What Works to Prevent Online and Offline Child Sexual Exploitation and Abuse?
Review of national education strategies in East Asia and the Pacific
2020
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In 2019, we celebrated the 30th anniversary of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which enshrined the right of all children to protection from violence, including sexual abuse and exploitation in all settings. Sadly, sexual violence blights hundreds of thousands of children's lives every year at home, at school and in their communities, as well as online.

When the CRC was conceived the online world was just emerging – 2019 marked the 30th anniversary of the World Wide Web. The Internet has catalysed many positive opportunities for children around the world. It has also proven to be a domain in which children are vulnerable to violence, including sexual abuse and exploitation – a risk which grows exponentially with the rapidly increasing penetration of the Internet. In addition, the Internet exposes children to risks not only from perpetrators in their vicinity, but from perpetrators across the globe. Technology has made it possible for child sex offenders to communicate with children, groom them and participate in sexual encounters without ever leaving their home.

No single measure will protect children from abuse and exploitation in the online and offline worlds. Key guidelines and strategies have recognized that a range of interrelated measures involving State and non-State actors, including the private sector, are required. These include the Model National Response framework adopted by the WePROTECT Global Alliance Against Child Sexual Exploitation Online and the World Heath Organization's INSPIRE: Seven strategies for ending violence against children. Both frameworks recognize the critical need to make children (and their parents) aware of the risks of exploitation and abuse and equip them with the knowledge, skills and tools to protect themselves and to seek help and report abuse when it happens. Further, these measures recognize the inextricable link between offline and online abuse, risks, prevention and response.

This review of national education strategies to prevent child sexual exploitation and abuse in East Asia and the Pacific seeks to bring together global findings and promising practices from the region on what works to prevent child sexual exploitation and abuse both online and offline, to consolidate the evidence base, identify standards for good practice and highlight gaps in evidence and knowledge. Having a strong evidence base on what works in terms of content and delivery platforms is critical to ensuring investments in education programmes are as effective as possible in protecting children from abuse and exploitation.

Good practice standards are emerging, but the review makes it clear that much more attention needs to be given to evaluating education programmes and sharing key findings, especially to determine the extent to which they can most effectively reduce the prevalence of abuse and exploitation and what works best for different age groups.

Therefore, this review is also a call to action for increased investment in scaling up our work and also in evaluating what works. Children in East Asia and the Pacific must be better equipped to protect themselves in both the online and offline world.

Karin Hulshof
Regional Director
UNICEF East Asia and the Pacific
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The views expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the position of UNICEF.
### ACRONYMS AND DEFINITIONS

#### DEFINITIONS

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<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>CSA</td>
<td>child sexual abuse</td>
</tr>
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<td>CSEA</td>
<td>child sexual exploitation and abuse</td>
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<td>CSE</td>
<td>child sexual exploitation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSAM</td>
<td>child sexual abuse material</td>
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<td>CW</td>
<td>cyber wellness</td>
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<td>HIC</td>
<td>high income country</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICMEC</td>
<td>International Centre for Missing and Exploited Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>information and communications technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>INHOPE</td>
<td>International Association of Internet Hotlines</td>
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<tr>
<td>IWF</td>
<td>Internet Watch Foundation</td>
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<tr>
<td>LIC</td>
<td>low income country</td>
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<tr>
<td>LGBT</td>
<td>lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender</td>
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<tr>
<td>MNR</td>
<td>Model National Response</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCMEC</td>
<td>National Center for Missing and Exploited Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>non-governmental organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>SECTT</td>
<td>sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td>STI</td>
<td>sexually transmitted infection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNODC</td>
<td>United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime</td>
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## Acronyms

