficked persons as they are likewise considered “in distress.”

These programs and services include:

1. **Legal Assistance Fund** – used exclusively for providing legal services to migrant workers and overseas Filipinos in distress, including fees for the foreign lawyers hired to represent migrant workers facing charges abroad, bail bonds to secure the temporary release of workers under detention, court fees and charges and other litigation expenses. The DFA extends services to Filipinos abroad, including legal assistance, through the Philippine embassies and consulates, which are open to Filipino migrants, whether documented or undocumented, without any special requirements or qualifications.
2. **Assistance-to-Nationals Fund** – under the DFA, this is used to pay for the repatriation expenses of Filipinos in distress.
3. **Filipino Workers Resource Centers (FWRC)** – established in countries where there is a large concentration of Filipinos. These centers operate daily on a 24-hour basis, and provide counseling, legal services, and welfare assistance, among others.
4. **Repatriation Programs for Trafficked Persons** – undertaken by the Philippine Foreign Service posts for the speedy repatriation of victims. Temporary refuge is given to them at the FWRC, while appropriate interventions are done with the employer and the labour department.
5. **Emergency Repatriation Fund** – for the repatriation of workers during emergencies and where the principal or recruitment agency cannot be identified.

There are also existing rehabilitation and reintegration programs for women and children aimed at facilitating recovery from traumatic experiences and to help them return to normal life. These programs apply to victims of both international and domestic trafficking. It consists of individual or group counseling/therapy with emphasis on, among others, the affirmation of self-worth; the purging of negative emotions such as fear, shame, self-denial, guilt and self blame; and the understanding of their situation to enable them to see their options clearly and plan for the future.³⁸

The programs also include provision of opportunities for continuing education, as well as vocational and skills training. The livelihood assistance addresses the economic aspects of the reintegration process. As a support service, it provides for financial grants and technical assistance in project planning and training for those who would like to venture into income-generating projects or to expand their present business. Community organizing is also a component of the program.³⁹

Some of these rehabilitation and reintegration programs are provided in the following institutions and centres:

1. **The Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) Crisis Intervention Unit**, which operates a 24-hour hotline in the 15 regions of the country. It provides counseling

³⁸ Executive Summary, Report on Trafficking in Human Beings from the Philippines: A Survey of Government's Experts and Law Enforcement Case Files, National Police Commission, p. 6.

³⁹ Ibid.

service through the telephone, rescue operations for children and women victims of abuse and exploitation, and conducts referral service necessary for the victims and other support services which may be appropriate to respond to the needs of the victims and potential victims.⁴⁰

2. **DSWD Centers** which include 12 Girls Home in all regions of the country, 12 Reception and Study Centres for Children, four Lingap Centers and 12 Substitute Homes for Women. These centres provide formal and non-formal education, vocational and skills training as well as health and psychological/psychiatric services and recreational sports and other socio-cultural activities.⁴¹
3. The **Rehabilitation Project for Women in Especially Difficult Circumstances**, which was established by DSWD to provide temporary care and rehabilitation to women in especially difficult circumstances. They provide residential care to women, providing them with food and other basic services necessary for the early recovery of the victims. They also equip the women with employment skills.⁴²
4. **Project Haven (Hospital-Assisted Crisis Intervention for Women Victims/Survivors of Violent Environments)**, an inter-agency government project of the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW), the Department of Health, Women's Crisis Center (a non-government organization), and East Avenue Medical Center, piloted a government hospital-based healing centre for victims of violence against women (VAW). This was the first hospital-based crisis center and the first GO-NGO model. This pilot project also incorporated the documentation of information gathered from cases through pilot-testing of intake forms in the hospital, conducted trainings to health professionals on assessment and intervention work for victims/survivors of VAW, the production of a video manual on setting up hospital-based crisis centres and the development of a sexual offense evidence collection kit. It also pioneered the setting up of an inter-agency body to coordinate the different efforts of government agencies involved in providing services to victims/survivors of VAW by setting up a Project Steering Committee led by the Department of Health. Part of the output of this project is the development of protocols in properly handling victims/survivors of VAW.⁴³

There are also other initiatives in the areas of rehabilitation and reintegration of trafficked persons, as follows:

1. **Reintegration Project for Trafficked Victims**, particularly women and children, which shall further respond to the needs of women in especially difficult circumstances. The project, which was expected to commence within the year 2003, provides counseling therapy, as well as other support to enable the victims to live normal lives. It is funded by the UN Centre for International Crime Prevention.⁴⁴

⁴⁰ Philippine Policies and Initiatives to Address Trafficking of and Violence Against Women (1996-2001), p. 5.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, at p. 6.

⁴² *Id.*

⁴³ *Id.*, p. 7.

⁴⁴ *Id.*, p. 3.

2. **Philippine-Belgium Project on Trafficking**, which was aimed at educating and training the public on preventive actions against trafficking in women and children. It provides social and legal assistance to victims of this crime. The project included a cross-cultural legal research component, a preventive education component, and a social assistance and health component.⁴⁵

The implementation of the new law on trafficking is likewise meant to address the issues and concerns on repatriation and reintegration. The existing programs and services on rehabilitation and reintegration have been further strengthened by the provision of the new law, requiring mandatory services for trafficked persons such as emergency shelter or appropriate housing; counseling; free legal services; medical or psychological services; livelihood and skills training; and educational assistance to a trafficked child.⁴⁶

The new law on trafficking provides for rescue, recovery, repatriation, and reintegration procedures for trafficked persons.⁴⁷ These procedures are basically those that are currently being followed with some enhancements to address the unique situation of trafficked persons.

Prior to repatriation or return, a safe and adequate shelter that meets the needs of trafficked persons should be made available. The provision of such shelter should not be made contingent on the willingness of the victims to give evidence in criminal proceedings. This should be applicable to both international and domestic trafficking.

⁴⁵ *Id.*

⁴⁶ Section 23, R.A. 9208.

⁴⁷ **Procedure for rescue/recovery at the country of destination.** It is the primary responsibility of the embassy or consulate which has jurisdiction over the place where the victim is residing, which, upon receipt of a report, shall verify the alleged incidence of trafficking and inquire about the condition of the victim. The Post concerned shall send a team composed of a consular officer and personnel from the Philippine Overseas Labor Office (POLO) or the Filipino Workers Resource Center (FWRC), the Office of the Social Welfare Attaché as the case may be, to conduct a visit to the jail, establishment, work site or residence of the victim. Representations with the police authorities or other relevant law enforcement agencies shall be undertaken with respect to the conduct of rescue operations. Rescue operation shall be made in cooperation and close coordination with some NGO's, local contacts or private individuals when necessary.

In countries and areas where the services of the FWRC is not accessible, a mobile type of services shall be extended by the country team members to trafficked persons regardless of their status in the host country.

The victim will be encouraged to execute a sworn statement, recounting among others, the people/establishment involved in the recruitment/transfer and deployment, the modus operandi employed to recruit, transport and deploy the victim, and other pertinent information which could provide a lead in the investigation and eventual prosecution of the perpetrators.

Procedure for the repatriation of trafficked persons. The DFA, in coordination with DOLE and other appropriate agencies, shall have the primary responsibility for the repatriation of trafficked person regardless of whether they are documented or not. If, however, the repatriation of trafficked persons shall expose the victims to greater risks, the DFA shall make representation with the host government for the extension of appropriate residency permits and protection, as may be legally permissible in the host country. In appropriate cases and to avoid re-victimization, the Post may withdraw the passport of the victim and forward it to the DFA and in its place issue a Travel Document valid for direct travel to the Philippines. The Post concerned shall report to the DFA, through the OUMWA, copy furnished to the Office of Consular Affairs, the actual date of repatriation and other pertinent information and submit a copy of the sworn statement and other relevant documents.

In appropriate cases, especially when the victim is suffering from mental illness, has suffered physical or sexual abuse or has received serious threats to his or her life and safety, the victim will be met upon arrival in the Philippines by DSWD personnel, in coordination with other government agencies such as OWWA, BI and DOH. The victim will be encouraged, if he or she has not done so before, to execute a sworn statement with the view of filing the appropriate charges against the suspected trafficker in the Philippines. In cases where recruitment agencies are involved, the case shall also be referred to the POEA for appropriate action. The report shall also be forwarded to the BI for case build up.

The victim may be referred to the DSWD/Local Social Welfare And Development Office or to the NBI One-Stop Shop for psycho-social interventions, psychological and medical examination and follow-through therapy sessions. Protective custody and emergency shelter shall also be provided to the victim, in appropriate cases.

Rehabilitation and reintegration. A comprehensive, gender-sensitive and child friendly program for the rehabilitation and reintegration of victims/survivors of trafficking shall be provided, such as but not limited to residential care, child placement, educational assistance, livelihood and skills training and other community-based services. Such programs must be responsive to the specific needs and problems of the victims/survivors and their families. Thus, the active involvement and participation of the victims/survivors in the rehabilitation and reintegration process is encouraged. The cooperation of NGOs and other members of the civil society including the business community, tourism-related industries as well as the media in the rehabilitation and reintegration of victims/survivors is similarly undertaken.

In the rehabilitation and reintegration process, the victim's family is likewise considered.

Victims may need assistance in preparing mentally and emotionally for their return. They need to be and feel safe from both the criminal networks and from the prejudices of the community or the family to which they are returning. They may need help in making plans for what to say to family, friends and others about what happened to them. They should be made aware of their rights upon return and the assistance that may be provided to them. It should be impressed upon them that their return would be safe. Thus, foreign posts should make sure that proper coordination is made with the local authorities (foreign affairs, immigration, and social welfare/NGOs) in order for the victims to be met at the airport and so that proper intervention and assistance to be provided.

5.3.6 Repatriation/Return, Rehabilitation and Reintegration: Issues, Challenges and Next Steps

The special needs of children are best met by initiatives based on the principle of the best interests of the child. Before a decision is taken to repatriate the child, it is important to carefully investigate the family situation and other factors influencing his/her development. It may be that the child ended up in trafficking after having tried to escape abuse in the family or has been sold by the parents, and hence cannot be returned to the family. It is also necessary to ensure that the people claiming to be parents are really the parents. Protecting the rights of the child may be difficult in cases of repatriation of children coming from very poor environments where the right to family unity may conflict with the right to economic and social rights.⁴⁸

Trafficked persons should also be given access to primary health care and counseling. Most victims suffer from their traffickers and abusers. It is important that they receive proper medical attention that is, if possible, free and non-stigmatizing. Psycho-social intervention must also be provided to help them recover from their experiences.

The victims' needs for recovery and reintegration are intertwined. The success of one depends on the other. Integration activities are perhaps the most important in making sure that the victim is not re-victimized. Victims need different kind of integration assistance in order to be able to take care of and sustain themselves and function in society again.⁴⁹

Opportunities for education and vocational trainings must also be given to victims, especially for child victims. Trafficked persons may need to continue their school or university education or have vocational training to be able to find a job later on.

In appropriate cases and to the extent allowable under the domestic law, victims should be provided with legal and other assistance, in connection with any criminal, civil and other actions against traffickers and exploiters. Ensuring that their traffickers are put behind bars will contribute to their early recovery and reintegration.

⁴⁸European Good Practice on Recovery, Return and Integration of Trafficked Persons", prepared by Kvinnoforum, 2003, for the Swedish Ministry for Foreign Affairs to be presented at the "ASEM Seminar on Enhancing Support and Cooperation for Strengthening Social Policies to Assist Trafficked Women and Children" in Bangkok, Thailand, September 1-3, 2003, p. 14

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 17

Reintegration programs should also take into account the special needs of children. Where possible, the victims and their families should be involved in the reintegration process. This is especially true in cases of dysfunctional families and where pressure or influence from family members was a primary element in the recruitment stage of the trafficking process.

Community-based reintegration programs should be encouraged and supported. Local government units must be encouraged to build and operate shelters, establish local cooperatives, and conduct livelihood and skills training for victims of trafficking and their families. Government programs must be made accessible to the families of trafficked victims and, if possible, they should be given preferential entitlements.

Working with trafficked persons is a very difficult and long-term process. It requires well-trained and committed staff, a good understanding of the issue, and a well-developed work methodology and an individual approach to each case.⁵⁰ A tracking and feedback mechanism must also be institutionalized to ensure that rescued victims were eventually reintegrated and not re-victimized. After-care programs should be enhanced.

⁵⁰See UNICEF, UNOHCHR and OSCE-ODHIHR, Trafficking in Human Beings in Southeastern Europe (Belgrade, UNICEF, June 2003) pp. 144-145.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study set out to accomplish the following objectives:

- 1. Develop a vulnerability assessment model for child trafficking in the Philippines;
- 2. Assess the nature and scope of child trafficking in selected areas; and
- 3. Assess the existing institutional arrangements for combating child trafficking vis-à-vis national and international commitments.

The Child Trafficking Vulnerability Assessment Model was developed in order to provide an idea of the characteristics that, if present, can be said to increase the probability of a child being a victim of trafficking. The model was checked against the results of previous research and the present situation assessment done in nine areas, and it was found to contain the same variables that have consistently come up as impacting on child trafficking. The regions and provinces of the country were matched against these characteristics or indicators, and ranked according to decreasing vulnerabilities. Using nationally representative data, the CTVAM validated what previous case studies of child trafficking based on small samples of child victims have shown.

The analysis is anchored on an overarching framework (Figure 1-1) that posits that three strata of variables (individual, household, and community) could throw light on the incidence of child trafficking in an area. The socio-cultural, economic, political, and geographic characteristics of the area were also viewed against these three strata. Since child trafficking is a process and not just a single event, it was traced from recruitment down to the victim’s rescue, repatriation, and rehabilitation, as well as the apprehension and prosecution of the trafficker. Profiles of child victims and the trafficker were described, to better understand motivations.

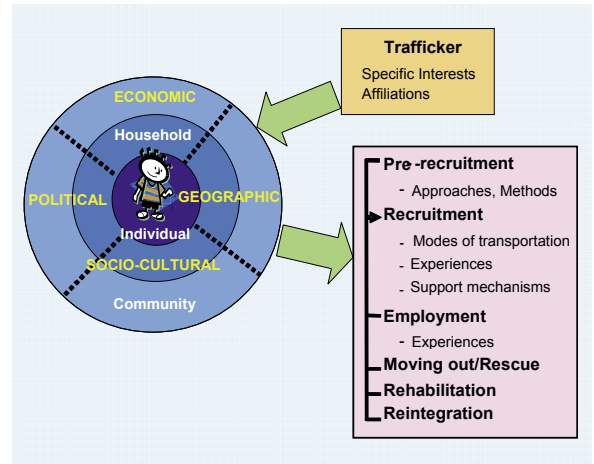


Figure 1-1 A Framework for Child Trafficking

Undoubtedly, the profiles of the trafficked respondents show considerable similarities with those of trafficked children previously documented and studied by other research undertakings. The assessment surprisingly matches and validates the socio-economic factors that were considered significant towards a child’s

vulnerability to being trafficked as stated in the CTVAM.

A combination of various individual, household, and community factors were found to have pushed the respondents to leave their homes and eventually be trafficked to various points of destination. Common to many of the trafficked children were their membership in large household sizes, their low educational attainment, previous work experiences at a very tender age, and experiences of abuse, violence, and neglect in their homes. For most of them, the desire to escape the abject poverty they were experiencing in their homes and have a try at a better quality of life for themselves and their families was what drove them to be trafficked and a situation of exploitation.

Essentially, child trafficking is a market phenomenon, where supply and demand happens to the extent that there is a perceived benefit to the key actor(s) in the process.

6.1 CHILD TRAFFICKING IN THE PHILIPPINES—NATURE AND SCOPE

There is little difference in the purposes, methods, processes, and consequences of child trafficking between the Philippines and other countries of the Southeast Asian Region. Specific cultural differences may vary, thereby changing the cultural nuances of motivation, but a common stimulus to migration and subsequent exploitation is the economic disparities in the region.

6.1.1 Extent of Trafficking

A summary of the push and pull factors that affect child trafficking in the Philippines show a long list of individual, family, and community factors, more than others. These include those that have a real value base, with family abuse, neglect of children, peer influence, materialism, and the perception that children must help their parents earn a living, being predominant answers among most of the respondents. Poverty is the most cited reason, for a child to leave home, with or without parents’ knowledge or permission. This reason is as true in other countries, yet the exact meaning, extent, or manifestation of poverty may vary. Generally, poverty is seen to evoke in the child or his/her family the desire to leave more economically difficult circumstances for better conditions. Poverty may also be the cause of other conditions that increase a child’s vulnerability to trafficking—dysfunctional families, neglect, and abuse in the home. The consumerist society we now have also affect the family’s and the individual’s views on family unity and survival. An understanding of the push factors is necessary for us to be able to design ex ante strategies—those that would prevent child trafficking from occurring—that will address the trafficking problem.

Most of the trafficked children are sexually exploited. A prevailing notion that Philippine society has to remove from its psyche is the belief that prostitution is a necessary evil. It is this belief that has tolerated the practice and promoted trafficking for this specific purpose. It is also this belief that has seen to the drastic rise of prostitution in areas of the country that are promoted for tourism, and that has allowed for health approaches to curb a social problem.

Accurate data on how many children were trafficked in each of the nine areas could not be obtained. For one, different institutions and law enforcement agencies still had to agree on and apply the new definition of trafficking, based on R.A. 9208. Some statistics were obtained from government agencies and NGOs, but these generally were specific to an agency's interest, and attempts at verification and consolidation could not be done.

Though mostly anecdotal, the evidence shows all areas as sending areas for trafficked children, albeit to different degrees. Urbanization of an area, the presence of industry, or proximity to areas that provide more economic opportunities contribute to the vulnerability of an area to trafficking, whether as sending or destination.

Many trafficked children share a situation of abuse and violence at home. Whether they are always the victims in these situations may not be certain. What is obvious is that many of them leave because they wish to escape from the violence they experience. It is recommended that study be done further on how a life of abuse and family dysfunction increases the vulnerability of a child to trafficking.

6.1.2 The Determinants of Child Trafficking in the Philippines

The CTVAM has shown the more important indicators that point out to the probability of an area being a source of trafficked children. Consistent with the framework, these determinants are presented as attributes of the individual child, the household to which the child belongs, and the community they live in. Past researches and the results of the field studies affirm the variables considered as significantly contributing to the decision of the child to leave home to work or of the family to allow the child to do so.

Two individual-level determinants were seen as significant in the model: gender and age. It has been shown that most of those who are trafficked are girls. This is explained mainly by the fact that many of the low paid jobs available in urban areas are those that belong to the service sector: domestics, waitresses, even sex workers. Also, it is possible that the boys in the family generally stay home to help the father with farm and other work more suited to their physical capabilities. Girls are doubly vulnerable in our society—because they are small, and because they are female.

Age has also been found to be a determinant. Past research and the field studies confirm that most of the trafficked children are within the 13-17 year-old group—the entry age to the working population—though many of the children may have worked much earlier than that age while they lived with their families in order to contribute to family upkeep. Further investigation has been suggested to determine whether the educational attainment of a child is a factor to his or her decision to leave home to work. The individual-level determinants are physical states of the potential victim. Ex-ante interventions would then have to be targeted at this age bracket, with special focus on girls.

Three household characteristics were considered significant: extreme poverty, the number of children in the family, and the educational background of the household.

All researches point out to poverty as the single most important factor to child trafficking. The inability of the head of a family to meet their needs is complicated by a large household. Instinctively, household size would mean number of children. This was seen in many of the interviews and FGDs—families with child victims of trafficking have an average of six to seven children. A noticeable proportion had 11 to 13 children. Many of these parents expect their children, once they are old enough, to contribute to the family income and help improve their financial condition.

Though poverty is the common answer, it may be worthwhile to pose a few thoughts to ponder on at this point. Alongside economic considerations, one sees socio-cultural factors. The Filipino sense of family is quite strong; if directed properly to recognize the rights of the child and strengthened towards the protection and promotion of these rights, would economics still prevail? Is it really a question of poverty, or of misguided values that are reinforced by a lack of education? The three household characteristics need to be seen as intertwined, with reciprocal cause and effect relationships. The right kind and amount of education will reduce the poverty situation; more skills and more competencies would mean more opportunities to earn a livelihood. The family needs to have some money to send their child to school. A certain degree of knowledge about maternal and reproductive health, child care, and responsible parenthood will affect family size. Essentially, greater clarity as to what is or are important in raising a family will determine whether the family will be and remain poor, or not.

The region of residence of a child was found to be a significant predictor. Regions VIII, IX, and I topped the list. Regions VIII and IX are actually known to be sending areas of internal child migrants. These two regions rank 6th and 5th, respectively, on the poverty scale. Region I is 12th in the poverty ranking. ARMM, the poorest region, does not come out at all as having a high vulnerability to child trafficking. The suggestion that, at the regional level, poverty may not be the single factor to child trafficking may have to be considered.

Underemployment also favoured child migration. Poor households cannot afford to be underemployed, especially if they are large. The lack of adequate employment opportunities in their communities will force a household to allow a member to migrate for work. Interestingly, it is the lower middle income class (4th class) municipality that is most vulnerable to child trafficking rather than the poorest municipalities, as one would expect. This has also been observed in previous research. It is possible that it is this income class that has an idea of what an improved financial status means, has access to the opportunities that can secure this status for them, and has enough courage, confidence or risk-taking abilities to pursue it. It is also possible that the trafficker chooses to recruit the disadvantaged, but not the ignorant or the least skilled—a discriminating selection strategy that ensures for the trafficker that the recruit is able to deliver the requirements of the work at the destination, at minimal cost.

The CTVAM could be improved by adding community variables that indicate distance or access to the major urban destinations of child migrants, indicators of the level of development of an area, and better measures of the presence of government.

6.2 ON EXISTING INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

Chapter 5 presents all the inter-agency bodies and offices that were established in accordance with law. Apparently, we are not without the proper bodies to provide policy direction against child trafficking, coordinate with other public sector agencies, civil society, and the community, and implement the laws, policies and ordinances that have been formulated. Most of these bodies seem to be functional at the national level, whereas trafficking occurs at the community level, far from the sight of policy-makers and committee members. A serious challenge to the translation of laws into appropriate structures is the establishment of functional, funded local structures that can implement the mandates specified by law.

Table 5-1 compares the major institutions with each other relative to child trafficking. Responsibility areas, from research and development to policy formulation, capacity building, coordination, to monitoring and evaluation, are well distributed. What is lacking may be to put teeth into the laws and enforce them strictly. Consolidation of efforts, with one agency in the lead, would do much to move the fight against trafficking on. A consolidated database would be very useful.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION

The complexity of the child trafficking phenomenon necessitates approaching it at many levels. Applying the capability approach in designing strategies to address the problem will provide for this view. Dubois and Rousseau¹ define capability as including three components: capacity, endowments, and social opportunities. Necessarily, interventions would have to be targeted at both personal and structural levels.

If the “vulnerability” perspective of the CTVAM model were to be pursued, a major area for action would be in the crafting of policies and programs that would promote ex ante strategies. The capabilities of both duty bearers and claim holders should be strengthened. In the design of these strategies, variability needs to be considered. As the assessment has shown, there is no standard or uniformity of process, motivations and intervening factors. The areas show the different variables to different degrees, as may be afforded by geography, socio-cultural conditions, politics, etc. According to Beebe,² the recognition of variability can be an important beginning point for developing programs based on providing people with expanded options where the value of their decisions is recognized.

¹Dubois, Jean-Luc and Sophie Rousseau, Reinforcing Households’ Capabilities as a Way to Reduce Vulnerability and Prevent Poverty in Equitable Terms.
²Beebe, James, Basic Concepts and Techniques of Rapid Appraisal, *Human Organizations*, Vol. 54 No. 1 Spring 1995, pp. 42-51.

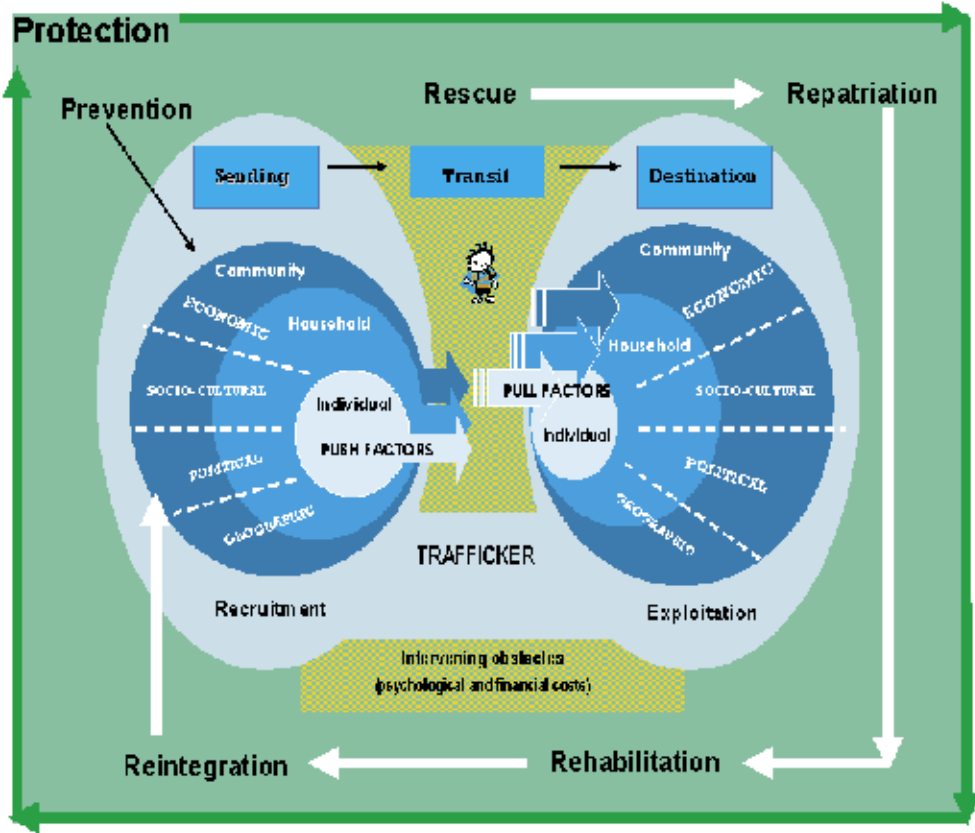


Figure 6-1 Integrative framework

Figure 6-1 provides an integrated view of child trafficking: the three strata of variables (individual, family, community); the various contextual conditions to which the child is exposed (economic, socio-cultural, political and geographic); and the trafficking process. It is intended to provide a framework for action in the identification of anti-trafficking interventions addressed to specific groups and at a given stage of the trafficking process.

