

Peer-reviewed academic journal

**Innovative Issues and Approaches in
Social Sciences**

IIASS – VOL. 8, NO. 2, MAY 2015

Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences

IIASS is a double blind peer review academic journal published 3 times yearly (January, May, September) covering different social sciences: political science, sociology, economy, public administration, law, management, communication science, psychology and education.

| 2

IIASS has started as a Sldip – Slovenian Association for Innovative Political Science journal and is now being published in the name of CEOs d.o.o. by Založba Vega (publishing house).

Typeset

This journal was typeset in 11 pt. Arial, Italic, Bold, and Bold Italic; the headlines were typeset in 14 pt. Arial, Bold

Abstracting and Indexing services

COBISS, International Political Science Abstracts, CSA Worldwide Political Science Abstracts, CSA Sociological Abstracts, PAIS International, DOAJ.

Publication Data:

CEOs d.o.o.

Innovative issues and approaches in social sciences, 2015,
vol. 8, no. 2

ISSN 1855-0541

Additional information: www.iiass.com

SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF CHILDREN IN THE TOURISM – THE DARK SIDE OF TOURISM

Janez Mekinc¹, Katarina Music²

| 64

Abstract

The underlying causes of sexual exploitation and prostitution are poverty, inequality between women and men, high population growth and rural - urban migration. Victims are, predominantly, women and children with lower socio-economic status. One particular form of sexual exploitation is child sex tourism. This ruthless exploitation of children can be found throughout the world, predominantly in the third world and developing countries. Children, mainly between the ages of 6 to 14 years, are trapped in a vicious battle between large impoverished families who are dependent on their support, and a society that ruthlessly exploits them. In line with the trend in increasing child exploitation, there is, also, increasing exploitation of children for the purposes of child sex tourism. Based on the analysis of forms, reasons, impacts, consequences and trends of child sex tourism, it has been possible to develop from these findings some necessary measures to prevent this practice from occurring. Analysis of the phenomenon of child sex tourism has highlighted some fundamental conditions for preventing it becoming a social phenomenon. These include the strict implementation of laws against child labour and the political will to enforce them.

Key words: tourism, sexual exploitation of children, child sex tourism, poverty, social discrimination

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2015-no2-art04>

¹ Ph.D. Janez Mekinc is associate professor and researcher at the University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica (janez.mekinc@fts.upr.si)

² Katarina Music is assistant and researcher at the University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica (katarina.music@fts.upr.si)

Introduction

Tourism is one of the most important industries in the world and in several developing countries the only industry. Tourism has become an important development and business opportunity for most countries around the world and is constantly growing. In 1950, 25 million tourist arrivals were recorded globally; 2000 it increased to 700 million, while the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) predicts 1.5 billion tourist arrivals globally for the year 2020 (UNICEF, 2005: 4). The economic importance of tourism is emphasised by data that reveals that globally tourism generates 9.3% of GDP and employs 8.7 % of the population (Cernic , 2013: 16). The development of tourism in a particular country or region is often considered as an economic opportunity for poverty reduction, as it offers many new job opportunities. It reduces unemployment, and increases the opportunity for different forms of earnings, which influence the living standard of the population and improve the economic state of a tourist destination. Areas which are largely dependent on a single industry for employment, usually agriculture, can, through the development of tourism, derive a more diverse composition of local activities, increased opportunities for investment and development and improvement of local infrastructure. Tourism development also boosts economic growth for the destination itself, triggering investment in improvements and repairs of public services (water supply, sanitation, lighting, parking lots, etc.), and transport infrastructure (roads, airports, public transport, etc.). Investment in the public transport infrastructure benefits both the local community as well as tourism, as it increases its competitiveness, which is a precondition for tourism development. Successful development of tourism increases the inflow from a variety of taxes into the budget at the local or state level. Most of the community finances that come into the budget are from taxes on services (accommodation, catering, transport, tourism services) and income taxes from new jobs (Kreag, 2001: 11). Tourism, therefore, is no longer just a trend, but has become the driving force behind many national economies. A continuous growth in tourism is welcome for both the tourist offerings, as well as the tourist demand. However, there are recent growing concerns about the speed and nature of such tourism development (Grubljesic , 2007: 8).

Growing crowds of tourists, with different needs and motives, are travelling the globe as tourist trips become increasingly accessible and