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<th><strong>ACRONYMS</strong></th>
<th><strong>DEFINITIONS</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child</strong></td>
<td>A person below the age of 18.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child sexual abuse</strong></td>
<td>Child sexual abuse is when a child is forced or persuaded to take part in sexual activities. This may involve physical contact or non-contact activities and can happen online or offline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child sexual abuse material</strong></td>
<td>Refers to any representation, by whatever means, of a child engaged in real or simulated explicit sexual activities or any representation of the sexual parts of a child for primarily sexual purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child sexual exploitation</strong></td>
<td>Is a form of child sexual abuse. It occurs where an individual or group takes advantage of an imbalance of power to coerce, manipulate or deceive a child or young person under the age of 18 into sexual activity: (a) in exchange for something the victim needs or wants; and/or (b) for the financial advantage or increased status of the perpetrator or facilitator. The victim may have been sexually exploited even if the sexual activity appears consensual. Child sexual exploitation does not always involve physical contact; it can also occur through the use of technology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child trafficking</strong></td>
<td>The recruitment and/or transport, transfer, harbouring, and receipt of a child by others with the intent of exploiting the child through various means, for example but not limited to prostitution, begging, child labour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female genital mutilation/cutting</strong></td>
<td>Refers to all procedures involving partial or total removal of the external female genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Harmful sexual behaviour</strong></td>
<td>Sexual behaviours expressed by children and young people under the age of 18 years old that are developmentally inappropriate, may be harmful towards self or others and/or are abusive towards another child, young person or adult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Online child sexual abuse and exploitation</strong></td>
<td>The use of the Internet as a means to exploit children sexually, which includes cases in which contact child abuse and/or exploitation offline is combined with an online component.¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexting</strong></td>
<td>Refers to when someone shares sexual, naked or semi-naked images or videos of themselves or others or sends sexually explicit messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism</strong></td>
<td>Sexual exploitation of children by a person or persons who travel from their home district, home geographical region, or home country in order to have sexual contact with children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sextortion; sexual extortion</strong></td>
<td>The blackmailing of an adult or a child with the help of (self-generated) images of that person in order to extort sexual favours, money or other benefits from him/her under the threat of sharing the material beyond the consent of the depicted person (e.g., posting images on social media or sending them to family members).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual grooming</strong></td>
<td>In the context of child sexual exploitation and sexual abuse, grooming is the short name for the solicitation of children for sexual purposes. Grooming/online grooming refers to the process of establishing/building a relationship with a child either in person or through the use of the Internet or other digital technologies to facilitate either online or offline sexual contact with that person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual minorities</strong></td>
<td>A group whose sexual identity, orientation or practices differ from the majority of the surrounding society. Usually, sexual minorities comprise of lesbian, gay and bisexual individuals, though it sometimes refers to transgender, gender queer or intersex individuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual violence</strong></td>
<td>Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Can include the production, dissemination and possession of child sexual abuse materials (also known as child pornography); online grooming of children for sexual purposes; sexual extortion of children (sextortion); revenge pornography; commercial sexual exploitation of children; exploitation of children through online prostitution; and live streaming of sexual abuse (http://globalkidsonline.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/Guide-7-Child-sexual-exploitation-and-abuse-Quayle.pdf).
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Children in East Asia and the Pacific are at an ever-growing risk of online sexual abuse and exploitation. The review explores the existing, emerging and comparative risks for under-18s in the region, the specific vulnerabilities and drivers for abuse, and what works to prevent abuse and exploitation through education strategies.

Significant funds are being invested in education strategies to enhance knowledge and change behaviour so that children are better able to protect themselves from harm. This review sought to collect evidence on what works to prevent offline and online child sexual exploitation and abuse (CSEA), in order to identify key lessons learned that can be applied to the development of effective education strategies and materials for online prevention of CSEA in East Asia and the Pacific.

The review found that while there is a growing global body of evidence around effective education programming to prevent CSEA, much of the available evidence is from high income countries (HICs) and largely focuses on programmes which address offline rather than online abuse.

The evidence that does exist on prevention of online CSEA is also from HICs, is of low quality overall and tends to focus on whether the intervention enhanced knowledge rather than changed behaviour. Further, as Internet use amongst children varies between high income and low income countries, it is important to be cautious in applying lessons learned across different contexts.

Although online and offline CSEA are closely linked, it was also found that there is often an artificial division, with programmes tending to look at only online or only offline CSEA. Therefore, there is limited evidence of how programmes impact on both online and offline CSEA.

In the East Asia and Pacific region, the evidence base on what works to tackle CSEA in education programming is at an early stage in scope and scale. Few comprehensive assessments or evaluations of education programmes tackling CSEA have taken place and/or are publicly available. It is also unclear whether majority of existing interventions are being evaluated and whether they were designed using evidence-informed theories of change methodology.

Despite the constraints faced, this review draws on promising global and regional practice, emerging lessons and findings from available data on online risks, to highlight key factors to consider in the development of effective educational materials in East Asia and the Pacific.

This review also highlights the urgent and collective need to rapidly expand the region-specific evidence base of what works in the design and delivery of educational materials to prevent CSEA, especially online, in order to ensure that the investment being made by Governments, non-governmental organisations and the private sector is as impactful as possible in keeping children safe from harm.
INTRODUCTION

This review summarises the best estimates of prevalence, circumstances, risk and protective factors of online and offline child sexual exploitation and abuse (CSEA) globally and in the East Asia and Pacific region.

It identifies the types and effectiveness of national education programmes that address offline and online CSEA, including examples of promising practice.

The findings are intended to inform the development of regional specific recommendations for education programmes for the prevention of CSEA.

What is child sexual abuse and exploitation?

CSEA can take many different forms. In this report, CSEA is defined as any sexual activities imposed by an adult on a child against which the child is entitled to protection by criminal law; and any sexual activities committed by another child in the context of differences in age, use of power, exertion of threats and other forms of pressure.