The promotion and protection of the rights of the child happens all throughout the process—the child’s vulnerability requires this of the duty-holders around him or her. Preventive interventions are targeted at all three strata of variables, in the sending area. Table 4-20, page 136 shows the strategies/processes that are employed by traffickers at each stage, and the challenges that are to be met or addressed by child-trafficking interventions.

Rescue, repatriation, rehabilitation, and reintegration are shown in the framework as extending from when the child is recruited and in transit to the destination, back to the child's home. Care should be taken to prevent the child from re-victimization.

Advocacy and education, being key strategies should be employed at all stages of the trafficking process and targeted to all.

6.3.1 Interventions at the Individual Level

Interventions should always have in mind the best interest of the child. It is possible, that, for some children, the right to family unity may conflict with economic and social rights. Because of the child's vulnerability, the promotion and protection of the child's rights should be primary to any intervention that is to be designed.

6.3.1.1 Formal Education to Reduce Vulnerability

Children should be encouraged to go to school, and complete such education that will enable him or her to acquire the critical life skills and a means of livelihood. Beyond the three R's, children should be taught in school their rights and how to claim them and the various situations by which these rights may be violated. Even as it may sound cliché, teaching the right values to young minds will mold them into thinking and discriminating youth and, later, adults, who make decisions with the proper bases. Values education would do much for reducing the materialism in children, strengthening family ties, and motivating the child to work towards more sustainable and less exploitative possibilities for economic upliftment.

The child should also be taught to discern between well-meaning individuals and those whose motivations are self-motivated and exploitative of others.

6.3.1.2 Provision of alternatives: crafts, skills training, community activities

A child is full of energy. Where school is not an option, the child should be provided with other alternatives to spend his or her energies on. Supervised activities that provide as much excitement and direction should be given, where the child can learn, acquire, and practice values and attributes such as a greater sense of self, responsibility, diligence, and camaraderie, among others.

Practical skills training could also be both preventive and rehabilitative interventions for highly vulnerable children. Whether they live at home or in the streets, children from poor families are often easily lured by the promises of money and a better life. These children could be taught practical skills that would give them focus as well as allow them to find a more viable and sustainable alternative to street life and being trafficked. This could include art, handicrafts, vocational training or income-generating activities. Community theatre, neighbourhood gardening, church choir, book club, and many others would distract the child from what a trafficker may offer.

These activities are best done with community support, to provide a sense of belonging and a safety net to the child.

6.3.1.3 Psychological and Economic Assistance to Rescued Victims

A comprehensive and appropriate rehabilitation and reintegration program should be developed and implemented. This can be done by government units in partnership with NGOs and civil society groups. Such programs must take into account the special needs of the children. Where possible, the families of the victims should likewise be involved in the reintegration process.

Rescued children should be treated as victims and provided psychological and emotional support before their eventual repatriation. The exploitation to which the child may have been subjected would definitely have affected them psychologically, emotionally, physically, possibly, even mentally. Since they may fear reprisal, they need to be assured of their safety and of constant protection from the criminal networks.

They also need to be able to face the prejudices of the family or community to which they are returning. For some, a homecoming may not be a welcome prospect, especially if the conditions at home were those that pushed the child to leave in the first place. Repatriation has to consider the real conditions of the child's home, to prevent another cycle of trafficking and victimization.

The child should be made aware of his or her rights and the assistance available to them on their return. In appropriate cases and to the extent allowable by law, victims should be provided with legal and other assistance, in connection with criminal, civil, and other actions against traffickers and exploiters. Ensuring that their traffickers are put behind bars will contribute to their early recovery and reintegration.

6.3.2 Interventions at the Family Level

Capabilities of the family as duty-bearers need to be improved. This would mean: making them more aware of their responsibilities, involving them in the delivery of appropriate child-targeted services, and helping them provide an adequate level of security to their children.

6.3.2.1 Recognition of the Economic Disadvantage of Families as the Reason for Children to Leave Their Homes for Work

A common attribute shared among trafficked children is their overwhelming desire to provide for and help their families. Especially among poor households, children are taking on the responsibility to contribute to the family's upkeep. This may have been inculcated in them by their families, imposed on them, or healthy realizations of their family's situation and their possible role. This belief in the child as having a responsibility to provide for the family, wittingly or unwittingly, brings the child to a situation of trafficking. In many instances, the family's need to survive drive them to participate in the trafficking of their own children as they give their consent or provide the documents that will facilitate the process.

An economic problem needs an economic solution. The local government unit or an NGO working in the area may provide livelihood opportunities, skills training, crafts production, and assistance in the marketing of products in order to improve the financial condition of the poorest and most vulnerable families. Micro-financing should be explored as a viable way of sustaining the small business ventures of the families.

6.3.2.2 Values Education

Another factor that is not captured in the vulnerability assessment model but is characteristic of the families, communities, and the proximate relationships of trafficked children is their sense of materialism/consumerism. The children have imbibed an extreme desire to gain material possessions, such as cell phones, clothes, and jewelry. These desires fuel the children's motivation to work away from home, despite uncertainties and exploitative terms. Materialism has also proven to be one of the main reasons why families and communities accept the trafficking trade. The families, alongside their children, will greatly benefit from values education. It is true that poverty and the economic disparities that are seen detract from the higher and the nobler values of thrift, austerity, discipline, hard work, and patience. Proper guidance so that the children and their families would have the opportunity to express their desires and recognize the proper ways to attain them should be provided.

Violence at home is also one of the significant motivations for a child to leave home, either in search of work, or to join peers in the streets. Outside their homes, children search for relationships that would provide them the social support they don't get from their families. They wander the streets, town plazas, malls and other establishments, becoming more vulnerable to recruiters. Runaways are far easier to recruit than those who still live with their parents. Reducing the incidence of violence at home would reduce the risk of these children running away, thus also reducing their risk of being recruited in the streets or through their peers. A community-based crisis centre or counseling services would be helpful for these cases.

6.3.2.3 Involving the Family in the Reintegration Process

The child's chances for reintegration are increased if the family is engaged in the process. This may require the social worker or counselor working closely with both child and family, and is most probably true for dysfunctional families. A deeper understanding of the child's experience and the role of the family in the healing process would have to be acquired. Close monitoring by the local government unit or the social worker assigned to the child would be important.

It is as important, though, to decide whether it would still be healthy for the child to return to the family and live with them, considering the conditions of abuse which he or she may have suffered there.

6.3.3 Interventions at the Community Level

Certain paradigms have to change for community-based interventions to be effective. Awareness of trafficking as a problem and a shared understanding of what it really means and the full extent of R.A. 9208 are important. People generally have the wrong expectation about how a victim behaves, such that trafficking victims are treated more as criminals or perpetrators. This was seen in Camarines Norte, when the children who were found in a videoke raid were, instead of being counseled and repatriated; put in jail for lack of the necessary health certificates. People have difficulty letting go of their prejudice,

6.3.3.1 Advocacy and Education

Increasing awareness and knowledge building are key elements in putting up a systemic way of combating the trafficking of children at the local level. The local government is the most strategic venue where a protective mantle of laws, ordinances and assistance related to child trafficking could be lodged and prioritized. Greater sensitivity to the issue of trafficking could pave the way for a more protective environment for children and their families. Parents themselves should also be equipped with the necessary knowledge and tools to fight trafficking.

The conduct of education and awareness campaigns by different stakeholders should be rationalized. Attempts should be made to gather those that undertake information campaigns on trafficking in persons, and to devise ways to avoid the duplication of areas and audiences in order to maximize available resources for greater coverage. Given the mandate of the IACAT to coordinate the conduct of massive information campaign against trafficking in persons, it should take the lead in orchestrating and synergizing the conduct of trainings, seminar and similar activities by government and NGOs.

Communities should be mobilized into action to prevent and suppress trafficking in persons at the community level. The community plays a major role in preventing trafficking in persons and in providing and implementing reintegration programs. Working with the community is essential in developing sustainable programs and activities. They must, however, be empowered and capacitated to respond to trafficking cases. Thus, the following activities need to be undertaken, among others: a) continuous community education and awareness activities that highlight the importance of reporting incidents of trafficking and the various mechanisms to address the problem; and b) strengthening and expanding community networks.

The community should design and agree on appropriate and effective mechanisms that will help individuals, families, and NGO workers to distinguish between legitimate and non-legitimate recruiters. Where there is a preponderance of migration for work, the local government unit should provide a helpline or at least a list of legitimate contacts, procedures, documentary requirements, etc. to avoid being trapped into discussions with a trafficker. There should be a mechanism for tracking and getting feedback on migrant workers—both those who leave the place for work elsewhere as well as those who come in to a place to try out their luck there. A

mechanism for reporting the presence of a recruiter in the area as well as incidents of trafficking should be formulated and shared among all community members.

6.3.3.2 Community-based Integration Programs for Victims of Trafficking

Just as engaging the family in a victim's reintegration will hasten healing, so also will involvement of the community. A carefully-planned reintegration program, which removes community prejudices against trafficking and the victim's experience, provides a venue for sharing of experience, feelings, and ideas, would bring the community closer in the fight against child trafficking. Assigning community elders to care for the victim and his or her family would be one strategy that would make the victim feel welcomed and really at home. After-care programs should also be implemented with the community's participation.

6.3.4 Government Responsibilities

National and local governments have a greater role to play in implementing the laws. There is an urgent need to improve the overall criminal justice system by making it gender-sensitive and child-friendly. This will ensure that victims are protected at every stage and their rights are not impaired. There is also a need to mainstream gender perspective and child-focused policies in all areas of the criminal justice system. Towards this end, the Women and Children's Desks in all police stations should be enhanced. Special prosecutors who will handle cases involving women and children especially trafficking in persons should be designated in all prosecution offices nationwide. The subject of trafficking in persons must be included in the continuing legal education of all judges. Family courts should be supported with appropriate capacity building measures, and appropriate training must be provided for law enforcers, judges and other service providers.

Law enforcement and prosecution also have to be improved. The success of prosecuting violators of trafficking in persons lies heavily on the strength of evidence presented against them. The effectiveness and efficiency of law enforcement authorities are imperatives towards the conviction of traffickers. The following measures should be seriously considered: a) development of manuals or protocols in the conduct of surveillance, rescue, investigation, and prosecution of trafficking cases; b) activation, organization and institutionalization of the National Inter-Agency Task Force Against Trafficking pursuant to the provisions of the rules and regulations implementing R.A. 9208; c) strengthening of special units in the law enforcement agencies and prosecution offices that will address/respond to trafficking cases; d) regular exchange of information on the typologies and methodologies of trafficking in persons; e) consistent monitoring and evaluation of personnel involved or assigned to address trafficking in persons; and f) continuous conduct of capacity building activities and legal education program.

As for the existing witness protection schemes, policies would have to apply specific measures to increase the victim's readiness and willingness to seek assistance and cooperate with authorities. Their safety and security should be a prime consideration. The speedy resolution and disposition

of cases must also be addressed so as not to lose the interest of the complaining parties to pursue the case.

A campaign against corruption and the re-education of law enforcement agents should be done. Networks along known trafficking routes should be established by cooperating agencies, public and private, to strengthen apprehension efforts, prosecution and the victim's repatriation. A regular exchange of information about trafficking cases could also be done by this network.

Government regulations have to be implemented more strictly, particularly recruitment policies and pre-departure requirements. While there are sufficient laws and regulations to address trafficking in persons, their implementation is another thing altogether. Existing policies must be continually assessed and reviewed to better address the problem. Consistent implementation of the said policies will likewise help. The personnel and individuals involved in the implementation of such policies must be constantly monitored and evaluated. If necessary and practicable, a rotation-scheme should be adopted to disengage the personnel from conniving with recruiters and traffickers.

Basically, the country already has the best laws to combat child trafficking. The commitment should be shown beyond mere formulation of laws, policies, and local ordinances, but in their stricter implementation.

6.3.5 The Role of Local Government Units

Local government units must lead in preventing trafficking in persons and in providing protection and rehabilitative and reintegration programs for trafficked persons. Trafficking in persons begins and ends at the community level. The local government units play a critical role in preventing trafficking in persons in their respective area of jurisdiction and in providing support and protection to trafficked persons until the time that the victims have fully recovered and reintegrated into the mainstream of society.

Local officials must implement their mandate according to the IRR of R.A. 9208, which includes:

- a. Enact ordinances and issuances aimed at providing protection and support to trafficked persons,
- b. Strengthen, activate and mobilize existing committees, councils and similar organizations and special bodies to prevent and suppress trafficking in persons;
- c. Provide basic social services for the prevention, rescue, recovery, rehabilitation, and reintegration/after-care support services to victims of trafficking in persons,
- d. Undertake information campaign against trafficking, and
- e. Encourage and support community-based initiatives.

There is an urgent need for local governments to enforce their commitments to protect children. At the local government level, there are various councils, special bodies, and institutional structures geared towards the protection and welfare of children. More often than not, however, these structures are not functioning, lack complementation with other concerned agencies, or lack

local government support. Organizations at the lowest level of intervention such as the Municipal Social Welfare and Development Office, the barangays, NGOs, and key government agencies, are characteristically unhinged and uncoordinated. There is an immediate need to come up with a holistic and effective approach among structures at the local level to combat not only the issue of child trafficking but the greater issue of child protection and welfare. Local ordinances may have to be enacted to strengthen prosecution of traffickers. Funds should be allocated for advocacy, training and anti-trafficking efforts. Relevant national government agencies and NGOs must provide technical assistance to LGU in the conduct of these activities and initiatives.

6.3.6 Coordination of Efforts

Trafficking in persons is a complex problem and addressing it at every stage entails more meaningful cooperation of all stakeholders. Government neither has the capacity and resources to do it alone. Thus, it is imperative to build and strengthen partnerships and alliances with NGOs, communities, the private sector and civil society groups.

There is a need to establish clearer and improved coordination mechanism among agencies and institutions dealing with trafficking cases. Given the vast mandate of IACAT to coordinate efforts against trafficking in persons, it should develop a mechanism that will put all critical actors on board in the fight against trafficking in persons. This mechanism should clearly define the roles and responsibilities of various government and non-government agencies and institutions.

A national central database containing information on trafficking incidents, methods, traffickers and their profiles, typologies, anti-trafficking strategies, etc. is important. The lack of reliable data on trafficking in persons necessitates the establishment of a national shared central database. The database shall provide information on the extent of the problem and the impact of program interventions and should have the capacity for case tracking and monitoring. To complement the operationalization of the database, the following must likewise be undertaken: a) establishment of common referral systems for psycho-social intervention, medical and health care, temporary shelter, security and safety, legal needs and other appropriate interventions; b) development of an effective reporting system for incidents of trafficking, necessary profiles of the case and the intervention provided to the victim; c) adoption of a standard reporting format; and d) creation of a venue for the exchange of information among various actors to address problems in responses to cases of trafficking in persons and to enhance response mechanisms, including the evaluation of prevention and response interventions.

There should be ready access to this database so that agencies, NGOs, communities, and even families and concerned individuals can have ready knowledge to combat trafficking.

The trafficking of children is an evolving phenomenon. Where recruiters/traffickers adapt quickly to perpetuate their trade, innovative trafficking processes are established, new purposes for trafficking emerge and new vulnerable young groups come into the fold. The fight against child trafficking is a continuous battle. With concerted efforts, it is hoped that the child will emerge victorious. ♦

About the Philippines

Source: www.nscb.gov.ph

GEOGRAPHY

Location: Off the south-east coast of Asia and sprawls between Asia mainland and Australia between latitude 21°25'N and 4°23'N and longitude 116°E and 127°E.

Capital: Manila, with a population of 1,581,082 as of May 1, 2000 and an area of 617.3 sq. km.

Land Area: The Philippines has a total land area of approximately 300,000 sq. km. (115,830 sq. miles) and comprises 7,107 islands, some 4,000 of which are named and 1,000 are inhabited. The Philippine Archipelago is one of the largest island groups in the world. It is divided into three major island groups, namely:

- Luzon, 150,212.8 sq. km.;
- Visayas, 59,817.9 sq. km.;
- and
- Mindanao, 128,624.2 sq. km.

Terrain: Diverse, owing to its numerous high mountains and/or volcanic landforms and extensive valleys and plateaus interspersed with many rivers and lakes.

Climate: Tropical, with a normal average year-round temperature of 27°C (82°F). Two pronounced seasons—dry and wet.

Time Zone (Standard Time): One time zone. 120° East Meridian Time, which is eight hours in advance of the Greenwich Mean Time (GMT).



PEOPLE

Nationality: Filipino(s)

Population: Population for year 2000 is 76.5 million. Annual growth rate for 2000-2005 is estimated at 1.99%.

Religion: Predominantly Christian.

Catholics - 82.9%	Philippine Independent Church - 2.6%
Protestants - 5.4%	Iglesia ni Cristo - 2.3%
Islam - 4.6%	

Languages: Two official languages --- Filipino and English. Filipino which is based on Tagalog, is the national language. English is also widely used and is the medium of instruction in higher education. Eight (8) major dialects spoken by majority of the Filipinos: *Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon or Ilonggo, Bicol, Waray, Pampango, and Pangasinense.*

Education: Two forms --- formal and nonformal.

Simple Literacy Rate (2000) - 92.3%.
Participation rates:
Elementary (SY 2001 - 2002) - 97.02%
Secondary (SY 2001 - 2002) - 73.44%.
Tertiary (SY 1996-1997) - 23.9%.

Health:

Life expectancy (2003):	Child mortality rate (1998) - 14%
Female - 72.48 years	Maternal mortality per 1000 live birth (1998) - 172
Male - 67.23 years	Contraceptive prevalence rate (1998) - 46.5%
Infant mortality rate (1998) - 35%	

Labor and Employment (October 2004):

Labor force participation rate - 66.5%	Distribution of Employed Persons:
Unemployment rate - 10.9%	Agriculture, fishery and forestry - 37.1%
	Industry - 15.4%
	Services - 47.5%

GOVERNMENT

Official Name: Republic of the Philippines

Form of Government: Democratic

Independence: June 12, 1898

Constitution: The 1987 Constitution of the Philippines restored the republican form of government in the country. It was ratified on February 2, 1987.



Branches:

Executive --- president and vice-president
Legislative --- bicameral legislature (Upper and Lower House)
Judiciary --- independent.

Administrative Subdivisions: As of December 31, 2004, the Philippines had 17 regions, 79 provinces, 117 cities, 1,500 municipalities and 41,975 barangays. During this period, Luzon remains the largest island in the country, with 8 regions, 38 provinces, 58 cities, 713 municipalities and 20,488 barangays. Visayas has 3 regions, 16 provinces, 32 cities, 376 municipalities and 11,443 barangays while Mindanao has 6 regions, 25 provinces, 27 cities, 411 municipalities and 10,044 barangays.

Suffrage: Universal, but not compulsory, at age 18.

ECONOMY

Gross National Product (GNP) (2003)

At constant 1985 prices:	Growth rate (2002-2003): 5.6%
Level: PhP 1,168,778 million	Per Capita GNP: PhP 14,241

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (2003)

At constant 1985 prices:	Growth rate (2002-2003): 4.7 %
Level: PhP 1,081,497 million	Per Capita GDP: PhP 13,178

Agriculture, Fishery and Forestry (2003)

At constant 1985 prices: Percent share to total GNP: 18.4%
Five major products: Palay, livestock, poultry, coconut including copra and corn

Industry Sector (2003)

At constant 1985 prices:	Major industries and their contribution to GNP:
Percent share to total GNP: 30.96%	Mining and quarrying: 1.5%
	Manufacturing: 22.5%
	Construction: 3.9%
	Electricity, gas and water: 3.0%

Services Sector (2003)

At constant 1985 prices:	Major services and their contribution to total GNP
Percent share to total GNP: 43.2%	Transportation, communication and storage: 7.5%
	Trade: 15.4%
	Finance: 4.5%
	Ownership of dwellings and real estate: 4.4%
	Private services: 7.0%
	Government services: 4.4%



Trade (2003)

At constant 1985 prices:

- Merchandise Exports: PhP 406,974 million

Five major exports:

 - Semiconductors and electronic microcircuits
 - Garments
 - Finished electrical machinery
 - Crude coconut oil
 - Bars, rods of copper
- Merchandise Imports: PhP 553,241 million

Five major imports:

 - Electrical machinery, apparatus & appliances
 - Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials
 - Machinery other than electrical machinery
 - Base metals

The Regions of the Philippines

PHILIPPINES (REGIONS)							
No. of Provinces	79	No. of Cities	117	No. of Municipalities	1500	No. of Barangays	41975
Registered Voters (2004): 43,536,028							

Region: NCR – National Capital Region

Registered Voters (2004): 5,925,347

No. of Provinces	0	No. of Cities	14	No. of Municipalities	3	No. of Barangays	1,694
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Region: CAR - Cordillera Administrative Region

Registered Voters (2004)		762,268					
No. of Provinces	6	No. of Cities	1	No. of Municipalities	76	No. of Barangays	1,176

Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)
ABRA	3rd Class	27 Mun. 303 Bgys	133,124
APAYAO	3rd Class	7 Mun. 133 Bgys	51,289
BENGUET	2nd Class	13 Mun. 1 City 269 Bgys	303,610
IFUGAO	3rd Class	11 Mun. 175 Bgys	89,864
KALINGA	3rd Class	8 Mun. 152 Bgys	102,985
MOUNTAIN PROVINCE	3rd Class	10 Mun. 144 Bgys	81,396

Region: REGION I (Ilocos Region)

Registered Voters (2004)		2,323,285					
No. of Provinces	4	No. of Cities	8	No. of Municipalities	117	No. of Barangays	3,265
Province	Income Class	Info			Registered Voters (2004)		
<u>ILOCOS NORTE</u>	1st Class	22 Mun. 1 City 557 Bgys			299,583		
<u>ILOCOS SUR</u>	1st Class	32 mun. 2 Cities 768 Bgys			332,177		
<u>LA UNION</u>	1st Class	19 Mun. 1 City 576 Bgys			361,498		
<u>PANGASINAN</u>	1st Class	44 Mun. 4 Cities 1,364 Bgys			1,330,027		

Region: REGION II (Cagayan Valley)

Registered Voters (2004)		1,498,780					
No. of Provinces	5	No. of Cities	3	No.of Municipalities	90	No. of Barangays	2,311
Province	Income Class	Info			Registered Voters (2004)		
<u>BATANES</u>	4th Class	6 Mun. 29 Bgys			8,872		
<u>CAGAYAN</u>	1st Class	28 Mun. 1 City 820 Bgys			503,557		
<u>ISABELA</u>	1st Class	35 Mun. 2 Cities 1,055 Bgys			705,673		
<u>NUEVA VIZCAYA</u>	2nd Class	15 Mun. 275 Bgys			202,314		
<u>QUIRINO</u>	3rd Class	6 mun. 132 Bgys			78,364		

Region: REGION III (Central Luzon)

Registered Voters (2004)		4,958,425					
No. of Provinces	7	No. of Cities	12	No. of Municipalities	118	No. of Barangays	3,102
Province	Income Class	Info			Registered Voters (2004)		
AURORA	3rd Class	8 Mun. 151 Bgys			97,430		
BATAAN	1st Class	11 Mun. 1 City 237 Bgys			371,586		
BULACAN	1st Class	22 Mun. 2 Cities 569 Bgys			1,420,798		
NUEVA ECIIJA	1st Class	27 Mun. 5 Cities 849 Bgys			1,038,713		
PAMPANGA	1st Class	20 Mun. 2 Cities 538 Bgys			1,079,532		

Province	Income Class	Info		Registered Voters (2004)			
TARLAC	1st Class	17 Mun. 1 City 511 Bgys		575,578			
ZAMBALES	2nd Class	13 Mun. 1 City 247 Bgys		374,788			
Region: REGION IV-A (CALABARZON)							
Registered Voters (2004)		5,528,898					
No. of provinces	5	No. of Cities	11	No. of Municipalities	131	No. of Barangays	4,012
Province	Income Class	Info			Registered Voters (2004)		
BATANGAS	1st Class	31 Mun. 3 Cities 1078 Bgys			1,118,425		
CAVITE	1st Class	20 Mun. 3 Cities 830 Bgys			1,323,895		
LAGUNA	1st Class	27 Mun. 3 Cities 674 Bgys			1,220,798		
QUEZON	1st Class	40 Mun. 1 City 1,242 Bgys			836,419		
RIZAL	1st Class	13 Mun. 1 City 188 Bgys			1,029,361		
Region: REGION IV-B (MIMAROPA)							
Registered Voters (2004)		1,191,930					
No. of Provinces	5	No. of Cities	2	No. of Municipalities	71	No. of Barangays	1,457
Province	Income Class	Info			Registered Voters (2004)		
MARINDUQUE	4th Class	6 Mun. 218 Bgys			111,786		
OCCIDENTAL MINDORO	2nd Class	11 Mun. 162 Bgys			185,227		
ORIENTAL MINDORO	2nd Class	14 Mun. 1 City 426 Bgys			344,462		
PALAWAN	1st Class	23 Mun. 1 City 432 Bgys			406,945		
ROMBLON	3rd Class	17 Mun. 219 Bgys			143,510		
Region: REGION V (Bicol Region)							
Registered Voters (2004)		2,431,584					
No. of Provinces	6	No. of Cities	7	No. of Municipalities	107	No. of Barangays	3,471
Province	Income Class	Info			Registered Voters ¹ (2004)		
ALBAY	1 st Class	15 Mun. 3 Cities 720 Bgys			606,617		

Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)				
CAMARINES NORTE	2 nd Class	12 Mun. 282 Bgys	216,275				
CAMARINES SUR	1 st Class	35 Mun. 2 Cities 1063 Bgys	758,854				
CATANDUANES	3 rd Class	11 Mun. 315 Bgys	122,313				
MASBATE	2 nd Class	20 Mun. 1 City 550 Bgys	380,037				
SORSOGON	2 nd Class	14 Mun. 1 City 541 Bgys	347,488				
Region: REGION VI (Western Visayas)							
Registered Voters (2004)	3,592,213						
No. of Provinces	6	No. of Cities	16	No. of Municipalities	117	No. of Barangays	4,050
Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)				
AKLAN	2nd Class	17 Mun. 327 Bgys	258,582				
ANTIQUE	2nd Class	18 Mun. 590 Bgys	241,977				
CAPIZ	2nd Class	16 Mun. 1 City 473 Bgys	379,123				
GUIMARAS	4th Class	5 Mun. 98 Bgys	75,328				
ILOILO	1st Class	42 Mun. 2 Cities 1,901 Bgys	1,158,943				
NEGROS OCCIDENTAL	1st Class	19 Mun 13 Cities 661 Bgys	1,478,260				
Region: REGION VII (Central Visayas)							
Registered Voters (2004)	3,297,946						
No. of Provinces	4	No. of Cities	12	No. of Municipalities	120	No. of barangays	3,003
Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)				
BOHOL	1st Class	47 Mun. 1 City 1109 Bgys	619,935				
CEBU	1st Class	47 Mun. 6 Cities 1,203 Bgys	2,018,719				
NEGROS ORIENTAL	1st Class	20 Mun. 5 Cities 557 Bgys)	606,634				
SIQUIJOR	4th Class	6 Mun. 134 Bgys	52,658				

