The Incidence of Sexual Exploitation of Children in Tourism

A report commissioned by the World Tourism Organization

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The rapid growth of international tourism does not only represent an economic boon for most tourism destinations; it sometimes also produces negative socio-cultural impacts which become evident, in particular, in the exploitation of human beings through sex tourism. This abhorrent phenomenon is even more repulsive when those who are directly affected by it are children and adolescents.

The sexual exploitation of children in tourism is a problem which concerns all countries worldwide, tourism-receiving and tourism-sending countries alike.

The Members of the World Tourism Organization (WTO) have taken a firm stand against this practice by unanimously adopting the WTO Statement on the Prevention of Organized Sex Tourism (1995) and the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (1999), the latter affording tourism stakeholders the possibility of addressing the issue of child exploitation within an internationally agreed framework for the responsible and sustainable development of tourism.

By the end of 2000, the WTO and the European Union decided to pool resources to combat what is commonly known under the term “child sex tourism” through a series of interrelated projects that were carried out within the context of the International campaign against sexual exploitation of children in tourism. The European Commission provided a grant of almost one million euros to co-fund various actions by WTO and its NGO partners aimed at raising awareness, facilitating education and training, and carrying out research on this subject. The preparation and publication of the present report is part of these activities.

The objectives of this report on The Incidence of Sexual Exploitation of Children in Tourism are to identify and assess the magnitude of the practice of “child sex tourism” in order to provide decision-makers and general public with a clearer understanding of the phenomenon, as well as to identify critical areas in tourism networks for the elaboration of a comprehensive plan of action to effectively combat all forms of sexual exploitation.

Two teams of researchers based in the East Asia and the Pacific region worked simultaneously during several months on this assignment. The first team, led by Ms Christine Beddoe, studied the subject from the tourism receiving countries’ perspective, focusing on destinations such as Cambodia, Thailand and Indonesia. The second group, formed by Professors Michael Hall and Chris Ryan, concentrated on tourism generating countries like Australia and New Zealand.
The report on *The Incidence of Sexual Exploitation of Children in Tourism* provides valuable information, illustrated by case studies, on the nature and extent of this phenomenon, methodology and tools for use in awareness-raising campaigns and in monitoring of such campaigns, as well as recommendations addressed to public and private tourism stakeholders.

Francesco Frangialli  
Secretary-General  
World Tourism Organization
The World Tourism Organization (WTO) would like to thank Ms. Christine Beddoe, WTO consultant & researcher and Program Manager of Child Wise Tourism – Australia, as well as Professors Michael Hall of the University of Otago, New Zealand, and Chris Ryan of the University of Waikato, New Zealand, for the preparation of Part I and Part II of this report respectively. WTO is also grateful to Ms. Carly Hammond, Research and Project Assistant, for drafting the Executive Summary of this study.

The Secretariat of the WTO and Ms. Christine Beddoe would like to express their gratitude to the following people for their assistance in compiling the first part of the report: Ms. Carly Hammond and Ms. Tawiporn Songtaweesin, Mr. Wayan Jendra, Head of Department and the students from the Tourism Department of Bali Polteknik Negeri, Mr. Heng Vannak of Diethelm Travel for his insights, Ms. Rosy and Mr. Rohman for their research and extraordinary commitment and the many NGOs, travel and tourism workers and committed people that have been interviewed in the course of this study. A special recognition goes to Ms. Bernadette McMenamin and staff of ECPAT Australia for their input and support.

The preparation of this study on the Incidence of Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in Tourism has been undertaken under the supervision of Mr. Henryk Handszuh, Chief of Quality of Tourism Development, WTO. Former International Campaign Coordinator, Ms. Perla Goseco, briefed and synchronised the two research teams. International Campaign Coordinator Ms. Marina Diotallevi and Senior Assistant Coordinator Ms. Celia Garcia-Contenente reviewed draft text and tables and did the final editing of the report.
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World Tourism Organization’s report *The Incidence of Sexual Exploitation of Children in Tourism* comprises two studies which examine the commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC) in tourism networks from the perspectives of tourist-receiving and tourist-sending countries. The report considers the effectiveness of existing international campaigns, identifies critical areas involving the tourism industry and makes recommendations for the prevention of this exploitation in the short and long term.

In her study on tourist-receiving countries, Christine Beddoe provides a detailed background of the phenomenon and outlines previous efforts and campaigns to end the commercial sexual exploitation of children in tourism. Including studies of three South-East Asian tourism destinations – Cambodia, Thailand and Bali, Indonesia – she provides insight into the different manifestations of CSEC in tourism, and outlines initiatives and activities undertaken to date. Beddoe makes a number of recommendations on how the tourism industry can work, both in collaboration with other stakeholders and within its own sectors, to end CSEC in tourism. In their study, C. Michael Hall and Chris Ryan focus on the relationship between child exploitation and wider social issues such as people trafficking, labour exploitation and the legal status of sex work. They identify attributes of a successful monitoring campaign and highlight the importance of establishing clear objectives and working alongside broader social and economic policies.

Best known through the international media as ‘child sex tourism’, the commercial sexual exploitation of children in tourism is part of a wider global phenomenon. Defined by Beddoe in Section 1 of her study, *child sex tourism* involves the sexual abuse and exploitation of children by those who do not normally live in the location where the abuse takes place. It includes children abused and exploited through their involvement in: (a) prostitution and sex tourism, (b) paedophilia-related child abuse, and (c) pornography. CSEC in tourism involves domestic and international tourists and business travellers, and also refers to expatriates who are temporary residents in the location where the abuse has taken place. It often runs parallel to the local sex industry; and similarly, may be supported and patronised by locals.

The incidence of child abuse and exploitation in tourism destinations has increased in recent years, with tourism being used as a vehicle for easy access to vulnerable children. In Section 1 of their study, Hall and Ryan point out that the nature of CSEC in tourism has also changed over time, away from formal industry structures such as sex tours to more informal networks, often operating via the Internet. Beddoe explains that child abuse in tourism destinations occurs in a range of settings – contact may take place in restaurants, bars or in public spaces while abuse often occurs in private houses, guesthouses and even in large hotels. A variety of tourism mechanisms may be used, including taxi drivers, tour guides, and the relaxation of cultural and social boundaries that are often found in a tourism environment.
As both studies attest, CSEC in tourism is inextricably linked to social and economic conditions at the local and global levels, and wider issues including the trafficking of people, demands for cheap labour and gender inequalities. While poverty is often cited as the root cause of CSEC, this explanation does not go far enough in explaining why some groups are more vulnerable than others. Nor does it acknowledge the influence a burgeoning tourism industry can have on traditional economies. Beddoe explains in Section 3 of her study that, in parts of South-East Asia where tourism has replaced rural economies, many children from poor families are forced to seek out new opportunities for employment in the tourist areas. They have little hope of finding work in the formal sector and are particularly at risk of abuse and exploitation.

As illustrated through the examination of child sex tourism in Thailand, Cambodia and Bali, the phenomenon flourishes in places where other crimes exist, indicating its relationship to a wider illegal economy. The illegal status of prostitution in many countries locates the sex industry directly within organized criminal networks. The flows of children being trafficked for the purposes of prostitution tend to mirror wider trends of trafficking in women and children into other kinds of work. So too does traffickers’ use of coercive tactics such as deception, physical force and debt bondage.

Children who are victims of CSEC in tourism are usually those who are already vulnerable because of poverty and social exclusion. Following Beddoe’s profile in Section 1 of her study, victims include children who live and work on the streets or on the fringes of tourist areas, those who have been trafficked, lured or sold into the sex industry, those without access to education and those forced or made responsible to support the family. There are certain groups who are particularly vulnerable to exploitation such as ethnic minorities, street children, migrants, children orphaned by AIDS and children who are currently working near border areas. Most often it is girls who are the victims. As illustrated in the Bali case study in Section 2, these children tend to operate in a variety of ways and may have other informal employment within the tourism sector, such as selling souvenirs, that assists them in attracting clients.

Despite the focus on foreign, specifically western, men as the primary culprits of abuse in tourist areas, ‘child sex tourism’ is not solely the domain of the Western tourist. In the case of South-East Asia, a greater proportion of offenders are Asian nationals who come from within the country where the abuse occurs or from surrounding countries. Hence a receiving country may also double as a sending country. From actual case studies we can see that child sex offenders cannot be treated as a homogenous group – there are different motivations, attitudes and patterns of offending. While some offenders are paedophiles, others are sex tourists or prostitute users who have abused children through their involvement in prostitution. Others may use sexual aggression to exert power, rather than to fulfill a sexual desire for children. In some instances, past victims of child abuse appear as abusers.

Increasingly, child sex offenders are sharing personal pornographic photo collections and exchanging information about where to holiday with a global audience using Internet technology. These collections can serve as important evidence and may also provide useful insight into global pornographic distribution and paedophile networks. In Section 3 of their study, Hall and Ryan note the role governments can play in monitoring and identifying patterns on the production and distribution of child pornography, and exchanging intelligence with other countries.
Examining CSEC in tourism from the perspective of sending countries, Hall and Ryan report that it can be difficult to gather information on the activities of nationals travelling abroad and a tension exists between protecting those at risk, whilst also respecting individual rights of privacy. In the study of New Zealand in Section 2 of their report, most of the information sourced is anecdotal; there appears to be no organized sex tours and the country is yet to convict an offender since the recent introduction of extra-territorial offence legislation. In contrast, Australian police have been able to secure several convictions under the country’s extra-territorial laws.

It follows that it is nearly impossible and premature to quantify those involved in CSEC in tourism and to assess its magnitude. To effectively do so requires appropriate intervention programs and research methodologies through which appropriate comparisons within and between different locations can be made over time. The changed nature of sex tourism, mobility of child-sex workers, and variations across countries and jurisdictions (such as privacy legislation and definitions of what constitutes a ‘child’) also impede efforts to quantify the issue.

Existing campaigns to prevent CSEC in tourism have had some success in mobilizing support and raising international awareness of the issue. ECPAT (End child prostitution, child pornography and the trafficking of children for sexual purposes) has played a pivotal role in lobbying governments to enact legislation and encouraging the travel and tourism industry to participate in campaign actions. A number of smaller campaigns initiated by the tourism sector have also been successful in drawing attention to the issue. In Cambodia and Thailand, increased awareness of CSEC in tourism has been effective in prompting national tourism bodies to participate more actively.

While raising awareness is an important aspect in combating CSEC in tourism, most campaign tools have not been developed to eradicate the root causes of child sexual exploitation nor to provide protection to children. As Beddoe explains in Section 1 of her study, raising awareness is only one part of the prevention cycle; effective campaigns need to follow through with a proper evaluation process, particularly to see if and why the phenomenon still exists. Often as a result of funding bodies requiring a tangible output in the short-term, international campaigns have lacked the capacity to engage in continuing activities. Similarly, these bodies often lack guidelines that allow for participatory research or long-term impact assessments. In Section 1 of their study, Hall and Ryan emphasize the need for campaigns to establish clear objectives and indicators to monitor success. Examples of such indicators include adoption of extra-territorial legislation, numbers of successful or unsuccessful prosecutions, and numbers of children being offered rehabilitation.

Some governments and segments of the travel and tourism industry have been reluctant to support campaigns because they perceived these campaigns to be anti-tourism or anti-sex tourism. However, stakeholders are realizing that it is an issue of children’s rights and one which can negatively impact on the appeal and reputation of a tourism destination. Putting an end to CSEC in tourism entails a sense of social responsibility, political will and a multidisciplinary approach; it needs cooperation and partnership across all sectors, including the travel and tourism industry.

In each receiving country examined for Beddoe’s study, travel and tourism personnel indicated a willingness to participate in awareness campaigns and training programs on the prevention of CSEC in tourism. Yet in the majority of cases documented for this study, there is a lack of well-resourced and appropriately trained teachers who can follow up and support
long term training initiatives. This signals a further need for international campaigns to provide training tools and train-the-trainer programs.

Improving the capabilities and cooperation of local police, legal and government agencies, particularly in receiving countries, is vital in effecting and optimizing law enforcement. Embassies and consulates play an important role in the prevention of CSEC in tourism, and need to establish procedures for handling cases of child sexual abuse which involve their own nationals. As is the case in some receiving countries, embassies have actually worked to assist foreign sex offenders by applying diplomatic pressure to secure their release from prison or a dismissal of charges.

There are numerous critical areas in which the travel and tourism industry can work directly to prevent CSEC in tourism. Hotels can display posters and introduce policies that do not permit children unrelated to guests to visit guest rooms, while airports and tour operators can distribute pamphlets informing tourists of extra-territorial laws for child sex offences committed abroad. In Section 3 of her study, Beddoe recommends that the travel and tourism industry develop working partnerships with local child protection agencies and NGOs, so that awareness-raising activities become part of a more holistic prevention and protection approach. Campaigns against CSEC need to engage the sex tourism industry, both in working to end the exploitation and establishing better access to children who have been abused. The tourism and travel industry has the capacity to provide alternative education and employment opportunities for youth. Information gathered in Thailand shows at least one example of the private sector providing employment alternatives to children and successfully illustrates the leadership role that can be played by the tourism industry and its different sectors. Local business leaders and networks can also participate in international campaigns to prevent CSEC in tourism, both in terms of providing funds and demonstrating local leadership on the issue within their own community networks.

Campaigns to end CSEC in tourism, whether they are of local or global magnitude, need to be embedded within general social and economic policies that seek to raise the well being of communities. Effective campaigns should take on different guises appropriate to the local culture, and seek to preserve the cultural integrity of the communities involved. As Beddoe also comments in Section 3 of her study, campaigns need to address the social and cultural diversity of offenders and be inclusive of domestic tourism. With the protection of children being the fundamental aim, the media must respect the rights of children involved and refrain from sensationalizing the issue or showing images which degrade them further. Child witnesses who provide evidence against alleged offenders should receive special support and protection.

International campaigns to end CSEC in tourism will have a greater chance of success if they adopt a rights-based framework, engage in participatory research to gain a stronger understanding of the issue, and are approached as ongoing prevention and protection programs. By involving a range of stakeholders from the outset - from international NGOs to central governments to local businesses, including the tourism sector - campaigns may overcome common barriers such as a lack of funding, expertise and cooperation.
PART ONE

THE COMMERCIAL SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN (CSEC) IN TOURISM FROM THE TOURISM-RECEIVING COUNTRIES’ PERSPECTIVE

Preventing Child Abuse in Tourism Destinations
Case Studies from Asia

BY CHRISTINE BEDDOE
(a) Introduction

The Terms of Reference for this report required a study on the incidence of sexual exploitation of children in tourism in three countries, with a view to measuring the effectiveness of the international campaign to protect children from sexual exploitation in tourism, or as it is known through international media as ‘child sex tourism’.

The locations chosen for this study are Pattaya, Thailand; Phnom Penh, Cambodia; and Bali, Indonesia.

In order to develop a methodology two questions were established:

1. Is there evidence of sexual exploitation of children in the tourist destinations of the chosen case studies?

2. Have the existing international campaigns been effective in these countries?

The answer to question one is unambiguous - yes, there is evidence of sexual exploitation of children in the tourist destinations of each of the three locations studied. The answer to question two is less clear and is explored more in Sections 2 and 3.

This report is divided into Five sections. Section One is a discussion about ‘child sex tourism’ - what is it and why does it exist? Section Two contains the three country case studies. Section Three explores knowledge, attitudes and practices of the travel and tourism industry in those countries. Section Four contains a discussion of themes and issues relevant to the growth of ‘child sex tourism’. Section Five lists recommendations for action related to the tourism sector.

(b) Definition

Section One explores the changing dynamics of ‘child sex tourism’. For the purpose of Section Two, Three, Four and Five in this report the definition of sexual exploitation of children in tourism includes the sexual abuse and exploitation of children by those who do not normally live in the location where the abuse takes place. It includes both domestic and international tourists and business travellers. It also refers to expatriates who for whatever reason are a temporary resident in the location where the child was abused. ‘Child Sex Tourism’ in Asia is often believed to be a problem created by western tourists but this limited definition does not take into account the abuse of children by increasing numbers of Asian men travelling for business or pleasure.

‘Child sex tourism’ does not exist in a vacuum. ‘Child sex tourism’ is part of a global phenomenon called the commercial sexual exploitation of children or CSEC. According to the Declaration and the Agenda for Action from the First World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, held in Stockholm, 1996:

«The commercial sexual exploitation of children is a fundamental violation of children’s rights. It comprises sexual abuse by the adult and remuneration in cash or kind to the child or a third person or persons. The child is treated as a sexual object and as a commercial object. The commercial sexual exploitation of children constitutes a form of coercion and violence against children, and amounts to forced labour and a contemporary form of slavery»
(c) Methodology

The research methods that have been undertaken in this study include

- Literature search of articles, books and unpublished reports on sex tourism, ‘child sex tourism’, human trafficking and paedophilia;

- Literature search through relevant newspapers such as the Bangkok Post, The Nation, Pattaya Mail, Cambodia Daily, Phnom Penh Post, Jakarta Post and Bali Sun over a three year period;

- Internet search of sex tourism web sites and chat room discussions;

- In-depth interviews with police, NGO and GO’s especially child protection workers, tourism authorities, hotel staff, tour guides, taxi drivers and specialist academic researchers in Thailand (Bangkok and Pattaya), Cambodia (Phnom Penh) and Bali, Indonesia (Kuta, Legian and Ubud);

- Surveys of hotel staff in Pattaya Beach and Kuta Beach;

- Observation methods in case study locations;

- Interview questionnaire of Australians convicted of ‘child sex tourism’ offences;

- Interviews conducted at WTO/TAT Consultations held in Bangkok (July 2001);

- Local researchers and students from Mahidol University (Thailand), Udayana University (Bali) and Polytechnic Negeri (Bali) have been involved in collecting research and survey data;

(d) Abbreviations

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of South East Asian Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSEC</td>
<td>Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSW</td>
<td>Commercial sex work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSW’s</td>
<td>Commercial sex workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECPAT</td>
<td>End Child Prostitution, Pornography and Trafficking</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESCAP</td>
<td>United Nations Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoT</td>
<td>Royal Cambodian Government Ministry of Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>TAT</td>
<td>Tourism Authority of Thailand</td>
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<td>UNOPS</td>
<td>United Nations Office for Project Services</td>
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1.1. THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF ‘CHILD SEX TOURISM’

One of the first organizations to expose ‘child sex tourism’ was the Bangkok based Ecumenical Coalition On Third World Tourism (ECTWT) which had been monitoring the impact of tourism in Asia since 1982. ECTWT researchers investigated the growth in tourism related child prostitution in several Asian countries. The research found that child prostitution was reaching alarming levels and although in some instances it was linked to historical, often cultural, practices of children being abused by local men, the demand for children in prostitution was also coming from foreign tourists. While largely anecdotal, this early research exposed tourism related child prostitution in several Asian countries including Thailand, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Taiwan. The research findings gave the impetus for a number of Asian based non-governmental agencies to launch the international campaign to end child prostitution in Asian tourism (ECPAT) in 1990.

The term ‘child sex tourism’ has become its own worse enemy because ‘tourism’ and ‘sex tourism’ are rooted in the politics of development, race, gender and sex.

«Sex tourism is not an anomaly; it is one strand of a gendered tourism industry. While economists in industrialised societies presume that the ‘service economy’, with its explosion of feminized job categories, follows a decline in manufacturing, policy makers in many Third World countries have been encouraged by international advisors to develop service sectors before manufacturing industries mature».

(Enloe 1989:36)

In the past, some governments and the international, as well as local, travel and tourism industry were reluctant to support campaigns to end ‘child sex tourism’ because they perceived these campaigns to be anti-tourism or more specifically anti-sex tourism. This was at a time when sex tourism was seen by policy makers (mostly male) as an unspoken but lucrative way of increasing (mostly male) tourist arrivals and by implication government and private sector revenues. Far too few tourism policy makers saw it as an issue of children’s rights and even less knew how to develop a child protection framework to create a safe environment for all children.

Child abuse in tourism destinations occurs in a range of settings - contact may take place in restaurants, bars or in public spaces. Children are abused in private houses, guest houses and even in large hotels. Regardless of where the abuse takes place, the fact that it happens at all is enough to cause concern for all the tourism sector. The reputation of a destination has a ripple effect around the world. In July 2001, ASEAN Tourism Authorities met in Cambodia.
«Singapore laments about sex tourism. “It must not be allowed to become the only issue of appeal for a destination in Asean. We must be committed to enforcement and to communicating our feelings about this”, asserted Asad Shiraz of the Singapore Tourism Promotion Board. Shiraz said the image of one country had the potential for hurting the whole grouping. His solution: “The start is accepting that this is happening and then being committed to resolving the problem”».

(Phnom Penh Daily 17 July 2001 ‘Delegates ponder unsavoury side of Tourism’)

Although most people know it exists, even today people are still unsure about what ‘child sex tourism’ is and what it is not. In many tourism text books and journals the subject of ‘child sex tourism’ is written about in the context of sex and tourism rather than analysing the lack of policy development on children’s rights and tourism.

Without a framework of children’s rights, ‘child sex tourism’ often gets lost within the other agendas such as the heated debate on the decriminalisation of commercial sex work.

As Hall and Ryan note in the Part Two of this publication “Decriminalisation of commercial sex work will permit sex workers to take full advantage of the position of being legally employed so as to access the rights of workers without fear of prosecution and with the intent to make sex work lawful, but exploitative sex work as clearly unlawful”.

However, rather than get bogged down in the decriminalisation debate the more salient issue for international campaigns against ‘child sex tourism’ is how to ‘engage’ the sex tourism industry in a neutral way so as to join forces to prevent child abuse in sex tourism. Most campaign actions have, for various reasons, not worked with the existing sex tourism industries in Asia. Yet, on a growing number of sex tourism web sites, businesses and clients are condemning child pornography and child abuse.

If you want underage sex, do it in your own country. Thailand doesn’t want you! I am totally against child prostitution.

(Stickman’s guide to Naughty Nightlife in Bangkok - www.chopsticks.com)

A person found to be looking for child sex will be reported to police authorities both in Thailand as well as his own country.

(Nana plaza and Bangkok nightlife - www.nanaplaza.com)

One example of solidarity between the community and the sex tourism industry lies in the centre of Pattaya’s sex tourism district. A brightly lit No Child Sex Tourism sign sits side by side with advertising for tourist bars with names such as Throb, Amor and Boyz, Boyz, Boyz. But this is the exception rather than the rule. The logos of ECPAT, WTO and The Tourism Authority of Thailand are shown below the campaign message.
There is a strong justification for working with the sex tourism industry rather than against it to establish better access to children who have been abused. O’Connell Davidson (2000:69) notes that:

«The reality is that while some children are prostituted by and/or specifically for paedophiles and preferential abusers, the majority of sex tourists who use child prostitutes are first and foremost prostitute users who become child sex abusers through their prostitute use, rather than the other way about».

Local activists and media in targeted tourist destinations in East Asia are quick to describe all foreign, specifically western, child sex offenders as paedophiles, even those who are not paedophiles but who have abused children through their involvement in prostitution. This ‘branding’ of ordinary men, both homosexual and heterosexual, as paedophiles has been counter-productive and has made dialogue with the sex industry and the gay community a weak link in international campaign efforts.

Juxtaposed with this is the increasing, but mostly anecdotal, evidence of children being abused in prostitution by other Asian nationals in those same tourist destinations. There has been surprisingly little written about intra-Asian sex tourism yet increased population mobility, greater prosperity and increased trade and tourism between South East Asian nations, galvanised by cultural myths and racism, it has redefined the term ‘child sex tourism’. Interviews with front-line hotel staff in Pattaya, Phnom Penh and Bali confirm that from the perspective of those working on the ‘inside’ of tourism, ‘child sex tourism’ is as much to do with the demand from Asian neighbours as it is from Western tourists.

In addition to paedophiles and prostitute users, there is increasing evidence of children being sexually abused by foreign men seeking to act out sexual fantasies in order to exert power and to regain their sense of control. Evidence from actual cases\(^1\) indicates that some offenders have been neither paedophiles nor traditional sex tourists. They often operate alone and may have inflicted violence against women in their home life. They exhibit misogynist views and see children, both boys and girls, as commodities to channel their sexual aggression through, rather than have an actual sexual desire for children.

In the absence of any other technical name, ‘child sex tourism’ has become a catch-all term to describe three different commercial environments where children are abused and exploited when the offender is not a citizen of that locale. ‘Child sex tourism’ involves children abused and exploited through their involvement in:

(a) Prostitution and sex tourism

(b) Pornography

(c) Paedophilia related child abuse

\(^1\) From convictions under the Australian extra-territorial Child Sex Tourism legislation.
Furthermore, the commercial sexual exploitation of children, including ‘child sex tourism’, is now considered to be a manifestation of labour exploitation and included in the International Labour Organization’s (ILO) efforts to eliminate the worst forms of child labour (ILO Convention 182).

At this current point in time estimating the numbers of children involved in or affected by ‘child sex tourism’ is almost impossible. Some attempts have been made to quantify both women and children involved in prostitution (Phongpaichit et al, 1998) but without appropriate research methodologies and intervention programs coming up with an accurate figure is a case of ‘running before we can walk’. Far more useful for policy makers and prevention campaigns is to identify trends relating to children and tourism destinations. For example: Do children involved in selling trinkets to tourists have access to health and education services in the tourist areas? Where do these children sleep at night? How many hotels have child protection policies? Having this information would mean being able to identify risk factors and a harm minimisation approach. This would be far more practical than documenting statistics.

‘Child sex tourism’ is the end result of many problems in today’s world, it requires not just one solution but a multi-disciplinary response. The travel and tourism industry can and must help, but the response must be integrated into a wider approach that involves cooperation and partnership across all sectors. Tourism is not just a bundle of businesses, it is the economy, the community and the life-blood of many countries affected by ‘child sex tourism’. It is in everybody’s interest to make tourism destinations a safe place for children.

1.2. INTERNATIONAL CAMPAIGNS TO PREVENT CHILD SEX TOURISM

ECPAT

The international campaigning organization ECPAT (end child prostitution, child pornography and the trafficking of children for sexual purposes) has played a pivotal role in the mobilisation of support to combat ‘child sex tourism’. ECPAT networks across the globe have raised the global consciousness about ‘child sex tourism’ and other forms of commercial sexual exploitation of children. Through national level actions ECPAT groups have lobbied governments to introduce laws to make ‘child sex tourism’ an extra-territorial crime. With far fewer resources than inter-governmental organizations, such as UNICEF or ILO, ECPAT groups and their national partners, have been at the forefront of international campaigns to end ‘child sex tourism’.