popular. Alongside the positive economic and development opportunities, tourism also brings many risks. Natural and cultural heritage, as the most important part of sustainable development, is primarily overburdened by rapid and uncontrolled development of tourism. One particularly exposed tourist product, which discards the principle of sustainable development and sustainable tourism, is mass tourism. Mass tourism enables a philosophy of rapid and uncompromising development, exclusive of any element compatible with the principles of sustainable development and sustainable tourism. Besides the economic impact and the impact on the natural environment, tourism has an effect on and marks society itself through its social context. Different forms of tourism have different social impacts and, among them, sex tourism stands out as a negative form which has seen a significant growth trend throughout the world. It is becoming one of the most lucrative tourist activities, earning hundreds of millions of euros each year. The most popular destinations are Thailand, Kenya, Tanzania, and the Philippines. In recent years, this form of tourism has, also, strongly expanded in Latin America -mainly in Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic -with Americans and Canadians most frequently visiting these countries. In Europe, we find an increasing trend in sex tourism in Russia, the Ukraine, Romania, Bulgaria and the Czech Republic (ECPAT¹ International, 2008: 11). In the context of sex tourism, a particular form, which we call the "dark side of tourism", is applied to child sex tourism. Like sex tourism, child sex tourism shows constant growth, both in supply and demand. For example, in Cambodia one third of 800.000 prostitutes are minors (Hansen, 2005). More and more destinations, typically in poor and underdeveloped countries, offer child sex tourism. This paper aims to present a detailed summary of the forms, reasons, impacts, consequences and trends of child sex tourism around the world. The in depth issues deal with criminology, psychology and sociology; oddly, it is not possible to trace studies that address the phenomenon of child sex tourism from the perspective of the tourism profession. This paper aims to analyse the phenomenon of child sex tourism around the world by reviewing the scientific and technical literature, and to present a synthesis of findings from the perspective of the tourism profession.

¹ ECPAT - End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes

The dark side of tourism

Exploitation of children in different forms has led to a dire situation in the wholly unethical and illegal practices, which are taking place in many different parts of the world. Forms of exploitation can be classified by type, where commercial sexual exploitation (38 %) and forced labour in the form of servitude (28 %) dominate. The other forms of forced labour, such as work in hotels, hospitals, begging, child and elderly care, work in restaurants, factories and the like are represented by smaller percentages (Seager, 2009: 72) (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Forms of exploitation depending on the type of forced labour

Source: Seager (2009: 72)

Exploitation of children for sex is a form of sexual slavery, which amounts to the sexual abuse of children and adolescents. Sexual abuse may occur in the form of forced prostitution, sexual slavery, child pornography, commercial sex tourism and similar. Child sex tourism is much more complex and sometimes hard to recognize. Whitley (2013) outlines Thailand, Cambodia and Vietnam as the leading and most high-profile destinations for child sex tourism in Asia. Child sex tourism has become one of the most profitable segments of the tourism industry in recent years and, at the same time, represents a dark, "hidden secret" behind global travel and tourism. The International Labour Organisation reported that 2 to 14% of GDP in countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand in the year 1998 originated from sex tourism (Klain, 1999: 37). While child sex tourism was primarily located in Asian

countries, it has more recently also migrated and spread to Mexico and other Central American countries and some Eastern European countries (Song, 2013).

Figure 2: Prevalence of child sex tourism in individual countries.

(Source: ECPAT International, 2008: 7)

Globalisation has undoubtedly incited the development of child sex tourism. International travel has become affordable and available to a wider circle of people (Seabrook, 2000; 15). This enables the mobility of individuals to the predominately poor third world destinations, where children sell sex in order to survive. Due to its widespread availability and easy use, the Internet plays an important role in promoting and advertising child sex tourism, especially online child pornography sites¹ and forums, through which child sex tourists share experiences and information. The Internet has become an easy and inexpensive tool to obtain information on child sex tourism that is on offer. The International

¹CHILD PORNOGRAPHY (definition by Justice Laws Website) is a photographic, film, video or other visual representation, whether or not it was made by electronic or mechanical means, that shows a person who is or is depicted as being under the age of eighteen years and is engaged in or is depicted as engaged in explicit sexual activity, or the dominant characteristic of which is the depiction, for a sexual purpose, of a sexual organ or the anal region of a person under the age of eighteen years; any written material, visual representation or audio recording that advocates or counsels sexual activity with a person under the age of eighteen years that would be an offence under this Act.

Labour Organisation defines sexual exploitation as, any exploitation of children and adolescents up to the age of 18, by adults and for remuneration in cash or kind (ILO¹, 2014). Child sex tourism is the sexual exploitation of children by a person or persons who travel from their home district, to another region in order to have sexual contact with children. Child sex tourism can often include accommodation, transport and other tourism package services, facilitated encounters with children and allows the perpetrator to remain unnoticed in the environment. Citing recent reports, 25% of all sex tourists in the world are U.S. citizens, followed by citizens of Australia, Japan and Western European countries. Almost 80% of all sex tourists in Costa Rica and 38% of sex tourists in Cambodia are Americans (Silberman, 2013). Child sex tourism occurs in a variety of venues, from five star hotels to brothels and beaches, it occurs both in urban centres, and rural areas. During the “grooming process” a child sex offender often takes a long time to “befriend” the vulnerable child in order to gain his/her trust. An even more common practice is child exploitation by a third party who exploits the child and makes them available for remuneration in money, clothes, food or other material benefit (ECPAT International, 2008: 6).