Region: REGION VIII (Eastern Visayas)

Registered Voters (2004)		2,078,555					
No. of Provinces	6	No. of Cities	4	No. of Municipalities	139	No. of barangays	4,390

Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)
<u>BILIRAN</u>	4th Class	8 Mun. 132 Bgys	81,958
<u>EASTERN SAMAR</u>	2nd Class	23 Mun. 597 Bgys	216,169
<u>LEYTE</u>	1st Class	41 Mun. 2 Cities 1,641 Bgys	908,480
<u>NORTHERN SAMAR</u>	2nd Class	24 Mun. 569 Bgys	275,476
<u>SAMAR (WESTERN SAMAR)</u>	2nd Class	25 Mun. 1 City 951 Bgys	386,916
<u>SOUTHERN LEYTE</u>	3rd Class	18 Mun. 1 City 500 Bgys	209,556

Region: REGION IX (Zamboanga Peninsula)

Registered Voters (2004)		1,657,134					
No. of Provinces	3	No. of Cities	5	No. of Municipalities	67	No. of Barangays	1,903

Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)
<u>CITY OF ISABELA (Not a Province)</u>	-	1 City 45 Bgys	37,983
<u>ZAMBOANGA DEL NORTE</u>	1st Class	25 Mun 2 Cities 691 Bgys	492,791
<u>ZAMBOANGA DEL SUR</u>	1st Class	26 Mun 2 Cities 779 Bgys	851,280
<u>ZAMBOANGA SIBUGAY</u>	-	16 Mun. 388 Bgys	275,080

Region: REGION X (Northern Mindanao)							
Registered Voters (2004)		2,067,109					
No. of Provinces	5	No. of Cities	8	No. of Municipalities	85	Number of barangays	2,020
Province		Income Class		Info		Registered Voters (2004)	
BUKIDNON		1st Class		20 Mun. 2 Cities 464 Bgys		559,530	
CAMIGUIN		4th Class		5 Mun. 58 Bgys		53,568	
LANAO DEL NORTE		2nd Class		22 Mun. 1 City 506 Bgys		482,480	
MISAMIS OCCIDENTAL		2nd Class		14 Mun 3 Cities 490 Bgys		303,145	
MISAMIS ORIENTAL		1st Class		24 Mun. 2 Cities 502 Bgy		668,386	

Region: REGION XI (Davao Region)

Registered Voters (2004)		2,134,415					
No. of Provinces	4	No. of Cities	5	No. of Municipalities	44	No. of Barangays	1,160
Province		Income Class		Info		Registered Voters (2004)	
COMPOSTELA VALLEY		-		11 Mun. 235 Bgys		297,595	
DAVAO DEL NORTE		1st Class		8 Mun. 3 Cities 223 Bgys		425,486	
DAVAO DEL SUR		1st Class		14 Mun. 2 Cities 519 Bgys		1,176,758	
DAVAO ORIENTAL		2nd Class		11 Mun. 183 Bgys		234,576	

Region: REGION XII (Soccsksargen)											
Registered Voters (2004)		1,867,539									
No. of Provinces		4	No. of Cities		5	No. of Municipalities		45	No. of Barangays		1,194
Province			Income Class		Info			Registered Voters (2004)			
COTABATO (NORTH COTABATO)			1st Class		17 Mun. 1 City 543 Bgys			556,097			
COTABATO CITY (Not a Province)			-		1 City 37 Bgys			117,025			
SARANGANI			2nd Class		7 Mun 140 Bgys			221,832			
SOUTH COTABATO			2nd Class		10 Mun. 2 Cities 225 Bgys			628,161			
SULTAN KUDARAT			2nd Class		11 Mun. 1 City 249 Bgys			344,424			

Region: REGION XIII (Caraga)											
Registered Voters (2004)		1,163,142									
No. of Provinces		4	No. of Cities		3	No. of Municipalities		70	No. of Barangays		1,308
Province			Income Class			Info			Registered Voters (2004)		
AGUSAN DEL NORTE			2nd Class			11 Mun. 1 City 250 Bgys			305,359		
AGUSAN DEL SUR			1st Class			14 Mun. 314 Bgys			264,692		
SURIGAO DEL NORTE			2nd Class			27 Mun. 1 City 435 Bgys			309,973		
SURIGAO DEL SUR			2nd Class			18 Mun. 1 City 309 Bgys			283,118		

Region: ARMM - Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao

Registered Voters (2004) 1,057,458

No. of Provinces 5 No. of Cities 1 No. of Municipalities 100 No. of Barangays 2,459

Province	Income Class	Info	Registered Voters (2004)
BASILAN	3rd Class	6 Mun. 210 Bgys	117,467
LANAO DEL SUR	1st Class	38 Mun. 1 City 1,155 Bgys	275,572
MAGUINDANAO	2nd Class	28 Mun. 481 Bgys	334,287
SULU	3rd Class	18 Mun. 410 Bgys	209,677
TAWI-TAWI	4th Class	10 Mun. 203 Bgys	120,455

Regression Analysis

Table A-1 below lists down all the independent variables that were considered in identifying the more critical factors that affect a household’s decision to allow a child to work away from home.

Using the schematics for sequential probit regression as basis, the basic model for individual *i* is given by:

$$CT_i = F(x_{ij} \beta) + e_i$$

where CT is the child traffic outcome (whether a child is living away from home or not), x is the vector of determinants of child trafficking, *i* is the individual child in locality *j*, β is the coefficient, *F*(·) is the standard normal cumulative distribution function, and *e_i* is the usual error term. The estimated parameters of the probit model do not provide the marginal effects of the variables on the probability (*P*) of child trafficking. In order to obtain a summary measure, the marginal effect of variable *k* can be calculated at the mean values of the independent variables.

Table A-1 Independent Variables Used in Probit Regression.

Variable	Value
Age	age in years
Female	Female=1
Child has low education	Elementary graduate or lower=1
Rural	Rural=1
Region	17 regional dummies, Ilocos as base
OR	
Visayas	Visayas=1 (alternate)
Mindanao	Mindanao=1 (alternate)
Household head is female	Female=1
Household head has low education	Elementary graduate or lower=1
Spouse has low education	Elementary graduate or lower=1
Number of siblings	5 & above=1
Household head is employed	Employed=1
Spouse is employed	Employed=1
Household head is underemployed	Underemployed=1
Spouse is underemployed	Underemployed=1
Household head employed in agriculture	Agriculture=1
Household head employed in industry	Industry=1
Household head employed in services	Services=1
Household head wage worker	Wage earner =1
Presence of male earner	At least one employed male = 1
Presence of working child	With working child=1
Household asset index	Quintile group based on asset index

Variable	Value
Municipality	Municipality=1
Income class of municipality	Merged data with Igu masterlist
First class	First class=1
Second class	Second class=1
Third class	Third class=1
Fourth class	Fourth class=1
Fifth class	Fifth class=1
Sixth class	Sixth class=1
Total per capita government expenditure	In pc expenditure
Per capita expenditure on basic social services	In pc bss expenditure
Proportion of budget spent on bss	bss proportion
Aware of recruitment of children	Aware=1
Aware of government programs	Aware=1
Dependent variables	
Working child (e00~=. c01~=.)	wrkchild=1
Living away from home (c01~=.)	wrkaway=1

The results of the second regression are presented in Table A-2. The dependent variable is the status of the working child. It takes a value of 1 if the working child is living away from home. The sample size for this estimate was reduced to 6,648 observations with the removal of observations with incomplete data.

The first column lists the explanatory variables. The second column shows the level of significance of the variables, whether it is significant at the 10 percent level, 5 percent level, or 1 percent level. The third column shows the coefficient of the variable. The fourth column gives the exact significance level. The coefficients in a probit model cannot be interpreted as those in least squares regression. To estimate the impact of a change in the independent variable on the dependent variable, the marginal effect is computed. This is presented in the last column which gives the marginal effect of the independent variable on the probability of a child living away from home. Only variables whose marginal effects are statistically significant are presented. A more detailed discussion of the results is presented in Chapter 3.

The regression has shown several significant results that affirm observations as cited in child trafficking literature as well as in the tabular analysis done earlier in this study. Being female increases a child's vulnerability to trafficking (indicated by a ***). The age range found to be significant is 13-17, which has previously been mentioned as preferred, and an obvious initiation into the working age population.

Table A-2. Probit estimates.

Explanatory Variables	Level of Significance	Coefficient	Exact Significance Level	Marginal Effect
Number of obs	6,648			
Wald chi2(54)	298			
Prob > chi2	0			
Pseudo R2	0.2338			
Log likelihood	(858)			
independent var	significance	z	P>z	dy/dx
<i>Gender</i>				
female	***	9.25	0.000	2.7
<i>Child's age</i>				
age11		0.35	0.723	
age12	**	2.53	0.011	2.0
age13	***	2.95	0.003	2.3
age14	***	4.14	0.000	3.1
age15	***	4.84	0.000	3.7
age16	***	6.39	0.000	4.7
age17	***	7.33	0.000	5.6
<i>Child's education</i>				
some elementary		0	0.997	
elem graduate		-0.01	0.988	
some high school		-0.79	0.427	
high school graduate		-0.22	0.829	
<i>Household wealth</i>				
quintile1	***	4.7	0.000	4.5
quintile2	***	3.6	0.000	3.4
quintile3	*	2.29	0.022	
quintile4		1.28	0.200	
<i>Education, household</i>				
hs grad (hh members)	***	-2.81	0.005	(0.7)
<i>Employment</i>				
head wageworker		-0.52	0.601	
head works in industry		0.1	0.920	
head unemployed		0.84	0.403	
spouse unemployed		0.82	0.411	
<i>Family size</i>				
children2	**	2.22	0.026	
children3	***	3.52	0.000	5.7
children4	***	3.73	0.000	5.9
children5	***	3.91	0.000	7.1
children6	***	4.06	0.000	7.9
children7	***	4.6	0.000	12.2
children8	***	3.9	0.000	10.3
children9		1.16	0.246	
<i>Awareness of programs</i>				
know recruitment		0.15	0.885	
know govt programs		-0.05	0.963	

Explanatory Variables	Level of Significance	Coefficient	Exact Significance Level	Marginal Effect
<i>Location variables</i>				
rural/urban		-0.76	0.445	
reg1	***	2.85	0.004	
reg2	**	2.49	0.013	
reg3		1.22	0.223	
reg4	**	2.19	0.029	
reg5	**	2.46	0.014	
reg6	**	2.18	0.029	
reg7	**	2.06	0.040	
reg8	***	2.85	0.004	
reg9	***	2.56	0.010	
reg10	**	2.53	0.011	
reg11	*	1.87	0.062	
reg12	**	2.08	0.038	
reg13		0.92	0.356	
reg14	*	1.74	0.082	
reg16	**	2.32	0.020	
municipality/city		-1.41	0.160	
2nd class lgu		0.91	0.362	
3rd class lgu		1.64	0.101	0.7
4th class lgu	**	2.12	0.034	0.9
5th class lgu		1.01	0.315	
6th class lgu		0.11	0.913	
bss as % of budget		-1.03	0.304	
per capita expenditure		-1.34	0.179	
_cons		-8.81	0.000	

Interestingly, regression does not find education of the child a significant variable. Apparently, education did not matter much, provided the child was of the right age.

Certain household characteristics were also found significant. Household wealth is said to be a major predictor, with families belonging to the poorest 20 percent with a much greater probability of a child migrating in order to find work. A large family increases the financial burden. Poverty, coupled with a large family size drastically increases the probability of a child migrating for work, and, consequently the child being trafficked. Family size apparently has its disadvantages and advantages. It increases vulnerability to child trafficking, at the same time that it allows the family to adjust to the loss of one family member.

Having a household member with at least high school education decreases the probability of a child migrating. Education is apparently important in the sense that higher education in the household would mean

increased appreciation of the risks of migrating for a child. Employment of household heads as well as knowledge about government programs was not found to be statistically significant.

Table A-3 presents estimates using an alternative specification of the model wherein the dummy variables for the region are replaced by the unemployment and underemployment variables. Both variables are provincial level rates. The model performs well compared to when the regional dummies are used. Surprisingly, the unemployment rate at the province of origin shows the wrong sign but is not statistically significant. Based on the net benefit model, we would expect the level of unemployment at the place of origin to be positively related to child migration. It is underemployment that shows up as the more significant variable.

Table A-3 Alternative specification.

Variable	z	P> z	dy/dx
female	6.43	-	2.80
age	8.56	-	0.84
	0.11	0.92	0.12
elem graduate	0.34	0.73	0.46
some high school	0.07	0.95	0.08
high school graduate	0.49	0.62	0.89
quintile1	2.76	0.006	3.53
quintile2	2.23	0.026	2.86
quintile3	1.47	0.14	1.64
quintile4	0.63	0.528	0.65
number of children	3.73	0	0.21
know recruitment	0.42	0.674	0.13
know govt programs	-0.16	0.877	(0.04)
did not reach high school	3.71	0	2.70
rural/urban	-0.41	0.681	(0.12)
municipality/city	-1.29	0.196	(0.44)
2nd class lgu	0.89	0.374	0.47
3rd class lgu	1.42	0.154	0.69
4th class lgu	2.07	0.039	0.95
5th class lgu	1.53	0.125	0.69
6th class lgu	0.47	0.637	0.40
per capita expenditure	-0.75	0.455	(0.00)
unemployment rate	-1.11	0.266	(0.05)
underemployment rate	2.57	0.01	0.03

Living in a rural or urban area does not seem to affect a child’s probability to migrate. Neither does whether a child lives in a town or a city.

The income classes of the municipalities show varying results. Coming from a 4th class town is a significant indicator of vulnerability, whereas coming from the poorest town does not show as much significance. The implications of this result on level of education, opportunities, and marketability of skills of the child would be interesting to look at. Apparently recruiters for work do not go to the poorest areas for these reasons.

Table A-4 summarizes for us the more significant variables (5 percent level). Gender, or being female, and age, meaning belonging to the upper age bracket for children, are significant variables. So also are the following household characteristics: wealth, household members’ educational attainment, and the number of children. Community characteristics that are significant are: region, income class and the underemployment rate.

Table A-4 Survey Probit Regression.

Number of obs = 6,696
Number of strata = 157
Number of PSUs = 1,580
Population size = 4,122,008
F(14, 1410) = 16.15
Prob > F = 0

wchild_away2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
female*	0.661987	0.081686	8.10	-	0.501749	0.822226
age*	0.254903	0.022729	11.22	-	0.210318	0.299488
wealthxtile1*	0.463360	0.195965	2.36	0.0180	0.078949	0.847771
wealthxtile2	0.314955	0.195063	1.61	0.1070	(0.067688)	0.697597
wealthxtile3	0.085829	0.207205	0.41	0.6790	(0.320632)	0.492290
wealthxtile4	0.016366	0.222668	0.07	0.9410	(0.420427)	0.453159
children*	0.067030	0.016656	4.02	-	0.034357	0.099704
lowgrade*	0.561030	0.088365	6.35	-	0.387691	0.734369
lguclass2	0.142843	0.150484	0.95	0.3430	(0.152351)	0.438036
lguclass3	0.161830	0.149994	1.08	0.2810	(0.132404)	0.456063
lguclass4*	0.241449	0.122032	1.98	0.0480	0.002067	0.480831
lguclass5	0.168397	0.125115	1.35	0.1790	(0.077032)	0.413825
lguclass6	0.026830	0.282481	0.09	0.9240	(0.527294)	0.580954
Underemp*	0.014233	0.005995	2.37	0.0180	0.002472	0.025994
_cons	(6.981309)	0.440217	(15.86)	-	(7.844853)	(6.117765)

* Significant at least at the 5% level

The Child Trafficking Vulnerability Index

This is an attempt to rank the provinces according to the likelihood that a child living in that province will become a trafficking victim. The predicted rank is computed by applying the estimation model obtained using the SOC to the more recent Annual Poverty Indicator Survey 2002 (APIS), which contains individual and household socio-economic characteristics. Among others, it identifies working and non-working children 5-17 years old. It also contains all the variables in the model, and allows tabulation at the provincial level.

The table that follows shows the predicted ranks of all the provinces in the country with respect to number of children living away from home, and compares it with the results of the SOC Survey. Though the two rankings do not exactly match, there are interesting observations to be made, at least, about many of the provinces in the top 20 of the list. It is understood that those provinces with high ranks, and as validated by other observations/data, may have to be given priority treatment where the design and implementation of anti-child trafficking interventions are concerned.

Table A-5 Predicted and Actual Number of Children Living Away from Home.

Region	Province	Predicted CLA	Predicted Rank	SOC 2001	SOC Rank
X	Bukidnon	9,294	1	11,048	1
VII	Cebu	4,559	2	6,088	10
VI	Negros Occidental	4,327	3	6,254	8
VI	Iloilo	4,239	4	6,783	5
V	Camarines Sur	3,784	5	5,938	11
IV	Quezon	3,023	6	6,336	7
XI	Sarangani	2,843	7	1,151	39
VII	Negros Oriental	2,575	8	4,136	13
VIII	Leyte	2,421	9	9,505	2
XII	Lanao Del Norte	2,291	10	3,858	15
IV	Oriental Mindoro	2,205	11	3,100	22
XII	Cotabato (North Cotabato)	2,157	12	3,598	16
VI	Capiz	2,046	13	2,311	29
IX	Zamboanga Del Sur	2,024	14	8,503	3
V	Masbate	1,923	15	6,913	4
XI	South Cotabato	1,921	16	6,136	9
II	Nueva Ecija	1,920	17	915	44
III	Bulacan	1,882	18	951	42
V	Albay	1,805	19	2,946	25
I	Pangasinan	1,798	20	1,070	40
X	Misamis Oriental	1,752	21	3,250	20
IX	Zamboanga Del Norte	1,736	22	3,891	14
XI	Davao Del Sur	1,641	23	2,021	33
VII	Bohol	1,634	24	2,512	27
IV	Laguna	1,547	25	ns	
III	Pampanga	1,437	26	ns	
CARAGA	Surigao Del Sur	1,423	27	2,967	24
III	Tarlac	1,355	28	871	46
IV	Batangas	1,329	29	Ns	
II	Cagayan	1,307	30	2,881	26
ARMM	Maguindanao	1,296	31	696	51
VIII	Eastern Samar	1,188	32	2,025	32
I	La Union	1,141	33	2,993	23
IV	Occidental Mindoro	1,131	34	Ns	
II	Isabela	1,129	35	3,213	21
X	Misamis Occidental	1,120	36	1,183	38
CARAGA	Agusan Del Sur	1,111	37	996	41
IV	Palawan	1,015	38	3,457	18

Region	Province	Predicted CLA	Predicted Rank	SOC 2001	SOC Rank
V	Catanduanes	1,011	39	1,996	34
VIII	Samar (Western Samar)	998	40	5,838	12
V	Sorsogon	943	41	3,338	19
I	Ilocos Sur	823	42	ns	
IV	Rizal	767	43	587	52
NCR	NCR-2 nd District	695	44	ns	
XI	Davao Del Norte	691	45	2,158	30
V	Camarines Norte	677	46	923	43
I	Ilocos Norte	651	47	3,552	17
II	Nueva Vizcaya	621	48	1,905	35
XII	Sultan Kudarat	617	49	ns	
VI	Antique	579	50	871	47
NCR	NCR-3 rd	576	51	891	45
CARAGA	Agusan Del Norte	557	52	1,523	36
VIII	Northern Samar	553	53	6,484	6
VIII	Biliran Is	545	54	553	53
ARMM	Sulu	540	55	ns	
VIII	Southern Leyte	520	56	360	55
XI	Davao Oriental	509	57	280	56
III	Bataan	504	58	ns	
VI	Guimaras	482	59	ns	
IV	Cavite	471	60	ns	
III	Zambales	446	61	840	48
CAR	Mountain Province	432	62	772	49
CARAGA	Surigao Del Norte	430	63	2,127	31
VI	Aklan	393	64	2,398	28
IX	Basilan	376	65	ns	
IV	Aurora	359	66	1,331	37
IV	Romblon	339	67	379	54
IV	Marinduque	325	68	ns	
X	Camiguin	267	69	177	57
CAR	Abra	232	70	ns	
ARMM	Lanao Del Sur	218	71	ns	
CAR	Ifugao	180	72	704	50
CAR	Benguet	158	73	ns	
CAR	Apayao	135	74	ns	
VII	Siquijor	116	75	ns	
NCR	NCR-1st	101	76	ns	
CAR	Kalinga	88	77	ns	
II	Quirino	86	78	ns	
XI	Compostela Valley	83	79	ns	
II	Batanes	7	80	50	58
ARMM	Tawi-Tawi	nil		ns	
NCR	Manila	nil		ns	
	All Provinces	102,430		170,533	

ns – not sampled during the survey

Akyat-barko Girls – child prostitutes boarding a foreign vessel through a banca or pumpboat, accompanied by their parents or their pimps. The girls usually wave their hands and ask the customer on board if they want their services. When an agreement is reached, these girls would board the ship and stay for a while. Often, recruiters go around villages or towns and recruit the children/adults and transport them to the piers.

Child – a person below 18 years of age or one who is over 18 but is unable to fully take care of or protect himself/herself from abuse, neglect, cruelty, exploitation, or discrimination because of a physical or mental disability or condition.

Child sex tourism – the act of traveling abroad to have sex with a minor.

Child trafficking – an act of trading and dealing with children including, but not limited to, the act of buying and selling of a child for money, or for any other consideration, or barter.¹

Cohort survival rate – the proportion of enrollees at the beginning grade or year who reach the final grade or year at the end of the required number of years of study.

Claim-holder – the individual, or group, whose rights are to be facilitated, fulfilled and realized. The claim-holder can lay claim to their rights against the duty-bearers, but at the same time have a duty to ensure that the enjoyment of their rights respects the rights of others. In the case of this study, the children are the claim-holders.

Completion rate – the percentage of first year entrants in a level of education who complete/finish the level in accordance with the required number of years of study.

Dampa girls – a term originating from street children. They are girls who use drugs and indulge in other vices and who eventually end up as prostitutes.

Debt bondage – the pledging by the debtor of his/her personal services or labour or those of a person under his/her control as security or payment for a debt, when the length and nature of services is not clearly defined or when the value of the services as reasonably assessed is not applied toward the liquidation of the debt.

Dropout rate – the proportion of pupils/student who leave school during the year as well as those who complete the grade/year level but fail to enroll in the next grade/year level the following school year to the total number of pupils/students enrolled during the previous school year.

Duty-bearer – individuals or groups who are responsible for the realization of human rights, and whose capacities to meet these responsibilities must therefore be strengthened.

Forced labor and slavery – the extraction of work or services from any person by means of enticement, violence, intimidation or threat, use of force or coercion, including deprivation of freedom, abuse of authority or moral ascendancy, debt-bondage or deception.

¹ Compendium of DSWD and Selected SWD Statistics, CY 1997-2001

Gimik – particularly used in areas of Quezon City (e.g., Cubao and Timog/Quezon Avenue) to refer to streetwalkers. The root of the term is “gimmick,” used by teenagers or young people to refer to having a good time with friends; “gimik” is also used to hide the nature of prostitution in the streets.

Lapag – in English, it literally means to come or put down (to a place). Used by prostituted children/women in Quezon City areas to mean that they are going to do the streets.

Mekong Sub-Region – comprises Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam, Lao PDR, PR China and Burma. The Mekong River is the common backbone that runs through each of the otherwise quite diverse countries.

Participation rate – the ratio of enrolled students in the school-age range to the total population of that age range.

Pick-up girls – girl children who are literally picked up by customers at a designated place, usually a karaoke bar or cheap restaurant.

Prostitution – any act, transaction, scheme or design involving the use of a person by another for sexual intercourse or lascivious conduct in exchange for money, profit, or any other consideration.

Pull factors – conditions in the area of destination that attract an individual, such as economic opportunity, climate, and demand for various forms of labour.

Push factors – unfavourable conditions at home or in the community of residence that make people want to leave.

Sexual exploitation – the participation by a person in prostitution or the production of pornographic materials as a result of being subjected to threat, deception, coercion, abduction, force, abuse of authority, debt bondage, and fraud or through abuse of a victim’s vulnerability.

Shine girls – used in parts of Mindanao to refer to children and adults engaging in paid sex inside movie houses, often in the form of “blow jobs.”²

Smuggling of aliens or illegal migrant smuggling – defined by the U.N. 2000 Protocol Against Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the U.N. Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime, to mean the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of illegal entry of a person into a state, party of which the person is not a national or permanent resident. Unlike trafficking in persons, which may occur internationally as well as internally or domestically, alien smuggling is always of a transnational nature, since it requires crossing a national border, and as such it involves an illegal entry of a person into a country of which such a person does not have legal status. Illegal entry, in this context, means crossing borders without complying with the necessary requirements for legal entry into the receiving state.

Striker – prostituted girls and children/adults who roam the public plaza or other areas at night in search of clients.

Southeast Asia – a sub-region of Asia and composed of 11 countries. The countries can be divided into the Mainland (also known as Peninsular Southeast Asia) and the Archipelago (also known as Insular Southeast Asia or Maritime Southeast Asia). The Mainland countries include Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar (Burma), Thailand, Vietnam and the Archipelago nations are namely Brunei, East Timor, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Singapore.

Sub-Saharan Africa – Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Survey of Children (SOC) – the 2001 nationwide survey on children 15 to 17 years old that monitored the existence of child labour. It provides information on the size and key characteristics of working children—their working conditions, home and school activities—as well as information on household socio-economic characteristics, children living away from home, and the awareness of child recruitment and of government programs concerning children and family.

Trafficking in Persons³ – refers to the recruitment, transportation, transfer or harboring, or receipt of persons with or without the victim’s consent or knowledge, within or across national borders, by means of threat or use of force, or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or of position, taking advantage of the vulnerability of the person, or, the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation which includes, at a minimum, the exploitation of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery, servitude or the removal or sale of organs.