Thanks to the work of ECPAT over the last ten years, and more specifically since 1996 the international travel and tourism industry has been encouraged to participate in campaign actions to end ‘child sex tourism’. Starting in 1993 with UFTAA, the Universal Federation of Travel Agents’ Associations, all of the major international industry associations have agreed on guidelines or declarations to show their condemnation of ‘child sex tourism’. The list include IATA (International Air Transport Association), IFTO (International Federation of Tour Operators), IH&RA (International Hotel and Restaurant Association), PATA (Pacific Asia Travel Association), IFWTO (the International Federation of Women’s Travel Associations), FIYTO

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2 At the World Congress Against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, held in Stockholm, 1996.
THE INCIDENCE OF SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN IN TOURISM

(Federation of International Youth Travel Associations. Other regional associations such as the travel agents associations of Europe, Africa, America and Latin America have also showed support.

Either alone or with travel and tourism industry partners, ECPAT networks have initiated a number of high profile campaign actions. These have included poster campaigns, traveller leaflets and ticket wallets, window stickers, in-flight videos on some major airlines, television community announcements, t-shirts and web sites. In addition a number of ECPAT groups have provided training to the travel and tourism industry, to tourism training schools and to national tourism authorities on how to combat ‘child sex tourism’. Training has been conducted in both tourist ‘sending’ and ‘destination’ countries.

Most recently, there have been two major initiatives developed by ECPAT partners that have helped bring together the tourism sector and other significant stakeholders in the campaign to prevent ‘child sex tourism’.

The first is The Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children from Sexual Exploitation of Children in Travel and Tourism. A project implemented by ECPAT/respect in Austria, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The Code of Conduct is designed to raise awareness of ‘child sex tourism’ amongst European tour operators and their local partners in tourist destinations, also to travellers. The Code of Conduct project encourages tourism suppliers to train staff and adopt ethical policies by including specific clauses in contracts with commercial partners that condemn the sexual abuse of children.

The other major initiative is Child Wise Tourism, a program of Child Wise/ECPAT in Australia. Child Wise Tourism is a training and network development program aimed at building relationships between the tourism sector and child protection specialists in tourist destinations. Child Wise Tourism promotes ethical and sustainable tourism practices that respect children’s rights in accordance with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Child Wise Tourism helps national tourism authorities and the tourism sector adopt policies that promote a child safe tourism environment.

The World Tourism Organization (WTO)

Following the World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children (Stockholm, 1996), the WTO set up the ‘Child Prostitution and Tourism Task Force’ to prevent, uncover and isolate the sexual exploitation of children in tourism. This open-ended action group, including organizations from governments, national tourism administration, tourism industry associations, international organizations, NGOs and the media, launched in 1997 an international campaign to prevent sexual exploitation of children in tourism, under a unified campaign logo. The Task Force further created a website, the Child Prostitution and Tourism Watch, featuring information on designated contact persons (Focal Points) and NTA of its member States, emergency hotline telephone numbers where to denounce child sexual exploitation and national legislation applicable to child sex abuse.

In December 2000, the WTO and the European Commission joined forces to fund specific interrelated projects to be carried out by three NGOs and the WTO itself. The EC accepted to counter sexual exploitation of children in tourism. The projects include:
a publishing project by the International Federation of Journalists (IFJ), these NGOs and the WTO itself with the purpose of creating awareness in the media;

- an internet platform by terre des hommes - Germany as an information tool against the sexual exploitation of children in tourism and as a valid support for the above mentioned Code of Conduct (by ECPAT).

The projects further comprise the establishment by WO of a set of guidelines for focal points of national tourism administrations and tourism destinations, on the campaign to protect children from sexual exploitation, as well as the preparation of two training modules on sexual exploitation of children in tourism, one addressed to education centres to future tourism professionals, and the second for college students aged 12-16 years.

Other international campaigns against child sex tourism

There have been a small number of campaigns initiated by the tourism sector and run independent of ECPAT. These include two particularly outstanding initiatives:

- In Brazil, Embratur, the National Tourism Administration, ran a highly visible poster campaign with the slogan “Beware Brazil is watching You”. The campaign also promoted a police hotline. Innovative hotel room do not disturb signs with the hotline number were included in the campaign. A new campaign is planned for 2002/2003.

- The Youth Career initiative was launched by Pan-Pacific Hotels and supported by IH&RA and UNICEF Thailand to provide opportunities for young people between 17-19 years of age from the poorer, rural provinces of Thailand. The project includes a basic introductory course to the hospitality industry aimed toward empowering young people at risk to make choices regarding their future and the opportunity to enter the workforce. A large proportion of the class time is spent on life-skills education. Similar career development initiatives based on this programme are being organized in other countries with the support of IH&RA, WTO and The Prince of Wales Business Leaders’ Forum.

1.3. OBSERVATIONS

Situational analysis

(a) There is a wealth of factual and anecdotal evidence available that confirms the existence and growth of child sexual abuse and exploitation in the tourism destinations across Asia and specifically those chosen for this study.

(b) Over ten years of media and campaigns in Thailand have created high level awareness about ‘child sex tourism’ in the tourism sector, yet there is not a corresponding high level of tourism sector involvement in prevention activities.

(c) International media and local campaigns have intensified in Cambodia in the last two years and with a fragile and fledgling tourism industry the Cambodian tourism authorities have been quick to signal their intention to combat ‘child sex tourism’.
(d) International media attention and campaigns have not focussed on Bali and as a result there is a low level of awareness and corresponding low level of action to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ in both the tourism sector and the wider community.

(e) *Child sex tourism* uses both the formal and informal mechanisms of tourism to facilitate the exploitation of children: that is the use of hotels, guest houses, bars and discos, restaurants, tour guides, taxi drivers, the relaxation of cultural and social boundaries, and the general liberal attitudes toward sex and drugs that are often found in the tourism environment.

(f) *Child sex tourism* in Asia is not homogenous - there are different motivations, attitudes and patterns of offending. There are Western and Asian sex offenders and although the vast majority of offenders are men there are also women who are involved. However, it is unlikely that offenders of any race or sex identify themselves as ‘child sex tourists’.

(g) Expatriates living and operating genuine tourism businesses are involved in ‘child sex tourism’ and provide legitimate ‘cover’ for facilitating child sexual exploitation involving other tourists.

(h) ‘Child sex tourism’ flourishes in tourism destinations where other crimes exist. In all three case studies criminals from other countries (European and non-European) are involved in fraud, drug trafficking, illegal gambling, people trafficking, robbery and in some cases murder. Local criminals and people who want to make fast money are attracted to tourist areas. In this environment, procuring and selling children is part of a wider illegal economy and it is almost impossible to separate out how much money is specifically made from ‘child sex tourism’.

(i) In the past governments and the tourism industry have failed to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ because it has been seen as part of the overall sex industry rather than as a crime against children and a violation of children’s rights. Although prostitution is illegal in most Asian countries, the sex tourism industry flourishes, generates millions of dollars in revenue for the hospitality and tourism industry.

(j) Children do not have the same access to HIV education or the power to negotiate safe sex. In all three case studies there is no national collection of disaggregated data on HIV infection rate related to children who have been involved in ‘child sex tourism’.

(k) Children who are victims of ‘child sex tourism’ are usually those who are already vulnerable because of poverty and social exclusion. They include local, foreign and ethnic minority children who live and work on the streets or on the fringes of the tourist areas, those who have been trafficked, lured or sold into the sex industry, those without access to education and those forced or made responsible to support the family. Most often it is girls who are victims of ‘child sex tourism’.
International Campaigns

(l) Problems of Definition: Most international campaigns on ‘child sex tourism’ have focussed on the abuse by tourists coming from western developed nations but local hotel staff in all three countries consider that there are as many offenders who are other East Asian nationals such as Chinese, Japanese, and Taiwanese or who are domestic tourists. The hotels used mostly by domestic tourists and East Asian tourists or business travellers have not been included in awareness raising campaigns.

(m) Embassies, Consulates and foreign business concerns (eg Chambers of Commerce) are very rarely involved in campaigns and been reluctant to speak and act against ‘child sex tourism’. In some instances Embassies are blamed for the protection and release of alleged sex offenders without first having gone to trial.

(n) The majority of international campaign initiatives have been awareness raising campaigns and have been successful in raising awareness of the issue. This has not automatically lead to a reduction of ‘child sex tourism’.

(o) Campaigners have often ignored or miscalculated the potential impact before implementing high profile awareness raising campaigns and overestimated the capacity of those able to respond (eg. telephone hotlines that cannot handle large volumes of calls, insufficient welfare services to provide support to abused children, etc.).

(p) There is a conspicuous absence of action research or participatory research methods to investigate the lives of children both before and after they enter into commercial sex work and sex tourism. International campaigns have relied on old information and guesstimates of numbers.

1.4. THE PREVENTION CYCLE

No other human rights campaign has impacted upon the international tourism industry to this degree. So then why does ‘child sex tourism’ still exist? Why are there children being sold and sexually abused in the world’s most famous tourist destinations? Does this mean that international campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ have failed?

Upon analysing the main international campaigns since 1996 very few campaign actions have used the principles of Social Marketing, a discipline developed in the 1970s and used effectively in the public health sector. Social marketing is the planning and implementation of programs designed to bring about social change.

Developing a campaign along Social Marketing principles allows for a clear process to develop goals and objectives and a methodology to evaluate the success of the program. In Social Marketing terms campaign evaluation is a four step plan- 1. Process Evaluation, 2. Outcome evaluation, 3. Impact Evaluation and 4. Ethical Evaluation.

Most campaign tools on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’ (the distribution of in-flight videos, poster campaigns, stickers, brochures etc) have been designed to raise awareness about ‘child sex tourism’. Most of them appear to have been successful in achieving this outcome even though few have followed through with the four step evaluation process outlined above. But what is more important perhaps is to look at the Impact Evaluation
of the campaign tools and overall campaign strategies to see why ‘child sex tourism’ still exists.

On their own, many of these campaign tools were not developed to eradicate the root causes of child sexual exploitation such as social exclusion, poverty and gender inequality, nor to create educational and employment opportunities for marginalised youth. Without concrete strategies and actions to increase the quality of life for children and their families, children will always be vulnerable to abuse and exploitation. International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must advocate for a basket of prevention and protection strategies based on the principles of human rights and sustainable development.

Figure 1. The Prevention Cycle

Raising awareness is only one part of a prevention cycle. Other factors include defining the problem through research and consultation, the active participation of those affected, initiatives to reduce the root causes and programme evaluation. Research and evaluation together form the very cornerstone of the social marketing process (Weinreich, 2001).

Very few of the existing international campaign actions have integrated all aspects of this prevention cycle. This is not entirely the fault of the organizations developing the campaigns.

Donor agencies and philanthropic funding bodies often have guidelines that do not allow for research or long term impact assessment. This has lead to inadequate evaluation, assumptions being made and models duplicated based on hearsay rather than proven effectiveness. While it is common for donor agencies to fund NGO’s for the printing of posters or brochures because the output is tangible, it is less common for donors to fund NGO’s to run focus group discussions, consultations and surveys.
Three case studies were chosen for this report. They are: Pattaya, Thailand; Phnom Penh, Cambodia and Bali, Indonesia. They were chosen because they are all destinations where ‘child sex tourism’ is known to exist and the tourism sector, including government authorities, are all at different stages of addressing ‘child sex tourism’.

**Thailand:** international tourism has been a significant factor in the Thai economy for the past thirty years. International media and campaigning activities have focussed on ‘child sex tourism’ in Thailand for over ten years. The openness of Thai media, pressure from international authorities and media and the location of Bangkok as a regional centre for many international human rights and children’s rights organizations has meant that Thai people have had access to a wealth of information about the commercial sexual exploitation of children in Thailand. The Thai government has put into place a number of legislative and policy measures to combat all forms of child abuse and exploitation yet ‘child sex tourism’ still exists in tourist centres. The Tourism Authority of Thailand has recently taken new bold steps to publicly denounce ‘child sex tourism’.

**Cambodia:** with the emergence of a new era of democracy following the years of the Pol Pot regime, Cambodia began the transformation to a fledgling economy in 1989. But along with the influx of UN Peace keeping forces, tourism and trade came the growth of the sex industry. At the same time paedophiles from Europe and Australia found Cambodia to be opening its arms to teachers, aid workers and almost anyone who could provide assistance to the re-building of a nation. Although ‘child sex tourism’ has seemingly become widespread in Cambodia, the tourism sector has actively participated in campaign actions and the Ministry of Tourism has become a leader in adopting innovative programs to prevent child abuse.

**Indonesia, Bali:** the Indonesian island of Bali has for many years depended on tourism for its economic survival. Anecdotal evidence of paedophile abuse in Bali go back decades to a time when European artists surrounded themselves with innocent children and young women to inspire their erotic and sensual art. It was inevitable that in the late 20th century Bali would attract sex tourism and paedophile sex offenders yet until recently Bali has not been a focus of international campaign actions. There is a very low level of awareness in Bali’s tourism sector and consequently a very low level of action to prevent ‘child sex tourism’.

Due to the limitations of this report there will be only a marginal discussion for each case study of the development and growth of the sex industry and of sex tourism. Budget and time limitations for the preparation of this report meant that participatory research methods could not be fully explored.
2.1 THAILAND

2.1.1 Prostitution in Thailand today

In the book *Guns, Girls, Gambling and Ganja - Thailand's illegal economy and public policy* - the authors state quite openly that with economic development, increased wealth has raised the demand for sex services and the demand stems from both local sources and foreign tourists (Phongpaichit et al, 1998). Tourists only constitute a small, though conspicuous, minority of the total clientele of the Thai sex industry (Cohen, 1996). However with more Thai girls staying in school, increased economic opportunities and greater community awareness agents are seeking out girls and women from neighbouring countries such as Laos, Cambodia, Vietnam, China and Burma to fill the demand for new sex workers. In addition, agents operate globally to bring sex workers from as far afield as Russia and the former Soviet States although these women usually service the elite local prostitution market rather than the tourist market. Prostitution in Thailand is indeed a globalized industry.

Phongpaichit (1998) estimates that prostitution in Thailand is a hundred-billion-baht business (over 2 billion USD approx.) and the financial mainstay, directly or indirectly of several hundred thousand people.

"Put quite simply, the lives of real people must be primary data from which we construct our models of commercial sex in Thailand" notes Lyttletton in the text *Endangered Relations: negotiating sex and AIDS in Thailand* (2000:212). This sentiment is shared by some NGO’s working with commercial sex workers in Bangkok and Pattaya. In a frank conversation with staff of the NGO EMPOWER, I was told that we need to actively research the lives of poor people, including sex workers, not just document them for media and advocacy purposes. According to EMPOWER, they have been resourcing media and international development agencies with facts and figures about commercial sex work (CSW) in Thailand for many years yet the women and children involved in CSW still live in the same poor conditions. As prostitution is illegal in Thailand most CSWs, adults and children, are often exposed and vulnerable to the organised crime, drugs and violence that surrounds the sex industry.

In an attempt to clean up the sleazier parts of Pattaya and Bangkok, the Thai government have enacted regulations that will force the Bangkok and Pattaya City nightlife to be ‘zoned’. In an attempt to clamp down on crime and drug use, entertainment areas are to be ‘contained’ in zones so they can be inspected and those operating outside the zoning conditions will be closed. This controversial plan has brought condemnation from nightspot owners and sex worker advocates. Opponents see it as just another way for unscrupulous police to extort money from bar owners and sex workers, while sex worker advocates say it will stigmatise sex workers even further. While others think it targets the wrong end of the problem and that it ignores the most exploitative parts of the sex industry.

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3 EMPOWER is a Thai non-governmental organization (NGO) which supports sex workers who work in bars, brothels, massage parlours, karaoke restaurants, and other entertainment venues.
In response to the clamp-down Time magazine’s Alex Perry reported:

«Purachai [Minister of Interior] is playing to the three-quarters of Bangkok that want to see action against the sex industry and the related Aids and drugs problem in the capital. He has been sure to invite reporters and TV crews along for the more dramatic raids».

«But his decision to ignore other dens of iniquity - Pattaya, the Burmese border, to say nothing of Bangkok’s ‘closed’ brothels in which prostitutes are confined night and day - shows quite how all-conquering Purachai’s ‘social order crusade’ is likely to be. Not!»

(Perry, quoted in The Bangkok Post 9/12/01)

Although the sex industry is a such major part of the Thai economy and way of life, EMPOWER says community attitudes to commercial sex work and the stigma attached is still a major problem especially for children and young women: “… compare the society support for a child that is released from an exploitative factory to a child released from a brothel. It is important to ask CSW’s what is their hope for the future rather than just focus on their suffering” (Interview EMPOWER June 2001).

Integral to this is the role of men - not just as clients but as fathers, sons, brothers and uncles. As Lyttleton (2000) states “Men are afforded a complicitous but unexamined role in the specifics of women becoming CSWs”.

2.1.2 Sex Tourism in Thailand

Social commentators have been examining the growth and existence of sex tourism in Thailand for the last two decades (Cohen, 1982, 1996; Enloe, 198; Ireland, 1993; O’Connell Davidson, 1996; O’Grady, 1994; Truong, 1983). The beginnings of sex tourism in Thailand are unquestionably linked to the presence of foreign military on rest and recreation leave during the Vietnam war. The dominant pattern of liaisons between Thai girls and foreign men began with the arrival of American military men in 1962, many of whom had mistresses, referred to as ‘hired wives’ or rented wives (FEER, 1976 quoted in Cohen, 1996). Along with the huge influx of American GI’s stationed in Thailand came the influx of bars, nightclubs, and massage parlours now synonymous with Thai tourist zones such as Patpong and Pattaya.

Today sex tourism in Thailand is part of a well established lucrative sex industry that includes prostitution, the production and distribution of pornography and human trafficking to support the growing demand for new sex workers.

Often missing from the discourse in sex tourism is the connection between tourism related prostitution and the involvement of organised crime. In Thailand these activities are routinely linked together. Phnogpaichit (1998:258) notes that “Guns are exchanged for drugs. Gambling profits are invested in prostitution. Routes and systems for smuggling drugs are adapted for traffic in people and protection networks span across the whole range of the illegal economy. Bangkok has become a clearing house for the shipment of girls from China to third countries, and from South Asia into Malaysia”.

DELIVERED BY HTTP://WWW.E-UNWTO.ORG
DELIVERED BY HTTP://WWW.E-UNWTO.ORG
An editorial comment in The Nation newspaper reflected that «Many prostitutes in Thailand are young women and children smuggled in from neighbouring countries. The protection of children is inseparable from the battle against prostitution, which as an industry has been well organised and has long enjoyed a high degree of tolerance from the Thai public. Over the years, Thai laws have been strengthened by one new piece of legislation after another, which significantly increase the penalties for those caught engaging in sex with a minor. The law targets customers, procurers, pimps and owners and operators of brothels, as well as parents who sell their children into prostitution. The new legislation also eases restrictions on the police, making it easier for them to enter and search suspected brothels and make arrests. Still, there remains a yawning gap between the seemingly effective legal and institutional frameworks against sexual exploitation of young people and the lack of determination on the part of the authorities to enforce the law. There is no doubt that local paedophiles far outnumber their foreign counterparts. Many of them indulge in this heinous crime with impudence, knowing that they can always buy their way out of trouble».

(The Nation 23/01/01)

2.1.3 Sex Tourism in Pattaya

Pattaya is one of Thailand's premier beach resort areas. On the 14th September 2001, the Pattaya Mail newspaper reported the launching of the Thai Travel Mart in Pattaya, with expectations that 179 tourism operators will attend from over 40 countries:

«That the Tourism Authority of Thailand has chosen Pattaya for this event should be thought of as another indication that this city has ‘come of age’. In fact, Pradech Phayakvichien, the governor of the TAT said, “We are confident that the excellent facilities of the Pattaya Exhibition and Convention Hall, truly a PEACH of convention facilities and the friendly environment of Thailand’s premier seaside resort, would contribute to a successful trade meet”».

Located approximately 150 kilometres south-east of Bangkok, Pattaya beach lies on the Gulf of Thailand and is also known as one of Thailand’s premier sex tourism destinations.

Pattaya’s openly acknowledged, yet still illegal, adult sex industry has been the topic for many academic and media reports on sex tourism. In a report on Sex Tourism in Thailand, O’Connell Davison (1996:2) writes “For these young men Pattaya is a kind of macho theme park with beer, motorbikes, ago-go bars, kick-boxing, live sex shows, pool tables in English style pubs and guaranteed access to dolly birds to posture with and have sex”.

Ask any European tourist or expatriate in Thailand and they will agree that Pattaya is synonymous with sex and the reputation doesn’t end there. Pattaya appears on dozens, possibly hundreds of internet sites and chat rooms devoted to prostitution and sex tourism.

«Pattaya’s nightlife is legendary. Hundreds of bars, discos, cabarets and other night spots cater to every conceivable taste in night entertainment.»
When it comes to sex and surf, then Pattaya is most definitely the premier sex resort in Asia. It combines the best of the go-go bars of Bangkok with the open-air beach bars of the islands, and has more pussy per square meter than any other city I’ve ever visited. There are several distinct advantages to visiting Pattaya as opposed to Bangkok for the seeker of carnal pleasure. Firstly, Pattaya is a relatively small beach resort, which means that the need to travel with taxi’s is limited. Most of the go-go bars and beer bars are within easy walking distance of the bulk of tourist-class hotels in South Pattaya. Secondly, Pattaya is safer, as long as you stick to the tourist areas. As the town is so small, you’re unlikely to easily get lost, which is a real possibility in sprawling Bangkok. Thirdly, it’s cheaper than Bangkok, although not substantially so. Hotels are about 20/30 per cent cheaper, but drinks in the go-go bars are pricier, as are the bar fines in some go-go bars.»

(Nightlife in Pattaya web site)

“Another great thing is that prostitution in Pattaya is tolerated there even more so than in Bangkok. With Bangkok being the capital and far and away the wealthiest area in Thailand, there are some that will always give a farang and a Thai girl snooty looks. I have never seen this in Pattaya, probably because prostitution is so damned prevalent - the town’s main industry! In Pattaya, no one will give you a second look if you are walking along with your little tee-ruk, but in Bangkok, quite the opposite is true, especially if you venture away from the Sukumvit / Silom areas. »

(Stickman’s guide to prostitution in Bangkok web site)

“Everyone has got their own opinions on Pattaya - some love it while others hate it. I’ve got to admit that initially, I was not a great fan of the place. The sheer numbers of hardcore sex tourists along with some less than savoury locals always made me feel like I was walking in a filthy sewer amongst the dregs of Western society. Yes, this is the place where it is very easy to spot the stereotypical sex tourist! A lot of big fat, bald Europeans here with their lovely little Thai girlfriends. Further, some of the farangs living there are not the most wholesome characters in the world. Plenty of farangs living in Pattaya have said to me that it is the place to do one’s apprenticeship in bar girls. The Pattaya Police often say that Pattaya is not real Thailand but like it’s more like a little “Wild West” within Thailand.»

(Stickman’s guide to prostitution in Bangkok web site)

In addition to sex tourism, Pattaya is known to harbour international crime syndicates and foreign criminals on the run. European, North American and Asian tourists have been arrested in Pattaya for a range of crimes including fraud, drug trafficking, money laundering, people trafficking, rape and murder (various reports Pattaya Mail 1998-2001).

On the 16 May 2000, The Nation newspaper reported that the Pattaya police chief claims the police force is cleaning up the tourist resort and clamping down on sex crimes. The Police Chief admitted corruption within the ranks of the Pattaya police had posed a barrier to his clean-up operations. “As a result of a more heavy-handed approach by local police, a number of foreign paedophiles have forsaken Pattaya and moved to Cambodia” he said. In the four-year period from 1996 to 1999, a total of 37 cases involving paedophiles were investigated by Pattaya police.
2.1.4 Child Sex Tourism in Pattaya

« ...of the estimated 300 under aged prostitutes, some 100 are under 15 years......[the] Deputy Commander of the Tourist Police Division fears that families and ordinary tourists who are by far the majority who visit this resort will avoid Pattaya and perhaps Thailand. [Police Colonel] even goes so far as to say that sex tourism will destroy tourism as a whole.»

(Bangkok Post February 28, 1999)

Between 1997 and July 2001, The Pattaya Mail newspaper reported the arrests or detainment of fifteen foreign tourists relating to child sex offences. These include Australian, British, American, French and German tourists. According to interviews with local Pattaya police\(^4\) only three of these appear to have been imprisoned.

‘Child sex tourism’ in Pattaya has flourished behind the smokescreen of the so-called entertainment industry. The steamy ‘sex for all’ tourism environment and bar names such as Class-room-one, Paradise Boys and Baby-a-go-go may be for adult to adult entertainment but the image they portray has created an environment where anything goes and no-one cares. While local activists, police and the media are quick to label all child sex offenders as paedophiles, a closer look at individual cases reveals that this is not always so.

On October 21 2000, CNN news reported from France that “a Frenchman found guilty of raping a child during a ‘sex holiday’ in Thailand sobbed in court as he was sentenced to seven years in prison. The victim, who cannot be identified for legal reasons, was 11 when the Frenchman forced her to perform oral sex in a hotel room in the Thai beach resort of Pattaya in February 1994 in return for 21 French francs ($3). During the trial, his lawyer said that «he blames himself for having been weak and not being able to say ‘no’» but that experts had not classed him as a paedophile” (www.cnn.com).

In a report commissioned by ECPAT International, Baker (2000) notes that the improved economic conditions in Thailand over the past ten years have influenced the numbers of Thai children entering into the sex industry. With increased prosperity the number of Northern Thai children at risk of becoming victims of child prostitution has declined substantially over the last 20 years. Thai children are fewer both in absolute numbers and as a proportion of the total population, and are better educated than two decades earlier. Girls, who would have sought employment, including in the sex industry, are now far more likely to be studying. Past fertility reductions, increased educational opportunities, the impact of HIV/AIDS and changes to legislation have all helped to reduce the number of Thai children being exploited in prostitution.

According to child protection workers and police in Pattaya (interviews conducted in June 2001), the vast majority of children who are sexually abused in Pattaya come from neighbouring countries such as Burma, Laos or Cambodia or the relatively poorer northeastern Thai province of Isan. Most experts claim that the presence of street children, boys and girls, aged 6 - 16 years in Pattaya has increased over the last few years and that 90 percent of these children are working in the sex industry in some way or another.

\(^4\) Interviews conducted with trained child protection police officers in Pattaya, June 2001.
Thai Prosecutor Wanchai Roujanavong, who heads the office of the Attorney General’s criminal law centre recently claimed that ‘Child sex tourism’ not only sexually exploited children but also encouraged trafficking in children for the purpose of commercial sex and that the demands of tourists added to the local demand requiring an increase in the supply of victims…. The high price paid by tourists or tour operators was a very strong incentive for procurers to lure more children into prostitution” (The Nation 3/07/01 ‘Call for conduct code to monitor paedophiles’).