There is currently no clear boundary between offline and online CSEA, and it is not always possible to separate these forms of violence. For example, a child may be abused offline and this can continue online or vice versa. Importantly, the response frameworks that support the child survivor need to occur locally, regardless of whether the crime happened online or offline and need to involve the same service providers (UNICEF, 2019).

Methodology

The methodology has two interrelated components:

• **Literature review** on the prevalence, circumstances, risk and protective factors of CSEA, drawing on global evidence (Chapter 2) as well as studies from the East Asia and Pacific region (Chapter 3), and grey literature.

• **Review of national education programmes that address CSEA.** This includes a mapping of evidence on the types and effectiveness of national education programmes that address child sexual abuse and exploitation at a global level (Chapter 4). The review explores national education programme that address both offline and online CSEA. In addition, examples of promising practice models from the East Asia and Pacific region are identified and reviewed (Chapter 5).

Based on the findings of this study, Annex 1 provides guidelines for the development of education programmes to prevent CSEA in East Asia and the Pacific.

The key features, objectives, delivery mechanisms and effectiveness (where results are available) of CSEA prevention programmes in ten countries in East Asia and the Pacific are compiled in Annex 2.

The review is framed by two key frameworks – the WePROTECT Global Alliance Model National Response (MNR) (Global Alliance, 2015) and the INSPIRE: Seven strategies for ending violence against children (World Health Organization [WHO], 2016). Both frameworks recognize the critical need to make children (and parents) aware of the risks of exploitation and abuse and equip them with the knowledge, skills and tools to protect themselves and to seek help and report abuse when
it happens. Further, these measures recognize the inextricable link between offline and online abuse, risks, prevention and response.

Limitations include:

**Lack of evidence in the region:** There is a growing body of evidence in the field of CSEA, particularly around risk factors and drivers. However, much of the available evidence is from high income countries (HICs). Further, evidence of what works in terms of education strategies, largely focuses on programmes which address offline CSEA. In the East Asia and Pacific region, there is very limited robust evidence and few comprehensive assessments on the effectiveness of education programmes.

**Thematic gaps:** The review found significant gaps in evidence of how CSEA affects boys in the region as well as boys and girls with disabilities. There is also limited evidence of prevalence of online CSEA in the region, or how to prevent it, other than from the Philippines where research on online CSEA has received more attention.

**Geographical limitations:** The bulk of the reviewed literature focuses on Southeast Asian countries, particularly the Philippines, Thailand, Cambodia, Viet Nam, and Malaysia. There is limited research or examples of promising practice from other East Asian nations and the Pacific Islands.
WHAT WORKS TO PREVENT ONLINE AND OFFLINE CHILD SEXUAL EXPLOITATION AND ABUSE?
REVIEW OF NATIONAL EDUCATION STRATEGIES IN EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC 2020

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2 Global overview of child sexual exploitation and abuse

Finding data on the exact magnitude of violence against children globally is problematic. Underreporting of violence, lack of a globally agreed definition of violence against children and inconsistent collection of data on different forms of violence by governments are some of the reasons for the lack of global prevalence data.

However, the data that is available indicates that violence in childhood is an enormous problem (Know Violence in Childhood, 2017). For example, a review of population-based surveys from 96 countries on past-year prevalence of violence against children, found that at least 50 per cent of children in Asia, Africa and North America experienced some form of violence in the past year and that globally more than half of all children between the ages of 2 and 17 experience violence (Hillis et al., 2016). However, due to the inherent difficulty of collecting accurate data and the weaknesses in the data collected, these figures need to be interpreted with caution.

Research indicates that some forms of violence appear to be more frequently targeted at children. For example, the Know Violence in Childhood Global Report (2017) estimated that in 2015 1.7 billion children had experienced interpersonal violence in a previous year, including 1.3 billion boys and girls who experienced corporal punishment at home, 261 million schoolchildren experienced peer violence, 100,000 children were victims of homicide, 18 million adolescent girls aged 15–19 had ever experienced sexual abuse, and 55 million adolescent girls in the same age group had experienced physical violence since age 15.

Global prevalence of CSEA

Accurate CSEA data is particularly difficult to find. A strong culture of stigma and shame surrounds CSEA in most contexts which leads to underreporting by children and their families as well as a lack of data being collected on CSEA prevalence, especially online forms of CSEA. However, the available data indicates that girls are much more likely to be affected by sexual violence (Know Violence in Childhood, 2017; Davey, 2017).