Profile of offenders and victims

The basis for sexual exploitation of children arises from sexual violence. Findings show that sexual exploitation is a form of sexual violence, and is largely carried out by men against women. In order to reduce sexual exploitation, it is fundamental to eliminate and prevent all forms of violence against women and girls. Child sex tourists are predominantly men, who come from all social classes; they may be married or single. It is often wrongly believed that the perpetrators are middle-aged or mature males. Recent findings shows that even young tourists travel to established CST destinations for the purpose of sexual exploitation of children (ECPAT International, 2008: 6). In general, sex tourists do not have a good reputation and the general public has formed a stereotype that the sex tourist is an older, bald, white male, with unattractive appearance and is of north-west European or North American origin and who cures his loneliness and introverted nature by embracing young bodies in the stuffy huts of Southeast Asia, where, for him, the prices of food, housing and services are ridiculously low (Modic, 2008: 48). This

¹ ILO – International Labour Organization

well-established stereotype is challenged by research findings that show that perpetrators are generally independent and otherwise normal persons who do not have any distinguishing physical characteristics or patterns of social behavior.

The offenders can be separated into "situational child sex tourists," who do not travel with the obvious intention of practicing sex with children, but are allured by the offer and opportunity," and preferential child sex tourists, who travel to specific destinations exclusively for the purpose of practicing child sex tourism. They differ from "paedophiles", a third type of child sex tourists, by the fact that they may also practice sexual relations with adults, which is not the case with paedophiles (ECPAT International, 2008: 14). Seabrook (2000: 54) also distinguishes between "circumstantial" and "preferential" sex tourists. He ranks the latter, who prefer sex with minors, as paedophiles. Seabrook (2000: 56) assumes that paedophiles constitute the majority of child sex tourists. *Anderson and O'Connell Davidson* (2004: 34) notes that the factors which affect the "circumstantial" child sex tourists also affect the "preferential" factors. Preferential child sex offenders believe that the possibility of being arrested for offenses in relation to the recruitment of children for sexual purposes is less likely abroad. A characteristic of those who sexually exploit children is the need and desire for superiority over children. They generally resort to manipulation, which is even easier to implement over children (Cossins, 2000: 67). At the same time, important elements of manipulation include poverty and social risks to children in third world countries or in developing countries, which are the predominant destinations for child sex tourism (Andrews, 2004: 25; O'Connell Davidson, 2004: 36). Ever decreasing airfares, cheap accommodation and service prices that are conditioned by poverty, and the low GDP of the destinations offering child sex tourism, enable an ever-growing circle of people practicing child sex tourism.

The reasons given for justifying the practice of child sex tourism are varied and often absurd. Some perpetrators are confident that by paying for child sex services, they are financially assisting the children and their families, and, thus, actually caring for their welfare. There is also a belief that children from poor and underdeveloped countries are inferior and therefore, in a way, subhuman, so they have no rights and, therefore, their sexual exploitation is not a bad thing. This is, also, the reason that

the perpetrators perceive and treat these children differently from children in the developed societies of their home countries where they do not practice child sex. O'Connell Davidson (2004: 38) points out that "in London, Hamburg or San Francisco.. we can rarely see a middle-aged man or woman flirting with homeless teenagers who sit on the sidewalk and beg for change or inviting them to dinner and then back home to bed". Other child sex tourists try to justify their actions by arguing that in other cultures and traditions, children are sexually mature earlier, and that sexual relations with children are not taboo. Based on this argument, the perpetrators also avoid social norms and values that apply in the social environment that they come from. Furthermore, there are issues relating to infection with HIV, as there is a perception that children are less likely to contract AIDS and, consequently, there is less chance of infection (Nair, 2007: 33). However, the truth is exactly the opposite, because sexually exploited children are much more susceptible to HIV infection (ECPAT, 1996: 22). The rise in child sex tourism in poor countries in the third world is, additionally, fostered by the ignorance of governments and local authorities, which are under severe economic pressure to develop tourism as a rare source of national income. The authorities in these countries often deliberately ignore the problem of sexual exploitation of children for tourism purposes.

The victims of child sex tourism are children who come from poor socio-economic areas, and many of them come from ethnic minorities. The victims are both girls and boys with low levels of education, most come from neglected families where physical and psychological violence is present. They often have previous experience of sexual abuse and are often sex addicts. These children are treated as objects to satisfy sexual desires and not as individuals with their human rights. The children often work in the tourism industry as seasonal workers and provide sexual services for extra income. Many children are pushed into child sex tourism by their parents or relatives for extra income or simply for basic subsistence needs, such as food and accommodation. Prostitution is the most common form of child abuse in Asian countries and is the result of socially constructed poverty. The findings suggest that income from one prostitute in Asian countries can provide for a family of five (Andrews, 2004). Bales (2004; 125), noticed that increasingly affordable luxury items that parents desire (TVs, refrigerators, rice cookers, air

conditioners) can be the trigger for parents to force their children into prostitution or to sell them. Increasing social inequality, therefore, increases the sexual exploitation of children, because parents force them into prostitution for extra income. Orphans and homeless children are frequently among the victims - children of the streets. There are worrying cases of orphanages where staff and management, as well as organised crime groups, are involved in sex recruitment of homeless children and orphans.

Children, who are victims of sexual exploitation, can suffer serious emotional, psychological and physical consequences. Their genitals may not fully develop and they have a greater risk of injury, pain and sexually transmitted diseases. Acute psychological trauma in these children is reflected in constant feelings of guilt, low self-esteem, depression, and suicidal attempts. Socially, these children are stigmatised; they are denied the right to education, especially girls who find themselves on the streets without any help or support from society or the community.