2.1.5 Paedophile sex tourism in Pattaya

Paedophile activity in Pattaya and surrounding locations is confirmed by local and international police reports. The most alarming claim from child protection workers is that there are allegations that a group of up to 200 or so foreign paedophiles living in Thailand are responsible for the movement of children across the country to several tourist destinations to service the paedophile tourist market, rotating the children so that there is always a fresh market and less likelihood of the children being identified by police (Interviews conducted in Pattaya, June 2001).

Newspaper reports give the only available insight into the methods used by paedophile sex offenders.

«The boy later told police how he was persuaded by an older Thai male to go see the foreigner, and he was told to do as the foreigner instructed. He said the man told him the foreigner would pay him well afterwards.»

(8/6/01 Pattaya Mail ‘Elderly Brit caught naked in bed with 12-year-old boy’)

«… police tailed him to his Pattaya hotel room, where they found him inside with 3 naked boys aged 12 and 13. Police also confiscated a number of photographs of the boys hugging M and one used condom.

The three boys, aged 12-13, were taken to the police station where they told police that M became friendly with them on the street.»

(11/5/01 Pattaya Mail ‘Sex charges dismissed against Englishman’)

«Pattaya police were called at 2:30 a.m. on 30 November to investigate what the caller described as “a foreigner taking a boy no older than 12 years up to his hotel room”. The incident was taking place at a hotel on Soi 10 off of Pattaya 2 Road. Police had hotel staff accompany a group of officers to the room and opened the door with spare keys, but entry was prohibited as the door was chain fastened. Police knocked and the occupant opened the door and turned the lights on. Police saw that a 10-year-old boy was sleeping on the bed. The man was identified from his Swiss passport.»

(10/12/99 Pattaya Mail ‘Swiss pedophile arrested’)
“...that three foreigners residing in Pattaya were involved with sexually abusing two girls, aged 10 and 11, on three different occasions.

The officials from Bangkok were notified by a concerned resident who told them the two girls were taken out of school on Fridays by Mrs. R, a relative, who contacted foreigners to sell the girls for sexual activities. The two young girls described being paid 1,000 baht each on the three different occasions by the foreigners, and they witnessed Mrs. R receiving another 1,000 baht at the same time.”

(24/12/99 Pattaya Mail ‘Foreigners arrested for sexually abusing two young girls’)

“A Swiss man was arrested in Pattaya last week over his ‘marriage’ eight years ago to an eight year old girl.”

(7/5/97 Herald Sun ‘Paedophile charges’)

“An elderly Australian, infected with HIV who taught deaf children in Pattaya, Thailand was jailed [in Australia] for nine years for more than 800 child sex offences. …He first visited Asia in 1980 and had spent most of the past six years in Thailand, teaching at a school for deaf children. He plied his young victims with alcohol and gifts.”

(2/5/97 Bangkok Post ‘Australian jailed for 800 sex crimes’)

Pattaya based police now have internationally trained child protection specialists who monitor offences against minors. With new child-friendly procedures for dealing with child witnesses and increased training opportunities it is hoped that more cases involving foreigners will follow the full court process.

This raises questions for Embassies, Consulates and foreign police liaisons in Thailand who in the past have not had a high profile role in assisting local counterparts to prosecute child sex offenders. With the exception of a handful of cases involving Australia and Britain, many Embassies have shied away from publicly denouncing foreign sex offenders operating in Thailand. Notably, the European Consular officials who meet every three months have noted trends but do not appear to have a common position or joint protocols for action.

In July 2001, the Tourism Authority of Thailand and the World Tourism Organization organized an Asia regional consultation on the ‘Protection of children from sexual exploitation in tourism’. The Governor of the TAT, Mr Pradach Phayakvichien, said that “I can say that the TAT vehemently and unequivocally opposes all forms of sex tourism to Thailand”. While the TAT’s Director of Market Services said his agency hoped to establish a new ‘action awareness network’ to monitor and report child sex offences (The Nation 3/7/01 ‘Call for conduct code to monitor paedophiles’).
2.2 CAMBODIA

From January 2001 to March 2001, 117,645 tourists flew into Pochentong Airport (Phnom Penh) or Siem Reap Airport, an increase of 28 per cent compared to the same period in 2000. US tourists topped the list of visitors during this period followed by Chinese and French nationals (The Cambodia Daily, 16/05/2001).

2.2.1 Prostitution in Cambodia today

Sex has become a well established industry in Cambodia. In 1997 the Government estimated that about 15,000 prostitutes worked in brothels. Police and NGOs estimate that only 40 per cent of these have not been trafficked into the sex industry (The Cambodia Daily 9/6/01). The remaining 60 per cent are trafficked from all over rural Cambodia to the main towns, and from other countries but mostly from Vietnam. However, trafficking for the sex industry must be seen within the broader context of regional labour migration. All across the Asian region, men, women and children are being lured across borders in the hope of earning a decent wage.

"The stream of the human trade flows in all directions.

Young girls are brought from their villages in the provinces to brothels in Phnom Penh. Elderly and handicapped people are smuggled to Thailand to work as organized beggars. The able-bodied end up as slaves working as construction workers or domestic servants.

Chinese laborers are imported to Phnom Penh for sweatshop factory work. Vietnamese girls are bought to join their Cambodian sisters in the brothels. And Eastern European women are lured into working as nightclub escort girls - like the five Romanian and two Moldovan girls rescued from the Best Western Cangi Hotel on August 13.

Human rights activists say it’s no surprise that charges still haven’t been filed against hotel owner despite evidence pointing to his involvement in bringing the girls to Cambodia and subsequently pressuring them to have sex with nightclub customers."

(1/9/00 Phnom Penh Post ‘Slavery and human trafficking in Cambodia’)

Karaoke has become a euphemism for brothel, and karaoke bars and nightclubs are mostly favoured by tourists and business travellers from Thailand, Taiwan and China, and by local Cambodian men. Local and international breweries and cigarette companies hire young karaoke bar hostesses to promote their goods. The women work on commission and are encouraged to entertain clients to increase sales.

Along Highway Five between Phnom Penh and Poi Pet on the Cambodian-Thai border, there are 109 brothels and 46 karaoke lounges. Because of its proximity to the border, Poi Pet has a reputation as a business and leisure centre. There are three large casinos on the Cambodian side of the border that mostly attract foreigners - namely Thai’s (UNOPS, 2000:6).
HIV vulnerability is increasing due to a number of factors including the growing number and mobility of sex workers and changing attitudes towards extra-marital sex. The rate of HIV infection in Cambodia is the highest for all of South East Asia (UNOPS, 2000).

Drug use is often associated with life in the brothels and bars of Cambodia. Methamphetamine use, once found mainly among day labourers on the Thai-Cambodian border, has gained popularity, particularly among youths frequenting nightclubs, where it is often fed to prostitutes (Bangkok Post 27/06/01).

«The most widespread type of human trafficking remains the steady flow of young girls from the provinces to brothels in Phnom Penh. The Cambodian Women’s Crisis Center (CWCC) handles around 300 trafficking cases every year, most of them involving Cambodian girls sold or forced into prostitution. “Usually the girls are from rural areas. They are tempted by offers of jobs with a high pay in the city and don’t know they will go to a brothel. Sometimes the parents pay for their daughter’s transport to the town, sometimes the pimp pays,” said CWCC executive director Chanthol Oung.

Upon arrival at the brothel most girls refuse to have sex with the customers, so the brothel owner and mama-san start to “break in” their new arrivals. “The girls are locked up,” says Oung. “They are threatened. They get no food. Most of them are beaten. Then they are often sold to a rich man for a whole week. Some customers pay up to $500 to $700 for a week. After that the price for sexual services drops to 2000 to 7000 riel.”

The traffickers themselves get paid by the brothel owners. Often they have local networks in the provinces, deploying recruiters in various villages.

In a survey of girls rescued from brothels, CWCC found that 57 percent said they had been cheated by promises of a good job, 11 percent said they had been sold to the brothel by their parents or their boyfriend and 0.5 percent said they had been kidnapped.»

(1/9/00 Phnom Penh Post ‘Slavery and human trafficking in Cambodia’)

The Cambodian Government is currently reviewing a model of ‘regularisation’ of prostitution that has been developed to increase protection of the rights and conditions for Cambodian commercial sex workers. If approved, the ground breaking model will offer a community for sex workers with provision for health care, security and child care facilities. The aim is to reduce the opportunity for exploitation, debt bondage and organised crime. The proposal has the support of the Minister for Women’s Affairs (The Cambodia Daily June 9, 2001).
2.2.2 Sex Tourism in Cambodia

Like Thailand, sex tourism in Cambodia runs parallel to the local sex industry and at times intersects with it. According to NGO reports and sex tourism web sites, Cambodia’s sex tourism industry is growing. According to a Cambodian Ministry of Tourism report presented at a Bangkok conference in July 2001 “the latest research undertaken by the Commission on Human Rights and Reception of Complaints gathering information on commercial sexual exploitation in 24 provinces revealed that there are 14,725 women working as prostitutes, of which 15.5 per cent are children under the age of 18 years old. Meanwhile many boys in Phnom Penh are also victims in offering sex to foreigners and local men” (MoT, July 2001).

In recent months the Cambodian Ministry of Tourism has embarked on a campaign to ‘clean-up’ Cambodia’s sex tourism industry.

«The Ministry [of Tourism] is making an effort to clean up karaoke parlours and has issued a directive that outlines measures clubs must undertake to carry the Ministry’s seal of approval. A ‘tourism licence’ will only go to those karaoke clubs that meet a long list of standards, starting with clean silverware and ending with the elimination of prostitution, drugs and gambling. “Cambodia can not afford to be known as a destination of sex tourism” said the Minister of Tourism Veng Sereyvuth. »

(The Cambodia Daily 16/05/2001)

Phnom Penh and Svay Pak (K-11)

There are many Internet sites devoted to Cambodia’s growing sex tourism industry, most are just personal accounts by tourists of where to go and who to see but many of these web pages have hotlinks to Thai and Filipino sex tourism sites and that indicates that Cambodia is now linked to the global advertising market for those tourists looking for sex in Asia.

The sex tourism industry in Phnom Penh exists in well known expatriate owned tourist bars as well as in the karaoke bars, beer bars, restaurants and hotels that service the local and other Asian market. Many of Cambodia’s commercial sex workers are Vietnamese women. Most tourists looking for sex know about Svay Pak (or K-11), a small village 11 kilometres from Phnom Penh that is home to dozens of brothels mostly housing Vietnamese women and children.

The following accounts come from Internet sites on sex tourism in Cambodia.

By: Big John - 31 December 2000

«Well, I got to PP on Dec. 26 from BKK. At K-11 only pay $5 MAXIMUM for ST. (short time) Otherwise the price will rise fast. Please do not pay $10 ever at K-11 (unless of course, it’s 2 babes at once) I highly recommend Mr. S.... as a driver. Phone 012—-—- E-mail, .......@hotmail.com Paid him $25 each day, although he only asked for $20. He is more than just a driver with a car. He is a translator, tour guide, knows the spots for the ladies, and knows about the individual ladies as well. He is also a travel companion. Much better than your typical Cambodian driver. Plus, he will help you to bargain for hotels, shopping, and even ST/LT. I figure I saved more than $25 just by letting him help me.»
The ladies of Svay Pak are almost totally Vietnamese. They are also young. I'd say that most were 16 to 20. There were some really young ones, especially in the 2 houses just beyond the restaurants. Talking 13 year olds. Very Bad News. Government says they will put a stop to this. Let's hope so. Stick to 18+.

By: Lucky - 27 January 2001

«I set off to Svay Pak (K11). Since coming to Phnom Penh I've met a number of guys who hang out there every day so I end up going almost daily. I headed off to the bus station and caught the bus to Udong, the old Cambodian capitol, and got off at Svay Pak (2500 riel, 60 cents).»

But regardless of whether tourists believe that they are engaging in sexual activity with adults, police records and NGO rescues confirm that many children are involved in the sex industry of Svay Pak.

«Twenty-four Vietnamese prostitutes, many of whom are under 18, were rescued from a brothel in Phnom Penh's Svay Pak commune during a raid on Thursday, police officials said. … Thirteen of the rescued girls are under 18.»

(08/06/2001 The Cambodia Daily)

«Australian Federal Police Commissioner] Keelty told The Sunday Telegraph he was disturbed by the number of Western men he had seen loitering around the child brothels in Cambodia. In May he visited 'K11'...and said he had seen Khmer and Vietnamese children between the ages of 10 and 14 years. "Within the child-brothel precinct there were a number of Caucasian males“ he said.»

(29/07/01 Sunday Telegraph (Sydney) ‘Police act against sex tours’)

2.2.3 Child sex tourism in Cambodia


In the overall conclusion the report claims that:

«Sex tourists, procurers, pimps and traffickers/deceivers are demanding young girls and children from districts, rural areas, provincial and municipal areas in order to exchange them as commodities for profit. ...Sometimes these perpetrators have pretended to adopt children, to get married to the children, or to take children for a walk: and then sell them into prostitution. Increased sex tourism, has resulted in more demand for children used as entertainment commodities. Children receive little income and are at great risk of HIV/AIDS and STDS. They lose values, rights and future. They risk rejection from family as people who damage their families' reputation.»

(MoT, CNCC, World Vision 2000)
The researchers interviewed various stakeholders including tour guides, MoT staff, taxi-drivers and children in three key tourist locations: Phnom Penh, Sihanoukville and Siem Reap. The report notes that in Phnom Penh “increasing numbers of ever younger people being recruited to work at entertainment and tourism facilities such as hotels, guest houses etc. ... and that contact is made with young girls who can then be brought to them by motor-bikes to where they stay (MoT, 2000:7).

Alarmingly, many child sex offenders are blatant in how they go about procuring and abusing children.

In June 2001, a 29-year-old Italian national was arrested in the early afternoon for sexually abusing four 12-year-old boys. The arrest took place by the Phnom Penh River, in full view of passers-by. The offender had only been in the country for one week. The Italian national had been staying at the oldest and most well-known backpacker guest house in Phnom Penh, but the manager of the guest house said that he noticed nothing strange or unusual about the behaviour of the Italian before the arrest (interview at Capitol Guest House in Phnom Penh, July, 2001).

Just one week earlier (31 May 2001) Cambodian police arrested a 44-year-old French national for child sexual abuse and related offences. In a police search of the Sihanoukville home of the alleged offender, they found thousands of sadistic pornographic images of Cambodian children, as well as plans for an elaborate Sihanoukville-based Internet sex club specialising in sadomasochistic sexual abuse of children. It appears that the alleged offender, who was the owner of a go-cart business, had set up a house like a torture chamber for the abuse of children and was selling his personal collection of child pornography over the Internet and downloading others from around the world (Phnom Penh Post 22/6/01).

Meanwhile British courts convicted a British national for the sexual abuse of girls as young as seven years while he was in Cambodia. The offender had sexually abused girls as young as 7 and recorded the events on his digital camera. He then emailed the photos directly back to his personal email in the UK. Police were alerted when the man’s wife found the images on his personal computer (Phnom Penh Post 26/06/01).
**Case study : JL - Australia/Cambodia**

JL is an Australian child sex offender convicted under the Commonwealth of Australia Crimes (Child Sex Tourism) Amendment Act, 1994. In 1999, JL was convicted of sexual offences against children in Cambodia, including one count of engaging in sexual intercourse with a child under 16 years, eight counts of committing an act of indecency on a child under 16 years (one child believed to be as young as 11 years) and fourteen counts of being in possession of child pornography in Western Australia. JL visited Cambodia between January and March 1997. He was arrested in Australia following a tip-off to police that had come from a work colleague.

During court proceedings it was noted that “the applicant (JL) has demonstrated no contrition for his offences, and although he has not previously been convicted of sexual offences he has a record of other offences, including stealing, burglary, possessing stolen property, an assault occasioning bodily harm and a threat to kill, the last to offences having been committed against his estranged wife”. (JAL vs R - BC200001130, 22/03/2000.Western Australia)

*In a recent interview conducted by this author JL gave his permission for the following information to be used in this publication.*

CB: Did you know about the Australian Child Sex Tourism law before you were arrested?
JL: Yes

CB: Why did you go to Cambodia?
JL: Sex with children and young women

CB: Who told you about Cambodia?
JL: 60 Minutes (Australian Current Affairs TV program)

CB: How did you find the children?
JL: I asked the taxi-driver

CB: Did you have the children brought to the place you were staying (a hotel)?
JL: Yes

CB: What was the attitude of the staff?
JL: The staff couldn’t speak English but their expressions were to ignore what they were seeing to protect their jobs.

CB: How did you get the children into your room?
JL: I had a woman walk the children to my room and then leave some time after so people would not realise they were left behind.

CB: Did you pay someone a bribe to be allowed to get the children into the room?
JL: Yes

CB: Did anyone try to stop you taking the children into your room?
JL: No

When asked if he would have been deterred by seeing posters, leaflets, signs or in-flight movies on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’ - he answered no.

*(Beddoe,C Interview with JL, May 2001) *JL is not a paedophile and he travelled to Cambodia alone.*
On the April 4 2000 the Cambodian Ministry of Interior launched the ‘Law Enforcement Against Sexual Exploitation of Children’ project. The overall goal of the project is to improve the capabilities of police investigating judges and prosecutors, to investigate cases of sexual exploitation and trafficking of children, including rescue of victims, development of referral systems, arrests of offenders and initiation of court procedures (MoI press release).

The project has been supported by five international development agencies including the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNCOHOCHR), Save the Children Norway (Redd Barna), The United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and World Vision.

Between 15 October 2000 - 31 May 2001, there had been 58 child victims (under 18 years) rescued from sexual exploitation. Cases include the arrest of Cambodians, Vietnamese and other foreign nations for rape, child sexual exploitation, trafficking, debauchery and offences relating to the production and distribution of child pornography. (interview with Police Colonel Ten Borany in Phnom Penh, August 2001)

The project has also set up a telephone hotline. In the same period over 200 calls were received about sexual offences - and this is without national advertising of the hotline number.

Embassies in Cambodia have come under fire and intense scrutiny as foreign sex offenders continue to be released from prison, or have charges dismissed with alleged diplomatic assistance.

«…Kobata was charged on June 20, 2000 with debauchery involving children after police discovered he had paid children between eight and eleven years of age to pose for nude photographs. Although Kobata admitted to having taken the photos, he was secretly released from Prey Sor prison on July 3 and subsequently fled the country. Cambodian child protection workers at the time described Kobata’s release as a textbook example of diplomatic interference in the Cambodian judicial process. Japanese embassy officials strenuously denied any involvement in Kobata’s release.»

(19/01/01 Phnom Penh Post ‘Japan to prosecute child porn suspect’)

«…Embassies of countries who are major aid donors to Cambodia are particularly guilty of using diplomatic pressure to free arrested citizens, Oung [of Cambodian Women’s Crisis Centre] said.

“Authorities [who release foreign child sex suspects] say they want to keep good diplomatic relations [with the country involved], especially if those countries are major humanitarian donors,” she said.

“The embassies won’t ask directly [for a suspect’s release] but will ask the authorities to take into account their desire to protect their citizen and how prison conditions are not adequate for their citizens,” she said.
While recognizing the responsibility of embassies to provide assistance to their nationals in legal difficulties in Cambodia, Phnom Penh-based street child protection advocate Sebastien Marot says that in cases involving child sex suspects, embassies regularly overstep their legal and moral bounds “If by doing their job they free a guy who had done something wrong, [embassies] are going against the laws of this country,” Marot told the Post.

(4/8/00 Phnom Penh Post 'Embassies accused of helping sex offenders')

«...The recent hospitalization of accused pedophile Pierre Guynot has raised fears among NGO workers and police that it may be a pretext by the French Embassy to get him out of the country. Guynot was taken by Ministry of Interior police from Sihanoukville prison to a hospital in Phnom Penh August 28. Sihanoukville court prosecutor Mom Mith said that the former Minister of Justice, Ouk Vithun, had sent two letters ordering Guynot’s release from prison for treatment for a heart condition. Mith said Vithun was prompted by the French Embassy to write the letter. Doctors in both Phnom Penh and Sihanoukville connected with Guynot’s case said that there was no real need for his hospitalisation.»

(31/08/01 Phnom Penh Post 'Accused pedophile may be preparing to leave')

The Cambodian Ministry of Tourism is currently reviewing a proposal to second a child protection specialist from a local NGO to work with the Ministry to develop child focussed policies and procedures. The Ministry of Tourism has already begun to conduct training for tour guides and other MoT staff.

2.3 BALI, INDONESIA

The island of Bali lies 8 degrees south of the equator and east of Java in the Indonesian archipelago. Famous for its beach and surf culture almost as much as for its art, historical and devoutly Hindu culture, tourists flock to Bali from all corners of the world.

2.3.1 Political, social and economic instability in Indonesia

By 1997 the influx of tourists coming to Bali and foreign exchange earnings in Bali underwent a sharp decrease compared with those in the previous year. The tourist influx decreased 60.3 per cent (1,869,012 persons) during that year while the foreign exchange earnings decreased 51.8 per cent (US$ 714,767 ) from 1997 until 1998. The cause of this decrease was the economic and political crisis that hit Indonesia in 1997 accompanied by ethnic crisis that continues today. As a result, the number of poor people, children who could not get access to education, children who have to work and neglected children have increased both in Bali and in all of Indonesia. However, if compared with the other regions in Indonesia, Bali has not been hit as much by the impact of the economic crisis (Rohman and Adria, 2001).

At least 800,000 people across Indonesia have been leaving their homes, among them no less than 300,000 children who have been affected by conflicts (ILO-IPEC, 2001). As a result of the perceived political stability and economic opportunity Bali has been flooded by refugees from other parts of Indonesia. Ethnic conflicts in several regions have triggered increasing
flows of refugees to Bali, adversely affecting the island’s tourist centres such as Denpasar and Badung physically, socially and culturally (Jakarta Post. 4/08/01).

With political instability, falling tourist arrivals, competition for other types of street work due to increasing numbers of refugees, Indonesian children particularly those living or lured to work in tourist destinations are vulnerable to all forms of commercial sexual exploitation.

2.3.2 Prostitution in Indonesia today

Indonesia's sex industry is becoming increasingly complex, consistent with the increasing mobility of the Indonesian population, increasing pace of life, rising incomes and challenges to accepted mores (Jones et al, 1995). Just as in other countries, by far the majority of clients of commercial sex workers are local men. A survey of truck drivers on the Surabaya - Denpasar (Bali) route found that 68 per cent paid for sex at rest stops (Suarmiartha, quoted in Jones, 1995). In Indonesia, a married person of whatever age is considered - legally and culturally - to be no longer a child. This has resulted in much confusion as authorities, parents and society do not consider the prostitution of wives or widows aged below 18 in anyway a manifestation of child prostitution (Farid, 2000).

According to the Indonesian National Commission on Child Protection (interview April 2001) approximately 30 per cent of commercial sex workers in Indonesia are children.

2.3.3 Sex Tourism in Bali

«I travelled to Indonesia to write about sex, specifically, the sex between older Australian women and “Kuta Cowboys”, young Indonesian gigolos. Shhh...the guys don’t like it when you use that word. They are boyfriends, they insist, they’re not just paid for sex. The story might have a happier ending if sex was the only thing the women wanted. But, you know women...some of us think sex should be wrapped in love.»

(Denise Dowling:Kuta Sweats Sex www.balivillas.com/kutasex)

For many people the image of the Kuta Cowboy - the gigolos or beach-boys that ply the beach resorts - epitomise sex tourism in Bali. In describing the tourist guides of Yogyakarta in Central Java, Dahles (1998:39) says “their life-style is an imitation - not of western tourists but - of the Kuta cowboys, the infamous Balinese beachboys, who lead the fashion in the world of guides”. However, as a destination that accounts for 35 per cent of all Indonesia’s tourist arrivals (Jakarta Post 2/08/01) and that absorbs over 100,000 tourist arrivals each month (June 2001: 135,000 arrivals ibid.) Bali inevitably has a sex tourism industry that caters for both men and women, although prostitution involving female sex workers is quite hidden.

Homosexuality is generally not accepted in Indonesia, but Bali does have a gay sex tourism industry. In a study of male commercial sex workers in Bali and their male tourist clients in Kuta, Ford and Wirawan (in Clift and Carter, 2000) noted that only a small proportion of male CSWs grew up in Bali (7%). This trend now extends to the beach-boys or gigolos. The Kuta cowboys are more likely to be from other parts of Indonesia.
2.3.4 Child sex tourism in Bali

Until recently ‘child sex tourism’ in Bali was an issue that was ignored, covered up or denied by police, tourism authorities and policy makers.5

«Young girls aged from ten to fifteen hanging out in front of discotheques at night selling things are easy targets for tourists wanting sex. Some are even rumoured to have been sold to America and Australia. »

(Wirata, 1996).

Bali’s awakening to ‘child sex tourism’ is very recent. On the 19th August 2001, a 57 year old Italian national was arrested in northern Bali for the sexual abuse of 11 boys aged 12 to 15 years. Indonesian newspaper KOMPAS reported that:

«This particular case occurring on Lovina Beach is the first in that location to be revealed to [police commissar] Safei’s knowledge. “We’ve had something stolen. Up till now we’ve always watched the Kuta areas, yet apparently these activities have already reached Lovina“. “A case like this usually does not occur in isolation, there are factors in the community at play,” said Dr AA Gde Muninjaya, MPH, head of the unit for research and training in Community Epidemiology. “I’m very shocked to hear of this case occurring in Lovina. Up till now we’ve only paid attention to Kuta. It seems we must also guard the beaches in other tourist areas,” he said. “It must be acknowledged our advocacy in this matter has been inadequate. Also legal mechanisms designed specifically to protect children do not exist” he added. “The LSM organization has to focus more on this problem as it is bound to increase along with the growth of tourism“.»

(KOMPAS 26/08/01 Beriwisata di Bali Sambil “Memakan” anak anak -article translated)

2.3.5 The Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in Bali

The report that follows is extracted from on-going research conducted by Rohman and Adria R.S. on the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in Bali. The Indonesian researchers, Rohman and Adria R.S., were invited to contribute to this publication because of their experience and knowledge of CSEC in Bali. They have given their permission for this report to be reproduced by the World Tourism Organization. A full copy of their research has been published by ECPAT Australia.