Figure 1: Percentage of girls aged 15–19 who have ever experienced sexual violence

- Eastern and Southern Africa: 13
- West and Central Africa: 12
- Middle East and North Africa: 9
- South Asia: 7
- World: 7
- East Asia and the Pacific: 5
- Central and Eastern Europe/CIS: 5
- Latin America and the Caribbean: 4
- Industrialized Countries: 2

Source: Know Violence in Childhood, 2017
A significant number of boys are also affected, but less is known about their experiences as they are less likely to be asked in surveys. For example, many demographic and health surveys or similar household surveys include participants only from the age of 15 and only girls and women. This renders the experiences of boys and younger children invisible. A recent global review conducted by Family for Every Child (2018) found that the problem of CSEA against boys is “largely unknown, unacknowledged and not responded to, across a wide range of contexts and cultures.” The report suggested that this is a direct result of gendered social norms which shape perceptions that boys are not vulnerable to CSEA, and also present obstacles to boys’ disclosure of CSEA, the identification of CSEA against boys, the acceptance by others when it happens, recognition of harm caused to boys and the support needed to help boys recover.

In fact, underreporting of CSEA is common for both boys and girls, with girls fearing shame and being accused of being ‘loose’, and boys fearing being labelled as a homosexual, something that is particularly problematic in countries where homosexuality is illegal (Family for Every Child, 2018). Some forms of CSEA are extremely gendered. For example, globally 96 per cent of victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation are women or girls (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], 2016). Child, early and forced marriage is deeply rooted in unequal gender relations, and girls are significantly more likely than boys to be married as a child – 30 per cent of girls aged 15–19 are currently married or in union in South Asia, compared with just 5 per cent of boys (Inter-Parliamentary Union [IPU] and WHO, 2016). Female genital mutilation/cutting is estimated to affect 37 per cent of 15- to 19-year-old girls (UNICEF, 2016).

Online Child Sexual Exploitation and Abuse

With increasing global penetration of the Internet, new forms of CSEA have emerged and expanded to affect children. Technology has made it much easier for child sex offenders to communicate anonymously with other child sex offenders, to access, produce and disseminate child sexual abuse material (CSAM), communicate with children, groom children and to participate in virtual sexual encounters with children without ever leaving their home. Some of these new forms of CSEA include:

- **The production and dissemination of CSAM** appears to be rapidly increasing. The 2018 annual report of a British charity, Internet Watch Foundation (IWF), indicated an increase of 34 per cent in the number of CSEA reports compared to 2017 (IWF, 2018).

- **Live streaming of sexual violence against children** has increased. This particular form of violence is often facilitated through the dark web or through peer-to-peer platforms using cryptocurrencies or other non-traceable payment methods to make it hard for law enforcement to trace the perpetrators. Research by IWF (2018b) to better understand the profiles of children depicted in CSAM and online sexual abuse found that of the 2,082 images and videos included in the study, almost all were children assessed as 13 years or younger (98 per cent), most of whom were girls (96 per cent).

- **Online grooming for CSEA** is a form of sexual abuse which starts online and can continue to remain online or also take offline forms.

- **Non-consensual sharing of self-generated sexually explicit material** is another form of violence which particularly affects girls. This can involve manipulation of self-generated material that may have been produced voluntarily but then shared without consent. It can also include material produced non-consensually, for example, through online solicitation, grooming and sexual extortion (UNICEF, 2017). Estimates of the prevalence of this practice currently do not exist.

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2 This sample was derived using a snowball sampling method beginning with ‘seed’ URLs for investigation and only included ‘captures of live-streamed child sexual abuse.’ It is therefore not necessarily representative of all live streamed sexual violence against children.
While the majority of online CSEA offenders are male, studies have shown that female offending ranges from 5 per cent for consumption of child sexual abuse material to 30 per cent for online solicitation of adolescents (Capaldi, 2017). A study by ECPAT International\(^3\) suggests that the perception that online female sex offending is less damaging is extremely problematic as female offenders may not be adequately identified and children not believed when they disclose their experiences (Capaldi, 2017).

**Who is at risk of CSEA and why?**

The literature identifies a number of factors that put children at risk of CSEA in general. However, due to the lack of data, it is difficult to understand the extent to which any of these factors make children more vulnerable to CSEA either offline or online.

In particular, the global review by Family for Every Child (2018) found that it was impossible to identify risk and resiliency factors specific to boys, highlighting that much of the literature is still “laden with generalized statements, stereotypical notions and untested assumptions about pathways to violence and victimisation, as well as simplistic dichotomies identifying girls as victims and boys as perpetrators.”

Further research is needed in order to better understand what groups of children are at heightened risk of CSEA. It is particularly important that more research is conducted that does not utilise school- or household-based survey techniques, since these do not capture the experiences of some of the most marginalised children (Radford et al., 2015a).

Some of the commonly cited risk factors include:

- **Girls and sexual minority children:** Gender is cited as a large risk factor for experiencing CSEA and other forms of violence (Maternowska et al., 2016; Family for Every Child, 2018; UNICEF, 2017; Radford et al., 2015a). Girls and children who belong to sexual minorities are at particular risk of CSEA, due to gender inequality and social norms in many contexts which dictate that girls and women need to be submissive and where sexual minorities are seen as a threat to the patriarchal system. Studies from the United States and Sweden also suggest that children who self-identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender (LGBT) were disproportionately at risk of CSEA (UNICEF, 2017).