The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall also be considered as “trafficking in persons” even if it does not involve any of the means set forth in the preceding paragraph.

Vitamin C – refers to children/minors by clients; a term used particularly in certain parts of Mindanao and the Visayas. “C” stands for child.⁴

Vulnerability – the risk of a community or geographical area (e.g. town or province) of becoming a source or sending area of child trafficking victims.

²National Consultation of Survivors/Victims of Prostitution, 19-21 October 2003.

³Section 3, Republic Act No. 9208.

⁴National Consultation of Survivors/Victims of Prostitution, 19-21 October 2003.

Situationer: Children and Women

De Leon-Miranda, Ma. Luisa, M.D. “An Action Research on the Reproductive Health Problems of Street Girl-Mothers in Selected Areas of Metro Manila.” MSF-Belgium in the Philippines’ Street Children Project (2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

De Leon provides a descriptive study on the profile and situation of street girl-mothers in Médecins Sans Frontières-Belgium’s areas of operation in the cities of Pasay, Quezon, Manila and Caloocan in year 2001. A total of 37 participants were interviewed and observed on the streets. Data showed that the street girl-mothers are highly vulnerable to reproductive health problems such as sexually transmitted infections, pregnancies, and abortions due to lack of knowledge, lack of agreement with their partners, and lack of appropriate strategies for the new phenomenon of street families. The author recommends the drawing up of a framework based on a multidisciplinary, gender-sensitive, and participative approach.

“Filipino Children in the Face of Globalization: A Theoretical Framework for the Discussion in Analyzing the Impact of Globalization on Filipino Children.” Arci Cultura E Sviluppo-Southeast Asia, Ibon Foundation, Inc., Save the Children (UK) Philippines and Salinlahi Alliance for Children’s Concerns (April 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This report presents recent findings on the difficult situation of children in terms of health, education, labour, and conflict with the law, and relates these with economic policies and programs designed to make the country competitive in the global market but puts Filipino children at risk. It also investigates the government’s claim of having a child-friendly society, and finds that government policy has laid the welfare of children entirely in the hands of individual competences, neglecting the importance of structural protection. Lastly, it argues that the situation of our children is not bound to change if the government consistently refuses to abandon its policy of globalization.

Ortega, Susan, Carolyn Sobritchea, and Remedios P. Mondiguing. “A Policy and Action Research on Filipino Female Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances.” Council for the Welfare of Children and University Center for Women’s Studies, Quezon City. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The authors based their research on three sets of data: protocols on agencies/institutions with child-related programs, sex- and age- disaggregated data for physically and sexually abused children compiled by the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), and nine focus-group discussions with female children survivors and caregivers. One of the major findings is that most cases of abuse were sexual in nature and were mostly committed against girl children, majority of which were in the elementary grades. They also discovered that the average age of abused girl children is around 12 while that of boy children is 10, with almost all of the abused children coming from very poor families, irrespective of age or region. It was also found that around 55.6 percent of the reported perpetrators were male family members and at least 32.8 percent of the abuses were repeated abuses that went on for a year or more. The research team recommends the following for agencies involved in various welfare, capability and advocacy programs for children: gender sensitivity in program development and implementation, overall improvement in the quality of services for both male and female children, comprehensive reviews of existing programs, disaggregated compilation of data on children, and increased advocacy on girl child rights and welfare in all levels.

Ramos, Melanie. "The State of Filipino Children." Institute on Church and Social Issues (2002).

Ramos summarizes the State of the Filipino Children Report of 2002, which highlights the gains and challenges of the Arroyo administration on Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD), health and nutrition, and child protection. The author recognizes that the Arroyo administration strengthened the laws and policies on ECCD, increased the number of day care centres in the country, and successfully countered some diseases with the Department of Health's nationwide immunization campaigns. However, she also prompts the government to exert more effort on mounting problems—like malnutrition, child labour, and other crimes against children—by allocating sufficient funds for children's programs and activities, prioritizing children's concerns and issues, and investing expertise and resources in crafting effective programs for young people.

UNICEF. "Situation of Children and Women in the Philippines." UNICEF, Manila (1990).

An update of the UNICEF's 1987 report, it provides the current number of children in the labour force, which is shown to have increased by 51 percent from 1986 to 1988. It shows that as of the third quarter of 1988, there were 3.7 million working children (aged 10-19 years), majority of which were in the agricultural sector. This report concludes that demand for child labour has increased in commercial farming, and in the industrial sector because of subcontracting arrangements. It also provides other information on different groups of children in especially difficult circumstances, street children, and sexually exploited children.

Migration and its Effects on Children

Fabe, Pamela Amparo H. "Migration and Children: The Case of Barangay Suba, Cebu City." Save the Children (UK) Philippines (October 2002).

Fabe analyzes the effects of migration on children in Barangay Suba in order to understand the equity issue as it applies to them. The study delves into the situation of children of migrant families and attempts to draw an overall picture of the status of children in the areas of work, education, and health and sanitation. This study identifies, determines, analyzes and assesses the interdependencies of key macroeconomic, health-specific, and labour-specific variables that affect labour migration to Cebu. It also probes the consequent effects of labour migration on the welfare of the children of these affected families.

"Report of the Population Reference Bureau," 2004.

This report describes the factors that contribute to migration of families and children. It presents the circumstances at the place of origin, whereby individuals are repelled or pushed, towards the more attractive destinations. The latter are said to have certain features that exert a pull on the individuals, contributing to their decision to migrate.

Santos, Aida F. "Women in the International Migration Process: Patterns, Profiles and Health Consequences of Sexual Exploitation - The Philippine Report." Coalition Against Trafficking in Women-Asia Pacific (CATW-AP), Quezon City (1999).

Part of a five-country study that included Indonesia, Thailand, the United States and Venezuela, this report presents a qualitative descriptive profile of trafficked women, their "buyers," and the sex industry. This study relates the supply of women trafficked from sending countries in the Philippines to the demand in foreign countries; characterizes the conditions under which women migrate and what happens to them in the migrating process; and reveals the health effects of

international female migration with specific relation to sexual exploitation and violence against women.

Child Trafficking, All Purposes

"Asia's Children in Peril: A Regional Study on Child Trafficking (Country Profile: Philippines)." Asia ACTs Against Child Trafficking (May 2003). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This study reveals the lack of legal definition for child trafficking in the Philippines, its historical roots and origins in the Philippines, the characteristics of the country's child trafficking trade, and its purposes, causes, and observable effects. It also presents the various factors that promote the persistence of child trafficking in the country and the measures taken by various institutions of society.

Dessy, Sylvain E. and Stéphane Pallage, "The Economics of Child Trafficking." CIRPEE and Département d'Economie, Université Laval & Département des sciences économiques, Université du Québec à Montréal (August 2003).

The authors present child trafficking as a global business governed by the laws of supply and demand. The factors that affect both ends of the economic equation are discussed.

"Factsheet: Child Trafficking in the Philippines." UNICEF.

Child trafficking in the Philippines is described as being due to a variety of causes that range from poverty to lack of infrastructure, large family sizes and sex tourism. Trafficking in Mindanao is said to be due to armed conflict, with Malaysia mentioned as one country of destination. An estimated 60,000 to 100,000 children are involved in prostitution rings. The various roles of UNICEF in combating child trafficking are mentioned.

Fairfax, Kayte. "Modern Day Slavery." Action News. World Vision (2004).

A picture of commercial sexual exploitation as it happens in developing countries today is provided by Fairfax. A discussion on possible effective strategies is also done.

Flores-Oebanda, Ma. Cecilia. "Internal Trafficking of Children: The Continuing Experience at Manila North Harbor." Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. (November 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Backed by situational research in the port of Manila and other receiving ports, Flores-Oebanda presents new insight on the core nature of child trafficking that may guide future methods of intervention. The author reveals how impoverished families from different areas in the Philippines are lured into child trafficking by illegal recruiters' false promises and phony pre-arrangements, how the trade flourishes with the growing cultural acceptance of migration, how some recruiters are able to pass through inspection by authorities, and how some trafficked children land in the worst forms of child labour. The Visayan Forum Foundation programs—particularly their halfway houses in various ports in the country—are also presented.

"Impact of Child Trafficking on the Children and their Communities." SEAMEO website (7 June 2000).

This report describes the effects of child trafficking on children and their communities of origin. It considers short- and long-term physical, psychological and emotional effects of the experience.

Limanowska, Barbara. "Trafficking in Human Beings in South Eastern Europe." UNDP (November 2003).

This report assesses the situation and existing responses to trafficking in human beings in the countries of South Eastern Europe (SEE): Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, the UN administered province of Kosovo, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Romania and Serbia and Montenegro. The report focuses on the status of implementation of the National Plans of Action, legislative reform, victim assistance, trafficking in children and prosecution, and it serves to update the earlier review of the situation and responses to trafficking in SEE presented jointly by UNICEF, UNOHCHR and OSCE/ODIHR in June 2002. The general situation of trafficking in SEE is seen to be similar to the 2002 situation, with 90 percent of foreign women working in prostitution alleged to be victims of trafficking; 10 –15 percent of these women are girls under the age of 18. Younger children, both boys and girls, are being trafficked for forced labour. Because of the enforcement of new legislation, traffickers are seen to have modified their modus operandi, by being less visible. The volume of trafficking in the region is said to have increased, with Balkan countries becoming countries of destination, origin, and transit.

Matilac, Rosalie and Regina Florendo. "Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia." FactSheet, Terre des Hommes (February 2002).

Matilac and Florendo describe the child trafficking situation in Southeast Asia. They show the trafficking routes, as well as the factors that are said to promote child trafficking.

www.humantrafficking.org

Described as a web resource for combating human trafficking, this website publishes articles and news that range from prevention, protection, reintegration, to prosecution. It describes the efforts and resources of government and non-governmental organizations in combating human trafficking in various countries/regions.

www.stopchildtrafficking.info

This is the website of Asia Against Child Trafficking (Asia ACTs), which is the regional campaign to fight child trafficking in Southeast Asia. Asia ACTs is part of the International Campaign against Child Trafficking (ICaCT) coordinated by Terre des Hommes (TDH)-Germany and the International Federation of Terre des Hommes. It publishes news articles on advocacy, training, programs and other activities relevant to the campaign against child trafficking.

Child Trafficking, Policy and Program Responses

Derks, Annuska. "Combating Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia: A Review of Policy and Programme Responses." International Organization for Migration (2000).

One-third of the trafficking trade is perceived to come from South-East Asia. Derks describes in her report the historical development of the trafficking debate and gives an analysis of the various approaches to trafficking. Trafficking patterns and responses in the region are described, with some attention to policy responses of receiving countries. Counter-trafficking measures are divided into four categories: juridical, prevention, protection, and return. The report ends with a discussion of the priority areas for development and strengthening of counter-trafficking programs and initiatives.

"Developing Countries Take a Stand Against Trafficking," Responses to Human Trafficking, Global Issues, an electronic journal of the U.S. Department of State, Vol. 8, No. 2 (June 2003).

This discusses the global nature of child trafficking and describes responses in developing countries to combat it that, similarly, require inter-country collaboration and concerted efforts.

Dottridge, Mike. "Kids as Commodities? Child Trafficking and What to Do about It." Terre des Hommes Foundation, Switzerland and Germany (May 2004).

Dottridge provides an interesting child trafficking situationer that is based on practical experience, and identifies effective strategies at combating the problem.

"European Alliance Combats Human Trafficking," Responses to Human trafficking, Global Issues, An electronic journal of the U.S. Department of State, Vol. 8, No. 2 (June 2003).

This report describes strategies that could be applied against child trafficking, implemented at the government, community, family, as well as individual levels.

Huntington, Dale. "Anti-Trafficking Programs in South Asia: Appropriate Activities, Indicators and Evaluation Methodologies." Summary Report of a Technical Consultative Meeting, 11-13 September 2002, Kathmandu, Nepal.

Fifty representatives from South Asian institutions, United Nations agencies, and international and local NGOs participated in a consultative discussion on trafficking in South Asia. Original papers on the issues were presented. Discussions were made with the commitment to improve the design and evaluation of programmatic interventions. Huntington presents in the report the principal points in each of the papers presented and captures the key discussion points for each panel presentation.

Iselin, Brian. "The Mekong Experience: Legal and Law Enforcement Responses to Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Sub-region." A paper presented to "Trafficking in Persons: Theory and Practice in Regional and International Cooperation," 19-21 November 2003-11-12, Bogotá, D.C., Colombia.

Iselin discusses possible legal and law enforcement solutions to the problem of child trafficking by adopting a strategic approach to the issue as it occurs in the Greater Mekong Sub-region. He first clarified the current situation in the area, then pictured the outcomes (future) after the implementation of practical measures.

Mettimano, Joseph. "Examining U.S. Efforts to Combat Human Trafficking and Slavery." Statement before the Subcommittee on the Constitutional Civil Rights and Property Rights of the Committee on the Judiciary, United States Senate, 7 July 2004.

As Child Protection Policy Advisor of World Vision, Mettimano made a statement on the impact of child trafficking and sex slavery on the most vulnerable group, children. He describes trafficking as comprising a multi-billion dollar international business, with children trafficked from one country to another under the most exploitative conditions. He enumerates the long-term physical and psychological trauma that children suffer, including the role of prostituted children in the spread of HIV/AIDS. Factors contributing to the increase in the commercial sexual exploitation of children are identified.

Truong, Thanh-Dan and Maria Belen Angeles. "Searching for Best Practices to Counter Human Trafficking in Africa: A Focus on Women and Children." A Report Commissioned by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (March 2005).

Truong and Angeles offer analytical tools that may be helpful in scrutinizing the use of the concept of Best Practices as applied to child trafficking. They include in the discussions the wide range of policy issues underlying the problem and the complexity of coordinating action over areas such as migration management, crime control, labor standards, poverty reduction and particular needs of communities at risk. To achieve integration of what is seen as fragmented knowledge about human trafficking, the authors use Peter Haas' concept of 'epistemic community.'

U. S. Department of State. "The U.S. Government's International Anti-Trafficking Programs." Released by the Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons November 2003.

This website, maintained by the Bureau of Public Affairs of the Department, lists down all the anti-trafficking programs of the U.S. in the different countries of the world. These programs are described as to whether they involve protection, prevention, or prosecution. Funding agencies and program partners and recipients are identified, and a brief description of the program is given.

Van Gaalen, Miek. "Review of Initiatives to Combat Child Trafficking by Members of the Save the Children Alliance." A Working Paper prepared for the Save the Children Alliance Task Group on Child Trafficking. Montreal (July 2003).

Van Gaalen provides an overview of the international legislation concerning child trafficking and goes on to describe the efforts of Save the Children members and their partner agencies in child trafficking in Africa, South East Asia, South and Central Asia, Europe and the Americas. It was observed that despite the length of time organizations have been working with the issue, many of them are still in a learning process with respect to child trafficking programming. Approaches to the issue are seen to vary widely. Many are aimed at prevention, while others provide services on protection, assistance to victims and rehabilitation. Relatively few programs are seen to address the demand side of trafficking. Potentially successful practices are described.

Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children

Abad, Ella, Faustina Carreon, Imelda Mahinay, Jeaneth Tolop and Mary Ann Weber. "The Buntog Phenomenon: A Descriptive Study." Kaugmaon Center for Children's Concerns Foundation, Inc. (February 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This research attempts to provide an accurate description of the *buntog* phenomenon, the characteristics of children engaged in *buntog* activities and the factors that led them to such. It aims to give an overall picture of the phenomenon to have a full understanding of its incidence for the effective formulation of responses that would appropriately address the needs of children who are into *buntog* activities. The research, with the issues raised and its findings, provides valuable information on the phenomenon and may aid not only researchers in their inquiry on the *buntog* behavior, but also program planners and policy makers in formulating responses to needs and protection of these particular set of young people.

"A Horrible Experience of Child Prostitution." Child Workers, Philippines, Vol. II. No. 2. Kamalayan Development Center, Quezon City (1993).

This is a case report of a fourteen year-old girl trapped in prostitution who was rescued through a Kalayaan Development Center (KDC) and National Bureau of Investigation (NBI's) operation. It relates the process of recruitment, exploitation, and the effects of prostitution on the young girl's life. It presents a challenge to the government and the church regarding the immediate

task of rescuing prostituted children and providing other support services for their reintegration in society.

Basco, Michelle Victoria. "The Inadequacy of Existing Laws Protecting Children from Sexual Abuse and Exploitation: Focus on Pedophilia." Ateneo Human Rights Center (May 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Basco reviews the existing Philippine laws that protect children from sexual abuse and exploitation, particularly from pedophilia, concluding that they require further modification to extend the scope of its protection to cover all forms of sexual abuse. The study also asserts that the Philippines should design a comprehensive national program for the protection of children, where pedophiles, pimps and others who profit from the abuse and exploitation of children will be duly penalized.

Caagusan, Flor (ed). *Halfway Through the Circle—the Stories of Survivors of Sex Trafficking*, 2nd edition. Quezon City: WEDPRO, Inc., 2000.

This is a collection of experiences of women survivors of trafficking for purposes of commercial sexual exploitation done by a women's group. The respondents are beneficiaries of the rehabilitation and reintegration services of the non-governmental organization.

"Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in the Philippines: A Situation Analysis." Department of Social Welfare & Development, AKAP of the Ateneo Human Rights Center, Ateneo Law School and United Nations Children's Fund (1998).

A Philippine situationer on commercial sexual exploitation of children, presented with a legal perspective.

"Endangered Generation: Child Trafficking in the Philippines for Sexual Purposes." ECPAT Philippines and Terre des Hommes – Netherlands (March 2005).

This is a report on an action research done in seven areas in the Philippines: Metro Manila, Laoag City, Bicol, Cebu, Dumaguete City, Cagayan de Oro City and Zamboanga City. In-depth interviews of trafficking victims, their families, law enforcers, social workers of government and non-government agencies, medical professionals, lawyers and barangay officials were conducted by local research teams to provide primary data. The discussion in the report includes a description of the trafficking business (the players, trafficking structure, and earnings), trafficking routes and modes of transportation, characteristics of trafficked children, impacts of trafficking, and responses and interventions.

Miclat-Cacayan, Agnes. "The Little Birds of Prey: Two Faces of the Prostituted Filipino Girl Child." KABIBA Alliance for Children's Concerns (July 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This paper focuses on the many experiences of abuse and exploitation of Filipino girl children and raises issues on the family, community, and childhood experiences as vital influences to this reality. It cites two cases of sexual abuse. The first case involves a 15 year-old girl who entered the sex trade because it was her only means for survival, while the second case involves a young girl engaged in "free sex" among minors. The discussions in the paper are grounded on these cases, which provide a clear picture of prostitution in the country, Cebu particularly, and the *buntog* phenomenon in Davao City. Statistical data is also cited in the study which shows the alarming increasing rate of abuse, disease and others. It also presents the results of a survey on the *buntog* phenomenon that reveals the general perception that immorality applies only to the female gender.

Protacio-Marcelino Elizabeth, Ph.D., Faye A.G. Balanon, Agnes Zenaida Camacho, Michelle Ong, Arlyn Verba and Jay Yacat. "The World of Children Involved in the Sex Industry: Reducing the Risks and Harm of Sexual Exploitation, STD and HIV/AIDS in Filipino Children." Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights, Center for Integrative and Development Studies, University of the Philippines; US Agency for International Development; and PATH Foundation Philippines (July 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The research team studied children in the sex industry in Angeles City in Pampanga, Quezon City in Metro Manila, Cebu City, and Davao City. This paper presents a demographic profile of the respondents, the children's relationships with members of their respective families the family's involvement, their knowledge of the child's association with the sex industry, how peers form a central and salient part of the children's lives, and the conditions of the children's education. The research traces the factors promoting the entry, continued stay, and exit of children in the sex industry. The lucrative nature of the sex industry, with users, suppliers and protectors in connivance with each other, implies that there is a complex and, sometimes, organized network of abuse, with the mutual reinforcement of each player's interests perpetuating such exploitation and abuse. In view of this, the paper discusses the relationships of different types of customers with the child, the children's way of choosing customers, the gender differences in the power relations with their customers, and the exploitative and abusive relationship between the players in the network and the child. The strategies of resistance and protest against abuse and exploitation as practiced by the children are enumerated in this report. It also discusses the children's responses to issues raised on health and safety, specifically the threat of STD and HIV/AIDS. The last part of the report tackles the special needs regarding STDs and HIV/AIDS prevention, and recommends strategies to reduce the risk and harm of sexual exploitation, STD, and HIV/AIDS in Filipino children.

Santos, Aida F. Interviews with survivors of sex trafficking, local government units, non-governmental organizations (unpublished), for the project "Women in the International Migration Process: Patterns, Profiles and Health Consequences of Sexual Exploitation." Coalition Against Trafficking in Women-Asia Pacific (CATW-AP), Quezon City: 2000.

Trafficking experiences for sexual exploitation are documented in this research. The discussion includes the trafficking process, the inducements offered, the effects of the whole experience on the children, and the longer-term effects felt even as they grew in age.

"Saving Lives: Effective Program Strategies for Street and Working Children, Kuyaw! Street Adolescents in Street Gangs in Davao City." Tambayan Center for the Care of Abused Children, Inc. (September 2001).

This research shares the results of a participatory action research conducted by Tambayan Center with the street adolescents themselves exploring and understanding their situations and life issues. It describes the plight of children and young people on the streets and their remarkable feat of survival despite the daily perils they face. It looks into the reasons why they end up on the streets, as well as shares stories of abuse they have experienced both within their homes and in the streets. It demonstrates the children's resiliency and inherent capacity to move on despite the odds. It also confronts the stigma and discrimination hurled against children and young people on the streets. It narrates their stories, thoughts, opinions, pains, and hopes from the children's own points of view.

"Situational Analysis on Child Prostitution in Iligan City." Socio-Economic Research Center - Notre Dame University, and Department of Labor and Employment - Region XII (September 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Two barangays in Iligan City, namely Barangay Saray and Barangay Santiago, were the sites chosen for this study, which employed qualitative methods in data collection, such as the review of existing documents/records, interview with key informants, focus group discussions, and case studies of five selected child prostitutes. The results reveal that the numbers of children engaged in the sex trade in the two barangays are relatively high, with poverty cited as the main reason. The report also states the community's perception on the causes of child prostitution and the government's response to the problem.

"Who are the Buntogs?" Tambayan Center for the Care of Abused Children, Inc. (2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This article provides an in-depth profile of children engaging in *buntog* behavior, based on a survey on street children and people with whom they had regular and irregular contact. The survey covered four urban poor communities in Davao City. Among the research's findings is the revelation that the main cause for taking to the streets cited by children is dysfunction in the family.

"Yokohama and Beyond: A Round Table Discussion on the Second World Congress Against Child Sexual Exploitation." Program on Psychosocial Trauma & Human Rights, UP Center for Integrative & Development Studies (UP-CIDS); ECPAT Philippines; Save the Children Federation (UK) Philippines (May 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This report documents the proceedings of the Round Table Discussion (RTD) on the 2nd World Congress Against Child Sexual Exploitation in Yokohama Japan, which was organized by the UP-CIDS Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights Program in cooperation with ECPAT Philippines and with the support of Save the Children (UK) Philippines. The RTD aimed to provide an update on the 2nd World Congress in Yokohama, Japan in December 2001. It also intended to generate discussions and commitment to the Philippine Plan of Action. The RTD focused on the following areas: prevention, recovery and rehabilitation, and children and young people's participation.

Child Labour

"Assessing the Safety and Health Condition of Child Labour in the Pyrotechnic Industry." Safety and Health Center - Department of Labor and Employment; International Labour Organization-International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (December 2002).

The study determines OSH conditions of child labour in the pyrotechnics industry. The sample included 100 working children exposed to hazards, 83 school children not working in the pyrotechnics industry as control group and 32 adult workers with previous work experiences in their childhood. All were subjected to medical examinations. Selected working children and adult workers were also monitored for dust exposure concentration. Some 18 working stations were evaluated for safety. Results indicated minimal compliance with existing safety standards and legislation. Absence of safety practices in most workstations exposed workers to explosion and fire risks. Intestinal parasitism and primary tuberculosis infection were high among exposed children. The results of the study provided guidelines to prevent accidents and injuries in the workplace of some 314 licensed pyrotechnic dealers and manufacturers.

"At Your Service: Combating Child Labor in the Tourism Industry." National Union of Workers in the Hotel Restaurant and Allied Industries, International Labour Organization (May 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This research is part of the one-year project “Trade Union Action in Combating Child Labor in the Tourism Industry” of the National Union of Workers in the Hotel Restaurant and Allied Industries’ (NUWHRAIN) in partnership with the International Labour Organization (ILO). This study concentrated on the Tourism Industry in Metro Manila. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions with 500 children working with various establishments in Metro Manila were conducted to gather data on the children’s socio-demographic profile, working conditions, experiences, self-perception and ambitions. Case studies of 50 child workers were also done to highlight their lives as workers. The results of the study served as inputs to the training programs of NUWHRAIN and as issues for discussion and action during dialogues with government officials and other concerned groups on child labour. The study is also a valuable reference in CBA negotiations with employers and as part of the database on the advocacy campaign and mobilization to combat child labour.

Bañez-Sumagaysay, Marieta. “Emerging Issues and Concerns on the Working Youth in Eastern Visayas.” University of the Philippines Visayas - Tacloban College.

This paper presents the relevant parts of the Rapid Appraisal Survey results on the employment of children and youth in 27 barangays across 15 municipalities/cities in the five provinces of Eastern Visayas. Secondary data on the working youth spanning the ages 15 to 19 complemented the empirical findings. This paper attempts the following: to determine the nature and incidence of young workers; to determine the working conditions vis-à-vis occupational risks and hazards; and to identify entry points for a community-based action program for the protection of young workers and their attainment of quality life.

Boquirin, Rowena. “Situational Analysis on Child Labor in the Cordillera.” UNICEF-assisted Inter-agency Child Labor Program, Baguio City (1991).

An analytical study that provides information on the incidence and prevalence of child labour in selected Cordillera communities. An in-depth survey was conducted to look into the profile of working children which included their personal characteristics, working conditions, family situation, values, attitudes and aspirations. It shows that over 24 percent of the child population in school is made up of child workers. Child workers are found mostly engaged in the hauling of farm produce, gold ore, gravel and sand, weeding, watering, and varied kinds of street trades and services.