A. The Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in Bali

In Bali, the commercial sexual exploitation of children can be seen in three forms: (1) the prostitution of children (male and female children involved in commercial sex work), (2) child victims of paedophilia, and (3) trafficking of children for the purpose of employment and prostitution.

Characteristics of Commercial Sex Work (CSW) involving children

Based on its operational technique, CSW involving children in Bali tourism can be divided into three groups: street children in CSW, invisible children in CSW and gigolo children.

- **The street children** in CSW who operate openly in streets, bars, discos, karaoke and pubs aged between: 14 to 16 years of age.

- **Invisible children in CSW** are those who operate in a hidden manner such as being a freelance guide, street vendors, manicurists, hair braider, and dating technique aged between: 11 to 16 years.

- **Gigolo children** are children whose side job is a freelance guide, renting out surf boards, and selling drinks on Kuta beach aged between: 10 to 17.

**B. Research Study Sample**

Fifteen young people involved in CSW were interviewed for this study. Table 1 shows their general characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age (Years)</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Street Children (CSW)</td>
<td>Susiani</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cindi</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>Not Passed High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tina</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>Not Passed Secondary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ningrum</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Easy Java</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inka</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invisible Children in CSW</td>
<td>Wayan Jingga</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Karangasem (East Bali)</td>
<td>Uneducated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ketut Sriani</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Karangasem (East Bali)</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wayan Biru</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Karangasem (East Bali)</td>
<td>Uneducated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nengah Mulia</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Karangasem (East Bali)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nyoman Dewi</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Karangasem (East Bali)</td>
<td>Uneducated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys in CSW (gigolo children)</td>
<td>Oni</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Trenggalek (East Java)</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feri</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lampung</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Johan</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Negara (Bali)</td>
<td>Not Passed Secondary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acong</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Jember (East Java)</td>
<td>Not Passed Secondary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Iqsan</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Makasar (South Sulawesi)</td>
<td>Not Passed Primary School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Primary data 1998 and 2000*

6 Names mentioned are not the actual names.
C. Summary of general characteristics of children in commercial sex work (CSW)

**Street children in CSW.** Typical characteristics of this group is that they operate openly, the majority of them come from outside Bali and want to be employed as prostitutes. They have common agreements on such things as: deciding tariff, the target clients, the division of operating areas, conflict settlements and deciding commissions for middle men, pimps and security apparatus. All of them stay in groups in a complex of boarding houses with rent of Rp.300,000 (Aprox. 38.75 USD) per month.

Their general characteristics are that most of them come from rural areas and small towns in provinces of East Java such as: Banyuwangi, Jember, and Situbondo. Most them come from Banyuwangi. They migrate to Bali and after 3-4 months in Bali they go home for a short period of time.

**Invisible children in CSW.** Their characteristics are that they operate with a dating technique, all of them are from Bali. They are illiterate and come from poor families with many children. All of them stay in boarding houses in Kuta with the rent of Rp. 150,000 (Aprox. 14.37 USD) per month. Before becoming involved in CSW most of them worked as beggars, selling leather bracelets, as housemaids, hair braiders and manicuring services.

«I and Nyoman Dewi used to be beggars in Sanur for 1 month. Then I moved to Kereneng Denpasar. I was also a beggar there for 2 months. I was shy being a beggar all the time. Finally I and Nyoman went to Kuta. During my staying in Kuta I sold leather bracelet while Nyoman worked as hair braider for tourists.»

(Wayan Jingga, April 1998).

**Boys in CSW (Gigolo).** They are mostly found at the beach as beach boys. They only seek Japanese clients. They dye their hair red, have dark skin and have a side job renting out surf boards and drinks. They group together with other beach boys and they have strong networks. They dress in short pants, are bare-chested and barefooted. In the evening, they are easily found in the tourist bars of Kuta.

D. Location and Operating Technique

**Street children in CSW.** Their operational location, among others, are in front of bars, discotheques, cafes, and pubs along Legian Street in Kuta. Bars and discotheque. They stand in front of the bar or discotheque together with adult prostitutes, tourist pickpockets, drug traders, street traders and souvenir sellers. From 23.00 up till 04.30 they stand along the street or go into and out of discotheques looking for clients, connecting middleman and doing transaction.

In their operations they also form small groups based on the same place of origin. They call this group ‘geng’. Its purpose is to give protection, to know sudden razzia, and to fight against violence coming from other groups.
Besides their operation on the streets they also receive bookings from hotels or restaurants. The length of service is 1-3 days and a pimp, unknown to the children, will arrange the transaction. They are sought and picked up by a hotel car and then handed to guests who need them. In return they receive clothing, jewellery, money, hand phone, souvenirs, and extravagant meal service. All of these are received directly from the guest without their pimp(s) knowing about it. They recognize that good luck like this has become their everyday dreams. However this situation is very rare, perhaps it happens once in three months.

**Invisible children in CSW.** Their operational location is in front of hotels, on Kuta beach and along Legian Street. In the afternoon they work as hair braider, selling leather bracelets and doing manicuring service for tourists.

Their operational technique is by seducing their clients when they are working in the afternoon time or entering discotheques and offering themselves as guides. After this stage is finished they then try to persuade them to be their fiancés. The next stage is that they try to be always with the clients during their stay in Bali. The relationship continues until the clients go back to their countries. Every month they will get in touch through letters and telephone calls and ask for some money.

In 1998, the Kuta community felt very much disturbed by the life of street CSW, street vendors, pickpockets, drug traders and the like. Finally the Kuta authorities (pecalang) made a police operation to arrest them. The consequence was that the commercial sex workers changed their ways of operating. They did not operate anymore in and out of discotheques. Some of them moved to Sanur, Nusa Dua, Denpasar, and Singaraja. They were housed in prostitution complexes such as boarding houses, bungalows, guesthouses, and inns.

**Boys in CSW (Gigolo).** The location of their operation between afternoon and evening time is different. In the afternoon they can be found in front of the tourist hotels and along the beach area. In the evening, they can be found in the tourist pubs and bars. Their operational technique has five stages. **First,** they offer surf boards or drinks. **Second,** they chat with clients while seducing them. **Third,** they offer themselves to be guides. **Fourth,** they offer themselves to be fiancées and make the clients depend on them. And **fifth**, they ask for money and in return they have sexual intercourse.

«I just came back from Lombok with a Japanese woman for two weeks’ visit. Indeed this time I am so lucky besides being beautiful and strong in bed, she is very extravagant. During the journey she wanted to spend a lot of money. For petrol which I actually needed for 50 litres I was given Rp. 200,000. She had bought me a genuine G-Shock watch. At the time we came back from Lombok she gave me Rp. 6 millions.»

(Fery, 11 years, 1998)

**E. Clients and Risk**

**Street and Invisible Commercial Sex Workers (CSW).**

CSW clients can be grouped into two - local clients and foreign tourists. The former are people who mostly come from Bali such as builders, labourers, drivers, gigolo’s, domestic tourists, and private (non-government) employees.
The latter are foreign tourists who visit Bali. For the children in CSW in Kuta, all of their clients are foreign tourists who, among others, are from Australia, France, Hungary, The Netherlands, United States, and Japan. The average age of the clients is between 27-55 years with the greatest in number from Australia, Japan and the United States. For children in CSW in Sanur, Denpasar, and Singaraja, most of their clients are local people and sometimes tourists:

«Two days I went with an American from US Navy, he was very extravagant. Not bad I got three millions and I was bought a hand phone.»

(Tina, 15 years, May 1999)

The risks mostly deriving from exposure to CSWs are sexual violence, Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD) and AIDS/HIV. Some forms of sexual violence that have been experienced are rape, forced oral and anal sex accompanied by some physical violence. They also experience abortion, suicidal thoughts and depression.

**Boys Prostitute (Gigolo).** Of the boys surveyed, all of their clients were Japanese female tourists between the age of 17-35 years. Most of the gigolos prefer clients whose age is less than 20 years. The reason is that Japanese tourists are perceived as easy to seduce and deceive, they are extravagant, they like beach boys very much and they have small bodies.

The sexual behaviour of the 5 cases studied, is categorized as being high risk. They have sex by means of anal, oral and vaginal intercourse and also engage in sexual activity with other local CSWs.

«There are many Japanese tourists who have had sex with me. It can be 3-4 times a week. Besides this, I usually go to a complex twice a week because it is very cheap, only Rp. 30,000. If I wish, I can go to the complex everyday. I like the ones who are still young. When I hear that there is a new one coming, I will surely try her.»

(Johan, 17 years, April 1999).

One issue of concern is that when having sex they seldom use condom. As a result, three out of five cases are infected with sexually transmitted diseases (DST) among which are GO (gonorrhea), syphilis and *Jengger Ayam*. But all of them consider this problem as nothing to worry about.

«I have frequently experienced a disease that it is hard for me to urinate. My penis was once swollen and got red. Doctor said that I got infected with syphilis.»

(Iqsan, 1999)

Next to STD-infection risk, boy prostitutes are also threatened with crime since the majority of them are drug users and traders. They inject one after another with the same needles.
F. Paedophile Exploitation of Children

From information gathered between 1996-2001, researchers believe that there have been 12 (known) paedophile sex offenders aged between 35-70 years, who have operated regularly in Bali. These came from Australia, England, France, Germany and the United States with at least one German offender having lived in Bali since 1973. Researchers believe that that these alleged offenders were well informed and spoke Bahasa Indonesia and Balinese language. They also knew the Bali traditional laws, Bali geography including small villages in Bali and knew enough local information to win the sympathy of the locals.

Operational Area

Since 1996 up to the present, the main location of alleged paedophile activity in Bali is Karangasem District. The alleged offenders take children from Karangasem to tourism places in Denpasar, Kuta, Ubud, and Singaraja. From 1997 and up to mid 1998 there have been 9 children from Karangasem that have been taken by alleged paedophile sex offenders to Australia, Britain, Germany, Japan, The Netherlands, Switzerland and the United States. From nine children, seven of them have returned to Bali. What follows is the story of Nyoman Oles, a male child (8 years old), who had been sexually abused by a German man named Kohlen:

«We met Kohlen when selling on Bakungsari Street. He took me, Bukar, Dade, Buni, and Marni to Tiara Supermarket. There all of us were bought a meal, sandals, swimsuit, socks and then we swam together. After that, all of us were taken to his house in Ubud. We all played until we were satisfied and then we went to sleep. The boys slept downstairs while the girls upstairs. When sleeping, lying on my stomach, Kohlen forced me and get “his” (penis) to my anus. It pained quite a lot ... finally I pinched “his”, Kohlen felt painful. After that he forced Dade and Bukar to do the same. I saw Dada and Bukar got bleeding like me. After that he went upstairs, and the three of us followed him silently. Upstairs I saw Marni and Buni had been raped by Kohlen. Marni and Buni shouted painfully.»

(Nyoman Oles, April 1999).

G. Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes

Based on a Rapid Assessment about ‘Child Trafficking in Indonesia’ (ILO-IPEC 2001) a collaboration of ILO-IPEC with the University of Indonesia (UI) and NGOs in Medan, Batam, and Bali, the trafficking of children and women in Bali can be found in 5 forms. These are: (a) for begging, (b) for sexual purposes, (c) for drug trafficking, (d) for house maid and (d) for paedophile exploitation (Rohman and Adria, in ILO-IPEC, 2001).
Trafficking of children in Indonesia.

Police continue to uncover syndicates involved in trafficking young women and girls, many younger than age 18, to work in brothels on islands in Riau province, Jakarta, Bandung, and Surabaya (all in Java); Denpasar (Bali); Medan (Sumatra); Ambon (Maluku); Manado, Makassar, and Kendari (Sulawesi); and Jayapura, Sorong, and Merauke (Irian Jaya). Others are trafficked to Malaysia, Singapore, Japan, Taiwan, and Australia. Many of the girls and women were hired under false pretences. One tactic commonly employed is to offer young women in rural areas jobs as waitresses or hotel employees in distant regions, typically at island resorts. After the new recruits arrive at the site they learn that they have been recruited as sex workers. In some instances, women are held forcibly at brothels or are prevented from leaving an island. In other cases, the women have no option other than to accept the work because they lack money to travel and facing other economic pressures. There also have been cases of boys involved in prostitution, especially in popular tourist destinations such as Bali and Lombok; at times such boys have been victims of trafficking, although the incidence reportedly is low.

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H. Recruitment Process

Children tend to be promised work in a hotel, restaurant or bar and are tempted with the big salary that can be gained by going overseas. In some of the cases, children have been encouraged by friends and fiancéées, or by the persuasion of a middle man who would pay for everything at his own expense. Almost all the children interviewed experienced deception and exploitation, and had to reimburse all the expenses that have been imposed on them. The recruiters are almost always local people (Balinese or Javanese) who are known to the victims.

The case of Luh Wati

«My name is Luh Wati (16 years old). Since I was 8 years of age I have been in Kuta. I discontinued my study when I sat in the second year at Elementary School. During my stay in Kuta, I stayed together with my brother who has lived there for about five years. My brother worked as a street vendor, water-ski guide and gigolo. I first worked as a street vendor on the beach helping my brother. After I could do it by myself, I sold leather bracelet together with my friends and my sister. For some months I tried to work as hair braider and pickpocket in Legian. When I was 10, I was offered a job by my sister's friend as a shop assistant at an art shop. In the evening I kept selling leather bracelet in Legian or just having a walk. “Ah ..., working .... at art shop ... has little ... money”, I complained to my friends. I kept working day and night until I got to know Pak Sadem. Pak Sadem was recognized as not being a good man by my friends. He was the one who persuaded me to work as a guide. Finally, I received his offer. I began to be introduced to some white people that he had known. Then I began my job as a guide taking tourists around Bali. I was tricked by Sadem, it was me who worked but him who got the money. I was transferred from one white person to another. And I was asked to follow what these white men wanted me to do. Once he said that the money would be divided into two. But indeed he deceived
me. After I just asked my friends, it was known that Sadem always looked for children to be sold to white people (bule) who only liked children. After I was 12, I ran away from Sadem’s hold. I fell to a Japanese bule and joined him to Japan. I then had the same fate, in Japan I was transferred from one Japanese to the other. Then I found myself bored and returned to the village. I stayed long in the village. I became sick for more than one month. The villagers that I met told me that I was pale, emaciated and distressed. When I was 14, I came back to work in Bali. I became a middle person for white people who want children. I looked for female children from my village for the bules. Now I frequently go to Australia, Switzerland, together with other bules. I do not care for myself.»
(Source: Yayasan Anak Kita, 2000)

I. The response of the community where the children are originally from, and of the community of Kuta

The community reaction in the villages where the children come from is anger and embarrassment but they tend to be apathetic. The reason is that the children involved are not prepared to confess, they feel very ashamed, and are regarded as cause for dirtying the village’s name and its adat (traditional law). In addition there is no reliable information and evidence for the community members and they are afraid of being sanctioned by the adat law and the villagers if their actions were proven. This shows that the children’s position in the community is still very weak and powerless. Children in this process have been victims and will continue to be victims after their behaviour is revealed.

«We have to act based on evidence. At the moment, I have never known if our children in Kuta prostitute themselves. We only know that they become guides and bring their guests to their villages. Other villagers think that it is normal. If they are proven to have done prostitution we certainly will give them adat sanctions.»

(Village Head, March 1998).

«We do not know for sure about the problem. We only know that Wayan Jingga, Ketut Sriani, Wayan Biru, and Nyoman Dewi often bring tourists to the village and to the town. That is alright. Actually there are some villagers saying that they work as prostitutes in Kuta but that is their problems. They do not have anything (poor). It is even difficult to feed themselves and all the people here are like that, poor. That bules (foreigners) often give food and clothing to their families.»

(Villager, March 1998).

Meanwhile, the response of the Kuta community such as the bar owners, discotheques, restaurants, hotels, and traders of informal sector tend to be more permissive. One reason is that this phenomenon is very much hidden, having a network or syndicate, many can benefit from prostitution and indirectly it gives benefit to businesses such as bar, pubs, restaurants and discotheques. This opportunity indirectly increases the practice of sexual commercial exploitation towards children.
«This is the characteristics of life in Kuta. Street prostitutes, street vendors, street children operate day and night. If this is prohibited the characteristics of Kuta will lose. Because this is also one of the power of attractions of Kuta.»

(Employee of tourist bar, June 1998)

«Let them be children prostitutes, that clients need them very much. If we do not have them, no guests are coming. I also get fortune if Johan the gigolo has guests here.»

(Security man, Pub, June 1999)

Not all members of the Kuta community stayed away from addressing the problem. Many of them felt uneasy about the existence of prostitutes and other street life. In April 1998 the adat community of Kuta did a sweep of street prostitutes, street sellers, hoodlums and street children for one month and it continues up to now. Their actions include checking identity cards and patrolling. The impact of that action is that what used to occur in streets has now turned to the inside of discotheques, bars, pubs, restaurants or other illegal places in Sanur, Kuta, Denpasar or Singaraja.

Conclusion

Economic and political crisis affecting Bali tourism is not the main cause of sexual exploitation of children in Bali. This practice was known a long time before the economic crisis hit Indonesia. The economic crisis has rather been more of a push factor which has significantly increased the practice of sexual exploitation of children.

Social services such as counselling, rehabilitation, reintegration into family, alternative education, provision of special skills and health services have never been provided in Bali to address CSEC. Time is ripe for identifying actions required and for taking appropriate measures to help children who are the victims of sexual exploitation.
In June and July 2001 a survey questionnaire (appendix 2) specifically designed to inform this report was administered to a random sample of hotels and guest houses in Pattaya Beach, Thailand and Kuta Beach, Bali (Indonesia). The questions were both closed and open questions to establish the level of knowledge about ‘child sex tourism’ and to assess what actions have already been undertaken by hotels and guest houses to reduce the risk of children being abused on their premises.

SURVEY OBSERVATIONS

- Survey respondents from Pattaya were much more aware about the existence of ‘child sex tourism’ than the respondents in Kuta.

- In Pattaya, staff from lower-end hotels thought that child sex offenders were mostly Thai and other East Asian men, while staff from upper-end hotels felt it was typically European men who were child sex offenders.

- In Pattaya, 47 per cent of the respondents agreed that there were taxi drivers in the area who encouraged child prostitution or ‘child sex tourism’. In Kuta it was only a 7 per cent positive response.

- Less than half of the establishments surveyed in Pattaya (47%) and less than one-quarter (24%) in Kuta had some sort of a policy to prevent child abuse or ‘child sex tourism’.

- Over 60 per cent of respondents in both Pattaya and Kuta would like training on prevention of ‘child sex tourism’.

- Very few respondents in both Pattaya and Kuta had received information from the local tourism authorities on how to prevent ‘child sex tourism’.
### 3.1 Pattaya Beach, Thailand

A random sample of 30 hotels and guest houses in the Pattaya Beach area (Pattaya, Jomtien). The survey questionnaire was administered by Carly Hammond and Tawiporn Songtaweesin, students at Mahidol University, Bangkok. A copy of the questionnaire was translated into Thai language and questions were asked in English and Thai.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you heard about child prostitution or child sex tourism?</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think it happens in this area?</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have a policy to prevent local children being brought into this hotel (or guest house)?</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do your staff/managers receive training on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) how to tell customers that child prostitution is illegal</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) how to report child abuse to the authorities</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) If no to above, would you like training?</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you get any advice from police about how to prevent child sex tourism?</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you get any advice from tourism authorities about how to prevent child sex tourism?</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have any signs or posters warning against child abuse</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you display them if you were given them?</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6% already have sticker on premises)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2 KUTA BEACH, BALI (INDONESIA)

A random sample of 41 hotels and guest houses in the Kuta Beach area (Kuta, Legian, Tuban). The survey questionnaire was administered by staff and students of the Tourism Department at Politeknik Negeri, Bali.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you heard about child prostitution of child sex tourism?</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think it happens in this area?</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have a company policy to prevent local children being brought into the hotel?</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do your staff/managers receive training on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) how to tell customers that child prostitution is illegal</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) how to report child abuse to the authorities</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) If no to above, would you like training?</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you get any advice from police about how to prevent child sex tourism?</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you get any advice from tourism authorities about how to prevent child sex tourism?</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have any signs or posters warning against child abuse</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you display them if you were given them?</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 CAMBODIA

In a survey conducted in 2000 by the Cambodian Ministry of Tourism (MoT) in collaboration with Cambodian National Council for Children and World Vision various stakeholder groups were interviewed to explore knowledge, attitudes and practices relating to ‘child sex tourism’.

Hotels and Guest Houses

Of the 32 owners of guest houses and hotels interviewed

- 66 per cent said that they have no regulation against ‘child sex tourism’.
- 96 per cent were interested in using posters to warning of ‘child sex tourism’.
- 50 per cent said that the MoT should make laws and regulations against ‘child sex tourism’.
The same survey also interviewed 68 children of average age 15 years who were living and working in the tourist areas (Phnom Penh, Sihanoukville, Siem Reap).

- In Phnom Penh, 92.6 per cent of children interviewed knew about sex tourism because they had been approached for a sexual relationship.

- In Sihanoukville, 45.45 per cent of children interviewed knew about sex tourism because they had been approached for a sexual relationship.

- In Siem Reap, 72.73 per cent of children interviewed knew about sex tourism because they had been approached for a sexual relationship.

- Nationalities of sex tourists identified by children were: French 27.55 per cent, Chinese 26.02 per cent, Japanese 18.88 per cent, American 7.65 per cent, Cambodian 7.65 per cent, Thai 5.1 per cent and no nationality observed 3.58 per cent.

- 95.74 per cent of children said that they wanted to combat ‘child sex tourism’.

(reproduced with permission of World Vision, 2001)

3.4 COMMENTS BY THE TRAVEL AND TOURISM INDUSTRY ON CHILD SEX TOURISM

In 2000, as part of their Child Wise Tourism program, ECPAT Australia conducted consultations and training workshops with travel and tourism partners in Bang Saen (near Pattaya) Thailand; Phnom Penh, Cambodia; and Tuban, Bali (ECPAT Australia, 2001). Listed below are some of the recommendations and comments made by the participants of these consultations, plus comments that were noted during interviews in each case study location in 2001.

TRAINING and EDUCATION

(a) If we are trained with the knowledge on ‘child sex tourism’ we can help to train other target groups in tourism destinations (Cambodia, 2000)

(b) We need to train the drivers as well as tour guides (Cambodia, 2000)

(c) We need more joint action between police and hotels (Thailand, 2001)

(d) Training for tourism practitioners should include knowing about the way of life for local people living in tourism destinations (Bali, 2001)

(e) Tourism authorities must give advice to the travel and tourism industry (Bali, 2001)
ACTIVE PARTICIPATION of STAFF and MANAGEMENT

(f) We could develop art and cultural performances in tourism destinations with the theme of protecting children (Cambodia, 2000)

(g) We could help children directly by raising funds (Thailand, 2001)

(h) We must strengthen the relationship between the tourism industry and the appropriate NGOs (Cambodia, 2000)

(i) We could expand our working committees on health and HIV to incorporate other sensitive issues such as ‘child sex tourism’ (Cambodia, 2000)

(j) We need a better tourism community network so we can inform the authorities and get feedback (Thailand, 2001)

ORGANIZATIONAL POLICY and PRACTICE

(k) We should keep better registration records in hotels and guest houses to include nationality and passport numbers (Cambodia, 2000)

(l) We could include No Child Sex Tourism on brochures (Cambodia, 2000)

(m) Small manuals and posters would be a help (Thailand, 2001)

(n) Make sure to check ID of all visitors and know what to do if under-age (Thailand, 2001)

(o) We should never let (local) children be left alone in the hotel (Bali, 2001)

(p) We need an in-house procedures manual and know who to call (Thailand, 2001)

OTHER

(q) Guide books should include warnings about ‘child sex tourism’ and what impact it has on the community (Bali, 2001)

Tourism Training

It is now widely acknowledged that there is a need for training within the tourism sector to create awareness about how to protect children and how to respond appropriately to ‘child sex tourism’. When we consider that globally there are 115 million direct tourism jobs (WTO, 2000), providing tourism education on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’ is also about providing community education.

In September 2000, ECPAT Australia and the Human Resources Development section of the Social Development Division of UN ESCAP (United Nations Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific) facilitated an Asia regional workshop for tourism training providers on Preventing Child Sex Tourism through tourism industry training and human resource
development. Participants came from Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Macau SAR China, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam. The participants were asked to come up with a list of what could be done by tourism training providers now and in the future (ECPAT Australia, 2001).

What can we do now?

- **Government tourism authorities**
  
i. have seminars for front line staff and Ministry staff
ii. involve NGO experts
iii. gather and distribute information materials

- **Private Training Providers**
  
i. Identify key trainers
ii. Identify space in existing curriculum
iii. discuss the topic with students in non-formal way
iv. get students to set up awareness groups
v. add information on to student notice boards
vi. research, depending on capabilities

What can we do in the future?

- **Government tourism authorities**
  
i. Prepare Training Manual
ii. Networking
iii. Monitor and evaluate training and education
iv. Work with Ministry of Education
v. Promotional activities

- **Private Training Providers**
  
i. Add into Curricula
ii. Lobby Government for more action
iii. Network
iv. Involve trade associations
v. Invite expert speakers
vi. Lobby to blacklist operators who are involved in ‘child sex tourism’

The WTO training module addressed to tourism professionals and the one for college students aged 12 to 16, prepared in 2001, will be available in 2002 for implementation by education centres and schools. Regional ‘train the trainers’ seminars and workshops are scheduled to take place during 2002/2003.
Discussion

From the surveys, consultations and interviews with various representatives of the tourism sector in each country, it has become clear that there is a general willingness to participate in awareness campaigns and training programs on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’. The existing international campaigns have already had a major impact in Cambodia and Thailand, where the respective tourism authorities are already considering how they can participate more actively. In Bali, little to no awareness by either the tourism sector or the wider community has meant that there is virtually no existing participation from the tourism sector and very little initial willingness to become involved.

Where campaigns have been successful in raising awareness, there has not always been the corresponding attention paid to providing actual programs to create a child safe environment in tourism destinations. That has resulted in increased knowledge but little action.

Training is highly desired, but there is a lack of well resourced and appropriate trainers who can follow up and support long term training initiatives.

Both government and private tourism sector decision makers have been more likely to respond when a supportive and cooperative relationship has been developed with NGOs.
4.1 VULNERABLE GROUPS

Poverty is most often cited as the root cause of commercial sexual exploitation. However, poverty is not simply the consequence of a lack of resources. Many individuals are unable to access existing resources because of who they are or where they live. Such discrimination is a form of social exclusion and a direct cause of poverty. Within the ASEAN region, groups vulnerable to commercial sexual exploitation include ethnic minorities, the disabled, street children, children orphaned by AIDS, children of commercial sex workers, stateless people, migrants and those women and children who are currently working in the entertainment sector or near border areas. In addition, there is high risk to those who have low levels of education and those who are victims of violence from within their own families.