- **Age:** Age is also a factor that makes boys and girls more vulnerable to different forms of CSEA as they grow up. As evidenced by the data below, younger children are most depicted in the most egregious child sexual abuse materials online. Adolescence is frequently identified in the literature as a particularly risky time for girls where they are starting to grapple with many of the gender and social norms associated with womanhood (Maternowska et al., 2016). In addition, this is also the age where girls and boys are starting to form intimate relationships and where peer pressure becomes important. Research suggests that girls frequently suffer from ‘victim-blaming’ when self-generated sexually explicit images they have consensually sent to boyfriends are shared beyond the intended recipient (UNICEF, 2017). It is essential that education programmes emphasize that girls and boys have the right to create such images, and the focus should be put on the perpetrator who wrongfully (and often illegally) shares the images without permission.

- **Children who are separated from family:** Research has documented an increased risk of CSEA for children separated from their family or caregivers. For example, children living in foster care are affected by higher rates of sexual violence compared to children in the general population, but data is limited on how boys are affected (Family for Every Child, 2018). Evidence from a number of studies show that in group care, children are up to four times more likely to experience sexual abuse than children in family-based care (Family for Every Child, 2018). Children in detention are particularly vulnerable to CSEA from staff, other inmates and other children, being isolated from protective

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\(^3\) End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes
relationships and often without consideration to their physical, psychological or social needs in detention facilities (International Committee of the Red Cross, 2017). These risks increase where children are held with poor oversight, in large numbers and where facilities do not separate different age, sex and risk groups. Children in boarding schools can also face similar challenges to children placed in institutional care, including limited contact with home and lack of support (Jones, 2016).

- **Children on the move:** Girls and boys who are migrating are particularly vulnerable to CSEA. A study of the experiences of 11,000 migrant and refugee children by UNICEF and the International Organization for Migration (2017) found that 80 per cent of adolescents and youths crossing the Mediterranean faced exploitation, including sexual exploitation – twice the risk faced by adults. This risk increased where adolescents and youth travelled alone or where they had no education. The study also identified that girls were overrepresented amongst trafficking victims (20 per cent versus 8 per cent for boys) and that they overwhelmingly experienced sexual exploitation while trafficked (72 per cent).

- **Children living through conflict:** Boys and girls affected by conflict are at particular risk of CSEA, perpetrated by both armed groups and within their communities. Primarily, but not only, sexual violence perpetrated against girls (and women) is often carried out to undermine an enemy’s war effort and has been documented across numerous conflicts, including Syria, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Myanmar (United Nations, 2017). For example, a 2013 rapid assessment of 520 Syrian and Palestinian refugees in Syria found that 10.8 per cent of male youth and boys (aged 12–24) had experienced an incident of sexual harm or harassment in the previous three months (Chynoweth, 2017).

- **Children who have a disability:** Figures cited by the Global Partnership on Children with Disabilities (undated) suggest that children and adolescents with disabilities are three to four times more likely to experience physical and sexual violence and neglect than children without disabilities and that globally up to 68 per cent of girls and 30 per cent of boys with intellectual or developmental disabilities will be sexually abused before their 18th birthday.

It is important to recognize that girls and boys may fall into more than one category and this intersectionality of risk factors puts them at greater risk of CSEA. For example, the International Committee of the Red Cross (2017) suggested that children who have experienced CSEA prior to detention are more likely to experience it again in detention and the Global Partnership on Children with Disabilities found that children with disabilities are up to 17 times more likely to live in an institution compared to their peers without disabilities.
What are the drivers of CSEA?

A multi-country study on the drivers of violence affecting children (Maternowska et al, 2016) provides a useful framework for thinking about how to map risk and protective factors in different areas of children’s lives, and the drivers of violence (Box 1). The socio-ecological framework helps to understand how different factors influence a child’s risk of being affected by CSEA. Five levels of drivers (structural, institutional, community, interpersonal and individual) are identified and all influence the likelihood of a child experiencing CSEA.

**Figure 2:** Using the revised socio-ecological framework to understand drivers of violence for CSEA

**Box 1:** Examples of drivers of violence in UNICEF’s country studies in Viet Nam and the Philippines

- **STRUCTURAL** e.g., migration, traditional values, shifts from traditional to modern societies (increasing Internet access), disasters and conflict.
- **INSTITUTIONAL** e.g., underdeveloped child protection systems, enforcement and implementation of legislation, poor school governance, cultural beliefs that sexual exploitation of boys is not a serious issue.
- **COMMUNITY** e.g., codes of silence and taboos against discussing sexual abuse and exploitation.
- **INTERPERSONAL** e.g., family use of alcohol and drugs, early experience of violence and conflict, lack of parental care.
- **INDIVIDUAL** e.g., gender, age, disability and ethnicity.