“Child Labor Survey Report of Selected Provinces in Southern Tagalog Region.” National Economic and Development Authority and the United Nations Children’s Fund (April 2000). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This report is a contribution to the Child Labor Project under the Fourth Country Programme for Children. It aimed to provide additional insights to the existing but limited literature and related studies on child labour to deepen the understanding of the phenomenon. The report provides relevant baseline information on child labour by presenting and analyzing data on the magnitude, causes, nature of work, hazards faced by working children in Batangas, Cavite, Laguna and Rizal as well as establishing demographic, socio-economic and other characteristics of these working children. The basic data on working children provided in the report could be useful for programme planners and implementors as well as the general public.

The CPC IV, or the Fourth Country Programme of Cooperation for Children was the multi-sectoral program embarked on by the Philippine government and the United Nations Children’s Fund in support of the declaration by the Aquino administration in the 1990s as an official government policy to adopt and implement the Philippine Plan of Action for Children (PPAC). This was done in

response to the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children.

“Children’s Consultation Workshop on Child Trafficking. An activity Spearheaded by the Child Laborers and Advocates for Social Participation.” 29-30 September 2001, Calero Hall, Island Cove Hotel & Resort, Binakayan. Kawit, Cavite.

This report documents the discussions and results for the workshop participated in by different non-government and government organizations.

“Common Platform for Action of the Sub-Regional Consultation on the Development of Strategies to Fight Child Trafficking for Exploitative Labour Purposes in West and Central Africa.” Libreville, Gabon, 22-24 February 2000.

Workshop documentation.

“Compendium of Studies/Researches on Working Children and Youth.” Bureau of Women and Young Workers-DOLE, Intramuros, Manila (1990).

A compilation of 41 studies conducted by government and non-government organizations from 1974-1988. The studies were classified into four categories: a) industries sector; b) manufacturing; c) services; and, d) agriculture. Each study was presented according to its objectives, coverage, data collected, methodology and highlights of the findings.

Del Rosario, Rosario. “Employers of Child Workers: A Profile.” SSHRC-ORC-UP, University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City (1991).

A basic research study which attempts to describe the nature of the enterprises (in agriculture, manufacturing, and services) and entrepreneurs that hire child workers. It compares across industries the extent of hiring of child and adult workers. It also looks into their payments and other work conditions within the framework of gender and generational differentiation. The study describes the employer respondents and shows comparative sectoral data on their age, sex, educational, entrepreneurial and other factors. It confirms previous studies showing that the sector hiring the most child workers is services, followed by agriculture, with manufacturing coming in last. In confirming this, the study tries to explore the reasons why there are sectoral differentiations in hiring and utilizing child labour. In doing so, it shows that even within sectors, there are variations in the extent of child labour utilization, indicating that there are enterprises which are prone to hiring child workers and there are others which are less so. Furthermore, the study shows that an enterprise with the highest capitalization/net gain also has the greatest extent of child labour hiring.

De Vries, Saul, Ma. Cynthia Agbuya, Dominique Rubia and Julieta Foja. “The Local Trafficking of Filipino Girls for Employment: The Case of Girl-Children Trafficked for Entertainment Work, Domestic Service and Factory Work.” Institute for Labor Studies - Department of Labor and Employment and United Nations Children’s Fund Manila (April 2003). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The study delves into the contributory factors to the incidence of child trafficking for employment, and working conditions of girl-children. It presents an assessment of the policy and program environment of child trafficking, and recommendations for policy and program interventions to address trafficking.

De Vries, Saul. "Child Labor in Agriculture: Causes, Conditions and Consequences." Institute of Labor Studies - Department of Labor and Employment; United Nations Children's Fund (November 2002).

This study identifies the factors that influence the decision to work of children engaged in the agriculture industry; to determine their socio-demographic characteristics and employment circumstances; to ascertain their terms and conditions of work and to determine the possible effects of their employment on their education and health. The study uses the descriptive method of research, focusing on the employment of children in rice and sugar plantations in Sta. Fe and Ormoc, Leyte. Data for analysis were generated mainly from interviews with purposively selected child labourers. Supplementary data were obtained from interviews with parents of child labourers, adult workers, and employers.

Dionela, Ana Marie. "Handling Worst Forms of Child Labour: The Sagip Batang Manggagawa Approach." (2000).

The handbook serves as guide to more effective and successful rescue operations. The basic philosophy behind the *Sagip Bata Manggagawa* and this handbook follows closely the provisions of Article 32 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. It provides a brief presentation of the child labour situation in the Philippines. It also describes the national response to the child labour phenomena, particularly in addressing the most abusive forms. One part of the book is devoted to a detailed presentation of the holistic context of the *Sagip Batang Manggagawa*, specifically focusing on the rescue program which is the heart of the system. It concludes with lessons learned and issues for further discussion in the interest of institutionalizing effective approaches toward special protection of abused child labourers.

Edralin, Divina M. "Kids at Work: Plight of Child Workers in the Tourism Industry in Cebu." De La Salle University – Manila, College of Business & Economics (December 2003).

This research provides a description of the socio-demographic characteristics of the child sex workers. It also identifies their work situation, determines the joys and pains experienced by the child sex workers, and describes the assistance extended to them by various groups. Finally, it recommends courses of action to combat child labor and document actual cases of the experiences of the child sex workers.

"Everest - Where Recruiters' Promises Were Made Flesh in 'Double-Dead' Chickens." Child Workers Philippines, Vol. III, No. 1. Kamalayan Development Center, Quezon City (1995).

This is a presentation of six cases of male child workers aged 15-17 years old who were employed in a poultry farm in Pandi, Bulacan. They were subjected to long hours of work but received no wages during the first three months. Their food was fit for worms because it consisted of "double dead" chicken. Aside from this, their sleeping quarters were congested and they were prohibited to interact with the people outside the farm. An inter-agency group coordinated by the KDC rescued 46 workers from this farm. The case against the owner is still pending.

Fernandez, Rosemarie and Melba Manapol. "A Study on the Child Labor Situation in Southern Philippines: The Working Children in the International Seaports of Sasa, Davao City and Makar, General Santos City." Ateneo de Davao University, Davao City (1998). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The authors document the results of a regional descriptive and ethnographic study of child labourers at Sasa Wharf in Davao City and at Makar Wharf in General Santos City. The study covers the demographic background of respondents, their work information, health condition, experiences

of harassment/abuse, and perception on child labour. It establishes the social and economic conditions of child workers to determine the major causes that drive them to work and their aspirations as well as to formulate an initial plan for the betterment of their situation. All the respondents claimed that they are working because of poverty. The study found out that the three main reasons why children work were to help the family survive and to be able to buy school requirements. Generally, their parents do not have any occupation or work to support the family or their income is not enough to buy the family's basic needs. Weakening of family ties like separation, incest or where parents are seen to have no interest in providing for the needs of the family, or being a victim of displacement, are also considered contributing factors to child labor. The children started working at an early age of five and have been working for a significant period of time. The study also found that their workplace does not provide safety measures. The continued exposure of children to hazards in their workplace as well as the experience of illness and a poor academic performance may have implications on policy implementation. Where it seems there are appropriate policies already in place, policy enforcement seems to be weak. Majority of the respondents dream of only two things in life. One is to finish their studies and the other is to help their family attain a better life. At such a young age, these children do not have any choice but to work in order to survive, and the abolition of child labor may even mean deprivation of their lives and that of their families.

Flores-Oebanda, Ma. Cecilia. "Impact of Work and Education on Working Children." Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. (September 1999). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This research focuses on working children and education. First, it shares the results of the 1997 study on children's perceptions on their working lives. Second, it discusses the present observations on the school performances of children involved in a previous research as some were absorbed by NGO projects; and third, it outlines some challenges and hard issues faced in the field in relation to providing educational programs to working children. The research establishes that children are against abusive work and are, at the same time, aware of the difficulties of the work; and that they can articulate their realistic views about the benefits of work (e.g., work gives them food to eat, clothes to wear, money to hand over their parents, pays for their school needs). Work, therefore, is a natural mechanism of survival. Schooling, on the other hand, is related to broad themes of positive learning, achievements, future work prospects, socialization, and the development of self-esteem. There are many bad allegations on the present educational system such as harsh and humiliating teaching methods, beating and abuse, feeling of failure, etc. Children drop out of school because of the skyrocketing cost both of education and of basic needs. The practice of some underpaid teachers who try to get extra income by requiring exorbitant fees, projects, and donations from their students also add to the financial burden. In the third world, education has become a commodity, a privilege to those who can afford it. Based on the study, children view work and school as interdependent. More than 77 percent prefer a combination of work and school.

Flores-Oebanda, Ma. Cecilia, Roland Romeo R. Pacis, and Virgilio P. Montaña. The Kasambahay, Child Domestic Work in the Philippines: A Living Experience. Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. and International Labour Organization - International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (August 2002).

This book is the first comprehensive attempt to document the experiences of the Visayan Forum Foundation, an ILO-IPEC partner, in addressing the much-neglected and invisible plight of child domestic workers in the Philippines. The first two parts examine the phenomenon of employing children in domestic work. They detail the profile of these children vis-à-vis the cultural context and existing legal framework. They also capture an up close re-examination of the roles and

expectations which child domestic workers exchange with employers, their ambiguous role as family members, and their social construct as the dutiful children. The third part adds value in the present attempts to develop replicable strategies for child domestic work intervention. The authors reflect on the development of Visayan Forum's living approaches in the areas of direct services, education, organizing, training for resiliency, social advocacy, lobby work, and prevention. In particular, they deepen the lessons learned in the holistic approach to prevention, protection, withdrawal and reintegration as part of direct work. They also highlight unconventional strategies in reaching out to scattered child domestic workers. There are also particularities in building the capacity of the domestic workers' sector. Finally, the authors significantly explore lessons learned in influencing significant influencers (especially employers, church groups, media, and child domestic workers themselves) enhanced by a solid legislative proposal called Batas Kasambahay. The last part connects the issue of child domestic work to justice, trafficking, child labour, education, gender, research, and development. It is also rich in recommendations to specific groups and institutions.

Gonzaga, Violeta. "Tender Hands That Toil: A Survey of the Phenomenon of Child Labor in Negros Occidental." Institute of Social Research and Development, Bacolod (1991).

A basic research study which aims to describe the personal and family characteristics of child workers' histories as these relate to family relations. It identifies circumstances in the family or in the community which may influence the child's decision to work. Moreover, it describes in depth the nature and conditions of work among the child workers, and determines the family and community level responses to child labour. The initial phase of the study entailed a rapid appraisal of the incidence of child labour. The second phase was a social survey, a micro-study of the nature of child labour through structured interviews of child workers and guardians. Key informant interviews were also done for data corroboration. The study concludes that working children and their parents see child labour as a mechanism for their household survival. This indicates that the poor see child labour as a strategic response to poverty than as a problem to be addressed. Furthermore, child labour is shown as an integral part of the enculturation of the child and as an obligation on the part of the children because of poverty. Parents also see child labour as a cause of their children's stunted growth, poor health and as a hindrance to their proper education.

"Labour Migration and Trafficking Within the Greater Mekong Subregion." Proceedings of Mekong Subregional experts meeting and exploratory policy paper. Bangkok, Thailand (September 2001).

A joint initiative of the ILO Mekong sub-regional project to combat trafficking in children and women (ILO TICW project) & the UN Interagency project to combat trafficking in children and women (UN-IAP), the study suggests ways and explores opportunities to regularize the migration flows within the Greater Mekong sub-region. This exploratory policy paper and the discussions at an experts' meeting are expected to contribute to improving, enlarging, and creating additional legal labour migration channels that may substitute for the trafficking in children and women into exploitative situations.

Lepiten, Atty. Magdalena. "Children's Involvement in the Production, Sale and Trafficking of Drugs in Cebu City: A Rapid Assessment." International Labour Organization-International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (July 2002).

This study, commissioned by the International Program on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) of the International Labour Organization (ILO) focuses on the involvement of children in drug trafficking. It aims to produce quantitative and qualitative data on the participation of children in the production, sale and trafficking of drugs. It describes the magnitude, character, causes and

consequences of children's participation as well as suggests improvements in the methodology for investigating this particular form of child labour. The study employed a new rapid assessment methodology on child labour elaborated jointly by ILO and UNICEF.

Lim, Joseph Y. "The East Asian Crisis and Child Labour in the Philippines." School of Economics, University of the Philippines, Quezon City.

Lim presents a child labour situationer in the Philippines, seen from the context of an economist and a regional financial phenomenon that greatly affects the economic status of families as much as the state of business in the country.

Marcus, Rachel and Caroline Harper. "Small Hands: Children in the Working World." Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The paper aims to illustrate the complexity of child work issues. It is also designed to help develop strategies for action on child labor by analyzing a range of causes and the ingredients of successful and less successful interventions. Save the Children Foundation (SCF) recognizes that many children have limited options and need to work to ensure their own and their family's survival, and deplores the conditions of poverty and inequality that give rise to this situation. Structural, gender, and inter-ethnic inequalities are important specific factors that influence which children work and the occupations and conditions in which they do so. The authors believe that working children know their own situation best. Programming with children and on working children's issues should involve their participation and that of their families. Genuine participation may require skilled facilitation and the use of innovative methodologies to include younger children, girls, lower castes, disadvantaged ethnic groups and disabled children. SCF recognizes that the complexity of child labor makes understanding and taking account of the views of other stakeholders critical to effective programming.

Maslang, Edith Venus. "Working and Non-working Children: Personal, Familial and Community Characteristics." UP-ORC, University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City (1991).

A basic research study which seeks to compare and contrast the household, demographic, social and psychological circumstances, as well as the health and nutritional status of working and non-working children in Benguet and Rizal. The report presents the following: a description of the characteristics of the areas covered by the study; survey results on working and non-working children; case studies of selected working and non-working children and their families; and analyses, conclusions and recommendations. The study shows that child labour is predominantly used in the informal economy settings like vending, scavenging, thread winding, gardening, and laundry work, which are common in many communities. In comparison with the non-working children, working children were found to be taller and heavier. Working children sacrificed their studies more than non-working children. Among those who were in school, non-working children performed slightly better academically than the working children. Working children spent less time with their peers, reducing their opportunities for play and recreation. They recognized that gainful work should take precedence over socialization activities, as this had to do with family survival. A critical factor in the child labour phenomenon was migration. Families of working children were usually migrants from other provinces who came to their present community in search of better jobs. They had lived much shorter in their present residence than the families of non-working children. It was observed that the families of non-working children had better access to resources and opportunities than those of the working children.

National Survey on Working Children (n.d.). ipccphils.tripod.com/papers/titles.htm.

This is a survey-based situationer on child labour in the Philippines.

Ong, Michelle G. and Alwin C. Aguirre (n.d.). "Bridging the Gaps in Children's Work: NGO's Strategies in Collaborating with LGUs Documenting the Best Practices of Lunduyan and NMPC." Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights, UP Center for Integrative & Development Studies, Save the Children (UK) Philippines, Manila.

Ong and Aguirre succeed in capturing in this report the best practices used by NGOs working on child labour at the local level.

Opening Doors: A Presentation of Laws Protecting Filipino Child Workers. Ateneo Human Rights Center–AKAP, Quezon City.

This book promotes awareness and understanding of child labour laws and the legal procedures involved in their enforcement. It attempts to present in one publication all the existing laws which may be invoked in protecting the rights of Filipino child workers. It also provides much needed assistance to all those involved in law enforcement—labour inspectors, policemen, prosecutors, judges, social workers, governmental and non-governmental organizations—so that they may open the doors for the children who are waiting to be saved. The book realizes the effects of child labour and poses some strategies in addressing them.

Pacis, Roland. "Young Filipino Househelpers Plant the Seeds of Their Freedom." Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. Reprinted from *Child Workers in Asia* Vol.16, No. 2 (May–August 2000).

In this news feature, Pacis relays the efforts of young househelpers in reaching out and providing assistance to other househelpers. It describes the activities of the Manggagawang Pantahanan sa Pilipinas or SUMAPI in providing support to househelpers subjected to abuse as well as education campaigns to make them aware of their rights as human beings and as part of the working class of society. It also tells the stories of the members of SUMAPI, the experiences they had with abusive employers and the strategies they employed in recovering and eventually, helping others. This news feature highlights the strength and willpower of SUMAPI and its members to give a human face to the invisible, lowly regarded sector of domestic helpers and shows the ingenuity of their approach in reaching out.

Remedio, Elizabeth M. "A Case Study of Young Workers in the Furniture Industry of Cebu: A Country Report." An ILO-IPEC Working Paper Series. Cebu City: University of San Carlos, Cebu City (1999). Downloaded file from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Remedio provides a quick profile of subcontracting firms in the furniture industry, most of which employ subcontracted workers to meet production demands, lower labour costs, and avoid labour disputes. These firms hire workers who are below 18 years old. Subcontractors are responsible for the hiring process without the knowledge of the furniture firms. Majority of the workers work six days a week, eight hours a day on regular days, and 11 hours of work a day during peak seasons. The firms, however, grant certain benefits to workers doing overtime work. The young workers, including women, do the sanding and polishing jobs which comprise 23 percent of the total production workforce. Workers interviewed belong to the 9-17 year-old age bracket, with 14 as the mean age. Majority of these children stay with their parents, one third of who are also employed in the rattan and furniture industry. Only seven of the 40 respondents are in school while the rest (33) have stopped due to inadequate finances. The mean family size of these children-respondents is five. The average age of children when they stopped schooling is 12. Many of them started working at the

age of 13. The young workers' shared complaints are exposure to dust when sanding, physical stress, and low pay. Four out of ten children who were injured or fallen ill due to work-related accidents received medical assistance. In spite of the low monthly average family income and high monthly expenses, many of the parent-respondents still insist on sending their children to school in order to have a better job and future. More than half of them, however, believe that the family's standards of living will decline if their children stopped working.

Remedio, Elizabeth M. *Breaking Ground for Community Action on Child Labor in Cebu*. University of San Carlos, Cebu City (1991).

This is a rapid appraisal conducted by the University of San Carlos's Area Research Training Center from October 1990 to February 1991 covering six barangays of Mandaue City and three city barangays of Lapu-lapu City in Cebu. The study highlights different occupations engaged in by child workers in Mandaue City. Children worked in broom making, shell craft, vending and food preparation, rattan/wood furniture making, coco craft, and box making. The manufacture of these products was normally subcontracted. In Lapu-lapu City, children workers were engaged in the stone craft industry, pyrotechnics manufacture, and seaweed gathering. The study shows that child labour thrives in the informal sector where the practice of subcontracting is common. The survey contends that at the core of the informal sector is the family and that families take advantage of avenues provided by industry/manufacturing as well as natural resources in a certain locality for livelihood opportunities. Industries are characterized as labour-intensive. The survey also contends that children prefer working at home with either one parent or both parents as the main worker or workers.

Sakellariou, Chris and Ashish Lall. "Child Labour in the Philippines: Determinants and Effects." Nanyang Technological University (September 2002).

This paper analyzes the supply-side socio-economic determinants of child labour in the Philippines using data from the National Household Survey and the Labor Force Survey of the Philippines. The research methodology is that of a sequential probit model which assumes that decisions are made in a hierarchical manner. Using this model, the impact of various household and economic characteristics on the probability of child labour is estimated. The findings highlight specific populations that should be targeted, for example, single working mothers in urban areas and poor households in rural areas. In the Philippines, the probability of child labour is higher in rural than in urban areas. The probability increases with age and is higher for boys than for girls, in both urban and rural areas. Working towards elimination of child labour will involve a multi-angled policy approach with policies complementing each other. These policies should focus on improving the school infrastructure facilities, the quality and affordability of education provided in schools, especially those in the rural, remote areas.

Survey of Children 5-17 Years Old: July 1995. National Statistics Office, Sta. Mesa, Manila (1995).

The first nationwide survey undertaken in the Philippines which gathered data on the status and conditions of all working children five to 17 years old and the economic status of the households to which they belong.

"The Blight in the Footwear Industry: Assessment of the Safety, Health and Environment of Child Workers in the Footwear Industry in Biñan, Laguna, Philippines." Occupational Safety and Health Center - Department of Labor and Employment (February 2003).

The case study component of the program assessed and evaluated the health, safety and work environment of the child workers. It demonstrated the range of hazards to child labourers in the footwear sector in Biñan, Laguna. The study found that most of the workplaces are located in the homes, which allows for exposure by all members of the family to the hazardous substances used and produced during the manufacturing process. The study is a contribution to the implementation of the ILO Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour. The OSHC's case study was undertaken within the context of a comprehensive project on "Developing and Promoting Occupational Safety and Health Programmes and Services for Working Children and their families in the Footwear Sector." More specifically, the case study is meant to provide a better understanding of the health and safety aspects of children's work, and to guide future capability building activities and interventions. These included the creation of a network of partners designed to carry out information campaigns, training, production of information materials, provision of primary health care services for children and, where necessary, specialized medical support. The study also recommended that core health and safety networks should be linked with the social protection programs organized at community and provincial levels.

"The Participation and Contribution of Rural Children in Agricultural Production and Family Economy in Two Sugar Estates and Four Mountain Barangays in Cebu Province." (December 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This research compiles concrete information on the rural children's contribution to the cash economy of the family in sugar estates in Cebu, and determines the extent and form of their participation in agricultural production. It also illustrates the children's situation by looking into the socio-cultural and economic factors that influence their involvement. Five case studies of rural children working in agricultural production in Sibonga, Bogo, and Medellin are presented to bring out details of real life stories of families with children working in a one-hectare agricultural production.

Tumlin, Karen C. "Trafficking in Children and Women: A Regional Overview." Institute of Asian Studies, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand (March 2000).

Tumlin provides a review of child trafficking for labour exploitation in the region. Cross-border trafficking is described, and the legal and policy framework for trafficking in each country are discussed. Child trafficking initiatives are reviewed according to the services provided, which include: prevention, protection, and removal of children from child trafficking situations, their healing, return, and integration.

"Young's Town: The Unfinished Rescue." *Child Workers Philippines*, Vol. II, No.1. Kamalayan Development Center, Quezon City (1993).

A short paper presenting the case of 27 bonded labourers who were working in a sardine factory in Navotas. Among the workers, seven were children. However, the successful rescue ended in an amicable settlement which was unfavorable to the workers. Furthermore, it showed that the charges against the owner of the factory were dismissed.

Children in Situations of Armed Conflict

Cagoco-Guiam, Rufa. "Child Soldiers in Central and Western Mindanao: A Rapid Assessment." International Labour Organization - International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (February 2002).

This research is an exploratory study on the phenomenon of child soldiers in Central and Western Mindanao. It is part of the 38 rapid assessments of the worst forms of child labour which the International Labour Organization (ILO), through IPEC/SIMPOC (International Program on the Elimination of Child Labour/Statistical Information and Monitoring Program on Child Labour), carried out in 19 countries. The research aims to fill the gaps in the knowledge and understanding of the magnitude, scope, causes, characteristics, and consequences of the phenomenon of child soldiers in the Philippines. Focus is given to Central Mindanao where there is a significant presence of armed groups that have fought the forces of the Philippine government over the last few decades. The study used a combination of qualitative and quantitative gathering tools patterned after the rapid assessment techniques developed by ILO/IPEC and UNICEF.

Camacho, Teresita G. "I Was a Teenage Member of the NPA." Reprinted from *Human Rights Forum*, Vol. IX, Number 1, July-December 1999. Philippine Human Rights Information Center (PhilRights), Manila (1999).

The article recounts the life of a young man, barely out of high school, as a member of the New People's Army (NPA). It discusses the influences that helped shape his decision to join the NPA. It talks about his early memories in an environment of stress because of his father's involvement in the underground movement, his nationalist relatives whom he looks up to, his resolve to dropout of school and his first mission to "avenge the wrong and the helpless." Today, this young man earns a living for his family and is still involved in political and social issues. His experience of long separation from his parents is a life that he does not want for his children.

"CWC National Consultation - Workshop on the Use of Children as Soldiers in the Philippines." Program on Psychosocial Trauma & Human Rights, UP Center for Integrative & Development Studies; Philippine Human Rights Information Center; Amnesty International-Pilipinas Section; and Kabiba Foundation, Inc - Alliance for Children's Concerns (February 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This publication documents the activities and results of the National Consultation Workshop on the Use of Children as Soldiers in the Philippines held on 21-23 March 2001 at the Barcelo Royal Mandaya Hotel, Davao City. It gives a detailed account of the discussions by different groups and individuals from the academe, government and NGOs working with children and the agreements made to address the reality of using children as soldiers in the Philippines. The proceedings also show how these groups coming from different parts of the country identified resources and strengths to come up with an effective means of working together and in forming effective policies and programs.

Keairns, Yvonne. *The Voices of Girl Child Soldiers: Philippines*. United Nations Office.

This book documents the thoughts and feelings of girl soldiers in the Philippines and gives us deep insight into their lives. It is part of a larger study that conducted in-depth interviews with 23 girl soldiers from four different conflict areas around the world. It provides important sharing of the girl soldiers on their experiences of being a child soldier-from their initiation or becoming a soldier, to their exposure to violence and their view of the future.

Makinano, Merliza. "Child Soldiers in the Philippines." International Labor Affairs Service - Department of Labor and Employment (February 2002).

The study focuses on the armed groups in the Philippines, particularly the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF), Abu Sayyaf Group (ASG), and New People's Army (NPA), reportedly using

child soldiers. It discusses the different recruitment patterns among these groups, the profile of the recruits, the tasks and roles that the children portray, and the different circumstances besetting the children which led to their involvement with the armed groups. The different effects on child soldiers are also discussed, ranging from trauma, fear, illiteracy and the destruction of their livelihood and property. The author explains that while the government is a party to international instruments and has drafted laws protecting children, much remains to be done in its implementation. The government also needs to include the plight of children in its peace negotiations with the armed groups.

Manubag, Darwin J. "Cognitions of Peace in Mindanao: The Youth Sector's Perspective." MSU-Iligan Institute of Technology (April 2002).

The study focuses on the cognitions of 198 youth leaders/participants who attended two youth gatherings, namely, the 2nd National Youth Parliament and the Mindanao Youth for Peace and Development Advocacy Program held on 18 to 21 December 1997 and 11 to 14 December 1998, respectively. Of the 198 youth respondents, 168 were from the National Youth Parliament gathering. The research employed simple statistical manipulations with the use of SPSS for Windows. Among the variables investigated were the level of awareness of the respondents, their conceptualizations on peace, suggested causes and solutions on peace. The study also verified the relationship between the level of awareness of the respondents on peace issues vis-a-vis their demographic features such as sex, religion, residence, place of birth, language spoken, educational status, youth sector affiliation and age.