4.2 TOURISM AND DEVELOPMENT

Aggressive economic development policies that promote tourism in the absence of alternative high yield industries have created a fragile environment for children. With increasing pressure to operate within a global economy, many less developed countries have resorted to tourism to earn the hard currency needed to pay back foreign debt. When tourism replaces traditional rural economies (eg. beach resorts that were once fishing villages) older men have fewer employment opportunities whilst women and children have little choice but to work in the service industries. Children from poor families seek out new opportunities for employment and education by migrating to the tourist areas but have little hope of finding work in the formal tourism sector. These children are those most at risk of abuse and exploitation.

4.3 HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Trafficking in children and women for commercial sexual purposes cannot be isolated from other global and regional labour and migration issues. Uneven economic and social development across the East Asia region has contributed to high mobility of labour and subsequent irregular migration. Globalisation and open market policies have created a fragmented social and economic environment particularly for women and girl children. The buying and selling of women and girls for the sex industry and for forced marriages has become a flourishing trade in certain parts of Asia. ‘Sex tourism’, and the higher level of money involved, has increased the overall demand for commercial sex workers. This has led agents to seek out new sources of women and children, this in turn has fuelled the human trafficking rackets across Asia and the rest of the world.
4.4 HIV/AIDS

HIV/AIDS has impacted upon children in many different ways. Children in the commercial sex industry do not have the same power or skills to negotiate safe sex, they have little opportunity to gain access to safe sex education and they are not likely to seek out early intervention medical treatment. However, they also become innocent victims of the AIDS pandemic by being orphaned by AIDS affected parents leaving them to financially support themselves or their siblings.

4.5 CHILD PORNOGRAPHY AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES

Increasingly, child sex offenders are exchanging information about where to go on holidays using Internet technology. In addition, police are now seizing personal pornographic holiday photo collections as evidence in extra-territorial cases of child sexual abuse and exploitation. The children who appear in such pictures are, at the time the picture is being taken, subjected to degrading and humiliating acts of a criminal nature. In some of the imagery, they are beaten or burnt or are subjected to torturous sexual depravities. When made to pose in lewd situations with others, including other children, they are subjected to psychologically distressing manipulation. Digital cameras and scanners make it that much easier to share personal pornographic collections with a global audience. Cases are now emerging where Internet pornography sites are hosted in developing countries involving the abuse of thousands of local children. Recent evidence in Indonesia and Russia suggests that Internet providers in developing countries, sensing the global demand for child pornography, have become third party go-betweens in the global distribution networks.

4.6 THE ROLE OF THE MEDIA

The international media coverage of ‘child sex tourism’ has at times been sensational and salacious, yet it has also raised the issue to a global audience and has helped to support international campaign efforts. However, even after 10 years of high profile media coverage, all to often journalists are told by producers and editors that we need to see the faces of the suffering children because that’s what the viewers want. At the same time alleged offenders have their identities screened. This is not acceptable and only serves to further degrade children. We need to find a way to use the media, not just to report cases, but to tell the stories behind why it is so important to keep the identities of the children confidential and to promote a children’s rights ethic.

4.7 INTRA-ASEAN7 TOURISM

The year 2002 will be the Visit ASEAN Millennium Year and ASEAN Governments have agreed to join forces to promote the countries within ASEAN as a single destination. With an emphasis placed on increasing tourism flows between ASEAN members, individual countries are being urged to relax visa requirements and facilitate training and exchange of tourism professionals. These major trends are likely to put pressure on relatively ‘new’ tourism destinations that may be unprepared for the more negative impacts of tourism, including ‘child sex tourism’.

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7 Association of South-East Asian Nations
4.8 OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

4.8.1 Embassies and diplomatic relations

Embassies and Consulates have an important role in the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’, yet up until now they have been almost invisible. Diplomatic networks and foreign police liaison officers can exchange information on extra-territorial laws, individual cases and international ‘child sex tourism’ trends. They can also distribute information on extra-territorial laws to their nationals visiting or living in tourist destinations. Perhaps more importantly, Embassies and Consulates must establish protocols and procedures for handling cases of child sexual abuse that include co-operation and exchange of intelligence with the host country and international law enforcement networks.

4.8.2 Business networks

Foreign business networks in tourism, including Chambers of Commerce, have the potential to show leadership in protecting children. They are a potential source of fund raising as well as having influential networks within the local community. There are very few examples where foreign business networks have participated in international campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’.
SECTION FIVE

Recommendations

for the active participation of the tourism sector in the international campaign to prevent child abuse in tourism destinations

5.1 THE ROLE OF THE WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION (WTO)

The WTO already has an infrastructure to provide technical co-operation and short term technical assistance to governments on issues of sustainable development. *Technical cooperation projects are the tools through which WTO assists governments acquiring technical know-how in the formulation of tourism policies and strategies in planning, product development, tourism marketing and promotion and education and training* (WTO in Asia and the Pacific, 2000). For example, the WTO aims to assist the Government of Thailand in the preparation of a Five Year Tourism Master Plan.

- Recommendation

It is highly recommended that the WTO extend their support on the campaign to protect children from sexual exploitation in tourism to include:

(a) leadership and technical support to ensure inclusion of child protection measures in the development of Tourism Master Plans, regardless of whether the country has experienced ‘child sex tourism’ or not;

(b) the provision or sourcing of technical cooperation and support to National Tourism Administrations who request assistance with the implementation of international guidelines, plans and strategies to protect children in tourism destinations;

(c) to source funding for international monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the WTO inspired NTA guidelines;

(d) to ensure that all WTO divisions and departments continue to promote the protection of children as an essential and integrated aspect of sustainable tourism.

5.2 THE ROLE OTHER TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

Training, education and leadership

Most travel and tourism employees never receive advice or training on child rights or child protection. Small to medium size tourism operations are only interested in training if it has been done by larger businesses. The travel and tourism industry needs local leadership on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’.
■ RECOMMENDATIONS:

(e) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must provide or lobby for appropriate training of travel and tourism students and industry professionals. Training should recognise cultural relativity and should fit within the existing training environment.

(f) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ should encourage local business leaders to get behind the campaign. Training programs on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’ should be endorsed by local tourism industry associations, promoted in the travel media and be supported by trade unions and regional and international industry bodies.

(g) Training programs on the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’ cannot begin without appropriately trained trainers and teachers. International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must provide or lobby for training tools and train the trainer programs.

(h) Training must be updated and on-going to have visible and sustainable benefits. Recognition of training is an important incentive and consideration should be given to how training on child protection can be included in competency based training programs. International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ should provide or lobby for continued programs not one-off actions. Behaviour change takes time and nurturing.

Campaigns and the Prevention cycle

Raising awareness of ‘child sex tourism’ is only half the battle, the other half is having the capacity and resources to protect children.

■ RECOMMENDATIONS:

(i) Awareness raising should be part of more holistic prevention and protection approach. The travel and tourism industry should develop working partnerships with child protection agencies. Tools such as brochures, stickers, posters, etc., should be linked to child protection programs run by local government or non-government organizations.

(j) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ should be used more effectively to lobby for national laws, programs and policies to protect children. Tourism industry leaders should be more involved as advocates for a child safe tourism environment.

(k) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must lobby donor agencies to increase resources for research and development of prevention programs, vocational training for children and youth, especially females, alternative employment programs and access to health and legal services for children and youth. The tourism industry can provide opportunities for alternative education and employment for youth.

(l) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must link with or advocate for action research or participatory research methods in order to develop a greater understanding of the issue. The tourism industry could support researchers by providing assistance for accommodation and transport as well as emergency accommodation for children in need of immediate assistance.
5.3 THE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL STRUCTURE OF CAMPAIGNS

In tourist ‘sending’ countries specific campaigns for the prevention of ‘child sex tourism’ exist along side campaigns on the prevention of other forms of child exploitation. Strategies used in tourist ‘sending’ countries usually exist within a well established framework and history of children’s rights advocacy. However effective they have been, it does not mean that the campaign message or methods can automatically be adopted in destination countries, especially those that do not have a history of child rights advocacy. Often ‘child sex tourism’ campaigners in destination countries are faced with the question “When so many forms of child exploitation exist why just protect victims of sexual abuse from foreigners - what about abuse at the hands of locals? Campaigns often fail to address the cultural taboo of talking about sex, therefore talking about the prevention of child sexual abuse is difficult if not impossible - especially for students or young workers.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

(m) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must adopt campaign strategies that recognise the differences in perspective between campaigning in the offender’s home country and the child’s home country. Campaigns in tourist destinations should work in harmony with other child rights campaigns if they exist and be addressed towards building greater protection for all children.

(n) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ should be built on a ‘rights-based’ framework.

(o) International campaigns to prevent ‘child sex tourism’ must address the cultural and social diversity of offenders and be inclusive of domestic tourism.

(p) The language of campaigns must be appropriate for those that are expected to advocate or participate. This is not to say that campaigns should shy away from the real issues but that advocates are asked to participate in the development of campaign slogans and images they feel comfortable with and are prepared to use.
APPENDICES

I. Relevant Laws and Policies
   (In Thailand, Cambodia and Indonesia)

II. Survey questionnaire
A) THAILAND

Thailand has a good legal framework for addressing the commercial sexual exploitation of children and women. However, there are still gaps that are currently being identified through a cohesive government and non-government agency dialogue. The existing laws include:

- The Prostitution Prevention and Suppression Act (1996)
- The Measures in Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Women and Children Act (1997)
- The Penal Code Amendment Act (No14) (1997)
- The Criminal Procedure Amendment Act (No 20)(1999)

National Plan of Action


This National Plan calls for the 1. total elimination of entry into the commercial sex business by children under 18 years; 2. Prohibition of luring, threats, exploitation, and acts of violence in the operation of the commercial sex business; and 3. imposition of punishment to all persons with a part in bringing children into the commercial sex industry and punishment to officials negligent in, or choosing to ignore, their compliance with relating policy, laws, rules and regulations. There are 5 major plans within the National Plan, they include: (a) Prevention, (b) Suppression, (c) Assistance and protection, (d) rehabilitation and reintegration, and (e) establishment of structure, mechanism and system in the supervision, control, follow up and speeding up of implementation.

Memorandum of Understanding

National

Thailand has developed a system of cooperation and coordination across and between government and non-government agencies. This has been done by developing MoU’s between 1. GO’s - GO’s; 2. NGO’s - NGO’s; and 3. GO’s - NGO’s specific to cases where women and children are victims of commercial sexual exploitation.
Bi-Lateral

Currently the governments of Thailand and Cambodia are negotiating a MoU that, when finalised, will address return and repatriation of victims of trafficking.

International treaties

The Royal Government of Thailand is a signatory to:

- UN Convention on the Rights of The Child
- UN Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)
- ILO Convention No 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour
- UN Convention on Trans-National Crime

B) CAMBODIA

Cambodia enacted the Law on the Suppression of the Kidnapping, Trafficking and Exploitation of Human Beings, in 1996.

Article 3 states:

“Any person who lures a human being, male or female, minor or adult of whichever nationality by ways of enticing or by any other means, promising to offer any money or jewelry with or without the person’s consent, by ways of forcing, threatening or using of hypnotic drugs, in order to kidnap him/her for trafficking or prostitution shall be subjected to imprisonment from 10 to 15 years.”

The penalty is raised to 15-20 years if the victim is less than 15 years old. Accomplices are subjected to the same penalties as perpetrators.

A new ‘tourism law’ is being drafted and it is hoped that this will contain provision for crimes related to child sex tourism.

National Plan of Action

The Cambodian National Council for Children has developed a Five Year Plan Against Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation of Children (2000 – 2004) that has been adopted by the Council of Ministers in March 2000. The Plan was developed as a follow-up to the 1996 Stockholm World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children.

The Ministry Of Interior is cooperating with UNICEF, World Vision, Save the Children Norway and UN Cambodia Office for the High Commissioner for Human Rights in the Law Enforcement Against Sexual Exploitation of Children (LEASEC) Project. The project has included training of police, investigating judges, and prosecutors as well as the establishment of a telephone hotline for victims and informants of trafficking.
International treaties

The Royal Government of Cambodia is a signatory to:

- UN Convention on the Rights of The Child
- UN Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)
- ILO Convention No 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour

C) INDONESIA

Currently no law exists to specifically address the commercial sexual exploitation of children. There appears to be consensus amongst government and non-government agencies that the current legal framework is totally inadequate to address CSEC. The only existing legal framework to deal revolves around the Penal Code but specific problematic legal issues related to the welfare of children include (i) the removal of childhood status when a child is married, (ii) no provision for sexual abuse of male children and (iii) age of criminal responsibility is 8 years.

A Child Protection Bill has been drafted and is under current consideration. The Ministry of Justice is currently drafting new legislation specific to trafficking of women and children

National Plan of Action

There are current plans by the Ministry of Justice to draft a Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Women and Children alongside the drafting of new legislation. The National Commission on Child Protection (NCCP) also have plans to develop a National Plan of Action to combat the commercial sexual exploitation of children. (a follow up to the Stockholm World Congress against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children). However, this procedure has been slow due to a Government decision to dissolve the responsible Ministry in 2000

International Treaties and Obligations

The Government of Indonesia is a signatory to:

- UN Convention on the Rights of The Child
- UN Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)
- ILO Convention No 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour
II. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Survey questionnaire for WTO research on child abuse in tourism destinations 2001

LOCATION .................................................. DATE ........................................

Hotels and Guest Houses

Hotel ☐  GuestHouse ☐

Name of Hotel or Guesthouse (optional) .................................................................

Interviewee position title (optional) ............................................................................

1. How many rooms? 1-10 ☐, 11-20 ☐, 21-30 ☐, 31-50 ☐, 51-100 ☐, 100+ ☐

2. What is your star rating?

3. What country/’s do most of your guests come from?

4. What is the main type of guest?

Foreign Tourist ☐  Local Tourist ☐  Business Traveller ☐  Other ☐ ...

5. Have you heard about child prostitution or child sex tourism? Yes/No/Not sure

6. Do you think it happens in this area? Yes/No/Not sure

If yes - where do you think it happens?

7. Do any of your customers complain or say anything about child prostitution/child sex tourism in this area?
8. Who do you think are the offenders?  
(nationality/age/travelling alone/business travellers etc)

9. Are there hotels and guest houses in this area that encourage child prostitution and child sex tourism?  Yes/No/Not Sure

10. Are there tour guides in this area that encourage child prostitution and child sex tourism?  Yes/No/Not Sure

11. Are there taxi drivers in this area that encourage child prostitution and child sex tourism?  Yes/No/Not Sure

12. How do you stop this from happening in your hotel/guesthouse?

13. Do you have a policy to prevent children being brought into the hotel/guesthouse?  Yes/No/Not Sure  
If Yes can we have a copy of it?

14. Do your staff or manager/s receive any training on:  
(a) how to tell customers that child prostitution is illegal?  Yes/No  
(b) how to report child abuse or child prostitution to authorities?  Yes/No  
(c) If No, would you like training programs if they were offered?  Yes/No

15. Do you have any written signs or posters on the premises that tell customers child sex tourism/child prostitution is illegal?  Yes/No/Not Sure

16. Would you display them if you were given some by tourism authorities?  Yes/No/Not Sure

17. Do you get any advice from police about how to prevent child prostitution/child sex tourism?  Yes/No/Not Sure

18. Do you get any advice from tourism authorities about how to prevent child prostitution/child sex tourism?  Yes/No/Not Sure  
If Yes - do you follow the advice given?  Yes/No/Not Sure

19. What do you think the majority of tourists think about child prostitution/child sex tourism?

20. How do you think the travel and tourism industry can help to prevent child prostitution/child sex tourism?


The Bangkok Post, *various*

The Cambodia Daily, *various*

The Nation, *various*

The Pattaya Mail, *various*

The Phnom Penh Post, *various*


World Tourism Organisation (undated) *The Economic Impact of Tourism - using tourism satellite accounts to reach the bottom line*. Madrid: WTO

PART TWO

THE COMMERCIAL SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN (CSEC) IN TOURISM FROM THE TOURISM-SENDING COUNTRIES’ PERSPECTIVE

BY C. MICHAEL HALL and CHRIS RYAN
(A) Introduction

This study was commissioned by the World Tourism Organization in March 2001 to Professors C. Michael Hall from the University of Otago (New Zealand) and Chris Ryan from the Waikato University (New Zealand). The remit given to the authors included the following:

General Objectives

- Identify and assess the incidence of sexual exploitation of children in tourism networks.
- Avail decision-makers and general public of a clearer understanding of the phenomenon.
- Identify critical areas and connecting points in the tourism network for the elaboration of a comprehensive plan of action to effectively combat all forms of sexual exploitation.

Specific Objectives

- Assess magnitude of CSEC from tourist-sending countries’ perspective, bearing in mind both offenders and victims.
- Provide for a tool with which to measure the effectiveness of the international campaign and national and industry actions to combat CSEC.
- Assess the nature, forms, sources, numbers and other relevant characteristics of the problem in the regions/sub-regions affected by it.
- Identify channels of trafficking in children for prostitution among countries.
- Identify permanent and varying causes (social/economic/cultural/political) and relevant factors that contribute to CSEC.

However, as will be referred to in many instances within this report, the authors concluded that it is was difficult to isolate the problem of commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC) from a wider perspective of child abuse, social conditions that give rise to such abuse, the use of children (and women) as low cost labour, and a range of other related and contextual issues. In consequence the report will take the following form:
■ an overall discussion relating to the monitoring of the commercial sexual exploitation of children and the generation of data flows;

■ recommendations pertaining to the processes of monitoring and awareness campaign generation;

■ a specific country report;

■ further sets of recommendations arising from the country report. These latter recommendations are categorised into two broad groups. The first relate to governmental bodies and the role that they might play, and the second attempts to be more specific to the tourism industry. It is thought this is appropriate as reflecting the nature of the World Tourism Organization as:

   • an inter-governmental body that has a history of being proactive in opposing the commercial sexual exploitation of children in tourism and as an adherent to pertinent Conventions of Human Rights; and

   • as an international organization representing the interests and responsibilities of the international tourism industry as, for example, indicated in the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism adopted in 1999 at the WTO General Assembly at Santiago de Chile (see Appendices).

Additionally, a bibliography is provided, listing published work under headings relating to different countries.

Of necessity some of the latter set of recommendations duplicate those of the first section of the report in that all participating countries identified a need for campaigns of awareness and monitoring, but some country government representatives and NGOs sought to locate anti-CSEC policies within a legal framework that addresses related issues like prostitution, child support policies and the enforcement of Human Rights. The authors have thus distinguished between the two sets of recommendations on the basis that the first relate to specific campaigns that can be, or have been initiated by international bodies, whereas the second relate to wider areas of governmental jurisdiction.
1.1 ESTIMATES OF TRAFFICKING

Although a large body of paper and e-literature exists on sex tourism (a selected list is attached as an appendix to this report) there is enormous variance in estimates of both the trafficking of children for prostitution and of travellers seeking prostitution. It is also evident that researchers cite earlier work and reproduce figures, even though the original may be based on estimates and not empirical research. A number of reasons account for this.

First, the trafficking of children for prostitution is inseparable from the broader problem of trafficking in women and children. In testimony before the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations Subcommittee on Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs on February 22, 2000, Regan Ralph, the Executive Director of the Women’s Rights Division of Human Rights Watch reported:

“The number of persons trafficked each year is impossible to determine, but it is clearly a large-scale problem, with estimates ranging from hundreds of thousands to millions of victims worldwide. The State Department estimates that each year, 50,000-100,000 women and children are trafficked into the United States alone, approximately half of whom are trafficked into bonded sweatshop labor or domestic servitude.

Trafficking is also a truly global phenomenon. The International Organization for Migration has reported on cases of trafficking in Southeast Asia, East Asia, South Asia, the Middle East, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, South America, Central America, and North America. And press reports in the past year have included accounts of persons trafficked into the United States from a wide variety of countries…”

What does appear to be certain is that the problem is global, with the trafficking of women and children from various countries being international and linked to crime syndicates as illustrated in Figure 1.
One of the reasons for the difficulty in estimating the extent of trafficking is the existence of a wide range of approaches and methodologies to the analysis of the subject. One of the key conclusions of the literature review is that there is a lack of systematic research from which appropriate comparisons from within and between different locations can be made over time. Furthermore, research is in itself inherently difficult because:

i. in the majority of national legal jurisdictions child prostitution and/or prostitution is an illegal activity and therefore formal data are not available and/or extremely hard to obtain or may be obtained only at significant risk to the researcher;

ii. many law enforcement authorities and political agencies do not wish to see the topic discussed or analysed because of the embarrassment it may create and/or in some jurisdictions there is evidence of corruption with the legal and political system which has actively worked against the study of the subject of child sex tourism and sex tourism/prostitution in general;

iii. various countries, legal jurisdictions and agencies have different definitions of what constitutes child prostitution thereby making comparability between data and research observations extremely difficult;

iv. different international and national agencies often do not exchange data and do not see the ‘problem’ from the same perspective;

v. the study of child sex tourism (and sex tourism overall) may not be adequately encouraged in certain institutions because of ethical issues raised in the conduct of such research. This may particularly be the case with respect to attempting to research child sex tourism and child prostitution on the internet given that in some legal jurisdictions downloading of material onto a computer is illegal;
vi. the mobility of child sex-workers, who may move frequently between brothels and/or are trafficked between cities and countries;

vii. the aversion of child sex workers to authority structures means many are reluctant to participate in a formal research programme, especially those which contain elements or overtones of formal authority structures;

viii. the nature of sex tourism itself has changed over the previous 20 years, creating new challenges for the study of sex tourism; and

ix. while much attention has been conventionally spent on international flows, within country instances of child abuse and trafficking may be worse (see country studies in Section Two).

These last two points are extremely significant for charting the supply and demand of child sex prostitution. In the 1970s and 1980s, a substantial proportion of sex tourism was undertaken through sex tours that were often organized within formal tourism industry structures. However, campaigns against such sex tours both within generating and receiving countries have meant that such formal structures have been almost completely abandoned particularly within tourist generating countries and now only a few ‘borderline’ operations remain. The WTO Statement for the Prevention of Organized Sex Tourism (1985) was the first official stand taken by an inter-governmental organization against this practice (see Appendices). Also, the Australian Parliamentary Joint Committee on the National Crime Authority (1995) in their report on Organised Criminal Paedophile Activity noted that:

“In the 2 years that we [ECPAT] have been working on this issue [child sex tourism] in Australia, there has been little evidence of any organisation organising child sex tours. ... In the past, we believe that there have certainly been one or two travel agencies that have encouraged child sex tours and had promotional nights and so forth, but that does not seem to be occurring at the moment... someone seeking child sex overseas [does] not need to rely on any organisation to find it: the media [have] given so much information on where to go, and available children could readily be found in bars and so forth in those places.”

In developed countries, knowledge of the availability of child and non-child prostitution opportunities is now typically available through more informal networks, often operating through the Internet. These informal tourism structures are difficult to trace, presenting many challenges for undertaking comprehensive, rigorous research on sex related travel to less developed countries.

The changes in the nature of sex related travel suggest that anti-child sex campaign strategies need to reflect the changed nature of sex tourism.

The supply of child prostitutes for sex tourism as well as other demands can still be charted so long as relevant government agencies are willing to acknowledge that problems exist and strategies are put in place to overcome these. The co-operation of legal agencies such as the police force, or health and social work services, is critical when undertaking the appropriate investigations and checks. Yet the reality in many
jurisdictions is that the appropriate legal/policing agency is often unwilling or unable (because of lack of human and financial resources as well as political support) to investigate reports of CSEC.

It is also vital that the issue of trafficking of children for prostitution be seen within the wider context of trafficking of women and children as a form of cheap labour. Indeed, the barriers between the two are highly permeable, with the commodification of labour in one area carrying over into the other. Therefore, the flow of trafficked children for the purposes of prostitution tends to mirror wider trends of trafficking in children and women. To generalise: this means that, in international terms, the flow of trafficked children tends to be from the less developed countries to the more developed countries. However, such a generalisation disguises the uneven nature of national and international economic development, whereby often trafficking occurs within countries as well as from one ‘poor’ country to another as illustrated in Figure Two.

Another key factor in analysing trafficking flows is the extent to which the presence of borders influence flows and, in some cases, the location of centres of child prostitution. For example, in South-East Asia there is considerable evidence of cross-border trafficking as well as child prostitution availability in locations on or near the Cambodia-Laos, Cambodia-Vietnam, China-Vietnam, Myanmar (Burma)-Thai, Myanmar (Burma)-China, Thai-China, Thai-Cambodia, Malaysia-Thai borders as well as on the Indonesian Islands near Singapore, with the border location making it relatively easy for traffickers to move from one jurisdiction to another as well as the trafficked losing potential legal protections that may exist in their own country. Such a situation is also significant because it goes against the long-standing image of travellers from the developed countries being the primary source of sex tourists. In much of South-East Asia, for example, it is domestic and intra-regional travellers that constitute the greatest source of demand for child prostitutes and sex workers. This is not to deny the
presence of sex tourists from the developed world in these locations. However, there is a
tendency for the sex tourists from developed countries to be concentrated in the gateway
cities, because there are typically greater time constraints on their travel activities.

One of the key conclusions to be drawn from the literature and from the primary research
that has been conducted is the importance of recognising child sex tourism as one
component in the wider problem of child abuse and trafficking. As noted by Human Rights
Watch in their Senate testimony:

“…While our research has focused on the trafficking of women and children into the
sex industry, reporting from numerous credible sources shows similar patterns in the
trafficking of women, men, and children into forced marriage, bonded sweatshop
labor, and other kinds of work. In all cases, the coercive tactics of traffickers, including
deception, fraud, intimidation, isolation, threat and use of physical force, and/or debt
bondage, are at the core of the problem and must be at the center of any effort to
address it.”

The scale of the relationship of child sex tourism to other issues of child abuse in the context
of much of the developed world (see also discussion on the New Zealand context below) was
clearly stated by the Australian Parliamentary Joint Committee on the National Crime
Authority (1995) in their report on Organised Criminal Paedophile Activity:

“Most sexual offences against children are committed by their relatives and
neighbours who are not paedophiles in the strict sense of the term and who do not
operate in any organised or networked way...There is no evidence to suggest that
organised paedophile groups have ever resembled what are traditionally thought of
as “organised crime” groups in size, aims, structures, methods, longevity and so
forth...There is no evidence of any current organised promotion or arrangement of
tours by Australian paedophiles to overseas destinations known to be attractive to
them. However, informal networking among paedophiles may assist some tourists
going overseas to commit paedophile offences ,” (Para. 3.85).