The impact of corruption and crime on the child sex tourism

Countries that experience child sex tourism, generally, have serious problems with corruption, organised crime and enforcing the rule of law. Dobovsek (2008; 88) points out that corruption is especially present in countries with low levels of democracy. Corruption is defined as "any violation of the due conduct of the official or responsible person in the public or private sectors, as well as the conduct of persons who are the initiators of a violation or persons that can benefit from the breach, due directly or indirectly promised, offered, given, requested, taken or expected benefit for himself or for another" (CPC¹, 2003: 7). Corruption occurs at the individual level and at the society level. The fundamental causes are greed, on the one hand, and poverty, on the other. Poor individuals are often forced to resort to corruption to satisfy the minimum needs of life. Child sex tourism is growing in destinations with high levels of corruption, where there is no political will to protect children - the victims - and where legislation to prevent exploitation is inadequate. Sometimes they can also fall prey to inadequate interpretations of the law where often the victim is singled out as the perpetrator of the crime.

¹ CPC - Commission for the prevention of corruption RS

The connection between corruption and organised crime and the ineffectiveness of the police forces was the starting point for a comparative analysis of the results of three different international studies. All three were conducted in 2013, examining the level of corruption, crime rates and the effectiveness of police forces from 118 or more countries. In this comparative analysis, we included 25 countries that are, according to ECPAT (2008: 7), most exposed to/vulnerable to/affected by child sex tourism (Figure 2).

A study on corruption in the public sector, which is the first of the comparative analyses, was carried out in 2013 by Transparency International¹, covering 177 countries (TI, 2014). The study was based on expert opinions in individual countries. In the study, countries were ranked, depending on the number of points scored, which range from 0 to 100 (Table 1). 0 represents a country, which is very susceptible to corruption whereas, a score of 100 represents countries where corruption is minimal.

The second study that has been included for comparative analysis compares crime rates in 118 countries and was conducted in 2013 by the Numbeo organization (Numbeo, 2014). The crime rate was measured by a questionnaire that was posted on several websites and accessible to a wide range of users. The results are shown as a reverse - correlation between the crime rate and the level of security in a total range of 100 % (Table 2). Based on the results, Numbeo ranked countries as ones with acceptable levels of crime up to 50%, and ones with acute and dangerous crime rates as those with over 50 %.

The final study, included for comparative analysis, is one which was conducted by the World Economic Forum (WEF, 2013) in 2013 and compares tourism competitiveness in 140 countries. The study measured the competitiveness of individual countries in 14 different areas, including the security field. Security was measured by four criteria, including the effectiveness of police forces. The results of this particular criteria was the focus of our comparative analysis, since the phenomenon of child sex tourism in each destination, depends on the efficiency or inefficiency of the police (Table 3). The study measured

¹ Transparency international (TI) - the global coalition against corruption

individual criteria, which were then rated from 1 to 7, where 1 indicates the police are unreliable and 7 that the police can be completely trusted. The criteria were measured on the basis of public opinion data, survey data of the Executive Board of the World Economic Forum and quantitative data from publicly available sources, such as IATA, IUCN, UNWTO, WTTC, UNCTAD and UNESCO (WEF, 2013).

For the analysis of the results of the level of corruption, we have ranked 25 countries, where child sex tourism has been identified, from the ones with the lowest detected corruption to ones with high corruption rate (Table 1). The table shows that countries such as Estonia, Costa Rica and Malaysia are not greatly subjected to corruption as they achieved 50 points or more and occupy 53rd position on the list of 177 countries. A country or territory's score indicates the perceived level of public sector corruption on a scale of 0 - 100, where 0 means that a country is perceived as highly corrupt and 100 means it is perceived as very clean. Countries at the bottom of the table, such as Guatemala, Russia, Kenya, Honduras, Ukraine and Cambodia have identified high levels of corruption, achieving less than 30 points on the list of 177 countries (TI, 2013).

Table 1: The level of corruption in countries with highest identified rates of CST in 2013

Country	Corruption Perceptions Index	
	Rank /177	Score (0-highly corrupt; 100 -very clean)
Estonia	28	68
Costa Rica	49	53
Malaysia	53	50
Czech Republic	57	48
Ghana	63	46
Brazil	72	42
South Africa	72	42
Bulgaria	77	41
Senegal	77	41
Mongolia	83	38
Morocco	91	37
India	94	36
Colombia	94	36
Philippines	94	36
Thailand	102	35
Argentina	106	34

Mexico	106	34
Vietnam	116	31
Nepal	116	31
Guatemala	123	29
Russia	127	28
Kenya	136	27
Honduras	140	26
Ukraine	144	25
Cambodia	160	20

Source: adapted from Corruption Perceptions Index (2013) and Index CST (2012)

In the second table countries were compared with regards to the rate of crime (" crime index ") and the level of security (Safety index) conducted by the Numbeo organization (Numbeo, 2014¹) in 2013 in 118 countries. The table shows that countries like: Estonia, Czech Republic, Cambodia and Morocco were regarded as safe countries as there is not much crime (under 35 %). Countries such as Honduras, Kenya, South Africa and Guatemala had a high crime index (over 70%), which indicates that these countries are unsafe. In the report by the ECPAT international organization (ECPAT 2008), countries that occupy the bottom of the crime index scale are mentioned as countries where CST has been present for a long time and so it is possible to find a correlation for countries with high levels of CST and crime.