**Source:** Maternowska et al., 2018; Maternowska & Potts, 2017
It is important to note that individual drivers change as boys and girls proceed through the stages of adolescence, as well as their capacity to protect themselves, and that boys and girls move through adolescence at different ages. (Maternowska et al., 2018).

**Figure 3**: Age and gender – the stages of adolescence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>PRE-ADOLESCENCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: Pan American Health Organization’s timeline in UNICEF, 2016d

**Who are at risk online?**

In a 2019 national study on online sexual abuse and exploitation of children in the Philippines, De La Salle University found that essentially all children are at risk of exploitation over the Internet, although certain characteristics and behaviours can make children more vulnerable (De La Salle University, 2019).

The study found that factors that can make boys more vulnerable to exploitation include seeking out support online in relation to the development of their sexual identity, and an interest in accessing pornographic materials online. They also noted that younger children have less choice about who they associate with and are still dependent on caregivers who may be sexually exploiting them online (De La Salle University, 2019). Many other environmental factors were also identified by De La Salle University as contributing to increased vulnerability to online CSEA including:

- Social isolation
- Parental conflict
- History of physical abuse
- Depression
- Bullying
- Poverty
- Urbanisation
- Family disintegration

All social media companies and websites in the United States of America are legally required to report any CSAM they find on their platforms to the National Center for Missing and Exploited Children (NCMEC) CyberTipline, and these images or videos can depict children from anywhere in the world. NCMEC works with law enforcement agencies around the world to refer on cases of children they suspect are being abused outside of the United States. In 2018, the CyberTipline received 18.4 million reported cases of CSAM. NCMEC found that the most actively traded cases in their database were more likely to involve prepubescent victims, contain more egregious sexual content, and were more likely to involve family members, including nuclear family members (NCMEC and Thorn, 2019).

NCMEC classifies the reports under different categories, including CSAM, online enticement, and sextortion. NCMEC defines online enticement as “…enticing a child to share sexually explicit images, meeting in person for sexual purposes, engaging the child in a sexual conversation or role-playing
or, in some instances, to sell or trade the child’s sexual images to others. This analysis only included enticement that occurred strictly online, and there was no indication that a meeting took place.” In the cases of online enticement, 78 per cent of the victims were girls, 13 per cent were boys, and for 9 per cent the gender could not be determined. Older girls formed the largest category of reported child victims (48 per cent). The majority of reports (90 per cent) involved direct communication with children by the offenders, or an attempt to do so. In 4 per cent of cases, children were third parties to the online enticement by or between offenders. The children directly contacted by adults were in the older age range with a mean age of 15 years.

Sextortion is defined by NCMEC as child sexual exploitation that occurs primarily online and involves non-physical kinds of coercion such as blackmail, in exchange for CSAM featuring the targeted child, money, or sexual engagement. NCMEC report that sextortion reports had risen by 150 per cent within the first few months of 2016 in comparison with the same timeframe in 2014 (NCMEC, 2016). Amongst the sextortion cases, 78 per cent of the cases were female children, and 16 per cent were male, ranging from 8–17 years old. More girls were on the younger end of the age spectrum than boys. In 24 per cent of cases the reporters suspected or knew that the offender had targeted other children as well. The sextortion cases reported to the CyberTipline in the United States were most commonly self-reports from the child victims themselves either directly or via Internet companies, followed by parents and guardians, peers, and authority figures. The sextortion took place on mobile phones and tablets via social media including messaging and video chats.

The International Association of Internet Hotlines (INHOPE), a global network of hotlines combating CSAM, has 46 reporting hotlines in 41 countries which enable the public to report potential CSAM. Hotlines in the INHOPE network work together to investigate reported CSAM and remove illegal content as quickly as possible. In the East Asia and Pacific region, Thailand, Cambodia, the Philippines, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and South Korea are members of INHOPE (INHOPE, 2018). INHOPE reported in 2018 that the volume of reports their hotlines are receiving is increasing. INHOPE hotlines found 223,999 illegal images and videos, 58 per cent of which were removed within three days. Of these, 91 per cent involved children aged under 13, and 80 per cent were female.

IWF provides a web-based reporting hotline and works with INHOPE on reports that come from outside the UK. In 2018 IWF found that the age of children being exploited on commercial sites was getting younger. IWF discovered 106,047 URLs in 2018 that contained child sexual abuse materials, up from 78,589 URLs in 2017. Of those, 78 per cent of the images were of girls; 23 per cent showed sexual activity between adults and children including rape and sexual torture; 21 per cent showed images involving non-penetrative sexual activity; and 56 per cent showed other kinds of indecent images.

IWF found that one in four web pages containing CSAM included self-generated images or videos, 94 per cent of which depicted children assessed as being under 13 years old. These images were predominantly produced by girls aged 11 to 13 in their bedrooms or another room in a home setting, likely often under coercion, but the extent of coercion was impossible to ascertain (IWF, 2018).