Any strategy developed to counteract child prostitution and child sex tourism will need to
recognise the broader situation of trafficking in people and child abuse if it is to effectively
promote a child safe environment on a global scale.
1.2. TOOLS WITH WHICH TO MEASURE OR FORECAST THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE INTERNATIONAL CAMPAIGN TO COUNTERACT CHILD SEX TOURISM:

The proposed monitoring programme seeks to measure the impact a campaign has on its target audience in terms of the objectives of the campaign and also in terms of achieving the aims of the organization sponsoring the campaign.

For a monitoring programme to be an effective tool for measuring the success of a campaign, it must contain the following characteristics:

(a) Identify the mission and specific objectives of the campaign.
(b) Identify the participants and target audience of the campaign.
(c) Identify the relevant indicators of the awareness level of the campaign.
(d) Identify the relevant indicators of the effectiveness of the campaign in terms of achieving the organization’s aims.
(e) Implement a monitoring programme at regular intervals, with specific activities that result in the collection of quality information in relation to the identified indicators in a consistent fashion.
(f) Develop acceptable performance standards specific to particular countries and regions within those countries.
(g) Evaluate the monitored indicators with the set performance standards.
(h) Modify the campaign as necessary within specific regions to achieve the agreed performance standards.

The main advantage of utilising this process is that the fundamental research methodology is preserved, ensuring data are collected consistently, while the evaluation of these data remains regionally specific, allowing it to be used in a way that is meaningful and appropriate for each region. Such an approach may also ensure the co-operation and participation of regional and other stakeholders, as the data captured can be used by these bodies for regional initiatives to counteract CSEC.

However, there are many challenges to implementing such a monitoring programme. The most important of these is determining which stakeholders will be the participants in the programme, and which participants are responsible for the collection and reporting of the required information. The collection of quality, consistent information is complex because different political bodies in different countries administer (or in some cases fail to administer) the tourism industry and the welfare of children involved in the commercial sex industry.

The complexity of this issue highlights the importance of identifying who has the responsibility for the collection of information amongst stakeholder groups in various countries and the nature of that responsibility. It further emphasises the critical need for the co-ordination of stakeholder groups, particularly between government/legal agencies and NGOs where in some jurisdictions the functions overlap and where in other jurisdictions such functions are absent.
Another significant difficulty is determining who is included within the term “child”, as different cultures have different determinants of childhood, some of which are independent of chronological age or sexual maturity. Equally, within countries, issues of clarification exist. Thus, while in a country like New Zealand the Prostitution Reform Bill makes it illegal for those under the age of 18 to be involved in commercial sex work, nonetheless the age of consent for sexual intercourse is 16 years. Legislations may also wish to further distinguish between those aged 14 and under from those above that age.

There are also ethical considerations, which require that the information is collected in a manner that respects the integrity of the individuals who are participating and where possible, ensures the cultural integrity of the host community is preserved.

The success of a campaign monitoring programme therefore depends on the following:

(a) The designation of a stakeholder as a monitoring programme co-ordinator;

(b) The establishment of clear lines of communication, responsibility and authority to enable the trans-national co-ordination of the monitoring programme and data collection;

(c) Research which is designed and undertaken in a culturally sensitive manner that respects the integrity of the participating individuals and host communities; and

(d) The collection of correct information, which is reported at an appropriate time, for an acceptable cost.

The campaign monitoring programme should operate at two levels and collect information which enables the evaluation of:

(a) The effectiveness of the campaign as measured in terms of how the campaign contributes to successfully achieving the organisation’s goals; and

(b) The awareness of the campaign measured in terms of exposure to the campaign and the successful transmission of the campaign’s concepts to tourists, participants in the travel industry and the host community.

However, it is clearly difficult to achieve a successful monitoring programme unless law enforcement and other relevant government agencies and stakeholders are involved in the creation of an effective monitoring and evaluation system.

It is suggested that a high profile monitoring campaign would add impetus to the existing campaign to raise awareness of CSEC in tourism, and may influence travel behaviours and attitudes plus potentially influence behaviours and attitudes at the destination. Table 1 categorises specific monitoring programme activities in terms of the points discussed above.
Table 2: Monitoring Programme Activities

Cells in this colour indicate that these performance measures are to be agreed amongst the relevant stakeholder groups at a future date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campaign Mission/Goals/Regional Activity</th>
<th>Monitoring Activity</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Regional Performance Measure</th>
<th>National Performance Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prevention</td>
<td>No. of charges laid/prosecutions under child exploitation legislation</td>
<td>• No. of successful/unsuccessful prosecutions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• No. of charges laid under extra-territorial legislation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoption/development of child sexual exploitation legislation</td>
<td>Adoption/ratification of extra-territorial legislation, United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of other prevention activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Whether performance targets were met by the prevention campaign activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regularly hold a focus group of child commercial sex workers, with purpose of creating a case study which creates a continual profile of the focus group participants</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Changes in the lives of focus group participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncover</td>
<td>Collecting/recording the no. of children entering rehabilitation programmes</td>
<td>• A change in the number of children entering rehabilitation programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• A change in the rate of existing rehabilitation programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of Govt. statistics</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Pregnancies in people under 18, including abortion and miscarriage rates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey of health clinic patients involved in commercial sexual activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>• No. of under 18 year olds being treated for any form of STD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaign Mission/Goals/Regional Activity</td>
<td>Monitoring Activity</td>
<td>Indicator</td>
<td>Regional Performance Measure</td>
<td>National Performance Measure</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Isolate                                | Study the density of incidences of CSEC for key international locations | • Diminishing density of incidences of CSEC  
  • Diminishing frequency of incidences of CSEC | | |
| Erradicate                             | Regularly recording the number of children who are involved in the commercial sex industry | • Number of children involved in the sex industry | | |
| Exposure of tourists                   | Measure exposure, recognition & recall of media campaigns through surveys conducted at point of ticketing and/or airports/customs depots | • Recognition of media campaign, incl. Internet | | |
| Exposure of travel industry            | Participation in awareness/eradication programmes  
  Measure exposure, recognition & recall of media & education campaigns  
  Development of an internal organization awareness programme | • Recognition of media campaign, incl. Internet | | |
| Exposure of host community             | Measure exposure, recognition & recall of media & awareness campaigns | • Recognition of media campaign, incl. Internet | | |
1.3. METHODS AND TECHNIQUES FOR USE IN THE CAMPAIGN EFFECTIVENESS MONITORING PROGRAMME

Such a monitoring programme seeks to identify whether such an awareness campaign will or did change people’s opinions, attitudes and behaviour.

This can be achieved by:

(a) Recording and evaluating the data required to identify changes in the indicators outlined in Table 1,

(b) Surveying a representative population in host and travel generating communities for changes in opinions, attitudes and behaviour in relation to CSEC.

There are several possible techniques for collecting this data, including undertaking an online survey or a conventional, paper-based survey at point of ticketing and/or arrival and departure points.

1.4. METHODS AND TECHNIQUES FOR USE IN THE CAMPAIGN AWARENESS MONITORING PROGRAMME

A monitoring programme of campaign awareness must be designed to measure the outputs of a campaign such as whether the message was received, paid attention to, understood and retained by the target audience/s.

There are several methods for measuring such impacts:

(a) Counting the number of media placements, and estimating the reach and frequency of exposures the target audience has to each type of media placement.

(b) Evaluation of the quality of the media in terms of creating the desired impact on the target audience by undertaking focus group studies which measure the participant’s perception and reaction to the campaign.

(c) Using a representative sample of the target audience to analyse their recognition and recall of the promotional material in various media formats. If undertaken both before and after the major aspects of the campaign are launched, a comparison of the results can be compared and contrasted and will illustrate the impact of specific campaign activities on the audience.

(d) Monitoring the traffic to websites relating to the prevention and eradication of CSEC for site statistics which indicate exposure of web page viewers, e.g. the number of hits a site receives, page duration time, visit depth etc.
1.5. THE COMBINATION OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY DATA THAT WILL BE USED IN THE IDENTIFICATION IN THE CRITICAL AREAS IN THE TOURISM NETWORK WHICH LEND THEMSELVES TO CSEC.

The international co-ordination body should design a research programme to collect the information required for the monitoring programme that can be implemented consistently within each country and region.

Identification of critical points in the tourism network within and between the developed countries is necessary so that effective communication channels can be constructed and responsibilities allocated in an optimally efficient manner.

Some of the critical points in the structure of the tourism network are outlined below:

- identify actors
- identify nature of relationships
- analyse roles
- collect data
- share and disseminate data

Potential links are shown below:
The significant relationships between actors in the network are identified. While the relationships between these stakeholders are similar between developed countries, the roles and responsibilities of each actor in the network is not. Therefore, a preliminary analysis of the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders within each destination must be undertaken. Any functions or tasks necessary for the success of the monitoring programme that are not already undertaken must be allocated to an appropriate stakeholder.

It is suggested that the most efficient and effective way of collecting the required data is to leverage NGOs and National Tourism Administrations’ (NTAs) relationships with their respective local communities. This information is then supplied to the international co-ordination body for evaluation of the indicators against the performance targets for the region, and country destination. It is likely that the NGOs and NTAs will require additional funding to ensure that resources are available to undertake the research and that appropriately skilled people are employed for the data collection and analysis task.

As previously outlined in the points developed above, the monitoring programme requires a significant degree of co-ordination amongst stakeholders. This co-ordination is critical to the success of the monitoring programme, ensuring that it is co-ordinated in a manner that enables the participation and collaboration of stakeholders and maximises their synergies.

However, there are several challenges that must be resolved in order for co-ordination of stakeholders to be effective. The most important of these is establishing clear communication channels in order to facilitate collaboration. In order for this to occur, the responsibilities and the authority of specific stakeholders in respect of particular tasks must be agreed upon in advance.

The second challenge that must be resolved is establishing the functional relationships between groups that have different roles and responsibilities within their local communities. For example, the various national chapters of ECPAT International have different tasks, roles and relationships within each community they operate in. This is often a result of the socio-political and legal environment in which they operate, further highlighting the importance of the support of government/legal authorities to the success of the monitoring programme. Likewise universities do not have common structures as to research in this area, and indeed may impose constraints upon access to information via the internet through ethical policies.

Due to the different organizational funding arrangements within each country, it may be necessary for the international co-ordination body to facilitate and encourage the participation and support of the government/legal authorities in the collection of necessary data and to provide funding for the additional tasks required of NGOs and NTA organizations.
1.6. OVERCOMING THE BARRIERS TO IMPLEMENTING A SUCCESSFUL MONITORING PROGRAMME.

A number of potential barriers that may inhibit a successful monitoring programme can be identified, and these include those shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Factors that may inhibit successful monitoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barrier</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of funding/resources</td>
<td>Identify the required extra resources at NGO, NTA level, determine responsibility for providing those resources, commit to providing those resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of expertise</td>
<td>Identify required skill base, Source the required skill base, Train existing employees/volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of co-operation</td>
<td>Undertake an information/training programme to inform stakeholders of the mission and objectives of the programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of co-ordination</td>
<td>Establish communication channels, Delineate spheres of responsibility, including clear lines of authority and specific tasks that must be achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of participation</td>
<td>Select appropriate data collection sites, e.g. sexual health clinics, rehabilitation centres, internet sites, postal questionnaires etc., Reward survey participants</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Consequently, a set of specific recommendations can now be identified.

Specific Recommendations:

1. The international co-ordination body to form a programme monitoring entity with responsibility for the co-ordination of the data collection programme in developed countries;

2. Design regional and national performance standards for the key indicators;

3. Design a research methodology for the monitoring of key indicators that can be implemented in a consistent manner within different countries;

4. Secure buy in to the monitoring programme and research activities from key stakeholders such as NGOs and NTAs;

5. Encourage government/executive authorities to support and endorse the research activities;

6. Work with tourism industry participants such as travel agents, tour operators and accommodation providers to implement and facilitate their adoption of ECPAT's Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation in Travel and Tourism, at an individual business level.
It is therefore possible to identify a series of potential stakeholders and indicate actions that might be taken, and this is done in Table 3.

### Table 3. Implementation Plan – Involvement of Stakeholders in Recommendations made:

The diagram below illustrates the involvement of stakeholders in relation to the previous specific recommendations.

- This coloured box indicates the involvement or participation of that particular stakeholder.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder Participation</th>
<th>Central Government</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Police/Justice Departments</th>
<th>Educational Institutions</th>
<th>Tourism Industry operators</th>
<th>NGOs</th>
<th>NTAs</th>
<th>Int’l Co-ordination body</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific Recommendations:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The international co-ordination body to form a programme monitoring entity with responsibility for the co-ordination of the data collection programme in developed countries.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Design regional and national performance standards for the key indicators</td>
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<tr>
<td>Design a research methodology for the monitoring of key indicators that can be implemented in a consistent manner within different countries.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure buy in to the monitoring programme and research activities from key stakeholders such as NGOs, and NTAs, and government legal bodies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encourage government/legal authorities to support and endorse the research activities.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with tourism industry participants such as travel agents, tour operators and accommodation providers to implement and facilitate their adoption of the Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation in Travel and Tourism, at an individual business level.</td>
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SECTION TWO

Country Report

The situation within New Zealand of the Sex Industry, involvement of children and overseas travel by New Zealand Nationals

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Discussions have taken place with a number of interested groups including other researchers in New Zealand, the New Zealand Prostitutes Collective, various sexual health clinics in Wellington, Hamilton and Auckland, Statistics New Zealand, police authorities, ECPAT New Zealand and various agencies relating to children's well being. In consequence, this report is divided into two broad sections, the first relates to the commercial exploitation of children within New Zealand and the second to the exploitation of children for purposes of sex by New Zealand residents who are travelling overseas.

2.2 THE DOMESTIC SITUATION

With reference to the domestic situation, one of the issues that emerged was that of differing perspectives, partly based, it is thought, upon definitional differences. This has been particularly true when attempting to analyse the position within New Zealand itself as to the commercial exploitation of children. It seems that there are a number of linking issues that might be described with reference to Figure 3.

It should be noted that the diagram primarily exists to identify various groupings and while attempting to show overlapping areas of concern, the diagram is indicative rather than prescriptive. For example, the diagram shows no linkage between the law enforcement agencies with the legislative and judiciary, and while at the operational level of law enforcement that would be true in a country like New Zealand where judiciary, legislative and law enforcement are separated, at the strategic level of inviting and involving agencies in the development of policy relating to such an issue as commercial child sexual exploitation, the various agencies including police and NGOs would be engaged in dialogue with the executive and legislative that leads to the framing of legislation. In a New Zealand context that is exemplified by the progress of the Prostitution Reform Bill in 2001. The purpose of the Bill is to decriminalise sex work.
Figure 3. Interested groups involved in commercial child sex exploitation.
2.3. PROSTITUTION

However, each of these overlapping agencies appear to work on slightly different criteria. For example, bodies associated with the main stream of sex work tend to the view that commercial sex work relates to those who work within massage parlours, escort agencies or those working privately or in co-operatives for whom sex work is a significant occupation and source of income for at least part of their time. Therefore they are primarily concerned with those over the age of 18 who work as sex workers as illustrated by the patterns of work envisaged by the framers of the Prostitution Reform Bill (2001) in New Zealand. Within this perceptual framework, child sex workers and children exploited for sex, occupy a special position as needing protection from abuse, and being in a position where they are not able to best make decisions as to the career choice of sex worker. There is also a general consensus that child sex workers are small in number within New Zealand. For example, the Auckland Police are of the view that in inner Auckland there are but about 10 such young sex workers for whom they have a profile and seek to work with social support agencies. Past observations by this researcher and discussion with others would indicate that perhaps there were about 20 in Christchurch in the late 1990s. The Prostitution Reform Bill envisages the protection of those below the age of 18 by making sex with such a person an indictable offence. Between 1996 to 2000, only ten young people between the ages of 14 and 17 years of age were convicted of soliciting.

On the other hand the child support agencies cite much larger numbers of children being engaged in sex work, with children at risk being found on the streets of New Zealand’s larger cities, in particular, it would seem, Auckland and Christchurch. Thus, reports from Maori Wardens in South Auckland mention as many as 150 children being engaged in sex work, a few of whom are as young as 13 or less. However, there are questions as to the regularity and persistence of such ‘work’. There is an observed seasonality, that is more, appear in the summer months than in the winter, many appear but infrequently and numbers change over time. With reference to specific areas of South Auckland, the current project revealed evidence that these were not new problems, that the area concerned has been characterized for almost at least three decades by children who undertake occasional sex work. Informants tended to the view that the position had gotten worse over recent years due to government policies of the mid to late 1990s that were thought to have further eroded social support systems for low income families and those characterized by indices of family dysfunctioning such as high truancy rates, low educational attainment, alcohol abuse, solo parenting, familial abuse including abuse of mothers and children, high rates of sexual transmitted diseases when compared to other areas of New Zealand, and poor housing conditions. For some of these children there is truth in the observation that life on the streets may be safer than life at home. Indeed, the view was expressed by the Auckland police that street dwellers possessed social structures and that their society was more structured than originally had been thought. For example, they had come across situations where children were being advised as to the best ways in which to survive and mentoring systems were in place. There tended to be a consensus that a continuum of involvement in commercial sex existed on the part of these children. These ranged from those with no involvement to those who might be said to be moving towards sex work as a full-time occupation. These latter are generally considered to be very few in number, but the evidence is far from clear but may become clearer due to current research. Work undertaken by the Christchurch School of Medicine among sex workers using the services of a sexual health clinic, indicated that about 30 percent of the 311 surveyed had commenced sex work before the age of 18, of which over half had started by working on the streets. However, of the then current survey, only 11 were under 18. Such research situations are fraught with
varying difficulties as to the nature of ‘truth’; but even allowing for the total maximum number being cited, New Zealand has less of a problem than many other countries.

In one report (Saphira, 2001) based on a questionnaire sent to a 1,000 counsellors and others working with young people in various ways (for example Maori wardens, Community Alcohol services, Youthline etc), the informants indicated that they could identify 194 children under the age of 18 who were involved in commercial sex work in some way, of whom only 11 percent were classified as practising safe sex ‘most of the time’ or ‘all of the time’. Of these, 145 were thought to be 16 years of age or younger. The majority were in Auckland (47) with a further 37 in Canterbury (where Christchurch is located). To the minds of the authors of this report these figures seem consistent with other research in specific locations. Of these children it was estimated that 37 percent came from families with a background of ‘average’ or ‘above average’ income, but in all 194 cases there was evidence of family problems. The two most common were an ‘alcoholic family’ (37) and sexual abuse (35). With reference to this report it might be noted that it does not indicate the regularity and nature of the sex work (i.e. whether children were resorting to sex work as a ‘profession’, being used by pimps or engaged in ‘survival sex’.

For many young people living on the streets, the preferred way of obtaining money is through theft rather than through sex, but anecdotal evidence exists of ‘punters’ arriving with bags of glue for sniffing that are given in exchange for sex. A consistent theme from varying respondents is that ‘punters’ visiting South Auckland are drawn from a wide range of locations, although there has also been reliable anecdotal evidence that a number are relatively local – a situation that, according to informants, has remained consistent since the 1970s. To some degree it is a case of low income groups paying low prices, but the ‘clientele’ are varied and again anecdotal evidence of ‘posh cars’ has been provided. The exploitation of children in these instances is multiple. The children may well have been abused within their homes, they are abused by having to live on the streets, they are abused by having to resort to theft and the life style it engenders, they are abused by becoming coarsened due to their life style and thereby are denied fruitful futures, they are further abused by those who seek sex for low payment. Indeed the group who proceed to move into the sex industry as ‘professional sex workers’ gain higher incomes and the opportunities that higher incomes create – many others are left to drift into ever increasing circles of desperate life styles. The view was strongly endorsed by some members of ECPAT New Zealand that much stronger action against the ‘punters’ should be taken, citing newspaper reports that car number plates have been taken by local residents. However, while this may treat a particular symptom and outcome and withhold a source of income, drugs and abuse from these street children, it would not tackle the problems that gave rise to them being present on the streets in the first place. This is not to argue that no action should be taken against those who have sex with children under the age of 18, but rather is an argument that taking such action does not address the problems that give rise to the children being present in the first place. Nor does it solve the issue of the adopted life-style, that could still be sustained by theft or travel to other locations.

Additionally, it is observed that those children for whom sex work has attractions as a source of income and an alternative to street life are potentially at risk from pimps and those who would seek to live off their earnings. Such people hold out promises of affection and care to young children who may not have known such emotions at home. Such relationship with pimps and boy friends can take many forms, but the potential for further exploitation is both evident and high. It is contended that this is less of a problem in New Zealand than in other countries because of the existence of licensed brothels or massage parlours wherein, if
properly managed (especially as envisaged under the Prostitution Reform Bill, 2001), workers have the same rights as any other worker, including independence from the worse forms of pimping.

One circumstance that came to the fore in August 2001 was a reversal of the mail bride situation. Three cases were identified where an Auckland based agency had approached street people with sums of money to secure their agreement to marry overseas nationals as a means by which such nationals could obtain residency rights in New Zealand.

With reference to overseas nationals under the age of 18 working as prostitutes in New Zealand, there was reported to the Auckland police in the last 2 years, that 2 young girls under the age of 18 were brought into New Zealand by two New Zealand ‘businessmen’ for work as prostitutes. A police investigation was unable to confirm this report.

Another source of data as to sex work is from work undertaken in sex health clinics. Some of this is reported below. However, with reference to clients, while each sexual health clinic interviewed could cite examples of children under 15, they stuck in the memory because they were such unusual cases and were very few in number – indeed individual cases existed and they were far from common.

One small group thought to be more vulnerable than other children is transgendered youth. This group is one known to engage in prostitution in order to finance sex change operations, and there are specific areas in Auckland where transgender sex workers work from the streets. Because of issues of adolescence and sexual identity, children of about 13 to 18 are particularly vulnerable to rejection, discrimination and being unsupported. Recently a project relating to the support of such children has been undertaken through Te Aronga Hou in South Auckland.

2.4. CHILD ABUSE WITHIN FAMILIES

Indirect measures of the existence of family abuse exist at many levels. For example, in the work loads of social agencies and in the case loads of Family Courts. One set of indirect measures released at the time of writing this report (August, 2001) was that of abortion statistics. These showed that, in New Zealand in 2000, 74 abortions were undertaken on girls between the ages of 11 to 14 years, and 3,107 abortions on those aged 15 to 19 years of age. (For both these age groups, the numbers of abortions has been increasing in absolute terms since 1990, although the numbers of births to teenage mothers has been decreasing to about 30 per 1,000 in 2000). Specific surveys have shown quite high levels of sexual abuse of female children. For example the Otago Women Health Survey of 1989/1990 found that nearly 20% of the women surveyed reported sexual abuse as children involving at least genital contact. Another 6% reported inappropriate touching or kissing. At an extreme, child abuse can lead to the death of the child and criminal convictions. Like other countries, New Zealand has had well publicized instances of very young children dying from abuse and neglect that is, itself, a form of abuse of the rights of children. The Auckland Central Child Abuse team reported that for the period July 1997 to June 1999, 80.16 percent of the unit’s work load related to allegations of a sexual nature. In the overwhelming number of cases, 86 percent, the offender was known to the victim, and in 71.11 percent of cases the offender was a family member or very closely associated with the family.

As noted above in paragraph 3.3, sexual abuse was found in the background of 19 percent of children engaged in sex work (Saphira, 2001).
2.5. ABUSE OF CHILDREN AS SUBJECTS OF PORNOGRAPHY

The Internal Affairs’ Censorship Compliance Unit (CCU) and Customs are the two agencies that predominantly investigate pornography within New Zealand. The Department of Internal Affairs have monitored New Zealand produced pornography since 1986 and has not come across any example of the filming of children in sexual acts. However, Auckland police through Operation Metro, made two arrests and found child pornography. In one video the offender was found having sex with a child. Additionally, a small number of isolated instances have been identified where persons used computer-generated effects to ‘morph’ photographs of children by removing their clothing. In 1999 the police investigated two paedophiles, one in Hawkes Bay and another in Christchurch, who had set up covert cameras at public swimming pools.

The Objectional Publications Unit is of the view that by far the most pornography viewed in New Zealand is sourced from overseas.

2.6. THE INTERNET

Between 1986 and 2000, the Censorship Compliance Unit undertook investigations involving 375 persons leading to 90 prosecution cases under the Trading and Distribution of Child Pornography and Possession of Child Pornography legislation. Internal Affairs stated they identified an Internet Offender once every three days. Just under 40 percent of the Electronic Crime Unit’s workload pertained to pornography and child abuse cases. News Groups were a significant means by which objectionable images were being transmitted.

A kit, ‘The New Zealand Internet Safety Kit – protecting our kids on the net’ has been developed and is distributed through out schools, but it is not known to what extent this has been done.

It might be noted that the index.dat file generated by Windows Explorer permits examination of web page hits and e-mails sent even when such records are apparently deleted, and to remove this record requires some degree of sophistication on the part of a computer user. This one means by which authorities can collect evidence of CSEC activity, though by no means the most sophisticated.

2.7. OVERSEAS TRAVEL BY NEW ZEALANDERS

In an attempt to assess the possible level of activity enquiries were undertaken at a number of sexual health clinics. In Auckland, the two sexual health clinics account for about 24,000 consultations per annum, while Hamilton has about 7,800 per annum and Wellington about 8,500 to 9,000 per annum. It must be noted that these are ALL consultations (not necessarily patients/clients) and cover ALL referrals. There were some differences between the cities. In Auckland, approximately 80 percent are of people between the ages of 17 to 30, with 75 percent of all consultations involving individuals thought to be between 19 and 25 years of age. About 80 percent of consultations relate to those undertaking what is known in New Zealand as the ‘OE’ – the ‘Overseas Experience’ where young New Zealanders travel around the world and work overseas for periods of two or more years. Those teaching English in Japan were noted as being a particular group who came to the clinic. They were equally divided between both sexes. While such travellers stated they had had multiple sexual
encounters, the most common pattern was they had sex with other similar travellers, so that should the location be somewhere like Thailand, the greater likelihood would be that the sexual partner would not be Thai.

In Hamilton, this same group of ‘OE’ travellers account for a large proportion of the clients of the sexual health clinic. There it was felt that the group could be more or less equally divided between those having a check up prior to departure and those having a check upon their return. Those described as ‘older businessmen’ who travelled overseas might account for about 10 percent of the total number of consultations. The feeling of informants was that this might be related to commercial sex, but they had no feeling that children were being involved, nor any reason to suppose that may be the case.