¹ Numbeo - is the world's largest database of user contributed data about cities and countries worldwide.

Table 2: Crime and safety in countries with CST¹ in year 2013

Country	NUMBEO		
	Rank/118	Crime index (%)	Safety index (%)
Estonia	13	24,23	75,77
Cambodia	32	32,81	67,19
Czech Republic	36	34,12	65,88
Morocco	37	34,32	65,68
Nepal	46	38,15	61,85
Thailand	52	40,53	59,47
Bulgaria	55	41,47	58,53
India	59	42,12	57,88
Mongolia	70	46,87	53,13
Ukraine	76	48,95	51,05
Russia	84	52,39	57,61
Vietnam	87	53,02	46,98
Columbia	90	54,16	45,84
Philippines	92	54,94	45,06
Mexico	94	56,23	43,77
Argentina	99	59,29	40,71
Brazil	107	62,62	37,38
sCosta Rica	109	66,69	33,31
Malaysia	110	67,75	32,25
Honduras	113	72,97	27,03
Kenya	114	74,30	25,70
South Africa	115	76,68	23,32
Guatemala	117	84,87	15,13
Ghana	*	*	*
Senegal	*	*	*

Source: adapted from Crime Index (2013)

*no data available

The third study, analysed tourism competitiveness data among 140 countries as conducted by the World Economic Forum every two years. In Table 3, a comparison of countries is made based on the reliability of the police. The table below shows that the reliability of the police is best in countries such as Estonia, Malaysia, Costa Rica and Vietnam (value over 4.5). The most unreliable are attributed to police forces in countries such as Argentina, Mexico, Guatemala and Russia (value under 3) (WEF, 2013).

¹ CST – Child sex tourism

Table 3: Reliability of the Police Services 2013

Country	Rank/140	Value
Estonia	31	5,5
Malaysia	40	5,0
Costa Rica	46	4,8
Vietnam	53	4,6
Brazil	60	4,4
Senegal	62	4,4
Morocco	64	4,3
India	69	4,3
Columbia	74	4,2
Mongolia	87	3,8
South Africa	88	3,8
Czech Republic	90	3,8
Philippines	97	3,6
Thailand	98	3,6
Cambodia	102	3,5
Nepal	105	3,5
Bulgaria	108	3,4
Kenya	110	3,4
Ukraine	119	3,0
Honduras	121	3,0
Argentina	127	2,9
Mexico	130	2,8
Guatemala	133	2,6
Russia	129	2,8
Ghana	*	*

Source: The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report by WET (2013)

*no data available

The summary tables reveal a correlation between countries, especially countries that have the highest and lowest scores in all three studies; Estonia, for example, has low levels of corruption and crime, as well as an effective and reliable police force. Guatemala appears at the bottom of all three scales with a negative rating, indicating high levels of corruption and crime and unreliable police. Costa Rica and Malaysia score well in two of the three studies in that they do not have high corruption and have relatively reliable police, but interestingly, at the same time, have a very high crime rate occupying 109th and 110th place out of 118 countries. Kenya, Honduras and Russia register low rankings in all three studies. Kenya and Honduras have high corruption and crime and, also, have a low score for reliability of the police; while Russia has high levels of corruption and inefficiency of the police, but a low crime rate. Even so, we cannot consider Russia as a completely safe country

as the safety index is 57.61 %. In a comparative analysis, Cambodia stands out, as it is at the bottom of the scale for corruption and at the top of the crime index, placing it among the safe countries, with more than 67% on the safety index for crime rates and safety.

Preventing child sex tourism

Effective efforts in curbing sexual abuse and an accelerated introduction of mechanisms that commit developed countries to include legislation policies for the prosecution of their citizens for crimes committed abroad and related to the sexual exploitation of children, may reduce interest in this perverse form of sex tourism. The international non-profit organization ECPAT has made great efforts and advancements in raising awareness of commercial child sex tourism. Since 1990, ECPAT has brought together a network of NGOs and individuals working together to eliminate commercial sexual exploitation of children. Exploitation of children for commercial purposes, in addition to child sex tourism, also includes: trafficking of children, child pornography and child prostitution (ECPAT, 2008: 3). ECPAT International, initiated a campaign against child sex tourism after research findings on the issue of child prostitution in Asian tourism, particularly in Thailand, Sri Lanka and the Philippines were released. They began with the "End Child Prostitution in Asian Tourism" campaign, which, by 1996, had extended across various countries in Asia, Europe and America. Like all forms of commercial sexual exploitation of children, the fight against child sex tourism is a complex problem that requires responses at several levels. The processes and actions related to child sex tourism involve many different sectors of state, business and society in general and, therefore, there are also various opportunities for preventive action. Among those who can be involved in these actions are NGOs; governments; local authorities and law enforcement agencies; tour operators; management and employees in hotels; local tourism organizations; local transport operators (taxi drivers, bus drivers); tourist guides and other professionals in the tourism industry. The synergy of actions by various stakeholders can speed up the trend towards a declining interest in child sex tourism. Much can be done on the prevention and prosecution of child sex tourism by a country itself. Stricter law enforcement, that prohibits sexual exploitation of children and introduces legal penalties for offenders, is just one of the measures. Even more important is to prosecute offenders, bring them to court and penalise them. Law