Protacio-de Castro, Elizabeth. "Children in Armed Conflict: Focus on Child Soldiers in the Philippines." Kasarinlan, Vol. 16, No. 2. Quezon City: Third World Studies Center, University of the Philippines (2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The author provides a quick study of child soldiers in the Philippines as a possible child trafficking concern. The presence of armed conflict in various parts of Luzon, the Visayas, and Mindanao allow for children to be employed as child soldiers. For some of them, it is seen as an economic opportunity, while for others participation in the conflict may be ideological or religious in nature.

Protacio-Marcelino, Elizabeth Ph.D., Maria Teresa C. de la Cruz, Agnes Zenaida V. Camacho and Faye Alma G. Balanon. "Torture of Children in Situations of Armed Conflict." Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights, Center for Integrative and Development Studies, University of the Philippines (2001).

Torture is described here as a universally condemned practice by which pain or suffering is intentionally inflicted on a person, an inhuman act that degrades not only the physical but also the mental and emotional whole of a person. This kind of treatment is used to extract information, confession or to punish a crime committed. War and torture have become synonymous, with the latter used as a tactic of the military to repress and terrorize the rural population and discourage it from supporting rebellion. This study puts into focus the different forms of torture applied on children and the extent of their effects. The study provides detail on the children's background and the different signs and changes they manifest as an aftermath of their harrowing ordeal. The different forms of physical, mental and sexual torture, and how these were applied are discussed. The cruelties of these actions are clearly described, emphasizing that permanent damage to the children or even death may result. . The study documents the physical and psychosocial effects of torture on children as highly vulnerable individuals in the process of development.

Timonera, Bobby. "The Warrior is a Girl Child." Philippine Human Rights Information Center (December 1999). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This article tackles the military training of children living inside a Moro Rebel Camp. Children like Poutli (not her real name), a fourth-grader, is one of the children who participated in different military drills and trained to carry M-16 armalite rifles and homemade grenade launchers. Under the supervision of Sultan Kammad Gunda, Poutli and other children featured in the article were part of a class of 25 women who finished the MILF's "basic military training" at Camp Bushra last June 1999. Aside from the three-month intensive training, the children continuously undergo military education in their *madrasahs*. According to Prof. Rudy Rodil, an expert on Mindanao history at the Mindanao State University-Iligan Institute of Technology, the military training for children began even before the Moro uprising in the late 1960's. Commissioner Nasser Marohomsalic, a Maranao member of the Commission on Human Rights, further admits that it has become part of the Moro culture to train their young for warfare, the better to defend themselves against enemy attacks. The training is also viewed as a test of a child's prowess and a chance for him/her to gain renown not only for himself/herself but also for his/her community. It is also believed that a gun is a symbol of prestige and manhood. Although MILF policy dictates that children above the age of 12 shall undergo military training, the culture of the gun actually starts at an earlier age. The use of children in the country's various rebel groups have come under severe criticism from various national and international organizations and agencies. As Marohomsalic pointed out, the only way to stop exposing children to violence is to end the armed hostilities.

Children's Rights

Caparas, Maria Veronica. "Child Rights Advocacy in Campus: A Manual Based on the Initiatives of The Bahay Tuluyan and Its Junior Educators Program: Strengthening the Streetchildren's Resilience." (July 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Caparas explores the history, vision and goals of the Bahay Tuluyan; the special role of the staff, benefactors, and detractors of Bahay Tuluyan on the resilience of their streetchildren-clients, and the Junior Educators' insights on the program. Bahay Tuluyan is an institution that has provided temporary shelter for approximately four hundred street children and has provided support to thousands more. Its programs are meant to enhance the learning and creative potentials of its residents. The Junior Educator's Program (JEP) of the Bahay Tuluyan is characterized by the child-to-child approach and its guiding philosophy "children have to make decisions for themselves." The JEP helps streetchildren discover for themselves what they want to do in life, and strengthens them to face realities of life. To meet the specific objectives of this research, the Field Research Method was employed, with interview as the data-gathering method.

Caparas II, Atty. Perfecto G. "Nation of Diminishing Freedom." Bahay-Tuluyan Program for Street Children and Stairway Foundation, Inc. (April 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This article is a personal observation and reaction of the author to the present state of the human rights struggle and the juvenile justice system. It questions the judicial performance of our courts in the handling of cases of children in conflict with the law and street children. The current juvenile justice system of the country, as the author describes, is "child-insensitive" and does not conform to the principles of social justice. The author questions the competence and credibility of the courts to deliver a verdict that adheres to the principle of equality before the law. It reports that law offenders belonging to the social elite are given special treatment and privileges as against the

dehumanizing state of poor children behind jail. The author suggests a reformative juvenile justice system to address the dilemma. Furthermore, the article tackles the urgency to strengthen the fight against human rights violations. It reports that the primary role of the sovereign state is to protect civil liberties and to deliver social justice to its citizenry. The international existence of human rights abuses and national armed conflicts must be addressed by a global organization of human rights and peace advocates, the author recommends.

Jonsson, Urban. Human Rights Approach to Development Programming. UNICEF, Kenya (2003).

Jonsson presents an interesting approach to the application of human rights in development programming. Claim-holders and duty-bearers are both seen to have corresponding rights, but the capability of duty-bearers to deliver on their obligations is also considered—the strength of a duty-bearer's obligation is gauged by the extent to which he or she is able to claim his or her own rights in order to be capacitated to deliver on his or her duties.

Kayange, George. "Child Rights versus Culture." CRIDOC Malawi website, www.cridoc.globalmarch.de (17 October 2003).

A news analysis done for the Child Rights Information and Documentatioin Center, this article presents cultural practices that are seen to be abusive and exploitative in nature, and therefore violate children's rights.

"National Report on Follow-up to the World Summit for Children-Child Protection Issues." Council for the Welfare of Children (2000).

The increasing incidence and number of children victimized by sexual abuse, child labour, armed conflict, and maltreatment have been a significant factor in the passage of numerous national and local child protection-related programs and policies. This report states that the Philippines has enacted adequate national policies and laws that advocate the welfare of children but their implementation and monitoring are being carried ineffectively and unsystematically by the agencies and authorities concerned. There is an urgency for an institutionalized advocacy for the welfare of children, and a need for an institutionalized monitoring/surveillance system as well as a sustained regular assessment of policies related to children's welfare. There must be greater information dissemination, awareness campaigns, social mobilization and advocacy efforts for more effective communication. The report also recommends that we must foster greater participation and empowerment of children in decision-making and in drafting of policies. For intervention to be effective, a family-based approach must be utilized. Children must be consulted in our efforts towards social reform and better local governance. Lastly, for initiatives to succeed, there must be collaboration between the government, civil society (NGOs and POs) and the citizenry/community to support children's rights and institute children's interests in development programs and policies, e.g. Philippine National Strategic Framework for Plan Development for Children, 2000-2025 (Child 21).

Racelis, Mary and Angela Desiree M. Aguirre. "Child Rights for Urban Poor Children in Child-Friendly Philippine Cities: Views from the Community." Environment & Urbanization, Vol. 14, No.2. Institute of Philippine Culture, Ateneo de Manila University, UNICEF Manila, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre (October 2000).

This provides a ground-level view of the rights of children within the context of poverty and an atmosphere of awareness of these rights.

Regional Child Participation Conference and Learnshop. KABIBA Alliance for Children's Concerns..

The Proceedings on the Regional Child Participation Conference Learnshop of the KABIBA Alliance for Children's Concerns details the activities and workshops conducted in the three-day activity. The Conference was expected to promote children's participation in the identification and design of interventions that are supposed to address children's needs. The proceedings aimed to capture the enthusiasm of the organizations and children-participants who participated in the conference and contributed to the discussions concerning the enhancement of childrens' involvement by letting the children themselves define their participation. The report was written and packaged in a manner that children may be able to read them. Parents, child development workers, child advocates and funding donors who still search for the definition of child participation may also find this report helpful in the process.

"Standing Up For Ourselves: A Study on the Concepts and Practices of the Young People's Rights to Participation." ECPAT International, International Young People's Action Against Sexual Exploitation of Children and UNICEF (June 2000). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The study highlights the efforts of young people in addressing the issues that affect their lives. Insights from their experiences show us the forms of participation and the circumstances in which they are able to act and make a significant contribution to their own development as well as to the development of the community. The process of participation, methods that facilitate their expression, stimulate, and challenge their current competencies, were identified. The study also traces the historical development of the concept of participation. It illustrates the significance of current perception of children and their capacities, the cultural and societal values, and the interrelation of different socioeconomic and political factors that affect young people's participation. It looks at efforts around the world to integrate and enhance young people's participation in program design, implementation and evaluation. It also studies in more detail attempts of governments and non-government organizations to enlist the participation of young people in efforts to combat commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC).

Cultural Constructs: Children in the Filipino Family

Liwag, Ma. Emma Concepcion, Alma de la Cruz and Ma. Elizabeth Macapagal. "How We Raise Our Daughters and Sons: Child-Rearing and Gender Socialization in the Philippines." United Nations Children's Fund and Ateneo Wellness Center (1999).

This is a comprehensive review covering 131 local journals, theses, books, reports on the subject of child-rearing beliefs and practices. It presents a conceptual framework of gender socialization and revolves around topics like the girl-child and the Filipina woman she is expected to be, the girl-child and how she is raised in the Filipino family. Important issues on parental beliefs and practices are highlighted in the process of the research: parental preferences for daughters or sons, gender-related expectations of parents, gender-differentiated child rearing beliefs and practices, differential family investment in daughters and sons, differences in responsibility training of daughters and sons, and parents as models, which showed the differences in child rearing responsibilities of mothers and fathers. The review concludes that the Filipino girl-child is disadvantaged. It provides a practical guide on what parents, schools, the media, non-government and government institutions can do to correct the disparity.

Ong, Michelle. "The Role of the Family in Philippine Society and in the Protection of Children's Rights." Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights, Center for Integrative and Development Studies, University of the Philippines (May 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Ong explores the dimension of the Filipino family, which is distinct from any other family in the world as being "functionally extended," making its role, especially in the rearing of children, a complex one. The concept of parents knowing the best for their children and of the family being inviolate makes child abuse in the family possible. To ensure that children's rights will be protected and nourished, an understanding of cultural constructions of children, childhood and rights in the Philippines is necessary. The paper presents the definition of the Filipino family and the context in which it thrives. Its discussion moves to an elaboration of childhood in the Philippine setting. The author puts forward cultural notions regarding the Filipino child: "walang-isip", "walang-alam" at "walang-malay" (mindless, knows nothing, and innocent). With these ideas in mind, the parents conclude that children have to be protected, disciplined and nurtured; molding them into productive and responsible citizens. However, this inequality of power in the family sometimes leads to abuse because children are thought of as valuable properties of their parents, implying that parents can do whatever they deem to be best for their children and their family. The author believes that the existing cultural constructs of children and childhood in the Philippine society can be a context conducive to protecting children's rights just as it can be used for abuse. She recommends education on children's rights for families and the expansion of the protective role of parents and other sectors of society to include protection and promotion of children's rights. She sees the recognition of children's rights and their promotion as being significantly possible through the collective efforts of the family and other members of society.

Child Abuse

Ariyo, Debbie. "The Future Lost: The Economic and Social Consequences of Child Abuse in Africa." Africa Economic Analysis. www.abusemuststop.org (2001).

Ariyo describes the practices in many African nations of families sending their children out to exploitative work in order to support their families. The cultural contexts of these practices are carefully discussed.

Batapa, Atty. Jocelle E. "The Realities of Prosecuting Incestuous Rape Cases: The Sexually Abused Child and Lawyer-Friend Perspectives." Women Studies Program, University of Saint La Salle, Bacolod City. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

In the Philippines, incest is defined as the sexual intercourse of a man and a woman related to each other in any degree within which marriage is prohibited by the law. This study utilizes actual data from the Holy Family Bacolod Foundation, Inc., which serves as a home to children who are victims of sexual abuse within the Province of Negros Occidental. This report presents the findings on 16 incest cases and the analysis of the answers given to standard questionnaires by several respondents comprising of judges, lawyers, prosecutors and public attorneys, to show various concerns including: the difficult stage for the child/victim; factors most crucial to the success of the case; the most difficult stage for the lawyers; factors contributing to the delay, difficulty or failure of discovering, investigating, and resolving the crime in favour of the victim; and factors that set the crime apart from other crimes. Furthermore, the nature of the crime, weight of the victim's testimony and effect of delay in reporting the case were explained in the text since these are the things the child and her lawyer should be aware of to prepare them for the realities of the court. The

discussions in this article point out the obstacles an advocate, child's guardian, social worker or lawyer need to face to approximate justice even though laws governing this crime are known. To describe the extremity of the case, some peculiarities that were mentioned are the age of the victims when they were raped, the number of offenders per victim, and their relationship. The author cited 10 points we can do to address the issues raised in this study, which may help overcome the barriers to attain justice for the victims of incestuous rape.

Bautista, Violeta, Aurorita Roldan, Myra Garces-Bacsal and Elizabeth Protacio-Marcelino. "Working with Abused Children: From the Lenses of Resiliency and Indigenization." Center for Integrative and Development Studies, University of the Philippines. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This research is a starter for studies on ascertaining and understanding indigenous knowledge and psychosocial intervention methods in working with abused children in Metro Manila. The study consists of two parts. One part explores the experiences of abused children from a resiliency paradigm. The other part seeks to identify indigenous psychosocial interventions, which facilitated resiliency among such children. The framework of this study departs from the traditional approach of studying children in difficult situations. Instead of looking at the abused children's experiences from the vulnerability paradigm, the study approached the subject from the lenses of the resiliency paradigm where focus is on the children's strengths, competencies, and inspiring experiences. The study contributes to the development of the database on abused children from this new paradigm as it, in part, explores the indigenous understanding of resiliency from the narratives of child-victim survivors as well as those of professional caregivers who provided them with intervention services. The study was guided by the phenomenological approach in data gathering, relying mostly on life narratives of abused children and interviews and focus group discussions with their caseworkers. From the life narratives, the following resiliency themes were identified: acceptance of and adjustment to the demands of difficult life situations, competent functioning in the presence of major life problems, learning from life's adversities, the self as the teacher and the source of valuation, "pagtitiis" (forbearance), and not making a big thing of problems as major modes of coping, finding happiness in the midst of difficulties, ability to maintain sanity in the face of traumatic experiences, good and wholesome character in spite of deprivation, ethical mind set, recovering from past wounds, therapeutic construction of reality, ability to be other-centred and ability to see situations as temporary. The research data on resiliency raised a number of issues on the subject. Attempts were also made to identify indigenous and contextualized concepts, knowledge and approaches used by workers in helping abused children, which were actually found to be similar to those found in western literature. Novel concepts and approaches were also found to be used, including those which they themselves developed in the course of helping children under their care. The study also reviews which of the indigenous concepts, knowledge and strategies have the potential for facilitating growth of resiliency among abused children. The study ends with recommendations for researchers, policy makers, program designers, trainers, practitioners and field workers.

"Children in Situations of Abuse: Framework for Analysis and Action." Arci Cultura E Sviluppo. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This is a working draft addressed to individuals and organizations who are presently working on issues related to the child abuse phenomenon in the Philippines, with the intention of improving interventions and stimulating discussions on the issue as well as opening up venues to share different perspectives. It is also an attempt to bring together various suggestions on strategies and interventions in response to violence, maltreatment and abuse perpetrated on children. It stems from recognition

of a lack of specificity in the analysis of different abusive phenomena which often leads to the development and adoption of programs which are generic, palliative and which do not contextualize an abusive event within the peculiar cultural and social setting where it takes place. The extent of the problem is seen as largely hidden because there is no effective data gathering and banking system in force which addresses the problem of accuracy in terms of gauging the extent of the problem. The working draft posits some basic guidelines on work with children in situations of abuse which includes: a) consistency in defining the various phenomena, taking into account definition of abuse from the perspectives of the children themselves; b) consistent complementarity in frameworks, proposing the Convention on the Rights of the Child Paradigm, the Resiliency Paradigm, and the Systems Approach as some key aspects of the framework; and c) unified definitions and data elements which make possible more in-depth comparative and causal studies on the phenomena. The working draft reinforces a systemic relationship between prevention, protection and healing/recovery intervention strategies. It further distinguishes as to primary, secondary or tertiary levels. Within all this is the child who is the unit of observation of impact of any intervention strategy at the various levels, in consideration of the milieu surrounding the child in a systemic manner—his or her family, the community, society and other macro factors operating directly or indirectly on the individual. Finally, it summarizes nine basic core actions in response to the various phenomena of child abuse at various levels.

Cruz de la, Ma. Teresa, Elizabeth Protacio, Faye Balanon, Jay Yacat and Carolina Francisco. “Evolving Definitions of Child Abuse Through Participatory Action Research.” University of the Philippines Center for Integrative and Development Studies - Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights, Action Research Team-Bahay Tuluyan and Arci Cultura E Sviluppo. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Recognizing the phenomenological problem of defining child abuse, this paper aimed to come up with not only a culturally-sensitive definition of child abuse but an understanding as well of this phenomenon from the eyes of the child. It attempts to define child abuse in the context of its different causes and structural features which may include cultural attitudes, educational practices and values in society and the family. Moreover, it identifies positive resources that can be tapped to counteract abuse or develop action plans that will contribute to the recovery and reintegration of abused children to the community and the prevention of future abuse.

Felix, Maria Leny E. and Regina Dela Paz-Ingente. “Protecting Women and Children: A Handbook on Community-Based Response to Violence.” Center for Reproductive Health, Leadership and Development, Inc.

This handbook provides a practical guide to dealing with violence against women and children. It gives useful information through real-life experiences and insights in eliminating violence against women and children (VAWC) in the local setting through shared action and community efforts. It shares experiences, efforts, and brings to light policies and programs of government and certain members of the private sector to eliminate VAWC. The addition of illustrative cases and steps on how to develop community-based responses to VAWC are added strengths of this handbook.

Guerrero-Manalo, Stella, Alexis Reyes, Bernadette Madrid and Leonila Dans. “Clinical and Developmental Profiles of Physically Abused Children Aged Six Years and Below.” Section of Developmental Pediatrics and the Child Protection Unit, University of the Philippines - Philippine General Hospital (October 2000). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Thirty children aged six years and below were diagnosed to have been physically abused (21 from the Child Protection Unit of the UP-PGH as well as nine children from two other city shelters). They were examined in terms of birth, maternal, medical histories as well as their family demographics and dynamics. Physical and neurological examinations were done as well as developmental screening using the Denver Developmental Screening Test II (DDST II). Their performance on the DDST II was compared to that of non-abused controls matched by age, sex and socioeconomic class. The MacNemar chi-squared test revealed significant differences in their screening performance with more questionable/abnormal results in the abused subjects. Other findings provide baseline data from which to organize future research on this issue. Physical abuse was proven to be mainly an intrafamilial occurrence, with the father being the abuser in 67 percent of cases. The families of the abused children exhibited marked dysfunction with 33 percent of cases with abandonment by one parent, and 50 percent of cases with wife-battering by the father. In terms of demographic profiles, both abused children and controls came from the same general socioeconomic class. Abused subjects had more of their fathers unemployed and mothers employed outside the home compared to the controls. Abusive fathers were perceived to have poor anger control and were seen to use alcohol and drugs more often than the non-abusive fathers. 73 percent of the abused subjects had normal prenatal and birth histories and their past medical histories revealed them to be basically healthy children. None were seen to have neurological impairments or physical/developmental disabilities. Anthropometric measurements were variable but usually clustered in the lower percentile categories for both the abused subjects and the controls. Facial and head cutaneous injuries were the most consistent physical findings, being seen in 63 percent of the abused subjects. Results of the developmental screening imply the need for further developmental assessment and follow-up as well as interventions directed towards addressing the developmental needs of abused children especially in the domain of language development.

Madrid, Bernadette, Jennifer Gilmore, Mariella Castillo, and Amelia Fernandez (eds.). Child Maltreatment Medico-Legal Terminology and Interpretation of Medical Findings: A Consensus of Medical and Legal Child Abuse Practitioners in the Philippines. Child Protection Unit Network, The Advisory Board Foundation, Inc.

A collaboration between physicians, judges and lawyers of the Philippine child protection community, this manual presents the standardized medico-legal certificate, as well as an accepted lexicon of child maltreatment terms. The manual dissects and explains the certificate in detail in order to clarify any areas of confusion and, ultimately, to facilitate its use by physicians and members of the legal community. Each section of the certificate is illustrated and includes brief instructions for proper completion of that section. This publication is intended to serve both as an educational tool for child protection professionals unfamiliar with the medico-legal examination, and as a guideline for those in the medical community.

Molina, Alicia. “Towards the Development of a Treatment Approach for Children Victims of Incest.” UP Center for Women’s Studies and The Ford Foundation (September 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This study involves ten female children, aged 10-13 years old, who are victims of incestuous rape and thus have been placed under the protective custody of one of the government residential homes for abused children in Metro Manila. The phenomenon of incest is examined, including the situations that led to it and how the child coped with the violation. The characteristics of child survivors of incest are described as well as the immediate and long-term effects of the violation. The

effects of incest are evaluated using clinical measures, which are then used as bases for formulating a treatment framework.

Protacio-Marcelino, Elizabeth, Maria Teresa de la Cruz, Faye A. G. Balanon, Agnes Zenaida V. Camacho, Jay Yacat. "Child Abuse in the Philippines: An Integrated Literature Review and Annotated Bibliography." Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights Center for Integrative and Development Studies (UP-CIDS), University of the Philippines.

At the request of PLAN International (a child-focused development organization that supports programs and services for victims of child abuse in the Philippines), the research team from the Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights Program (PST) of the UP-CIDS has come up with this review of current literature on child abuse in the country. Its primary aim is to understand the complexity of the problem of child abuse. The various foci of the materials covered in this review are the general concepts of child abuse; services and interventions done by GO's and NGOs; methods and techniques applied in intervention strategies for child abuse victims; education and training of professionals, child care workers, etc.; campaign and advocacy by different concerned agencies and finally, networking and organizing of agencies to ensure effectiveness of the methods employed.

Ramos, Melanie. "A Close Look at Juvenile Sex Offenders." Institute on Church & Social Issues (September 2003).

Reports from various jails and detention centres show that children as young as 10 years old have been charged with rape and acts of lasciviousness. The number of sex crimes committed by children has escalated in recent years, so much so that it has become alarming. This article delves into the probable causes of sexual violence among the youth. Among the causes cited are family factors, child maltreatment histories, substance abuse, pornography and sexual knowledge and experience. Moreover, since there is a lack of research material on Filipino juvenile sex offenders, the Consuelo Foundation is spearheading a study on the "Profile of Juvenile Sex Offenders in the Philippines" in the hope of gaining a deeper understanding regarding these youth.

Tan, Winecito L. "Analysis of Rape Cases Committed against Children and Women in the National Capital Region (NCR), Philippines." Department of Social Welfare and Development; United Nations Children's Fund.

This paper aimed to demonstrate the possibilities for analysis of rape cases. It also aimed to attempt evaluation and analysis of data, its quantitative and qualitative aspect by looking into data generation and processing of volumes of administrative cases compiled by various agencies. It also sheds light on other characteristics and nature of the cases thereby helping in the formulation of policies and plans towards prevention and if possible, eliminating rape. The paper also serves as a take off point for further work that may be done in monitoring the status of rape cases.

Valeriano, Alvin. "Within the Premises: Child Abuse in Schools." (January 2003). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

The research study aims to expose the reality surrounding the Filipino children within the premises of their schools, which Filipino society deems as an extension of their home and is highly regarded as an important social institution. The research paper starts with the study of the overall definition of what the school is according to both students and teachers, and their respective experiences in dealing with each other. At the outset of the study, the researcher learned of live accounts of abuse done by public school teachers to their students in Metro Manila. This allowed for scoping of the research, to focus on this—the researcher compiled personal accounts of the student-

children-participants and consolidated them to come up with a general definition of child abuse in schools. In congruence with the topic, the researcher also made the participants define the line separating discipline from abuse, since most teachers apparently used discipline as an excuse for their actions toward the students. Using the accounts of the student-participants, abuse is defined by looking at the elements present in the actions taken by the abusers, which included: pain, shame, and intent. On the other hand, those being accused of child abuse, the teachers, define abuse through the following components; physical, psycho-emotional, and rights violation. The teacher-participant gave their all out support to the study. They cited reasons or causes for the occurrence of abuse within the premises of the school. They also cited their position/authority, personal/familial problems that may have to bear on their behaviors in school, and the lack of respect for teachers on the part of the student, as main causes of such incidents of abuse.

Yacat, Joy A. and Michelle G. Ong. "Beyond the Home: Child Abuse in the Church and School." Program on Psychosocial Trauma and Human Rights, Center for Integrative and Development Studies, University of the Philippine, Save the Children (UK) Philippines. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This paper is a product of research and a round table discussion on child abuse as it occurs in powerful social institutions which play major roles in the development and growth of children: the church and school. It was observed that child abuse in these contexts is a silenced phenomenon. The paper discusses the history and role of the church and school in Philippine society and identifies factors that make the identification and reporting of abuse difficult. The authors also lay down recommendations for responding to the challenges of preventing, identifying, and reporting child abuse in the church and schools.

Out-of-School Youth

"Arrested Development: The Level of Out-of-School Children and Youth." Philippine Action for Youth Offenders, United Nations Children's Fund (February 2003).

This research project expands the scope of the study, "Beyond Innocence", as it attempts to look into the level of discernment and moral development of 300 out-of-school children and youth. The same framework and methodology from the said study were used and additional data was gathered to further advocate for the rights and welfare of Filipino children. The study reveals the following findings: at 18 years of age, the out-of-school children and youth tested were at a level of discernment comparable to that of the average seven-year old; only two out of the 300 respondents attained a high level of discernment; there were significant variations between the levels of discernment of seven to 13-year olds and 14-18-year olds; and ordinal position and age significantly determine the level of discernment of out-of-school children and youth. Determining the age of discernment of out-of-school children can help identify the appropriate age when a child knows if a certain action is right or wrong. Law makers and advocates can use it not only to identify more appropriate prevention and intervention programs for out-of-school youth but to help combat laws and policies that infringe on the rights of this vulnerable sector, especially those that get into conflict with the law.

The Juvenile Justice System

Candelaria, Atty. Sedfrey, Atty. Aleli Domingo, Amanda Roselle Abrera, Geo Carbonell, Ma. Victoria Cardona and Tricia Oco. "Situational Analysis on Children in Conflict with the Law and the Juvenile Justice System." AKAP of the Ateneo Human Rights Center, Ateneo Law School and United Nations Children's Fund (1998).