In Wellington the non-OE group was a little more important, but again it was thought that the older overseas business traveller might account for about 10 percent of total consultations. Again commercial sexual encounters are thought to have been a cause. Again there was no evidence as to such encounters involving children under the age of 18.

However, in this work there are serious omissions of data from sexual health clinics in New Zealand. Except in one case all the records are paper based, and no set questions relate to place of sexual encounter. Additionally, concerns about privacy, and the way privacy legislation is interpreted by public bodies who are sensitive to research seen to impinge on individual’s rights to privacy, impedes attempts to quantify issues such as those involved in this report. What seems to be clear is that there are some individual cases that involve younger children, and these staff can remember because of their nature and the infrequency of such cases. But these are very small numbers indeed, and out of the 40,000 consultations for which these three clinics have been responsible perhaps only 4 have involved young children. For cases of those children of 16 or 17 years of age, the situation is less clear in that some cases might exist, but clients lie about their age and have the appearance and maturity of manner that enables them to appear older than their age.

Other sources of information as to the activities of New Zealand nationals travelling overseas include police monitoring activities, anecdotal stories of airline cabin staff, reports from overseas police representatives and embassy staff who are in contact with law enforcement agencies overseas. In the case of organized sex tours from New Zealand, ECPAT New Zealand had one anecdotal story based upon an alleged phone call made to one M.P. The Police National Headquarters had no evidence of organized sex tours departing from New Zealand.

With specific reference to paedophiles travelling overseas, the police are of the view that such travel is undertaken by New Zealand nationals to the Philippines and Spain, while Thailand retains its popularity. However, the evidence is sketchy, incomplete and partially dependent on clues acquired from internet sites. Additionally, the New Zealand police have some information links through Thai speaking police who maintain links with the Thai community in Auckland and visits to Thailand. Within Thailand, paedophiles have been known to frequent Pattaya which also offers gay tourism. While New Zealand has introduced the concept of extra-territorial indictable offences for offenders having sex with children overseas, only one case has been identified relating to a New Zealand national in Fiji. Police reports note concern over the difficulties of obtaining evidence sufficient to secure a conviction. However, the police of Victoria and New South Wales have prosecuted Australian nationals at least 10 times, and secured convictions in 7 of those cases.
Anecdotal evidence certainly exists of New Zealanders, individually and in small groups, flying to locations like Thailand and Bali, Indonesia, for purposes of pursuing sexual contacts, albeit not specifically for securing sex with children. There remains though the possibility of such clients having sex with older children under the age of 18, or even younger children through being drunk. To cite one informant about such activities – it’s the 3 Ds, ‘I was drunk, it was dark, I didn’t know what I was doing’. Since the introduction of the extra-territorial offence through an amendment of the Crimes Act in August 1995, no convictions have been secured, and, as far as can be ascertained, only one case brought to court, albeit not under this legislation in that the New Zealand national was tried overseas.

2.8. LIAISON AND RECORD KEEPING

It is very evident that at many different levels that there exists poor data collection, records difficult to access in any structured manner and poor liaison between various interested parties. In this research and its telling, the word ‘anecdotal’ is comparatively frequent in usage. Sexual health clinics have few, in some instances, no computer based records, and no common methodology of collecting information in New Zealand. Other government agencies have computerized records, but only for those issues within their defined operational regions of work (whether spatial or functional) and while a lack of liaison has been identified previously by the police and other stakeholders, there has been apparently little done to solve this problem in the past.

Reasons for this comparative lack of action in New Zealand might be explained by a number of factors. First, the nature of the sex industry in New Zealand with 142 (generally licensed) massage parlours (i.e. brothels) and 164 escort agencies listed in the 2001 Yellow Pages telephone directory means that to a large extent the industry is self regulating with easy and transparent access for the most part. It is therefore not a major problem in police eyes for it produces little intrusion upon public order. Second, given the current resource base available to the police, it might be claimed that other concerns rate higher, for example illicit drugs and organized gang based crime. Third, available evidence indicates that the levels of offending are small in number. However, whether what is known is representative or the proverbial tip of the iceberg is not known, although opinion is that it is the former rather than the latter which is the case. Four, the myriad of police, social services, NGOs and other organizations that relate through concerns over women’s, children’s and homosexuals’ rights and related organizations make difficult the task of liaison and indeed record sharing – if only in part because no common mode of data collection exists. That poor records exist reflects insufficient human and capital resources (especially in computing), and in turn that reflects, arguably, a political view that the issue does not enjoy a high priority.

2.9. CURRENT NEW ZEALAND POLICY APPROACHES

Reference to Figure 3 indicates that any approach needs to have several different levels of action, but a prerequisite is that channels of communication and flows of information exist within both formal and informal networks. Network theory indicates that determinants of success lie not only in densities of information, but upon the successful working of nodes of information and the level of linkages that exist between those nodes. Several reports have indicated deficiencies in New Zealand’s internal communication networks on this matter, including one specific to the policing of issues relating to the sexual abuse of children. One contributory factor is a resource base that arises from a small population in a comparatively
large area with no–one recognized authority that collects and compiles data, reports and research on these matters.

Currently the Ministry of Justice is developing a framework of policies and plans pertinent to these issues, seeking to emulate Australian practices. The draft documentation begins by noting that, in 1996, as a result of ECPAT’s campaigning, a World Congress against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children was held in Stockholm. It is also noted that 718 government officials representing 122 countries, 105 representatives for United Nations inter-governmental organizations, 471 non-governmental organization representatives and a delegation of 47 young people participated in the week-long event. At the fourth plenary session of the Congress, delegates unanimously adopted a Declaration and Agenda for Action, thus committing themselves to “a global partnership against the commercial sexual exploitation of children”. The documentation proceeds that States were pledged to put in place strategies and measures “so that by the year 2000 there are national agenda(s) for action and indicators of progress” to “reduce the number of children vulnerable to commercial sexual exploitation”. A Second World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children is scheduled to take place in Yokohama, Japan, on 17-20 December 2001 as follow-up to the Stockholm Congress.

The New Zealand Ministry of Justice’s view is that the Agenda for Action is essentially a checklist - a set of guidelines for concrete action and that it proposes a five-pronged approach to the eradication of the commercial sexual exploitation of children:

- the co-ordination of actions at the local, national, regional and international levels;

- the taking of preventative measures through the formal and informal education sector and sensitising target groups to their rights and to the issues;

- the protection of children already caught in the sex trade through the strengthening or development of relevant laws, policies and law enforcement;

- the recovery and reintegration of children into society through non-punitive gender-sensitive support systems;

- promoting the participation of children, including child victims and their families, so they are able to express their views and take action to protect children from commercial sexual exploitation.

In 1999, work was begun in New Zealand to formulate a National Plan of Action against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children. Information was collected from core agencies to identify existing policies and practices on child sexual abuse and exploitation. An inter-agency group of 16 departments and agencies was convened to work on this and produce a report. This report was used to inform discussions with agencies about where New Zealand should focus its attention. Subsequent to that, some work has been undertaken but elections and change of government in part intruded on this process and it would be fair to comment that it is only recently since the onset of 2001 that these initiatives have been identified for further action. Thus, within the last few months, a number of meetings have been held including varying agencies and stakeholders and a process of identifying past and possible future actions has commenced. At present, these are still subject to discussion and cabinet final approval is still yet to come, although this is expected in a comparatively short time. Therefore, at this stage the material is not for public dissemination as current drafts are almost certainly due for amendment.
In the view of this writer, at least two key factors need to be addressed. First, that the commercial sexual exploitation of children does not exist in a vacuum, and that in many instances the roots of such exploitation lie in wider social dysfunctioning. Consequently, children that are at risk are already identified in some records, perhaps truancy records, medical records for ‘accidental bruising’ to cite but two examples. The issue is that no linkage exists between such records – information is held in separate places and no relationships are being identified. In some instances, like, arguably those of Joseph Thompson, past victims of child abuse emerge as abusers and rapists. In Jan Corbet’s book “Caught By His Past” the socialization of Thompson is described. With separated or divorced parents, he had no stable home and experienced the process of being shuffled “from pillar to post”. He would turn up on the doorstep of one parent and then be placed in a taxi and sent to another destination. He was repeatedly sodomised by an adult relative; his elder sister introduced him to intercourse at a tender age. In another case, that of Malcom Rewa, it appears that after his mother’s death he was placed in homes of relatives, one of whom had occasion to slam his face into the kitchen bench top. Hence the missing teeth of the man being a testament to the abuse of the child. Both Thompson and Rewa went on to become serial rapists, the former convicted of 61 sexual violations and the latter attacked 24 women between 1987 and 1996. While these two examples may be considered extreme, they illustrate issues that are not unknown on a wider scale.

While contentious, there is a strongly held view that official statistics based upon legal definitions significantly under-estimate the actual rates of child abuse. Academic and other studies on the other hand may, at times, over-estimate the rates because individual researchers utilize different definitions of abuse, and the wording of questions and the behavioural descriptors that are being used are very important in determining rates of child abuse. However, what is clear is that linkages between child abuse, sexual abuse and commercial sexual abuse can be drawn within the context of social dysfunctioning. The indices of social dysfunctioning are generally well understood, but the compilation of records is less well undertaken and the access to those by law enforcement agencies is haphazard, at least in New Zealand.

It must also be recognized that there exists a tension between, on the one hand the desire to protect those at risk, and individual rights of privacy. Possibly one way for progress is that some form of Clearing House of Information can be established to which records can be forwarded. The function of this body would be to monitor situations. However, it is suggested that their ability to disseminate information about individuals to law enforcement agencies, and for law enforcement agencies to apply for information, must be subject to judicial processes whereby ‘reasonable cause’ must be established to the satisfaction of a High Court judge or equivalent panel before information about alleged offenders is made available.

It is also recognized that no progress will be made as to these situations unless a political will exists to address these issues. At present, at least in New Zealand, this item of commercial sexual exploitation and abuse of children and the framework within which it exists does not rate as highly as other problems. While recognizing that resources are limited, the allocation of resources reflects political realities. In this case one can conclude that the problems have not been deemed sufficiently pressing to attract additional resources. Thus a pre-requisite for action is political will to address the problem.

However, to end on a positive note. As evidenced by statements made to the United Nations, the present government has recognized the nature of the problem and has sought
to encourage proactive action. Indicative of this was the inter-agency agreement signed on 8 December 2000 between the agency, Child, Youth and Family on the one hand, and the Department of Corrections on the other, to establish monitoring systems to ensure child safety when the time comes for the release of prisoners convicted of sexual, violent or other serious offences against children and who seek family integration. It is an overriding principle of the agreement that the Corrections Department should immediately advise Child, Youth and Family or the police if it is thought a child or young person is in serious and imminent danger following the release of a convicted offender. It is expected that other initiatives will follow. Of additional interest to this report is that fact that since June 2001 a register of every known offender since 1976 has been established by a specialist criminal profiling unit, and sex attacks are a specific categorization within this database. This has been established by resorting data held on the national police records held on computer at Wanganui, and will enable police to establish profiles of suspects by request to a specialist profiling unit.

2.10. ROLE OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

It is evident from much of the above discussion that the causes of child abuse and the commercial exploitation of children have little to do with the tourism industry. From the viewpoint of the formal structures of the industry, organized sex tours are far from evident, and industry organizations in New Zealand have had no role in promoting or condoning sex tourism, much less that which seeks to use exploit children for commercial sex. What organization that does exist is criminal in intent, motivated by money. The issue is to what extent does the industry have a responsibility in that its structures, that is the travel agencies, airlines, and hotels are used by those who travel with an intent to have sex with children?

One response is that the industry has the same responsibilities as any ‘good citizen’ who would wish to report those occurrences that became known to it to the police authorities, and who, as an active ‘good citizen’, would wish to ensure that others would do likewise. In this respect ‘the others’ could be defined as those who use its services as customers. Just as, for example, the Airport Authorities act as ‘good citizens’ in permitting the customs authorities to display notices about the importation of food stuffs that might breach bio-security measures, or broadcast messages to passengers in airport lounges to not leave unattended their baggage, so too Airport Authorities in liaison with police and migration departments could make available leaflets that make customers aware of their responsibilities in reporting cases that have caused them concern to the international authorities.

It is evident that, by its very existence, the tourism industry is being used by those who travel for purposes of the commercial exploitation of children. The industry is akin to any organization that might be used by those engaged in anti-social behaviours that threaten the well-being of children. For example, organizations like churches, scouting movements and similar have had to accept responsibilities in ensuring children are not abused, and so too, it might be said, airlines, airports, hotels, travel agencies have a societal responsibility to ensure that employees are alert to the possibility of the commercial sexual exploitation of children, and are aware of non-governmental organizations like ECPAT to whom they can express concerns even if they, themselves, might be hesitant in directly approaching police authorities.
Because of the large numbers who travel, the industry has an opportunity to take a leadership role in this issue. Indeed through the World Tourism Organization initiatives, it has done so in response to the promptings of pressure groups like that of ECPAT. Nevertheless, the industry should not be sustaining excessive additional costs when numbers of abusers are such a small proportion of the traveling public. Nor would the industry ever wish to imply that travel by certain types of tourists to specific locations is *prima facie* evidence of ill-intentioned travel. For example, to be a middle-aged male tourist traveling to Thailand is not, in itself, evidence of being a sex tourist wishing to have sex with children. Yet, many of the ways in which the industry can help are low cost, and are of the type of making available services, and acting in liaison with governmental and NGO agencies that add little to the time and costs that are incurred by the industry in its normal operations. These types of actions are considered in sections one, while section three of this report lists a further series of recommendations.
SECTON THREE
Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

3.1. POSSIBLE POLICIES FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN LIAISON WITH NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS AND NGOS TO END THE COMMERCIAL SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN.

Reproducing the diagram from the New Zealand case study indicates the nature of the problems facing the tourism industry and government bodies. These might be listed as:
The disadvantaged:

The ‘supply’ of young children for sexual purposes arises from structures of poverty, poor education, unemployment, low income and senses of loss that also encourage criminal activities as means of acquiring ‘the good things of life’. The indices of such situations include:

- Poor rates of health such as high levels of acute rheumatic fever, high incidences of vaccine preventable diseases, low rates of immunization, high rates of hospitalization of those under the age of one, high rates of respiratory diseases that reflect poor housing conditions and inadequate diets, much higher rates of disease transferred by contact such as measles due to overcrowding in households. These are all related to low incomes.

- Below average levels of income and above average rates of unemployment, either official or hidden.

- Poorer levels of educational attainment and above average levels of school drop out and truancy.

- Higher teenage fertility rates than the average, higher teenage mother rates, higher single mother rates, higher abortion rates.

- Higher rates of drug and alcohol abuse, higher rates of domestic violence abuse. Higher rates of child abuse.

- Higher rates of crime, and over representation of given social groups from specific areas in prison populations.

- Over-representation of groups in sex work.

Government Agencies involved with child welfare:

These agencies have to continually seek government funding, and in recent times have found that more difficult in situations where governments have sought to reduce government spending. The difficulties they face are measured by such indices as:

- Increasing case loads per social worker

- Increasing staff turnover as social workers seek to develop careers in administration as paying more money, or simply leave for better paid work elsewhere.

- Increasing ratios of administrators to care workers as organizations respond to increasing demands of accountability, which trend increases social care expenditures without increasing care provisions.

- Increasing provision by the voluntary care sector under encouragement from central governments and community groups seeking a closer relationship between community and problems than thought to exist between problems and ‘centrally’ funded care bodies.

- Increased time spent in liaison between different care bodies and associated organizations such as health, education and police authorities.
It is contended that an important function of child welfare agencies is consistency of structure and regular contact with families and children in need who are seeking to break cycles of abuse. In evidence collected for this report the point was made that in many cases success is predetermined by a community’s or family’s own desire for betterment. Communities, families or individuals need to know who to contact, and the child welfare service must be in a position to support those in need. In instances where child welfare services have been subjected to seemingly continuous processes of reform, changes of name, location and personnel, this important link is broken as those in need are confused by, and do not access the child welfare services, or alternatively seek to bring about change without professional and caring support. Such attempts often fail.

**Sex workers’ collectives and organizations:**

Sex Workers’ collectives and groups that act as pressure groups seeking to legitimize the position of sex workers as having the same rights as workers in other industries. They campaign for the provision of health services, protection from corrupt officials, recognition of sex work as a legitimate response to issues that face women (and men) seeking to better their lives and to de-stigmatise the nature of their work. They form natural allies with government agencies in areas of health and the prevention of sexual diseases, but have an uneasy relationship with some feminist groups for whom sex work is an anathema.

The pressures upon these groups are:

- An increasing expectancy that they will act as a NGO, but because of the nature of their work, they are often poorly resourced.

- A relatively high turnover of staff and an over-dependency upon a committed few.

- Continuously having to combat those to whom they are morally repugnant.

- Having more often than not, an arms length relationship with many agencies such as police, local authorities, universities, government agencies who wish to use their expertise but who are mindful of not wanting to be seen as being too close to sex worker organizations.

**Law enforcement agencies:**

Law enforcement agencies who are asked to enforce laws that may be hypercritical, enforced unevenly due to a range of reasons that extend from inconsistencies within the law as represented by the current New Zealand situation where massage parlours are licensed but soliciting is an offence, to circumstances where police patronize brothels and demand protection monies as was the past case in Australia. The pressures upon law enforcement agencies can vary significantly from country to country depending upon political structures of power and the way power is shared between constituent groups of country’s societies. The nature of some of the pressures and concerns experienced by law enforcement agencies include, in the context of the commercial sexual exploitation of children:

- In countries where this is not perceived as a major crime in terms of its frequency, police resources are generally dedicated to other areas of criminal activity, such as
drugs, organized crime, homicide, assault, theft and burglary, and social policing such as at sports events, community policing initiatives, the protection of heads of state and other dignitaries including embassy protection and similar duties and, finally, the maintenance of police resources such as computer databases and networks, transport, etc.

The sex industry becomes a major concern where it is associated with crime syndicates that threaten the existing power structures within society.

Pressures upon police may also be measured by levels of recruitment, staff retention and turnover, plus other indices like illness, levels of assault on police.

Units associated with issues like child protection tend to be small in numbers of officers, not perceived as ‘glamorous’ in terms of developing a career within the police, and indeed may be only a small part of an officer’s duties.

**Legislative and Jurisprudence Systems:**

With reference to the commercial sexual exploitation of children, such issues form part of concerns relating to Human Rights. In the latter years of the Twentieth Century a change might be discerned whereby international agencies increasingly sought to enforce these rights over and above the previously held principles of national sovereignty. Even regimes that previously would have rejected any attempt to erode concepts of national sovereignty have begun to recognise such claims as possessing validity, although they may wish to refute these claims by posing questions of the rights of communities and the need for stability as having value greater than individual rights. However, no society would, it is thought, argue at a public forum, that children have no rights to personal integrity and safety, and on the contrary would argue that it is for adults to protect children. On the other hand, some societies might wish to query definitions of children where all those under the age of 18 are constructed as being ‘children’.

**Non-Governmental Organizations:**

An array of non-governmental organizations and quasi-governmental agencies exist related to the welfare of children. Although designated non-governmental, a number of such agencies in countries like Australia and New Zealand are dependent upon the public monies and contracts for a large proportion of their funding. A potential danger exists in this relationship in that the agency has a vested interest in continually restating the importance and magnitude of the problem. Therefore, while undoubtedly very well informed about issues, potential problems exist where the same agency also exercises research functions. It is in the interests of all that there should exist an independent research agency that can independently corroborate claims made by NGOs and the other stakeholders. In many instances this has been a function exercised by universities with their tradition of academic independence and all that implies, particularly when universities exercise the function of unbiased, independent advisory services as is understood within the various structures of research paradigms (e.g. empiricist, critical, constructivist etc). NGOs usually face the following problems:
Having to fulfil potentially contradictory roles – they are advocates, pressure groups, and operationally providers of social services (sometimes under contract to the State, whose policies they may criticise).

They operate under governmental expectations of being a lower cost provider of services than is the case of directly funded governmental social agencies.

They may therefore suffer from resource inadequacies, not only in terms of financial and physical resources, but also in terms of human skill resources.

As noted, advocacy and research functions may create issues of probity.

**The Tourism Industry:**

As is often noted, the term ‘tourism industry’ is but a short hand term to cover a multitude of interests and stakeholders that contribute to the movement of people for trips of a relatively short duration, for the generation of satisfactory experiences while at destinations away from home, and to do so in manners that are environmentally and financially sustaining. In doing this it operates within the legal, political and power frameworks of the countries wherein tourism occurs. For all the attention that has been devoted to sex tourism, it remains but a very small proportion of the tourism industry, and indeed tends to operate outside of the main structures of airlines, hotel chains, resorts etc. that exist. Sex tourism has localized areas where it has an importance. Yet an even smaller number of destinations are perceived as being specific locations for sex with children, and as illustrated in the case study of New Zealand, the phenomenon is spatially diffused. The industry has an interest in being a ‘good citizen’ as argued in the New Zealand case study. It also wishes to avoid having destinations where its clients might be at risk from crime, or being harassed by insistent sex workers.

The pressures that might be felt by some parts of the industry include:

- Demand from clients for flights to destinations known to offer sex. However, such demand might be for reasons unassociated with sex tourism of any nature.

- Demands from pressure groups to undertake social responsibility programmes that some businesses might feel go beyond traditional corporate responsibilities that place shareholder asset growth as the prime concern.

- The industry within certain locations may come under pressure from syndicates associated with crime – for example tour operators and travel agencies might be fronts for organized crime syndicates who use them for money laundering, organizing and utilizing flights etc.
3.2. POLICY OBJECTIVE AND CONSTRAINTS

The objective is to successfully combat the commercial exploitation of children for sexual purposes.

The constraints upon achieving this objective include:

Some stakeholders have significant demands upon their resources for other activities. For example, police authorities have demands upon their time for fighting terrorism, drugs trafficking and organized crime. However, overlaps can exist between organized crime, drugs trafficking, the trafficking of women on the one hand, and the commercial sexual exploitation of children. Additionally, paedophile networks also need to be monitored. Other agencies with severe pressures on their resources include social work agencies with specific functions for family and child welfare.

Therefore it is noted that any action that focuses exclusively upon the commercial sexual exploitation of children is unlikely to succeed because:

- It will duplicate resource allocation in associated areas;
- It will not be associated with key information flows and would duplicate the establishment of such information and data sources;
- It would not be able to achieve the necessary resourcing from State authorities to achieve its purposes.

It is concluded that policies directed at the ending of commercial sexual exploitation of children must be embedded in a wider anti-crime, anti women trafficking policies.

The pre-requisites for the success of any policies to combat the commercial sexual exploitation of children include:

- A political will that identifies this as a serious issue, regardless of how few might be the instances in any particular country, region or area.
- The establishment of easily accessible datasets relating to the commercial sexual exploitation of children at national and international levels as part of the global network of police records for the combating of organized crime. Bodies such as Interpol have a vital role to play in this instance.
It must be recognized that the trafficking of children and women is well entrenched at a social level due to structures of poverty, conflict, economic disparities within regions, demands for cheap labour, the low status of women and children in some societies and weak law enforcement among many reasons. On the East and South Asia report from the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), on trafficking in the Mekong delta, the following are listed as ‘key agents’:

– agents in the trafficking networks
– tour operators and travel agencies (“front” businesses)
– employment agents
– foremen and trafficking gangs
– crime syndicates with bases in many countries
– bar madams, local women recruiters
– parents, relatives and friends
– school teachers
– villagers and village headmen
– “mamasans”, brothel owners
– pimps and procurers
– customers, clients of sex workers, bars
– corrupt officials (e.g. police, customs, immigration, border patrollers)

It is concluded that issues relevant to the commercial sexual exploitation of children are endemic within the economic structures of some societies, related to the position of children and women in general and their general exploitation as a source of cheap labour. Therefore policies relating to the commercial sexual exploitation of children need to be embedded within general social and economic policies that seek to lift the well being of communities that are marginalized economically and socially.

It is also very important to note that domestic tourists engaged in the commercial sexual exploitation of children are often more numerous and more spatially diffuse than international tourists in many countries.

One contentious issue that relates to policies and structures within countries is that of the legal position of prostitution. In some legislatures, prostitution is per se a criminal activity. Therefore the role of sex work as a response to poverty and its place within the economic structures of the poor, and the ease with which medical aid and support can be given to women in the industry is complicated. This illegal status also locates the sex industry within the criminal sector, and thus it is used by organized crime. Sex workers have often no legal recourse to police and other authorities as they are designated not as victims, but as criminals. Equally, it is proposed that some of the campaigns that might aid the fight against the trafficking of women and the commercial sexual exploitation of children founder because they view sex work as a problem in itself and not as an outcome or an understandable response to income inequalities.

It is concluded that the decriminalization of the sex industry would allow sex workers full rights to medical support, allow women who chose the occupation to not require protection of corrupt officials or organized crime, permit police and child welfare authorities easier access to the structures of the industry to ensure that those under the age of 18 were not being exploited, and would begin to dismantle the structures of debt bondage that bind children and young women to sex slavery and other forms of exploitative labour by instituting the implementation of worker rights in this industry.
More specifically, policies that can be supported as combating the commercial sexual exploitation of children include:

**Recommendations**

To continually monitor and identify patterns of commercial sexual exploitation of children.

To continually monitor and identify gaps in existing legislation, policies and services that protect children.

These policies require continuous research into the incidence and extent of child prostitution within countries, and the dissemination of findings between member countries. This research can include:

- Data searches and information collection undertaken by law enforcement agencies and child welfare agencies during their normal course of duties.
- Information collected by NGOs involved in the subject such as ECPAT.
- Research conducted by academic institutions.

It is recognized that potential bias can exist within these sources. For example, first, with reference to the first category, such data collection reflects resources allocated to the issue, the possibility that some regimes may wish to under-report for varying reasons and that such data collection is also ‘problem oriented’ where ‘problems’ may be defined in accordance with a country’s legal system. As noted elsewhere in this report, NGOs may have a bias to exaggerate the anecdotal in order to sustain purpose and funding, and may lack resources to develop rigorous research designs. Academic institutions suffer from ‘ad hoc’ research motivated by individual’s interests and a lack of sustained funding.

The result is a fragmented system of research whereby, as shown elsewhere in this report, statistics of uncertain reliability are recycled to justify actions and policies, and policies can be enacted without reference to cost structures or local circumstance.


**Recommendations**

To continually monitor and identify patterns of the distribution of child pornography, to maintain a register of offenders who possess or distribute objectionable material relating to child pornography and to charge those involved with new offending.

To exchange such information between the police jurisdictions of various States through an intermediary such as ICOL-Interpol and its Standing Working Party in Offences against minors.
3.3. CONCLUSIONS

It is concluded that policies directed at the ending of commercial sexual exploitation of children must be embedded in a wider anti-crime, anti women trafficking policies.