enforcement is often lax in countries where child sex tourism exists. In Thailand and the Philippines, for example, there have been some cases where police officers have been found guarding brothels engaged in child sex tourism and engaged in the recruitment of children for prostitution (U.S. Department of Justice, 2014). In countries, where it is hard to rely on the efficient work of local law enforcement, the international community remains weak in their efforts to reduce sexual exploitation of children and, consequently, commercial child sex tourism. In the last five years, many developed countries have strengthened prosecutions for child sex tourism related-offenses. 32 nations have enacted legislative policies that allow prosecution of its nationals connected to sexual exploitation of children committed abroad (U.S. State Department, 2013).

The European Union (EU) has adopted legislation aimed at combating sexual offences committed against children. The Directive covers different aspects such as sanctions, prevention, and assistance for victims. It includes specific provisions concerning child pornography on the Internet and sex tourism. The most important legal frameworks, both at the level of the EU and at the international level, are: the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography) adopted in 2000; Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime from 2001; International Labour Organisation Convention No. 182 on the worst forms of child labour, 1999; Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse, 2007; Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings, 2005; Council Framework Decision 2004/68/JHA on combating the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography, OJ No. L 13/44 of 20-01-2004; Directive 2011/93/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 December 2011 on combating sexual abuse and sexual exploitation of children, and child pornography on combating the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography. Directive 2011/93/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 December 2011 harmonised criminal offences relating to sexual abuse committed against children, the sexual exploitation of children and child

pornography throughout the EU. It also lays down the minimum sanctions and includes provisions aimed at combating child on-line pornography and sex tourism and aims to prevent already convicted paedophiles from exercising professional activities involving regular contact with children. The Directive identified offenses divided into four categories: sexual abuse, such as engaging in sexual activities with a child who has not yet reached the age of sexual consent or coercion in such acts with a third party; sexual exploitation, such as forcing a child into prostitution or into participating in pornographic performances; child pornography: possession, access, distribution, supply and production of child pornography; and online solicitation of children for sexual purposes – proposing, via the Internet, to meet a child for the purpose of committing sexual abuse and, through the same means, soliciting a child to provide pornographic material of themselves.

The tourism industry fighting against child sex tourism

The tourism sector has taken measures to combat and reduce child sex tourism and sexual exploitation of children. Thus, the International Air Transport Association (IATA¹) adopted a Final Resolution Condemning Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children of the IATA (UNWTO, 1995). The Federation of International Youth Travel Organisations (FIYTO²) adopted a Resolution to Combat Child Sex Tourism of the FIYTO (UNWTO, 1997). At the EU level, the European Travel Agents' and Tour Operators' Association (ECTAA³) adopted in 1996 a Declaration against Child Sex Tourism of the ECTAA within EU (ECTAA, 1996). Another important international instrument in the fight against sexual exploitation of children for the purpose of sex tourism is ECPAT's "Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children from Sexual Exploitation in Travel and Tourism", created in 1996 at the first World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in Stockholm. The Code of Conduct was initially signed by the three largest tour operators in Sweden in 1998, and to date includes 1,300 signatories in 42 countries around the world. The Code has become a key element for

¹ International Air Transport Association (Final Resolution Condemning Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children)

² Federation of International Youth Travel Organisations (Resolution to Combat Child Sex Tourism)

³ Group of national travel agents' and tour operators' associations within the EU (Declaration against Child Sex Tourism)

tourist organisations and operators in implementing the concept of responsible tourism, as it involves the protection of children, social responsibility and sustainable development. Code signatories are obligated to integrate six fundamental criteria, to protect vulnerable children in tourism destinations, and to incorporate them into their organisation's mission. Tourism organisations and businesses should include an ethics policy regarding sexual exploitation of children. Furthermore, they should introduce a clause on all contracts and agreements expressing zero tolerance to sexual exploitation of children. Other important preventive activities should be regular personnel training regarding: children's rights, the prevention of sexual exploitation and methods of reporting such cases to relevant authorities. They should provide information to their customers and inform them of the Rights of the Child, how to prevent the exploitation of children and how to report suspicious cases. They should participate and support all key stakeholders (non-governmental organisations, law enforcement bodies, etc.) in the prevention of the sexual exploitation of children. The implementation of the above activities establishes principles for the prevention of sexual exploitation of children and leads to active participation. The Code is the first initiative that sought to define and identify the duties and responsibilities of tourism companies in the process of preventing child sex tourism. Collaboration of travel and tourist companies in the fight against child sex tourism is a fundamental objective of the Code. With a commitment to implement the above-listed activities, tourism companies can effectively integrate child protection into their work processes; thus fulfilling their commitment towards responsible and sustainable tourism.