What are the drivers of online CSEA?

Research indicates that children who are more vulnerable offline are also more vulnerable to online CSEA (UNICEF, 2017). The global data on online CSEA also indicates that victims of different forms of CSEA have different characteristics. However, it is not clear if the drivers for online and offline abuse are the same or different and whether these drivers vary depending on the type of abuse. For example, the most egregious kinds of CSAM involve pre-pubescent children and perpetrators

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being primarily nuclear or extended family members. However, it is not known whether the drivers for this kind of sexual abuse within the family, sometimes for commercial purposes, involves the same drivers as those for other forms of CSEA perpetrated by family members.

**Implications for education strategies**

The above findings have implications for the content, targeting and delivery of education strategies:

- education on online CSEA should be incorporated into national curricula in schools so that prevention messages can reach all children;
- educational materials aimed at younger children must take account of their dependence on those abusing them and offer realistic reporting mechanisms to seek assistance outside of the family or caretaking relationship;
- there is a need for education programmes that target pre-pubescent children and recognizes that CSEA at this age is likely to be perpetrated by nuclear and extended family members;
- sextortion is a topic that needs to be included in education about risks involved in use of social media and video chats and should be directed at children aged 8–17 years old;
- there is a need to target children aged under 13 with CSEA prevention education programmes regarding self generated images, especially children aged 11-13 years old; and
- education programmes related to perpetrators contacting children directly should be focused on older children aged 14–15 and above.
Prevalence of CSEA in East Asia and the Pacific

As outlined in the previous section, data on CSEA is unreliable worldwide and this is also reflected in East Asia and the Pacific. While data is patchy at best in East Asia, even less is known in the Pacific. Where data is available, such as in the Philippines and Cambodia, it suggests that CSEA is widespread and manifests differently for boys and girls (Ministry of Women’s Affairs et al., 2014; Council for the Welfare of Children and UNICEF Philippines, 2016).

A recent report by ECPAT identified the main forms of CSEA in Southeast Asia as sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism (SECTT), online child sexual exploitation (CSE) including specific forms of live online CSE, child trafficking for sexual exploitation, exploitation of children for prostitution, and child marriage (Davey, 2017). However, the exact prevalence for each of these forms of CSEA is difficult to assess.

*Figure 4:* Experience of sexual violence before age 18 in the Philippines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heterosexual male</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterosexual female</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGBT</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Data from nine countries in East Asia and the Pacific suggest that 61 per cent of trafficking in 2014 was for sexual exploitation (UNODC, 2016). In some countries, girls and boys make up a disproportionate number of victims compared to adults. For example, in Thailand, 52 per cent of detected victims of trafficking were girls and a further 20 per cent were boys (UNODC, 2016).

UNODC’s 2014 review of CSEA in Southeast Asia identified two main types of perpetrators – paedophiles and non-paedophiles (UNODC, 2014). The second group includes men who seek sexual intercourse with virgins and is often more common among Southeast Asian offenders. This group of offenders is not concerned with the age or the development stage of a person but focus on whether their victim is a virgin or not. This leads them to frequently target older, pubescent children generally between 14 and 18 years of age and they often seek these children through institutionalised...
arrangements such as brothels, karaoke bars, massage parlours and other venues that offer sex to patrons. Research by ECPAT also suggest that transnational sex offenders are starting to seek out new countries in Southeast Asia, in addition to Thailand and the Philippines which continue to attract child sex offenders. Cambodia, Viet Nam and Indonesia are now becoming popular destinations for adults seeking to sexually exploit children (Davey, 2017; UNODC, 2013). However, it is important to note that while transnational sex offenders are prevalent in the region, the majority of offenders are nationals of the countries in the region (Davey, 2017; UNODC, 2013).

Travelling CSEA offenders are also identified as a significant problem in Southeast Asia. This can take the form of both short-term trips and long-term migration to the region (UNODC, 2013; Davey, 2017).

Another form of CSEA identified in the literature is ‘compensated dating’\(^5\), believed to be a problem particularly in Cambodia, Singapore and Thailand. Compensated dating can be challenging to address as the child typically does not self-identify as a victim in these relationships, and communities often consider the child as engaging in voluntary prostitution (Davey, 2017).

Technology and the Internet have given rise to new forms of CSEA in the region, especially in East Asia which is experiencing rapid technology penetration. Cases of child sex offenders grooming children for subsequent CSE via chatrooms and social media sites are increasingly being documented, particularly affecting Cambodia, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam (Davey, 2017). Due to the recent introduction of technology in many of these countries, knowledge about this form of violence is still low amongst both children and their parents. For example, a pilot study conducted in the Philippines involving 114 boys and girls between the ages of 9 and 17 found that most children had been exposed to sexual messages/materials, sexual grooming in different forms and modes through social media platforms, porn websites, group chats, pop-up menus, sexual tweets, sexual games and sexual images sent as a joke (Tan et al., 2016). A small study of cybergrooming found no statistical difference in the rates of cybergrooming experienced by boys and girls in Thailand (Wachs et al., 2016).