It is concluded that issues relevant to the commercial sexual exploitation of children are endemic within the economic structures of some societies, related to the position of children and women in general and their general exploitation as a source of cheap labour. Therefore policies relating to the commercial sexual exploitation of children need to be embedded within general social and economic policies that seek to lift the well being of communities that are marginalized economically and socially.

It is concluded that the decriminalization of the sex industry would allow sex workers full rights to medical support, allow women who chose the occupation to not require protection of corrupt officials or organized crime, permit police and child welfare authorities easier access to the structures of the industry to ensure that those under the age of 18 were not being exploited, and would begin to dismantle the structures of debt bondage that bind children and young women to sex slavery and other forms of exploitative labour by instituting the implementation of worker rights in this industry.

3.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a need for Governments to consider and implement the following recommendations:

A. To continually monitor and identify patterns of commercial sexual exploitation of children.

B. To continually monitor and identify gaps in existing legislation, policies and services that protect children.

C. To continually monitor and identify patterns of the distribution of child pornography, to maintain a register of offenders who possess or distribute objectionable material relating to child pornography and to charge those involved with new offending.

D. To exchange such information between the police jurisdictions of various States through an intermediary such as ICOL-Interpol and its Standing Working Party in Offences against minors.

E. To make annual reports as to the implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which reports are to be disseminated through the United Nations Commission on Human Rights.

F. To indicate in these reports the means by which they have sought to make public issues relating to the commercial sexual exploitation of children, as well as the reporting of the enactment of laws and the means by which such laws have been implemented and enforced. Such a policy of making public these concerns can include the dissemination of information to those involved in public life as to the nature of problems involved. Additionally, the public sector can enlist the aid of the tourism industry through the distribution of pamphlets relating to the issues through airport lounges including at customs and migration points, hotels and within the brochures of tour operations.
G. To decriminalize sex work and to enact legislation that bars those under the age of 18 from working as sex workers, and to impose duties upon those that manage brothels (defined as any group or organization of sex workers who work as a group from one location) to ensure that children are not knowingly employed as sex workers. To show that children were not knowingly employed, brothel managers will be required to show evidence of an enforcement of policies that require documentation or other appropriate evidence as to the age of the sex worker.

H. To enforce liaison to missing person’s records, particularly those of children, and disseminate information to police authorities in other States and through such channels as embassies and trade missions. Again Interpol could act as a liaison mechanism. Such enforcement can be justified under Human Rights conventions.

I. To support child witnesses, including the extension of their protection and special consideration of their role as witnesses when the prosecution of those involved in trafficking offences and the commercial exploitation of minors may require evidence from children. It is proposed that child witness programmes be instituted to protect children and provide support for them and their families in the provision of evidence against alleged offenders.

J. To note that many victims come from low income and deprived circumstances. The successful prosecution of offenders may result in little compensation for victims unless offenders’ assets are seized and in part at least distributed to the victims identified in trials. Nation States should legislate for the seizure of assets of offenders, and the redistribution of such assets to the State and to victims through Victims Rights legislation. An additional result of such an approach is to reduce the asset base of organized crime syndicates. However, care must be taken that the families of offenders who are innocent of any wrong doing (especially young children of offenders) must not be left without the economic means of supporting themselves. In short, repayment of wrongs should not create new wrongs by penalizing innocent family members of offenders.

K. To note that the seizure of criminal assets can also help in the financing of support services for children rescued from child prosecution and in the support of children’s agencies engaged in child prostitution support. The New Zealand case study notes that sex work for children can mean greater financial security than that achieved in dysfunctioning families. Equally street communities provide support structures for street children. Therefore children engaged in sex work need to be assured that alternatives are economically attractive to them. Further, those involved in providing support and care for street children need to be fully supported themselves through both counselling and financial support. Children who have had no life other than abuse are difficult to care for, and the need for moral and financial support to care givers is considerable. Such support needs are expensive in terms of both time and money.

L. To encourage the tourism industry to work with airport authorities, customs and immigration authorities, bus companies and other organizations involved in the carriage and accommodation of tourists in promotional campaigns that promote a view that children have rights not to be exploited as either cheap sources of labour or as sex workers. Further tourists should be encouraged to report situations of concern to governmental and NGO bodies engaged in child welfare.
APPENDICES

I. Global Code of Ethics for Tourism

II. WTO Statement for the Prevention of Organized Sex Tourism

III. Flow Charts on Trafficking of Children
APPENDICES

I. Global Code of Ethics for Tourism

We, Members of the World Tourism Organization (WTO) representatives of the world tourism industry, delegates of States, territories, enterprises, institutions and bodies that are gathered for the General Assembly at Santiago, Chile on this first day of October 1999,

Reasserting the aims set out in Article 3 of the Statutes of the World Tourism Organization, and aware of the “decisive and central” role of this Organization, as recognized by the General Assembly of the United Nations, in promoting and developing tourism with a view to contributing to economic development, international understanding, peace, prosperity and universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion,

Firmly believing that, through the direct, spontaneous and non-mediatised contacts it engenders between men and women of different cultures and lifestyles, tourism represents a vital force for peace and a factor of friendship and understanding among the peoples of the world,

In keeping with the rationale of reconciling environmental protection, economic development and the fight against poverty in a sustainable manner, as formulated by the United Nations in 1992 at the “Earth Summit” of Rio de Janeiro and expressed in Agenda 21, adopted on that occasion,

Taking into account the swift and continued growth, both past and foreseeable, of the tourism activity, whether for leisure, business, culture, religious or health purposes, and its powerful effects, both positive and negative, on the environment, the economy and the society of both generating and receiving countries, on local communities and indigenous peoples, as well as on international relations and trade,

Aiming to promote responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism in the framework of the right of all persons to use their free time for leisure pursuits or travel with respect for the choices of society of all peoples,

But convinced that the world tourism industry as a whole has much to gain by operating in an environment that favours the market economy, private enterprise and free trade and that serves to optimize its beneficial effects on the creation of wealth and employment,
Also firmly convinced that, provided a number of principles and a certain number of rules are observed, responsible and sustainable tourism is by no means incompatible with the growing liberalization of the conditions governing trade in services and under whose aegis the enterprises of this sector operate and that it is possible to reconcile in this sector economy and ecology, environment and development, openness to international trade and protection of social and cultural identities,

Considering that, with such an approach, all the stakeholders in tourism development – national, regional and local administrations, enterprises, business associations, workers in the sector, non-governmental organizations and bodies of all kinds belonging to the tourism industry, as well as host communities, the media and the tourists themselves, have different albeit interdependent responsibilities in the individual and societal development of tourism and that the formulation of their individual rights and duties will contribute to meeting this aim,

Committed, in keeping with the aims pursued by the World Tourism Organization itself since adopting resolution 364(XII) at its General Assembly of 1997 (Istanbul), to promote a genuine partnership between the public and private stakeholders in tourism development, and wishing to see a partnership and cooperation of the same kind extend, in an open and balanced way, to the relations between generating and receiving countries and their respective tourism industries,

Following up on the Manila Declarations of 1980 on World Tourism and of 1997 on the Social Impact of Tourism, as well as on the Tourism Bill of Rights and the Tourist Code adopted at Sofia in 1985 under the aegis of WTO,

But believing that these instruments should be complemented by a set of interdependent principles for their interpretation and application on which the stakeholders in tourism development should model their conduct at the dawn of the twenty-first century,

Using, for the purposes of this instrument, the definitions and classifications applicable to travel, and especially the concepts of “visitor”, “tourist” and “tourism”, as adopted by the Ottawa International Conference, held from 24 to 28 June 1991 and approved, in 1993, by the United Nations Statistical Commission at its twenty-seventh session,

Referring in particular to the following instruments:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 10 December 1948;
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 16 December 1966;
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights of 16 December 1966;
- Warsaw Convention on Air Transport of 12 October 1929;
Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation of 7 December 1944, and the Tokyo, The Hague and Montreal Conventions in relation thereto;

Convention on Customs Facilities for Tourism of 4 July 1954 and related Protocol;

Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 23 November 1972;

Manila Declaration on World Tourism of 10 October 1980;

Resolution of the Sixth General Assembly of WTO (Sofia) adopting the Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code of 26 September 1985;

Convention on the Rights of the Child of 26 January 1990;

Resolution of the Ninth General Assembly of WTO (Buenos Aires) concerning in particular travel facilitation and the safety and security of tourists of 4 October 1991;

Rio Declaration on the Environment and Development of 13 June 1992;

General Agreement on Trade in Services of 15 April 1994;

Convention on Biodiversity of 6 January 1995;

Resolution of the Eleventh General Assembly of WTO (Cairo) on the prevention of organized sex tourism of 22 October 1995;

Stockholm Declaration of 28 August 1996 against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children;

Manila Declaration on the Social Impact of Tourism of 22 May 1997;

Conventions and recommendations adopted by the International Labour Organisation in the area of collective conventions, prohibition of forced labour and child labour, defence of the rights of indigenous peoples, and equal treatment and non-discrimination in the work place;

affirm the right to tourism and the freedom of tourist movements, state our wish to promote an equitable, responsible and sustainable world tourism order, whose benefits will be shared by all sectors of society in the context of an open and liberalized international economy, and solemnly adopt to these ends the principles of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism.
[Article 1] Tourism’s contribution to mutual understanding and respect between peoples and societies

1. The understanding and promotion of the ethical values common to humanity, with an attitude of tolerance and respect for the diversity of religious, philosophical and moral beliefs, are both the foundation and the consequence of responsible tourism; stakeholders in tourism development and tourists themselves should observe the social and cultural traditions and practices of all peoples, including those of minorities and indigenous peoples and to recognize their worth;

2. Tourism activities should be conducted in harmony with the attributes and traditions of the host regions and countries and in respect for their laws, practices and customs;

3. The host communities, on the one hand, and local professionals, on the other, should acquaint themselves with and respect the tourists who visit them and find out about their lifestyles, tastes and expectations; the education and training imparted to professionals contribute to a hospitable welcome;

4. It is the task of the public authorities to provide protection for tourists and visitors and their belongings; they must pay particular attention to the safety of foreign tourists owing to the particular vulnerability they may have; they should facilitate the introduction of specific means of information, prevention, security, insurance and assistance consistent with their needs; any attacks, assaults, kidnappings or threats against tourists or workers in the tourism industry, as well as the wilful destruction of tourism facilities or of elements of cultural or natural heritage should be severely condemned and punished in accordance with their respective national laws;

5. When travelling, tourists and visitors should not commit any criminal act or any act considered criminal by the laws of the country visited and abstain from any conduct felt to be offensive or injurious by the local populations, or likely to damage the local environment; they should refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by national regulations;

6. Tourists and visitors have the responsibility to acquaint themselves, even before their departure, with the characteristics of the countries they are preparing to visit; they must be aware of the health and security risks inherent in any travel outside their usual environment and behave in such a way as to minimize those risks;

[Article 2] Tourism as a vehicle for individual and collective fulfilment

7. Tourism, the activity most frequently associated with rest and relaxation, sport and access to culture and nature, should be planned and practised as a privileged means of individual and collective fulfilment; when practised with a sufficiently open mind, it is an irreplaceable factor of self-education, mutual tolerance and for learning about the legitimate differences between peoples and cultures and their diversity;

8. Tourism activities should respect the equality of men and women; they should promote human rights and, more particularly, the individual rights of the most vulnerable groups, notably children, the elderly, the handicapped, ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples;
9. The exploitation of human beings in any form, particularly sexual, especially when applied to children, conflicts with the fundamental aims of tourism and is the negation of tourism; as such, in accordance with international law, it should be energetically combatted with the cooperation of all the States concerned and penalized without concession by the national legislation of both the countries visited and the countries of the perpetrators of these acts, even when they are carried out abroad;

10. Travel for purposes of religion, health, education and cultural or linguistic exchanges are particularly beneficial forms of tourism, which deserve encouragement;

11. The introduction into curricula of education about the value of tourist exchanges, their economic, social and cultural benefits, and also their risks, should be encouraged;

[Article 3] Tourism, a factor of sustainable development

12. All the stakeholders in tourism development should safeguard the natural environment with a view to achieving sound, continuous and sustainable economic growth geared to satisfying equitably the needs and aspirations of present and future generations;

13. All forms of tourism development that are conducive to saving rare and precious resources, in particular water and energy, as well as avoiding so far as possible waste production, should be given priority and encouraged by national, regional and local public authorities;

14. The staggering in time and space of tourist and visitor flows, particularly those resulting from paid leave and school holidays, and a more even distribution of holidays should be sought so as to reduce the pressure of tourism activity on the environment and enhance its beneficial impact on the tourism industry and the local economy;

15. Tourism infrastructure should be designed and tourism activities programmed in such a way as to protect the natural heritage composed of ecosystems and biodiversity and to preserve endangered species of wildlife; the stakeholders in tourism development, and especially professionals, should agree to the imposition of limitations or constraints on their activities when these are exercised in particularly sensitive areas: desert, polar or high mountain regions, coastal areas, tropical forests or wetlands, propitious to the creation of nature reserves or protected areas;

16. Nature tourism and ecotourism are recognized as being particularly conducive to enriching and enhancing the standing of tourism, provided they respect the natural heritage and local populations and are in keeping with the carrying capacity of the sites;
[Article 4] Tourism, a user of the cultural heritage of mankind and contributor to its enhancement

1. Tourism resources belong to the common heritage of mankind; the communities in whose territories they are situated have particular rights and obligations to them;

2. Tourism policies and activities should be conducted with respect for the artistic, archaeological and cultural heritage, which they should protect and pass on to future generations; particular care should be devoted to preserving and upgrading monuments, shrines and museums as well as archaeological and historic sites which must be widely open to tourist visits; encouragement should be given to public access to privately-owned cultural property and monuments, with respect for the rights of their owners, as well as to religious buildings, without prejudice to normal needs of worship;

3. Financial resources derived from visits to cultural sites and monuments should, at least in part, be used for the upkeep, safeguard, development and embellishment of this heritage;

4. Tourism activity should be planned in such a way as to allow traditional cultural products, crafts and folklore to survive and flourish, rather than causing them to degenerate and become standardized;

[Article 5] Tourism, a beneficial activity for host countries and communities

1. Local populations should be associated with tourism activities and share equitably in the economic, social and cultural benefits they generate, and particularly in the creation of direct and indirect jobs resulting from them;

2. Tourism policies should be applied in such a way as to help to raise the standard of living of the populations of the regions visited and meet their needs; the planning and architectural approach to and operation of tourism resorts and accommodation should aim to integrate them, to the extent possible, in the local economic and social fabric; where skills are equal, priority should be given to local manpower;

3. Special attention should be paid to the specific problems of coastal areas and island territories and to vulnerable rural or mountain regions, for which tourism often represents a rare opportunity for development in the face of the decline of traditional economic activities;

4. Tourism professionals, particularly investors, governed by the regulations laid down by the public authorities, should carry out studies of the impact of their development projects on the environment and natural surroundings; they should also deliver, with the greatest transparency and objectivity, information on their future programmes and their foreseeable repercussions and foster dialogue on their contents with the populations concerned;
[Article 6] Obligations of stakeholders in tourism development

1. Tourism professionals have an obligation to provide tourists with objective and honest information on their places of destination and on the conditions of travel, hospitality and stays; they should ensure that the contractual clauses proposed to their customers are readily understandable as to the nature, price and quality of the services they commit themselves to providing and the financial compensation payable by them in the event of a unilateral breach of contract on their part;

2. Tourism professionals, insofar as it depends on them, should show concern, in cooperation with the public authorities, for the security and safety, accident prevention, health protection and food safety of those who seek their services; likewise, they should ensure the existence of suitable systems of insurance and assistance; they should accept the reporting obligations prescribed by national regulations and pay fair compensation in the event of failure to observe their contractual obligations;

3. Tourism professionals, so far as this depends on them, should contribute to the cultural and spiritual fulfilment of tourists and allow them, during their travels, to practise their religions;

4. The public authorities of the generating States and the host countries, in cooperation with the professionals concerned and their associations, should ensure that the necessary mechanisms are in place for the repatriation of tourists in the event of the bankruptcy of the enterprise that organized their travel;

5. Governments have the right – and the duty - especially in a crisis, to inform their nationals of the difficult circumstances, or even the dangers they may encounter during their travels abroad; it is their responsibility however to issue such information without prejudicing in an unjustified or exaggerated manner the tourism industry of the host countries and the interests of their own operators; the contents of travel advisories should therefore be discussed beforehand with the authorities of the host countries and the professionals concerned; recommendations formulated should be strictly proportionate to the gravity of the situations encountered and confined to the geographical areas where the insecurity has arisen; such advisories should be qualified or cancelled as soon as a return to normality permits;

6. The press, and particularly the specialized travel press and the other media, including modern means of electronic communication, should issue honest and balanced information on events and situations that could influence the flow of tourists; they should also provide accurate and reliable information to the consumers of tourism services; the new communication and electronic commerce technologies should also be developed and used for this purpose; as is the case for the media, they should not in any way promote sex tourism;
[Article 7] Right to tourism

1. The prospect of direct and personal access to the discovery and enjoyment of the planet’s resources constitutes a right equally open to all the world’s inhabitants; the increasingly extensive participation in national and international tourism should be regarded as one of the best possible expressions of the sustained growth of free time, and obstacles should not be placed in its way;

2. The universal right to tourism must be regarded as the corollary of the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay, guaranteed by Article 24 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article 7.d of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights;

3. Social tourism, and in particular associative tourism, which facilitates widespread access to leisure, travel and holidays, should be developed with the support of the public authorities;

4. Family, youth, student and senior tourism and tourism for people with disabilities, should be encouraged and facilitated;

[Article 8] Liberty of tourist movements

1. Tourists and visitors should benefit, in compliance with international law and national legislation, from the liberty to move within their countries and from one State to another, in accordance with Article 13 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; they should have access to places of transit and stay and to tourism and cultural sites without being subject to excessive formalities or discrimination;

2. Tourists and visitors should have access to all available forms of communication, internal or external; they should benefit from prompt and easy access to local administrative, legal and health services; they should be free to contact the consular representatives of their countries of origin in compliance with the diplomatic conventions in force;

3. Tourists and visitors should benefit from the same rights as the citizens of the country visited concerning the confidentiality of the personal data and information concerning them, especially when these are stored electronically;

4. Administrative procedures relating to border crossings whether they fall within the competence of States or result from international agreements, such as visas or health and customs formalities, should be adapted, so far as possible, so as to facilitate to the maximum freedom of travel and widespread access to international tourism; agreements between groups of countries to harmonize and simplify these procedures should be encouraged; specific taxes and levies penalizing the tourism industry and undermining its competitiveness should be gradually phased out or corrected;

5. So far as the economic situation of the countries from which they come permits, travellers should have access to allowances of convertible currencies needed for their travels;
[Article 9] Rights of the workers and entrepreneurs in the tourism industry

1. The fundamental rights of salaried and self-employed workers in the tourism industry and related activities, should be guaranteed under the supervision of the national and local administrations, both of their States of origin and of the host countries with particular care, given the specific constraints linked in particular to the seasonality of their activity, the global dimension of their industry and the flexibility often required of them by the nature of their work;

2. Salaried and self-employed workers in the tourism industry and related activities have the right and the duty to acquire appropriate initial and continuous training; they should be given adequate social protection; job insecurity should be limited so far as possible; and a specific status, with particular regard to their social welfare, should be offered to seasonal workers in the sector;

3. Any natural or legal person, provided he, she or it has the necessary abilities and skills, should be entitled to develop a professional activity in the field of tourism under existing national laws; entrepreneurs and investors - especially in the area of small and medium-sized enterprises - should be entitled to free access to the tourism sector with a minimum of legal or administrative restrictions;

4. Exchanges of experience offered to executives and workers, whether salaried or not, from different countries, contributes to foster the development of the world tourism industry; these movements should be facilitated so far as possible in compliance with the applicable national laws and international conventions;

5. As an irreplaceable factor of solidarity in the development and dynamic growth of international exchanges, multinational enterprises of the tourism industry should not exploit the dominant positions they sometimes occupy; they should avoid becoming the vehicles of cultural and social models artificially imposed on the host communities; in exchange for their freedom to invest and trade which should be fully recognized, they should involve themselves in local development, avoiding, by the excessive repatriation of their profits or their induced imports, a reduction of their contribution to the economies in which they are established;

6. Partnership and the establishment of balanced relations between enterprises of generating and receiving countries contribute to the sustainable development of tourism and an equitable distribution of the benefits of its growth;
[Article 10] Implementation of the principles of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism

1. The public and private stakeholders in tourism development should cooperate in the implementation of these principles and monitor their effective application;

2. The stakeholders in tourism development should recognize the role of international institutions, among which the World Tourism Organization ranks first, and non-governmental organizations with competence in the field of tourism promotion and development, the protection of human rights, the environment or health, with due respect for the general principles of international law;

3. The same stakeholders should demonstrate their intention to refer any disputes concerning the application or interpretation of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism for conciliation to an impartial third body known as the World Committee on Tourism Ethics.
II. WTO Statement for the Prevention of Organized Sex Tourism

Adopted by the General Assembly of
the World Tourism Organization at its eleventh session

Cairo (Egypt), 17-22 October 1995

(Resolution A/RES/338 (XI))

**Whereas** the WTO Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code (Sofia, 1985) calls on States and individuals to prevent any possibility of using tourism to exploit others for prostitution purposes;

**Having consulted** international and national organizations concerned, both governmental and non-governmental, as well as the representatives of the tourism sector;

**Considering** the preoccupation of the international community over the persistence of organized sex tourism which, for the purpose of this statement, can be defined as “trips organized from within the tourism sector, or from outside this sector but using its structures and networks, with the primary purpose of effecting a commercial sexual relationship by the tourist with residents at the destination”;

**Aware** of the grave health as well as social and cultural consequences of this activity for both tourist receiving and sending countries, especially when it exploits gender, age, social and economic inequality at the destination visited;

**The General Assembly**

**Rejects** all such activity as exploitative and subversive to the fundamental objectives of tourism in promoting peace, human rights, mutual understanding, respect for all peoples and cultures, and sustainable development;

**Denounces** and **condemns** in particular child sex tourism, considering it a violation of Article 34 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989), and requiring strict legal action by tourist sending and receiving countries;

**Requests governments of both tourist sending and receiving countries to**

**Mobilize** their competent departments, including National Tourism Administrations, to undertake measures against organized sex tourism;
Gather evidence of organized sex tourism and encourage education of concerned government officials and top executives in the tourism sector about the negative consequences of this activity;

Issue guidelines to the tourism sector insisting that it refrains from organizing any forms of sex tourism, and from exploiting prostitution as a tourist attraction;

Establish and enforce, where applicable, legal and administrative measures to prevent and eradicate child sex tourism, in particular through bilateral agreements to facilitate, inter alia, the prosecution of tourists engaged in any unlawful sexual activity involving children and juveniles;

Assist intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations concerned in taking action against organized forms of sex tourism;

Appeals to donor countries, aid agencies and other sources of finance to engage in tourism development projects seeking to enhance and diversify the supply of tourism services at the destinations affected by sex tourism, so as to foster employment opportunities in the tourism sector, develop its linkages with other sectors of the national economy, and contribute to tourism’s social and economic sustainability;

Commends the tourism companies and tourism industry organizations, as well as non-governmental organizations such as ECPAT, which have already undertaken measures against sex tourism, in particular with respect to the sexual exploitation of children and juveniles;

Appeals to the travel trade to

1. Join efforts and cooperate with non-governmental organizations to eliminate organized sex tourism, at both the origin and destination of travel flows, by identifying and focusing on the critical points at which this activity can proliferate;

2. Educate staff about the negative consequences of sex tourism, including its impact on the image of the tourism sector and tourist destinations, and invite staff to find ways to remove commercial sex services from the tourism offer;

3. Develop and strengthen professional codes of conduct and industry self-regulatory mechanisms against the practice of sex tourism;

4. Adopt practical, promotional and commercial measures, such as, for example, positive self-identification of enterprises which refrain from engaging in sex tourism; banning commercial sex services, in particular involving children, on the contracted tourism premises; providing information to travellers about health risks of sex tourism, etc.;

5. Warn tourists particularly against engaging in child sex tourism, denouncing its criminal nature and the manner in which children are forced into prostitution;

6. Encourage the media to assist the tourism sector in its action to uncover, isolate, condemn and prevent all organized forms of sex tourism;

Invites countries and their tourism entities to contribute to the World Congress on the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, organized jointly by the Swedish Government and UNICEF, to be held in Stockholm, Sweden, in August 1996.
III. Flow Charts on Trafficking of Children

The incidence of sexual exploitation of children in tourism

North America
- U.S.A.
- Canada
- Paraguay

South America
- Brazil
- Chile
- Honduras
- El Salvador
- Guatemala
- Mexico
- Nicaragua

United States
- Panama
- Ecuador
- Colombia

Europe
- Spain
- Belgium
- Germany

Asia
- Malaysia
- Nigeria
- Suriname

International
- Thailand
- United Kingdom
THE INCIDENCE OF SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN IN TOURISM

Diagram:

- MIDDLE EAST
  - Saudi Arabia
  - Bangladesh
  - Pakistan

- ASIA
  - USA
  - Hong Kong
  - Malaysia
  - Singapore
  - South Africa
  - Thailandia
  - Malaysia

- Arab Gulf Countries
- Afghanistan
- India
- Sri Lanka
- China
- Nepal

- Connections indicated by arrows.
THE INCIDENCE OF SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN IN TOURISM

AFRICA

Nigeria

Benin

Ivor Coast

Mali

Gabon

Burkina Faso

Togo

Congo

Somalia

Switzerland

Botswana

Zambia

Uganda

Angola

Ethiopia

Kenya

South Africa

Senegal

Mozambique

Unidentified African Countries

South Africa

Belgium

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Marina Diotallevi (643-11-422)
Monday, October 29, 2012 6:04:43 AM
THE INCIDENCE OF SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN IN TOURISM

ASIA PACIFIC

Hong Kong
USA

Philippines

Singapore

Malaysia

Burma

Indonesia

Korea

Canada
USA

USA

New Zealand

Australia

Japan

Laos

Solomon Is.

Italy
USA

Vietnam

Cambodia

North Korea

Thailand

Vietnam

China

USA

USA

Fiji

Indonesia

Middle East

North Africa

Europe

USA

Canada

South Africa

India

Germany

Netherlands

Middle East

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## FLOW OF TRAFFICKED CHILDREN

## MAP RELATIONSHIPS

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