Conclusion

Globalisation has brought a multitude of positive effects and accelerated development in various fields of economics and society. Similarly, globalisation has had a strong influence on the development of tourism, as it "reduces the distances" between destinations and boosts information exchange. With rapid tourism development, poor third world countries face increases in different forms of sexual exploitation and, especially, child sex tourism. Sex tourism and its even darker side, child sex tourism is on the rise as more children are drawn into it. A comparative analysis of international studies relating to corruption, crime and police reliability indicates that the variables from all three studies

and countries where CST is present are correlated. Levels of corruption, the crime rate and the (un)reliability of the police are correlated with the presence of CST in countries. In particular, this applies to countries such as Kenya, Honduras, Republic of South Africa and Russia as these countries in all three studies occupy the lowest rankings, and in all of these countries CST is well established. We find that the unreliability of the police, and the high level of corruption in the police associated with a high crime rate, links the combination of these three variables with the emergence of CST.

International tourist associations have adopted several measures in order to prevent and combat this phenomenon. Developed countries are very much aware of the importance of responsible and sustainable tourism that includes the fight against all forms of sexual exploitation of children and child sex tourism. The concept of responsible tourism, not only highlights destinations where child sexual exploitation for tourism exists, but, equally, the country of origin of abusive tourists. In the countries of origin, society and tourism professionals can raise greater awareness for citizens who travel abroad, especially to destinations where child sex tourism exists. In the European Union, there are multiple examples of good practices, where relevant institutions promote awareness through informative materials that include brochures, ticket folders, luggage tags and video spots. Through these media, target groups are informed that sexual exploitation of children is illegal, the consequences for the child and its community, and the procedures for reporting such acts to relevant institutions. In France, raising awareness about the negative consequences of child sex tourism is included in the school curriculum and its national carrier, Air France, makes donations from the sale of toys on airplanes for programmes to combat child sex tourism. The Brazilian government is responsive to the fact that it has become a destination point for child sex tourists, and has initiated a large-scale national and international campaign to combat sexual exploitation of children in tourism. Italian law enforcement authorities have partnered with travel agencies, transport companies and tour operators to obtain any relevant data and information in relation to child sex tourism that they encounter in their work. Cambodia, one of the most problematic countries in connection with the sexual exploitation of children, has established a special police unit to combat child sex tourism.

International organisations in the field of protecting children and human rights, national governments, NGO-s and other tourist stakeholders should develop common strategies to combat the root causes for sexual exploitation of children in tourism. The strategy should eliminate criminalisation of victims and maintain the coordinated cooperation of all stakeholders. From the evidence that child sex tourism is a growing trend, it would seem that it is becoming a distinct factor in global tourism. However, this could be reversed if governments, police forces and travel companies, as well as other stakeholders implemented the suggestions put forward in this paper for prevention of child sex tourism

References

- Anderson, Bridget & O'Connell Davidson, Julia (2002): Trafficking – a demand led problem? A multi-country pilot study. Save the Children Sweden, Stockholm.
- Andrews, Sara, K. (2004): U.S. Domestic Prosecution of the American International Sex Tourist: Efforts to Protect Children from Sexual Exploitation. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology* 8(4), 415-454, DOI: 10.1016/j.chb.2015.03.030
- Bales, Kevin (2004): *Disposable People: New Slavery in the Global Economy* (Revised Edition, with a New Preface), University of California Press.
- CPS (2013): Integrity and prevention of corruption act. Available at: http://www.integriteta.si/images/stories/pdf/zintpk_eng.pdf (10.1.2014).
- Cossins, Anne (2000): *Masculinities, Sexualities and Child Sexual Abuse*. Cambridge, MA: Kluwer Law International.
- Černic, Polona (2013): V letu 2012 je Slovenija obiskalo največ tujih turistov do sedaj. *Turizem – revija za management in trženje v turizmu*. Vol.: XVII/111, No.: July-august 2013, pp.: 17-18. Javna agencija SPIRIT Slovenija. Available at: http://issuu.com/slovenia/docs/turizem_111 (2.10.2013)
- Dobovsek, Bojan (2008): *Korupcija v tranziciji: študijsko gradivo*. Ljubljana: Fakulteta za varnostne vede, Univerza v Mariboru
- ECPAT International (2008): *Combating Child and Sex Tourism: Questions and Answers*. Saladaeng Printing Co.Ltd. Bangkok,.
- ECPAT USA (2013): *Tourism: Sun, Sand in Sexual Exploitation. Child Sex Tourism: Information for Travel Professionals*. Available at: <http://www.hawaii.edu/hivandaids/Child%20Sex%20Tourism%20%20%20Information%20for%20Travel%20Professionals.pdf> (2.11.2013).
- ECPAT International (1996): *Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, Report of the first year following the Congress against the Commercial*