Current policy and practice relating to juvenile justice have been noted by the Committee on the Rights of the Child as areas most in need of review and reform in many countries. In the case of the Philippines, the Committee, in its 1995 concluding observations of the country's initial report on the implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), strongly recommended that a comprehensive reform of the administration of the juvenile justice system be undertaken in order for it to become child-friendly. Findings show that Filipino children in conflict with the law are: usually male, between the ages 14 to 17, elementary graduate, middle children from low-income families with four to six members, charged with property-related crimes (robbery and theft), and exposed to drugs or gang influence. Data also show that even with laws and regulations applicable to children, prosecution and trial procedures in general do not make distinctions between adult and youthful offenders. A number of the latter are subjected to neglect and insensitivity by duty-holders in the various stages of the juvenile justice.

The research was developed to guide policy-makers in implementing effective programs and procedures to protect the rights of the Filipino child and make the juvenile justice system appropriate and sensitive to his/her psychosocial make-up. The study aimed to analyze data and existing studies on children in conflict with the law as well as assess the current situation of the administration of juvenile justice in light of the principles and relevant provisions of the Convention of the Rights of the Child. It utilized data on Philippine juvenile justice from 1993 to June 1997 using interviews, surveys and field visits at various agencies and government offices with a mandate over juvenile justice issues.

Media: Its Role and Influence On Children and their Development

De Leon, Caroline. "Impact of TV Violence on Children." Philippine News and Features, Vol. XVII, No. 12/2. Manila (July 2001).

This paper looks into the critical role television plays in the matrix of influences in a child's environment and patterns of development. It aims to understand television and its relationship to its young viewers and how children treat what they see. It traces the extent of the effects of TV violence, particularly on the aggression manifested among children. It explains that early TV viewing could be linked to aggressive behavior and that violence on TV provides a justification to aggression. The paper provides data on studies and researches which supported the report on the long-term and negative impacts to children. It also identifies forms of action and legislation being done worldwide to regulate TV programs and put a stop to the onslaught of violence on the consciousness of young viewers.

De los Angeles-Bautista, Fený. "Graphic Violence Harms Children." Philippine Children's Television Foundation (March 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

De los Angeles-Bautista explores in this article the high levels of exposure of children to media violence, which can lead to extreme fearfulness and distrust, and heightened aggression and misconception about effective ways of resolving conflict. Real-life violence, whether witnessed first

hand or via television, leaves imprints on children's minds that can never be justified as educational. The article emphasizes that we need to educate ourselves and our children about the grim realities of our society, but this should be done in ways that will not harm them.

Ingram, Simon, BBC Southeast Asia correspondent. "Radio Helps Sex Industry Victims." 16 December, 2001.

This news article portrays an interesting strategy which may be used by victims and anti-trafficking advocates alike. The power of media in advocating an issue and helping victims is portrayed here.

Related Studies

Florencio, Cecilia A. "Child, School, Home: Determinants of Academic Performance." Center for Integrative and Development Studies of U.P. Diliman. Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This study is concerned with the determinants of school-related behavior, particularly the relationship between health and nutritional status and academic performance. Such a concern is in place whenever our educational system sets for itself the objective of reducing disparities in education and raising the overall quality and efficiency of education. The study operates on the following premise: although construction of new classrooms, provision of textbooks and other learning materials and training of teachers are necessary to improve the quality of education, it is illogical to expect that these will make up for the difference in learning that could arise because of biological impediments. The objectives of the study relate to the following factors, namely: a) nature, magnitude and distribution of health and nutritional problems of school children; b) relationship between nutritional status and academic performance; and c) effects on academic achievement of non-nutritional variables, specifically those recommended in the 1976 Project SOUTELE Report.

Lancion, Conrado M. Jr. Fast Facts About Philippine Provinces. 2000.

A highly informative book which provides basic topographic, demographic, economic, and political data on all provinces of the Philippines.

Pura, Alexandra. In Search of Alternative Frameworks: The Experience of Save the Children UK's NGO Partners in Early Childhood Care and Development. Save the Children (UK) Philippines (January 2002). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

Save the Children (UK) Philippines embarked on an early childhood care and development program from 1994 to 1999, taking off from an analysis of the prevailing situation of children aged three to six years in both urban poor and rural communities. The program focused on day care and was implemented in partnership with non-government and academic organizations. This book captures the experience of Save the Children (UK) Philippines and its partner organizations in their work on early childhood care and development (ECCD). It comprehensively discusses the content, methods and approaches in ECCD developed by each partner organization. It describes the ECCD models developed by each partner, in which a child-centred and developmentally appropriate approach was adopted. The book also tries to describe the framework for developing an ECCD Program and presents the steps needed to be undertaken to significantly influence programming and policy work.

Regalado, Joseph M.D. "Computer Games and the Games They Play." MSF-Philippine Pediatric Society (December 2001). Downloaded from www.childprotection.org.ph.

This article discusses the effects of computer games on children. Children are highly impressionable, and are always in the process of social, mental and physical development. There are certain phases and exposures children need in order to achieve full development, which the shift to computer games may hamper. Those who have gotten used to computer games as their form of play may have limited interaction with other children. They are also exposed to different forms of violence and aggression, which they might think is impressive and good. Constant exposure to violence desensitizes children. Children may also have difficulties coping with frustrations and failure, for the power of the game is at their fingertips. When they feel dissatisfied or bored with the game, they can either stop or click to “restart.” Regalado raises valid doubts regarding the kind of play to which unwitting parents allow their children to be constantly exposed.

Situation Analysis on Child Trafficking in the Philippines
Annex E. Table of Variables

Province / City: _____

Respondent Type: Please Indicate with a ☐ .	Victim	:	☐	Government Agency Rep.	☐
	Family	:	☐	NGO Worker	☐
	Community Member	:	☐	Trafficker	☐
	Others	:	☐		
Method :				Group Discussion	☐
				Interview	☐

General comment/s of respondents on child trafficking	
Interviewee / Discussion Group Participants :	
Office / Location:	
Case: (Situation prevailing in area)	

PROFILES

Dimension	Individual	Household	Community	Trafficker
Specific	• Age	• Siblings	• Known number of trafficked children	• Identity of the recruiter
	• Gender	➤ Number	• Awareness of trafficking happening in the barangay/community	➤ Age
	• Ordinal rank of child among siblings	➤ Ages and Gender	• Awareness/Knowledge of the operations of traffickers in the community	➤ Nationality
	• Educational attainment	➤ Educational attainment	• Identity, residence, and business of recruiters in the community	➤ Gender

Dimension	Individual		Household	Community		Trafficker
	• When child left home			• Frequency of recruitment	• Place of origin/residence	
	• Age when child/children left home		▪ Educational attainment of father and mother	• Process of recruitment	▪ Are they known to the child or to family of the child who was trafficked?	
	• Sought permission from parents/informed them about leaving home and working				▪ Others who know recruiter	
	▪ Motivation that pushed him/her to being trafficked				▪ Known membership in organized crime syndicates or legitimate agencies/organizations (or simply individuals with no clear affiliation)	
	▪ Major factor that affected decision to go					
	▪ Financial situation of child before he/she was trafficked		▪ Occupation of father and mother	▪ Availability of and access to basic services ➢ Health ➢ Education ➢ Utilities – water, electricity ➢ Transportation	▪ Financial gains of recruiter	
Economic	▪ Skills that could be useful for employment or would be of interest to recruiters		▪ Household appliances and furnishings	▪ Presence of business establishments in the area		

Dimension	Individual		Household	Community		Trafficker
				➢ Number and kind of businesses (stores, manufacturing plants, port, bars)	➢ Tourism Opportunities for financial and career growth and employment	
Socio-cultural	▪ Experiences of abuse before being trafficked		▪ Ownership of house, land	▪ Attitude towards recruiters		▪ Stature in community
			▪ Amount spent for basic necessities – food, clothing, shelter, education	▪ Support given to business of recruiters		
			▪ Decision-making authority on expenses			
			▪ Opinion about child working, working away from family, and appropriate age			
			▪ Opinion about child schooling or working			
			▪ Condition of the family when the child left home	<i>Conditions in community that affect values</i>		
	▪ Views on peer influence or its effect on her decisions		▪ Knowledge of parents on the whereabouts of their children	▪ Community spirit – samahan (camaraderie), nature of relationships, shared community/barangay activities, etc.		
			▪ Reasons of parents to allow their children to leave home	▪ Presence of active school/church groups		

Dimension	Individual		Household		Community	Trafficker	
Political			Opinion about children staying with the parents – until what age, reasons for child having to leave		Presence of ethnic groups and the extent of their participation in community activities		
			- Migration pattern/history ➢ Place of origin ➢ When migrated to area ➢ Why they migrated - Possibility for further migration if the opportunity arises				
	- Awareness that he/she was trafficked - Awareness that as a child he/she should be at home/school		Awareness of the parents about their child being a victim of trafficking		- State of peace and order in the area (crime, drug addiction) - Action by local government unit on recruiters		
Geographic			Location of household/place of residence relative to the centre of business of the town/barangay		Occurrence of calamities/disasters in the area	Most frequent sources of recruits (trafficked children)	

Dimension	Individual	Household	Community	Trafficker
Process ▪ Pre-recruitment ▪ Recruitment ▪ Transport ▪ Employment ▪ Moving out/rescue ▪ Rehabilitation ▪ Reintegration	▪ Age at first work (or when trafficked) <i>If no to question on family knowing that the child was leaving:</i> ▪ Family member/Other person who accompanied child when he/she left? ▪ Who child was supposed to visit ▪ Where child stayed immediately after leaving home	<i>If yes to family knowing that the child was leaving:</i> ▪ Reason known by family for the child leaving home	▪ Did anyone else in the community know that there was some recruitment going on? ▪ Was any other community member involved in the recruitment process? Who? What was the kind of involvement? ▪ Did the child come in contact with this person? How?	▪ Who invited child to leave home
	▪ Nature/kind of first work			▪ How recruiter approached the family
	▪ Income earned in first work ▪ Income earned now ▪ What income was spent on			
	▪ Who decided how much to spend out of income and on what			▪ Job offered by the recruiter
	▪ What child did, felt and thought while in transit	▪ Purpose		▪ Incentive offered to child or to family

Dimension	Individual		Household		Community		Trafficker	
Reflective questions	- Treatment by, relationship with accompanying person while ➢ Being recruited ➢ In transit ➢ After drop off at employer				Contribution to the community of trafficking activities - elaboration		Means of transportation used	
		- Continuing contact with recruiter ➢ Frequency ➢ Venue ➢ Purpose	➢ Who accompanied child					
	- Event in transit that had the greatest impact - How they see their situation now compared to before they were trafficked - What they would change, if they could, in their experience - Would they leave their family again?		➢ Who child was supposed to visit				Travel time from source to transit point to destination	
			Would they allow their child to go through the same experience again?				Mechanics for induction to work	
			Contribution of the child's experience to them as a family				Motivation for recruiting	

PROCESS

1. Pre-recruitment	
2. Recruitment	
3. Transport	
4. Employment	
5. Moving out/rescue	
6. Rehabilitation	
7. Reintegration	
8. Insights <i>(during the process and beyond)</i>	

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

9. Experience/Insights on Institutional Arrangements	Structure								
	Stage								
	Before rescue:								
	During rescue: Post-rescue support services:								
10. Suggestions/ Recommendations for future interventions/ Areas for improvement									

INTERVIEWER'S/PROJECT TEAM'S OBSERVATIONS

Profiles ▪ Individual ▪ Household ▪ Community ▪ Trafficker	
Process	
Institutional Arrangements	

Questionnaire No. _____
Respondent: Child

This questionnaire is intended for the child respondent and is expected to generate as much information as possible about the child's profile, his/her family and the conditions surrounding his/her situation. It is also expected to give a picture of the trafficking process and the people involved from the child's perspective. The interviewer is expected to provide priming activities/conversation preliminary to the actual interview, in order to make the respondent feel at ease and to allow him/her to open up and share experiences. The interviewer should also be skilled enough to provide linking conversation (between questions and/or answers) as well as provide closure to the discussion to ensure that the respondent is in a positive mood at the end of the interview.

This form is also used for recording information gathered from review of case histories of children known to have been trafficked and have been or is currently cared for by NGOs.

Fill out the appropriate box below to indicate source of data.

FOR CASE HISTORY REVIEWS: Date/Time of Review : _____ Reviewer : _____ NGO : _____ Contact Person : _____	FOR INTERVIEWS: Date/Time of Interview : _____ Interviewer : _____ NGO : _____ Person(s) accompanying the respondent during the interview: Name: : _____ Relationship : _____
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PRELIMINARIES

- Interviewer explains the objectives of the interview.
 - If the interview is to be taped, permission of the respondent has to be obtained first. Yes ? No ?
Payag ka bang i-tape natin ang ating pag-uusap?
 - Permission to use the respondent's real name also has to be sought. Yes ? No ?
Gagamitin ba natin ang tunay mong pangalan?
- If the answer is no, it may be good to know why. *Bakit hindi?*

Respondent's Name: _____

Question	Response
1. Ilang taon ka na ngayon? <i>(How old are you now?)</i>	
2. Ilan kayong magkakapatid? <i>(How many siblings do you have)</i>	
3. Pang-ilan ka sa magkakapatid? <i>(What is your ordinal rank in the family?)</i>	
4. Ano ang trabaho ng tatay mo? <i>(What's your father's job?)</i>	
5. Ano ang trabaho ng nanay mo? <i>(What's your mother's job?)</i>	

Question	Response
6. Ano ang mga ari-arian ng pamilya nyo? (e.g TV, lupa, radyo, ref.) <i>(What properties/appliances does your family own?)</i>	
7. Ano ang karaniwang pinagkakagastusan sa pamilya nyo? <i>(What are the usual expenses of your household?)</i>	
8. Sino karaniwan ang nagdedesisyon sa mga gastusin sa inyong pamilya? <i>(Who decides on how to spend the money in your household?)</i>	
9. Hanggang saan ang natapos na pag aaral ng tatay at nanay mo? <i>(What is the highest educational attainment of your father and mother?)</i>	
10. Sa inyong kabahayan ba, ano ang sinasabi sa inyo ng inyong mga magulang tungkol sa pagtrabaho sa ibang lugar? <i>(What do your parents tell you about working, and working far from your family?)</i>	
11. Sa inyong pamilya, kung tatanongin natin ang iyong magulang, ano mas gugustuhin nila mag-aral ka o magtrabaho? <i>(In your household, what would your parents prefer for you to do? Work or stay in school?)</i>	
12. Ano kaya ang isasagot ng iyong magulang kung tatanongin namin sila kung hanggang kailan dapat manatili ang mga anak nila sa tahanan? <i>(What is your parents' opinion of how long a son or daughter should live with their parents?)</i>	
13. Kamusta naman ang kalagayan ng inyong pamilya bago ka umalis? (mapayapa, magulo) <i>(What were the conditions in your home before you left? Was it peaceful or not? Please elaborate.)</i>	
14. Nagpaalam ka ba sa magulang mo bago ka umalis ng bahay? <i>(Did you ask permission to leave home from your parents?)</i>	
15. Sa tingin mo bakit ka pinayagan ng iyong magulang na lumayo sa inyong tahanan para magtrabaho? <i>(Why do you think your parents allowed you to work away from home?)</i>	
16. Alam ba ng pamilya mo kung nasaan ka ngayon? <i>(Do the members of your family know where you are now?)</i>	
17. Kailan ka umalis sa bahay ninyo? <i>(When did you leave your home?)</i>	
18. Kanino ka nakatira noong unang umalis ka ng bahay? <i>(With whom did you stay when you first left the house?)</i>	
19. Ilang taon ang mga magulang mo noong una kang umalis? <i>[If parents were still alive on leaving home: How old were your parents when you left?]</i>	
20. Ano ang kauna-unahang trabahong pinasukan mo? <i>(What was your first job?)</i>	
21. Ano-ano ang ginagawa mo sa trabahong iyon? <i>(What did you do in your first job?)</i>	
22. Ilang taon ka noon? <i>(How old were you when you started working?)</i>	

Question	Response
23. Magkano ang kinikita mo noon? <i>(How much did you earn in your first job?)</i> Ngayon? <i>(Now?)</i>	
24. Saan napupunta ang kita mo? <i>(How did you spend your earnings?)</i>	
25. Nakikialam ba ang iyong magulang, kapatid o mga kamag-anak kung paano mo gagastusin noon ang iyong kita? <i>(Did your parents, siblings or immediate relatives decide for you how you should spend your earnings?)</i>	
26. Sino and nag-dedesisyon kung paano gastusin ang pera mo? <i>(Who decides as to what your income should be spent on?)</i>	
27. Alam mo ba na na-traffic ka? <i>(Are you aware that you were trafficked?)</i>	
28. Sino o sinu-sino ang nagyaya sa iyong pumunta sa _____ (lugar)? <i>Ano raw ang gagawin mo roon? (Who invited you to go to (name of place)? What were you supposed to do there?)</i>	
29. Kilala mo ba ang nagrekrut sa iyo? <i>(Do you know the person who recruited you?)</i>	
30. Sino sila? <i>(Who were they?)</i>	
31. Bakit mo naisipan na sumama papunta sa _____ (lugar)? <i>(What made you decide to go to (name of place)?)</i>	
32. Alam ba ng mga magulang mo o nung nag-aalaga sa iyo na aalis/umalis ka? <i>(Did your parents or guardians know about your going away?)</i>	
33. Kung hindi, bakit di ka nag-paalam? <i>(If they did not know, why not? Why did you not ask permission?)</i>	
34. May iba bang nakaalam na aalis ka o na may nag-rekrut sa iyo? Sinu-sino sila? <i>(Did anyone else in the community know that you were leaving or were being recruited? Who?)</i>	
35. Bakit ka umalis ng bahay? <i>(What are the reasons why you decided to leave home?)</i>	
36. Sa mga rason kung bakit ka umalis, ano ang pinakamahalaga? <i>(From among all your reasons, which one has the greatest bearing on your decision to leave home?)</i>	
37. Saan ka unang pumunta/dinala? <i>(Where were you first brought by your recruiter?)</i>	
38. Pwede mo bang ikwento kung anong ginawa mo o nangyari sa iyo, naisip at naramdaman habang ikaw ay nasa byahe patungo sa _____ (lugar)? <i>(Can you tell us what you did, felt, and thought while in transit?)</i>	
39. Sa lahat ng nangyari sa iyo habang nasa byahe ka, ano yung hindi mo malimutan? <i>(What event/incident while in transit do you remember most? or has most significance/effect/impact on you?)</i>	

Question	Response
40. Ano ang relasyon mo o paano ka trinato ng tao/mga taong kasama mo... <i>(Describe the relationship between you and the person who accompanied you or the kind of treatment you were accorded...)</i> a. habang ikaw ay nirerekut? <i>(while you were being recruited?)</i> b. habang ikaw ay nasa byahe <i>(while you were in transit?)</i> c. pagkatapos kang iwan sa mag-eempleo sa iyo? <i>(after you were dropped off at the employer?)</i>	
41. May kontak ka pa ba sa tao/mga taong nagrekut sa iyo? Nagkita ba kayo uli? Paano? <i>(Do you still maintain communication with the person who recruited you? Did you meet them again? How?)</i>	
42. Mas maayos ba ang buhay mo ngayon kaysa noong bago ka narekut o nagtrabaho noong pinakaunang beses? <i>(Are you better off now than before you were recruited or before you worked for the first time?)</i> Bakit? <i>(What makes you say so?)</i>	
43. Kung alam mo na ganoon pala ang mangyayari sa iyo, gagawin mo ba iyong pagsama o pag-alis ng bahay na kagaya ng ginawa mo? <i>(If you had known that you would experience what you had experienced, would you have left home? Why?)</i>	
44. Kung mabigyan ng pangalawang pagkakataon, iiwanan mo ba ang bahay at pamilya ninyo? <i>(If given a second opportunity, would you still leave your house and your family? Why?)</i>	
45. May gusto ka pa bang sabihin o ikwento? <i>Do you have anything more to say or tell?</i>	

Maraming salamat!

CAMARINES NORTE

General characteristics of the province of Camarines Norte

Total land area:	220,012 hectares
Population: ¹	470,654 (as of 2000)
Population Growth rate:	1.50 between 1995-2000 (lower than the regional growth rate of 1.68)
Average household size:	5.12 as of 2000 (trend is declining compared to 1995 of 5.19)
Political divisions:	12 municipalities 282 barangays
Functional Literacy rate:	90.01 percent (based on 1994 FLEMMS)

Camarines Norte is a second class province, with Daet as the capital town. Of the provinces’ total population of 404,885 school age population (5 yrs. old and above), at least half (49.93 percent) were able to attend or complete elementary education; less than a third (28.6 percent) were able to at least attend high school.

The province is a rich mining area where there are abundant reserves of gold, iron, copper, uranium, lead and zinc. However, the province is still predominantly agricultural, with coconut and abaca as the major products. Poverty incidence is 51.6 percent.

Vinzons

Total population:	It is classified as one of the most highly populated municipalities, with a population density of 418/square kilometer.
Total land area:	9,060 hectares
Political divisions:	19 barangays
Significant characteristics relevant to the study:	The main sources of income for the municipality are farming (coconut, rice, pineapple, cassava) and fishing. However, the livelihood opportunities are not seen as adequate. The average number of children in the area is six, with the interviewees having 10 to 13 children. Children generally stop schooling and help parents earn for the family.

¹Socio-economic Profile of Camarines Norte, 2004.

The most recent trafficking case came from Bgy. Aguit-it. This barangay has a population of 1,477 with 273 households. It is quite distant from the centre of Vinzons, accessible by 45-minute land transport (tricycle or jeepney). Main source of income is farming and fishing.

Nine youth with ages ranging from 14 to 23 (two female, four male) were recruited for labour and brought to Pampanga and Bulacan. The close-knit and trusting relationships in the area allowed for their recruitment. The recruiter, allegedly a former resident of another town in Camarines Norte, together with the local pastor’s wife, talked to both parents and youth.

The same close-knit relationship favoured the immediate response by the barangay in rescuing the youths once they learned that the work conditions were not good. The case was immediately reported to the Municipal Social Welfare Office and acted on.

Neighbouring barangay captains were not aware of the incident until the FGD.

Bgy. Dalas, Labo

Total population: 3,853 with 759 households

Total land area: Labo has the biggest land area of the 12 municipalities of the province.

Significant characteristics relevant to the study: Labo is one of three gold-rich towns in Camarines Norte, the other two being Paracale and Jose Panganiban. It was once the site of mining operations of a large mining corporation, which closed down because its operations were no longer profitable. Since then, the old mining area has allowed for small, clustered mining operations, which, in addition to farming, is the community’s main source of income.

Bgy. Dalas has its own primary and secondary school, which is located near its economic centre (about 15 minutes by tricycle). It has also set up a people’s organization named “Samahan ng Kababaihang Manggagawa sa Dalas,” which has served as the program partner of the NGO, Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (PRRM) against child labour in small-scale mining.

Child labour is the predominant issue in the area, though it is accepted as a way of life by the residents, and is therefore not seen as exploitative. Families migrate into the area to join in the “gold rush,” bringing their children with them as workers. It is this venue that may be considered as a potential for trafficking, where Bgy. Dalas is concerned.

Because of the difficult nature of mining work and their exposure to labour, children in the barangay are prone to outplacement for labour. Two cases of children brought to Quezon for labour were found. One of the children was recruited, the other sought out work himself.

Bgy. Luklukan Sur, Jose Panganiban

Total population: 2,134

Significant characteristics relevant to the study: Jose Panganiban is a third class coastal municipality. Fishing, small-scale mining, farming, and vending are among the various means of livelihood.

The mention of child issues leads to the subject of child labour in the gold mines of Bgy. Luklukan Sur, which has a population of 2,134 with 421 households. The area is said to still have a vast reserve of gold ore that still remains untapped. The location of these ore bodies has made it quite expensive for big mining corporations to continue their operations. Small-scale mining, with its relatively lower overhead cost favours community ventures.

In Bgy Luklukan Sur, children work with or for their families in small mining groups called “korporasyon.” Videoke bars that reportedly employ minors as GROs, waitresses, and cashiers were set up by enterprising outsiders, who recruit their employees from other municipalities of the province. The issues in the area include child labour involving local residents, trafficking by videoke bar owners and prostitution. The first two issues are not well-recognized by the community, whereas the last, prostitution, has been seen to affect the fabric of family and community life.

Summaries:

Area Activity	Mun. of Daet	Bgy. Aguit-it, Mun. of Vinzons	Bgy. Dalas, Mun. of Labo	Mun. of Jose Panganiban
Interview	- DOLE – Imelda Romanillos and Cecil Andalis - PSWDO – Lorna De Claro - MSWDO – Gloceline Buñag - DSWD, Regional Office – Antonina Gutierrez - MHO – Dr. Jose Magano - PPDO – Ellen Austria - SPACFI – Toto and Fr. Ronaldo Rodelas	Two boys from Bgy. Aguit-it – victims of a recruiter	Three girls, five boys	- Mayor William Lim - MHO – Dr. Vicente Asis - MSWDO – Severa Alejandro - PNP – Angie, PO1 - PRRM – Pepito Romero
FGD	None	Six Barangay Captains, MSWDO, PESO Manager, three mothers of recruited children, DILG, PNP	Three mothers, One BHW, One Kagawad, One mother also representing the women workers' group (Samahan ng Kababaihang Manggagawa ng Dalas)	21 community members – barangay officials, members of women's group, local council, teacher
Documents	- DOLE - Statistics on Worst	None	None	- PRRM - A Baseline Survey of

Area Activity	Mun. of Daet	Bgy. Aguit-it, Mun. of Vinzons	Bgy. Dalas, Mun. of Labo	Mun. of Jose Panganiban
	Forms of Child Labour E.O. Organizing the Provincial Task Force Sagip Batang Manggagawa Summary report of rescued victims at Luklukan Sur, J. Pangiban PSWDO Reported child trafficking and prostitution cases in 2002-2003 from different municipalities E.O. reorganizing the Provincial Steering Committee and Technical Working Group for the CPC V in Camarines Norte E.O. creating the PCWC PPDO Structure of the Technical Working Group of the CPC V program for the province of Camarines Norte Local Plan of Operations between the province of Camarines Norte and UNICEF 1999–2003 The Situation of Women and Children in Camarines Norte Y 2003 Socio-economic profile brief (2004) Master list of CNSP cases (provincial summary and municipal summary) Police Provincial Office Special report on neutralization of criminal gang (Gonzales Gang) leader and member and recovery of two victims who were minors Statistics on Crimes against Children, Violence against Women Y 2003 Statistics on Crimes against Children Jan–July 2004 Child trafficking cases SPACFI Cross Tabulations (of CSEC) By Municipality And Barangay			Working Children in 9 Small-Scale Mining Villages in Camarines Norte, Y 2004 MSWDO – same data as DOLE

NORTHERN SAMAR

General characteristics of the province of Northern Samar

Total land area: 349,800 hectares

Population: 459,195 as of 1995

The province has an annual population growth rate of 3.2 with 43.4 percent comprising the 15 years of age and below group. More than half (52.7 percent) belong to the 15 to 64 year old bracket and a meager 3.9 percent are at least 65 years old.

Average household size: Five

Political divisions: 24 municipalities

Significant characteristics relevant to the study: Northern Samar is an agricultural province with coconut farming as the major industry.

The mention of trafficking in Northern Samar immediately brings to the fore the ferry route from Allen, Northern Samar, to Matnog, Sorsogon. This is a critical part of the trafficking route from the south to Luzon, with Matnog as entry point. Majority of the traffic is northbound, with recruits generally coming from Mindanao.

Summaries:

Area Activity	Matnog	Allen	Provincial Office	Regional Office VIII – Tacloban City
Interview	▪ Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. – Evelyn Valencia, Regional Coordinator ▪ PNP Matnog – Insp. Nonito Marquez ▪ PNP Maritime Group – PO1 Nicanor dela Cruz, Jr. ▪ Lockheed Security Agency Head Security Guard Eddie Camba ▪ M/V Princess of Mayon – Capt. Rogelio Durano, and Chief Mate Julian Sacayan ▪ Three male victims of trafficking-Omay, Jun-Jun, Chito	▪ Baricuatro Wharfage and Terminal Corp. – Mr. Zenon Gutay, Port Manager ▪ Ship Crew of E. Tabinas Ent. – Capt. Calixto Adolfo, Allan Manito, ticketing crew ▪ RSW of ANGKAS – Ms Bibeth		▪ DOLE Regional Office VIII – Flordeliz Geonzon, Child Labor Coordinator ▪ DSWD – Misericordia Gallano, SWO
FGD	None	None	None	None

Area Activity	Matnog	Allen	Provincial Office	Regional Office VIII – Tacloban City
Documents	Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. ▪ Distribution of Assisted Women and Children/Type of Service (for the month of June 2004) ▪ Presentation handout on Granting/Renewal of Authority to Recruit, Recruitment Procedure, Placement, etc. ▪ Cumulative report – Nov 2003–March 2004, Jan 2004–March 2004, 1 March 2004–31 May 2004 ▪ Quarterly report Jan–Mar 2004 ▪ Intake sheet of 21 recruits by MRB Placement Services ➢ Clearance certification from DOLE Regional Office X ➢ Clearance Certification from the City of Valencia ➢ Authority to recruit from DOLE Regional Office X ▪ Intake sheet with various documents of 13 recruits by Orange International Placement Services ➢ Mayor’s Special Permit (City of Tagum) ➢ POEA Special Authority ➢ Certificate of Renewal (POEA) ➢ Certificate of release to Pepe G. Peña ▪ Case Summaries 46 Recruits from Davao Aliya Job Placement Services ➢ Four female recruits from Tanangan, W. Samar ➢ Six female recruits from N. Samar ➢ 11 recruits from Davao and S. Cotabato ➢ 10 recruits from Davao ➢ 13 recruits from Davao ➢ Nine recruits from Surigao del Sur ➢ Eight recruits from Leyte ➢ 21recruits from Davao ➢ Eight recruits from Davao and S. Cotabato ➢ 22 recruits from Davao ➢ 30 recruits from MRB ➢ Seven recruits from Misamis Oriental, and Bukidnon ➢ Seven recruits from Davao, S. Cotabato ➢ Irish Pinero, 16 yrs old ▪ Various clearance certificates of placement agencies	None	DSWD ▪ CPC V Local Plan of Operations PNP ▪ Educational attainment of youth offenders for year 2001, 2002, 2003	DOLE ▪ List of rescued child laborers (2002-2003) ▪ Sagip Batang Manggagawa – Report on Rescued/Referred Child Laborers 2002 ▪ Documentation on the cases filed – Child Labor Program

CEBU CITY

General characteristics of Cebu City²

Total Population:	718,821
Land area:	330.29 square kilometers
Household population:	714,388
Number of households:	147,600 (1995)
Population density:	2,093 per square kilometer

The presence of large urban areas in its immediate and outlying vicinity has transformed the City of Cebu into an urban core and commercial centre, with a pattern of activities that respects no boundaries due to the unrestricted and unavoidable flow of goods and people. The prime destination of these movements is the areas and/or vicinities of Carbon, Magallanes, and Colon Streets, which form part of the Central Business District (CBD). Heavy traffic flow and traffic congestion occur in the CBD, particularly during peak hours. This situation is aggravated by the presence of six major universities with large student populations and their corresponding demand for transportation.

As a regional centre, the city continues to radiate its influence on the rest of the Visayas and Mindanao. It must be noted that for the last four decades after World War II, the City of Cebu has metamorphosed into the centre of education and culture; the hub of sea and air transport; and the center of trade and commerce. With Cebu City developing into a polar growth centre and providing relief for in-migration to the Metro Manila Area to a considerable degree, it has absorbed the burdens of a high rate of migration from all over the Visayas and Mindanao.

Despite lack of proper coordination of development programs and economic activities within the Metro Cebu area, the presence of other growth centres in the outlying areas; the continually aggregating economic activities within Cebu City through additional investment inputs; increasing and improving exports; the establishment of more industries in Mandaue City; and, the implementation of government infrastructure projects have contributed to additional opportunities for employment and income, consequently enlarging the consumer base. Further, these conditions would have largely promoted the broadening of the city's income and/or tax base.

Bgy. Kamagayan:

Total population:	1,898
Household population:	1,846

²SOURCE: http://www.cebucity.gov.ph/general_info/general_info.html. Cebu City as Metropolitan and Regional Center, Accessed on 12 August 2004.

Number of Households: 413

Class: Urban Barangay

Location: Barangay Kamagayan is centrally located in the city, with its residents having convenient access to the Central Business District, schools, and church. The study area is part of a block that is bounded by Sanciango, Junquera, P. del Rosario and D. Jakosalem Streets.

The interviews were done in the barangay hall, which was situated near Sanciango and D. Jakosalem streets.

Type of Residents: The barangay’s location and the availability of transportation to many of the key areas of the city has, historically, allowed for a mixed population, including both permanent residents and transients, the latter being students.

Significant characteristics relevant to the study: Historically, this barangay has always been known to have a red light district, traditionally that area cutting through the length of the block near Sanciango St.

The block has suffered two major conflagrations in the past 30 years, which has caused many of its permanent residents to move out. Those who had lesser means and were either attached to the place or dependent on the business that it provided remained. As a consequence, the structures have become smaller and of less durable material, and the red light district has expanded.

The red light area consists of small businesses, with the *casas* apparently distributed. Prostitution is the main source of livelihood, with the actual jobs ranging from: pimping or being a “handler,” to owning and managing a *casa*, providing a room for sexual activities, providing entertainment services like computer games, to selling illegal drugs, among others.

In the evening, pimps and girls/women ply their trade on the streets near the said block. It should be noted, though, that the same scenario can be seen in other streets of the city, even in the more respectable areas. Both pimps and sex workers aggressively approach cars and individuals that pass through the streets.

Apparently, it is possible for a child/woman to just go into the area and explore employment possibilities in the *casa*. Being used to transients, the area is hospitable to outsiders and acceptance into the area as well as employment are not difficult to get.

Some *casa* owners either go out by themselves or hire someone to go to the provinces to recruit girls who can work for them. Apparently, as gleaned

from those interviewed, the kind of recruitment process is such that the potential recruits know what they are getting into, with no one being lied to or deceived into the business.

Those who live in the *casa* are treated as family and are inducted into a life of materialism through access to an individual who provides clothes, jewelry, cosmetics, and other accessories of the trade. The recruit unconsciously gets into a life of debt bondage.

On initial query about the presence of female sex workers below 18 years of age, the response is negative. Further questioning draws a picture of two general areas where minors are allegedly housed. Six minors were actually interviewed.

Community-level interviews and FGD were conducted only in this barangay (for Cebu City) as the NGO contact worked mainly in this community.

Data gathering limitations:

Summaries:

Area Activity	Barangay Kamagayan	Regional Offices	City Offices	NGOs
Interview	Six girls	- DOLE - DSWD	- City Public Information Office - City Government- GIS - Knowledge Center - CSWDO - PNP- WCD	- FREELAVA - JPIC Consortium - Bidlisiw
FGD	Pimps, couples, family of trafficker, sex worker, youth	None	None	None
Documents	Transcription of interviews and filled out data matrix	DSWD - A.O. 15, 2004. Policies for the Media Coverage of Victims of Abuse & Exploitation - DSWD VII Accomplishment Report Y 2004 – Statistics on CEDP/CNSP	Knowledge Center - Statistics (Child Health, Basic Education, Water and Sanitation) City GIS - Map of Cebu City showing casas, and addresses PNP - Cases – statistics (Comparative crime statistics, youth offenses, W & C Protection Desk Accomplishment Report 2003)	FREELAVA - Survey on the Demographic Origins of Commercial Sex Workers in Cebu City JPIC Consortium - Center for WINGS - Workshop output/matrix containing trafficked children’s origin & destination, modus operandi (5p) Bidlisiw Foundation - AIDS Surveillance & Education Project Report - Special Report on the Rescue Operation of Prostituted Women and Children (16p)

ILOILO CITY

General characteristics of the City of Iloilo

Total land area:	56 square kilometers
Population:	365,820 (2000)
Political divisions:	Six Districts 180 Barangays
Significant characteristics relevant to the study:	Iloilo City is one of the major cities in the country and the regional centre of Western Visayas. The city continues to stride towards being the socio-economic centre of the region. Its main sources of income are agriculture, fishing, and tourism. The city, with a current employment rate of 79.5 percent, has become an attractive destination for job-seekers from nearby provinces. The entry of multi-million investments and the rise of private establishments resulted in an increased demand for entertainment and, consequently, in the number of night spots in the area. This became one of the major attractions of local and foreign travelers. The practice of celebrating annual festivities in Iloilo City and neighbouring cities/provinces has added to the influx of tourists at specific times of the year. These events have provided the opportunity of organized trafficking of women and children from one place to another for sexual exploitation.
Data gathering limitations:	No FGD was conducted in Iloilo City because of the difficulty of organizing it in a community with no NGO counterpart.

Summaries:

Area Activity	Barangay Ayala and Barangay Delgado	Bacolod City ³	Regional Offices	City Offices	NGOs
Interview	Six girls	None	- DOLE - DSWD - NEDA - CHR	- CSWDO - PNP	PROCESS
FGD	None	Community leaders,	None	None	Visayan Forum, the

³The results of the interviews in Iloilo City showed a strong link between the extent of trafficking for sexual exploitation with the celebrations/events that occur in the city as well as in neighbouring cities/towns. The FGD in Bacolod City confirmed the existence of an exchange mechanism between it and Iloilo City - one serves as sending, the other as destination.

Area Activity	Barangay Ayala and Barangay Delgado	Bacolod City ³	Regional Offices	City Offices	NGOs
		mothers' group, youth, government agencies			initial NGO contact, could arrange an FGD for the team only in Bacolod City (they had no community in Iloilo City)
Documents	Filled out data matrix		NEDA - The Children of Western Visayas - powerpoint presentation (Situationer of Children in Region 6) - Socio-economic profile	PNP - Task Force Adams Apple: statistical data on number of registered "establishments & workers", no. of boarding houses inspected - List of reported cases related to abuse of women and children's - Stats on cases Involving Youth Offenders and violations on RA 7610 - One Police Report on child trafficking	

DAVAO CITY

General characteristics of the City of Davao

Total land area:	Davao is considered one of the world's largest cities in terms of land area, covering 244,000 hectares of land with about 70 percent characterized by extensive mountain ranges with uneven distribution of plateaus and lowlands. Davao is approximately 7.8 times the size of Cebu and three times that of the entire Metro Manila.
Population:	Davao City is home to about 1.3 million people. It has an annual population growth rate of 3.22 percent. Its inhabitants are of mixed ethnic origin representing people from all regions of the Philippines with major traces of Malay, Chinese, Spanish and Arabic heritage. Cebuano is the dominant ethnic dialect while Filipino constitutes one of the major spoken languages, which include English and Chinese. Davao is predominantly Roman Catholic. Other faiths practiced are Protestantism and Islam.

Political divisions:	Davao is subdivided into 11 administrative districts, namely, Poblacion, Talomo, Buhangin, Bunawan, Agdao, Paquibato, Toril, Tugbok, Calinan, Baguio and Marilog Districts.
Significant characteristics relevant to the study:	The strategic location of Davao City, the progressive nature of its businesses and the opportunities for further expansion all contribute to migration, tourism, perceived higher probabilities for employment and other factors that promote trafficking. The prioritization by the city of activities against terrorism has set aside the need to address the issue of trafficking. The desire to promote the city as a tourist attraction has led to at least one collaboration between an organized Filipino-Japanese community in the city and partners in Japan. Visits were arranged for Japanese tourists initially for cultural exposure. Presently, this has become a venue for young Filipino women to find Japanese partners. This is seen to be a potential mechanism for trafficking.

Summaries:

Area Activity	Barangay Sasa	Davao City Offices	NGOs
Interview	Interview with a young woman who was trafficked to Manila; she was promised a job as entertainer in Japan, but ended up doing odd jobs in Metro Manila. Her mother sent money so she could return home.	- Women's and Children's Concerns, PNP - DSWD - DOLE - CSWDO - NEDA IX - Seven children (five c/o Visayan Forum and two from Talikala)	- Talikala Main Office & Drop-in Center - Visayan Forum: Bahay Silungan sa Daungan - TAMBAYAN: Center for Abused Children
FGD	- A total of 16 participants participated during the FGD. The FGD was attended by mothers and a father of women who are currently working in Japan as entertainers. There were three women who previously worked entertainers in Japan. One participant is waiting for her next contract as entertainer and will be leaving soon. - Most of them were recruited by an agenY known as MARCONI which was later known as FREESIZE Recruitment AgenY - Two of the former entertainers asked for assistance regarding the birth certificates of their children sired by their Japanese partners. - One older woman asked for assistance to find her daughter in Japan who has not communicated with her for the last 10 years.		Attended a workshop-seminar organized by Talikala for women and girls in prostitution

Area Activity	Barangay Sasa	Davao City Offices	NGOs
Documents		DOLE - Statistics on child labor of Southern Mindanao - Assistance/interventions rendered to minors recruited in Region XI - List of Licensed Recruitment Agencies (as of 31 December 2003) - Updates/statistics on the National Program Against Child Labor in Region XI - List of licensed private recruitment and placement agencies, list of PRPA branch Offices, list of authorized local recruiters in region XI - Children and Youth in Selected Communities in the City of Davao – A Quick Appraisal PNP - Reported cases of child trafficking in Region XI DSWD - List of rescued minors illegally recruited from region XI c/o Haven for Women-DSWD-NCR	TAMBAYAN (Center for the Care of Abused Children, Inc.) - Summary of trafficked children from Davao to various local and international destinations - List of trafficked children in the Agdao area and in Bangkerohan area. Visayan Forum – Bahay Silungan sa Daungan - Mid year report – client's distribution by case categories, nature of cases, referring parties, gender and age, educational attainment, by region, reasons of coming to Manila, previous work status, success indicators and type of service.

ZAMBOANGA DEL SUR

General characteristics of Zamboanga del Sur

Total land area:	735,769 hectares, which makes part of 39 percent of the total land area of Region IX
Population:	1,217,758 (1995)
Political divisions:	42 municipalities in Zamboanga del Sur and one city
Significant characteristics relevant to the study:	The province is mostly used for agriculture, which covers 42.8 percent of agricultural land, 16.6 percent forest land, 6.5 percent mangrove/fishpond and marshes; 33.8 percent grasses and shrubs and 0.4 percent residential and commercial. ⁴

⁴ Data were taken from the CPC V report on zamboanga del Sur

Its strategic location favors entry/exit to the country from Malaysia. Transportation to Sandakan and Kota Kinabalu is highly accessible. This facilitates trading activities between Zamboanga and Malaysia.

Out-migration occurs to a higher degree, and mainly for employment. Minors are trafficked out of the country for sexual exploitation and labor.

Data gathering limitations: The team limited its field work to Zamboanga City, considering that it is the regional center and data from the province (the seat of which is Pagadian City) is submitted there. Provincial cases are consolidated in the DSWD and DOLE offices in Zamboanga City.

The strategic location of Zamboanga City where transport and travel was noted. The city is found at the tip of the Zamboanga Peninsula, and is therefore of greater proximity to the more affluent destination areas of Sandakan and Kota Kinabalu.

Summaries:

Area Activity	Bgy. Sta. Catalina, Zamboanga City	Zamboanga City Offices	Regional Offices	NGOs
Interview		- CSWDO - DILG - PNP	- DOLE - WMSU –WRRC - DSWD IX - PCTC - Crisis intervention Unit - NEDA	HDES
FGD	The FGD was attended by a Barangay Kagawad, the community's health inspector and local residents of the area.		None	None
Documents			DSWD - Summary of Accomplishments (1997–2002) - Revised guidelines on the organization/reorganization of the local sub-committees for the welfare of children - Accomplishment report (first two quarters of 2004) DOLE - Highlights of Accomplishments 2003 – National Program Against Child Labor (NPACL) - Data on Child/Women Trafficking, Illegal Recruitment and Migrants - Situation of Child Laborers in the Zamboanga Port Area of Zamboanga City - Child Labor Updates (2001)	

Area Activity	Bgy. Sta. Catalina, Zamboanga City	Zamboanga City Offices	Regional Offices	NGOs
			2001 Survey on Children 5-17 years old: regional report, Region IX – Western Mindanao - A study on the incidence of child labour in Sibutad Municipality, Zamboanga Del Norte – Region IX - Updated list of Child labourers in Zamboanga City, December 5, 2003 - Memorandum of Agreement for Executing Agencies NEDA - The RDC Communicator - Human development sector report PNP – City Police - Complaint Assignment Sheet	

QUEZON CITY

General characteristics of Quezon City

Location and land area: Quezon City is at the northeastern portion of Metro Manila. It has a land area of 16,112.12 hectares, almost one-fourth of the National Capital Region (NCR) and is the biggest among NCR's 12 cities and five municipalities. Situated on the Guadalupe Plateau, the city's topography is largely rolling with alternating ridges and lowlands. The southern region of the city has low-grade terrain while the northern half is undulating, culminating at the Novaliches Reservoir. Served by a network of rivers and creeks, the city is efficiently drained except for some portions which experience flash floods due to the deterioration of waterways.

The city shares an aquifer system with Metro Manila which, due to overdrawing, has been subjected to saltwater intrusion. Another feature which it shares with the rest of the region is the Valley (Marikina) Fault System traversing the city's eastern portion.

Population: Quezon City has a population of 2,173,831 people, the largest in Metro Manila. The population is spread over four districts and 142 barangays. District II is the most densely populated area.

Distribution, by District

District I	382,167
District II	942,074
District III	267,568
District IV	397,610

Average annual population growth rate (1995 - 2000) is 1.92%. By the year 2005, it is estimated that 2,390,688 people would be living in Quezon City.

Other population statistics:

- Majority female at 52 percent, male at 48 percent
- Marital Status: 48 percent single, 47 percent married
- Generally young population with average age of 24 years old
- Population of working age (15 years old and older) is 1,486,000 or 67 percent of total population
- Density - 135 persons/hectare
- People of Quezon City are of mixed regional origin as they are mostly migrants from different parts of the country
- Predominant Religion : Roman Catholic (99 percent)

Economy: Business in the city is dominated by small and medium-scale establishments engaged mostly in the distribution of finished products and the provision of basic personal services. With a sizeable portion of the city's land area being developed for commercial and industrial ventures, complemented by the availability of a large manpower pool, Quezon City has great potential to support an increase in the number of big businesses in the city.

Significant characteristics relevant to the study: Like the other cities of the National Capital Region, Quezon City is perceived to be a good source of employment opportunities, therefore attracting migrants. It is a probable destination for trafficked persons.

Summaries:

Area Activity	City Offices	NGOs
Interview	▪ MSWDO ▪ SAGIP-K coordinator	End Child Prostitution in Asian Tourism (ECPAT) ▪ Mylene ▪ Mary Joy
FGD	None	None
Documents	▪ CPC V Local Plan of operations between the City of Quezon and UNICEF 1999-2003 ▪ Sagip – k database	

PASAY CITY

General characteristics of Pasay City

- Total land area** 18.50 square kilometers
- Population** 1998 estimates show that Pasay City has a population of around 408,610. Pasay is considered as densely populated area in Metro Manila, registering an average population of 22,087 persons per square kilometers. The congestion of the city could be attributed to the great number of business establishments situated within the city.⁵
- Political divisions** Pasay is composed of seven districts, divided into 20 zones and with a total of 201 Barangays.
- Businesses** The city is known for its entertainment business, restaurants and coffee shops. A great portion of Metro Manila’s “tourist belt” is situated in Pasay City.

Summaries:

Area Activity	Barangay	City Offices	NGOs
Interview	▪ Social worker – SERRAS foundation	▪ PNP- WCCD – Inspector Mila Carrasco	▪ Community and Family Services International, Inc.
FGD		None	None
Documents	None	PNP-WCCD ▪ Transmittal letter (with accompanying statements/documents) of PNP-WCCD to the Pasay City Prosecutor regarding the arrest of an alleged handler of minors for sexual activities (violation of R.A. 9208) ▪ List of court cases concerning violence against children (Jan – Nov 2003) ▪ Case load reports of the CSWDO on children (Jan – Dec 2003)	▪ SERRAS Youth Home for Girls ▪ Annual accomplishment report

⁵ CPC V, Local Plan of Operations for Pasay City

MANILA

General characteristics of the City of Manila

Total land area	38.3 square kilometers
Population	1.7 million
Political divisions	Six Congressional Districts 897 Barangays
Population density	43,211/sq.km
Average family size	4.14

Significant characteristics relevant to the study:

Manila is a highly urbanized City, with businesses, goods and services as the main source of income. Still considered by many Filipinos as the premiere city, there has been unabated domestic migration and 23 percent of the city is occupied by “informal sector” colonies. There is an estimated 150,000 migrants/annum.

Because of the perceived opportunities in Manila, it continues to be attractive to migrants seeking employment opportunities. It is therefore a destination area for trafficked persons, with the supposedly “better” recruits placed in the city and the others brought to neighbouring provinces.

Summaries:

Area Activity	City Offices	NGOs	Community
Interview	Manila Department Of Social Welfare - Ms. Violeta de Jesus, RWSO IV Wpd-Women And Childrens Concern Section - Insp. Zhirlanda Worley City Planning And Development Office - Virgilio Hernandez	Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. Bahay Silungan Sa Daungan(Pier-North) Interview with Rizza, Alita, Perlito, Belle and respondent no. 4	
FGD	None	None	Pandacan Bantay Bata sa Komunidad- Purok: Banana, Ilang-ilang, Obesis, Dapo, Kahilom, Zamora, Gaplos,
Documents	Manila Department Of Social Welfare - Manila City at a glance - Implementing guidelines on Fifth Country Programme for Children	- ASIA-ACTS Study (Additional materials are still being secured from ECPAT)	

Area Activity	City Offices	NGOs	Community
	- Memorandum of Agreement Fifth Country Programme of Co-operation for Filipino Children (City of Manila) - Draft-Manila City Code for Children WPD-WCCS - Summary of cases involving child trafficking (Jan. 25, 2004-Feb.25, 2004) - Women and Children's Concern Section report for 2003 City Planning And Development Office - Socio-economic profile and Development plan (CD-RW)		

PROJECT TEAM

Project Director	Ramonesa R. Ricardo
Project Manager	Ryan Jae Mark C. Cleofas
Project Consultants	Clarence G. Pascual Atty. Robert L. Larga Aida Santos
Project Team	Emerson C. Enriquez Rex B. Valerio
Support Staff	Elizabeth Duran Ma. Isabel B. Bellen Ludivina T. Tebelin
Project Partners	
Metro Manila	Manila Department of Social Welfare City Planning and Development Office Western Police District - Women and Children's Concern Office Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc.
Quezon City	End Child Prostitution in Asian Tourism (ECPAT) Quezon City Social Welfare Services Division Barangay South Triangle – Sagip K Program
Pasay City	City Planning Office Pasay City Social Welfare and Development Office Pasay City CPC V Programme Office PNP Pasay City Women and Children's Concern Desk Community and Family Services International Virianie Foundation, Inc. Serras Home for Girls
Cebu City	Department of Labor Employment Region VII Department of Social Welfare and Development Region VII Cebu City Social Welfare and Development Office City Public Information Office City Knowledge Center PNP Cebu City Free Legal Assistance Volunteers Association, Inc. (FREELAVA) BIDLISIW Foundation, Inc. JPIC-IDC, Inc.
Camarines Norte	Department of Labor and Employment (Regional Satellite Office - Daet) Provincial Planning and Development Office Provincial Social Welfare and Development Office Socio-Pastoral Action Center Foundation, Inc. Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement PNP Provincial Office Women's Desk Municipal Government of Daet Municipal Government of Jose Panganiban Municipal Government of Vinzons Barangay Council of Aguit-it Barangay Council of Dalas Barangay Council of Luklukan Sur
Northern Samar	Provincial Planning and Development Office Department of Social Welfare and Development, Region VIII Department of Labor and Employment, Region VIII Tacloban City Department of Social Welfare and Development Bahay Silungan sa Daungan, Matnog, Sorsogon – Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. PNP Matnog Lockheed Security Agency M/V Princess of Mayon Balecuatro Wharfage and Terminal Corp. E. Tabinas Enterprises

Iloilo City	Department of Labor and Employment Region VI Department of Social Welfare and Development Region VI National Economic and Development Authority Region VI Commission on Human Rights PNP Iloilo City Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc. PROCESS
Davao City	National Economic and Development Authority Region XI Department of Labor and Employment Region XI Department of Social Welfare and Development Region XI Davao City Social Welfare and Development Office TALIKALA Foundation TAMBAYAN Center for Abused Children Bahay Silungan sa Daungan, Davao City – Visayan Forum Foundation, Inc.
Zamboanga del Sur	Philippine Center for Transnational Crime, West Mindanao Office Zamboanga City Social Welfare and Development Office Zamboanga City PNP Department of Labor and Employment Region Office IX Department of Social Welfare and Development Region IX Western Mindanao State University – WRRC National Economic and Development Authority Region IX HDES