- Sexual Exploitation of Children held in Stockholm, Sweden. Bangkok, Thailand.
- Eirienne, Arielle K. (2009): Child Sex Tourism: »US« and »them« in a Globalized World. Student Pulse, The International Student Journal Vol.:1 No.:11, pp.:1-4 Available at: <http://www.studentpulse.com/articles/34/child-sex-tourism-us-and-them-in-a-globalized-world> (10.10.2013).
- ECTAA (1996): Declaration against child sex tourism. Available at: <http://ethics.unwto.org/en/content/protect-children-campaign-partner-ectaa> (23.10.2013).
- Farrell, Michael, B. (2004): Global campaign to police child sex tourism. Christian Science Monitor. Available at: <http://www.csmonitor.com/2004/0422/p11s01-wogi.html/%28page%29/3> (20.10.2013)
- FIYTO (1997): Resolution by FIYTO to combat child sex tourism. Available at: <http://ethics.unwto.org/en/content/protect-children-campaign-partner-fiyto> (23.10.2013).
- Government of Canada (2014): Justice Laws Website. Available at: <http://laws-lois.justice.gc.ca/eng/acts/C-46/section-163.1.html> (10.5.2014)
- Grubljesic , Tanja (2007): Slovenski organizatorji potovanj in etični turizem. Diplomsko delo. Ekonomska fakulteta, Univerza v Ljubljani.
- Hansen, Chris (2005): Children for Sale: Dateline goes undercover with a human rights group to expose sex trafficking in Cambodia. NBC News (report on-line) Available at: <http://www.nbcnews.com/id/4038249#Unv0b-KmZ3A> (20.10.2013)
- ILO (2014): Commercial sexual exploitation of children. Available at: <http://www.ilo.org/ipec/areas/CSEC/lang--en/index.htm> (5.5.2014)
- Klain, Eva, E.(1999): Prostitution of Children and Child-Sex Tourism: An Analysis of Domestic and International Responses. National Center for Missing & Exploited Children.
- Kreag, Glenn (2001): The Impacts of Tourism. (1st ed.) University of Minnesota.
- Modic, Max (2008): Blisc in beda seksualnega turizma. Mladina. Vol 31. pp.: 48-52
- Nair, P.M. (2007): Trafficking Women and Children for Sexual Exploitation Handbook for Law Enforcement Agencies in India [Revised edition 2007], UNODC, New Delhi.
- NUMBEO (2014): Crime Index for Country 2014. Available at http://www.numbeo.com/crime/rankings_by_country.jsp (19.3.2014)
- O'Connell Davidson, Julia & Sánchez Taylor, Jacqueline (1996): Child Prostitution and Sex Tourism: Venezuela". ECPAT International.

- O'Connell Davidson, Julia (2004): Child Sex Tourism: An Anomalous Form of Movement?. *Journal of Contemporary European Studies*. Vol.: 12, No.: 1, pp. 31-46.
- Silberman, Jennifer (2013): How to stop global child trafficking. *The Cristian Science Monitor*. Available at: <http://www.csmonitor.com/World/Making-a-difference/Change-Agent/2013/0816/How-to-stop-global-child-trafficking> (22.10.2013)
- Seabrook, Jeremy (2000): *No Hiding Place: Child Sex Tourism and the Role of Extraterritorial Legislation*. London:Zed Books, ECPAT Europe Law Enforcement Group.
- Seager, Joni (2009): *The Penguin Atlas of Women in the World* (4th ed.). New York: Penguin Books.
- Song, Susan (2003): *Children as Tourist Attractions Global Child Sex Tourism*. Yapi International. Available at: <http://www.yapi.org/rpchildsextourism.pdf> (14.10.2013).
- Transparency International (2013): *Corruption Perceptions Index 2013*. Available at: <http://www.transparency.org/cpi2013/results> (14.2.2014).
- UNICEF Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbea (2005): *Prevention of Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents: Contributing to a Sustainable Tourism in Central America* Available at: http://www.unicef.org/lac/Prevencion_de_la_ESC_ing.pdf (26.10.2013).
- U.S. Department of Justice (2014): *The Child Exploitation and Obscenity Section*. Available at: <http://www.justice.gov/criminal/ceos/subjectareas/> (10.1.2014).
- U.S. State Department (2013): *The Facts about Child Sex Tourism*. Available at: <http://crime.about.com/od/sex/a/cst1.htm> (2.10.2013).
- UNWTO (1997): *Resolution to Combat Child Sex Tourism of the FIYTO*. Available at: <http://ethics.unwto.org/en/content/protect-children-campaign-partner-fiyto> (10.10.2014).
- UNWTO (1995): *Resolution A/RES/338 (XI) Statement on the Prevention of Organized Sex Tourism* Available at: <http://ethics.unwto.org/en/content/staements-policy-documents-child-protection> (23.10.2013).
- WEF (2013): *The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2013*. Available at: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TT_Competitiveness_Report_2013.pdf (19.3.2014).
- Whitley, David (2010): *The dark side of sex tourism*. *World Travel* Available at: <http://travel.ninemsn.com.au/world/736645/the-dark-side-of-sex-tourism> (2.11.2013).