Children involved in webcam sex shows are of particular concern in the Philippines (Davey, 2017; Terre des Hommes, 2013). This type of abuse ranges from children showing genitalia and masturbating to having sexual intercourse with other children or adults, using objects or being tortured, which is then streamed live to people around the world who often pay to watch. Webcam sex shows are often streamed from children's homes, Internet cafes or ‘dens’, buildings where a number of women and children are employed or kept against their will, often in windowless, dungeon-like settings (Terre des Hommes, 2013). Terre des Hommes (2013) suggests that the global demand for live online child sexual abuse currently outweighs the supply. The research team spent 10 weeks posing as pre-pubertal Filipino girls in 19 public chatrooms and they were approached by 20,172 predators (of which they were able to identify 1,000 predators) from 71 countries soliciting for paid webcam sex performances from children.

ECPAT’s study on CSEA in Southeast Asia suggests that in some circumstances online CSEA can be a first step for children to enter offline commercial sexual exploitation. The study cites research conducted with children commercially exploited in prostitution offline in the Philippines and found that many had already been involved in live online child sexual exploitation (Davey, 2017).

In the Pacific, even less is known about how CSEA affects boys and girls. Pesquer (2016) states the evidence for SECTT is weak, partly due to the cost and logistical difficulty of conducting research on thousands of small islands spread across a large ocean.

However, the little research there is suggests that CSEA is a significant problem, especially for girls and it is unclear how boys are affected. A multi-country study on men’s perpetration of violence

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\(^5\) Compensated dating is a form of transactional sex where a child provides companionship or sexual favours in exchange for money or gifts.
against women found that in Papua New Guinea 32 per cent of men said that they had experienced sexual violence before their 18th birthday. In addition, a survey of 864 men between the ages of 15 and 49 in Papua New Guinea found that 59 per cent had raped a woman. Of these men, 23 per cent reported this first happened when they were younger than 15 years of age and 63 per cent before the age of 20. (Fulu et al., 2013).

Travel and tourism-related cases of sexual exploitation of children in the region appear to be linked mainly to economic activities, particularly mining, logging and fishing, with young girls forced into prostitution with both foreign and transient domestic workers reported in the Solomon Islands (in relation to its logging industry), in Kiribati (where foreign vessels are licensed to fish) and in the Marshall Islands (which attracts overseas contract workers and seafarers) (Pesquer, 2016).

Figure 5: Experiences of CSA before the age of 15 amongst women aged 15-49 in selected countries in the Pacific

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon Island</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNICEF, 2015

There is very little data on trafficking in the Pacific region, though UNODC’s Global Report on Trafficking in Persons (2016) suggests that the flow is mainly out of the Pacific and into Southeast Asia, although some survivors from China have been found in the Pacific. Research conducted by Save the Children with 500 households in the Solomon Islands found that child trafficking is extremely hard to detect because there is often no obvious use of force as is often seen in other contexts. Instead, they found that child trafficking operates “through a highly fragmented manner without an organized structure of the commodity chain, and often draws upon the manipulation of the consent of trafficked victims” (Maebiru et al., undated). For example, the study found that child labour, child marriage, informal adoption and sexual abuse of children are connected. Girls who take up work as domestic workers, often encouraged by families, are then at high risk of being forced into becoming de facto wives, as their relationship with their employers evolves to include transactional sex.

Little is known about online CSEA in the Pacific region. Where studies do include the Pacific region, this tends to be limited to New Zealand and Australia (e.g., Choi, 2017). However, a 2018 UNICEF report includes some anecdotal incidents of CSAM in the Solomon Islands, Fiji and Papua New

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6 It is hoped that the ongoing Disrupting Harm study led by UNICEF Innocenti, INTERPOL and ECPAT International, will result in both quantitative and qualitative evidence from six countries in the region related specifically to CSEA online. Publication planned in 2021.
Guinea. For example, the research team in Fiji reported cases in which video stores were producing pornographic videos featuring young indigenous Fijian and Indo-Fijian girls in their ‘back room’.

Who are at risk of CSEA in East Asia and the Pacific?

The following groups of children have been identified as being particularly at risk of child sexual exploitation in East Asia and the Pacific:

- **Girls**: In the Solomon Islands, research by Save the Children (2015) has documented how girls are more likely to be affected by child marriage, informal adoptions and work in sectors known to be affected by high levels of CSEA, such as domestic work. In Southeast Asia there is also research to show that girls are at higher risk than boys of being trafficked for forced marriage or sexual exploitation (Davey, 2017). Studies found that girls experienced sexual violence at the rate of 17.1 per cent in the Philippines, 73 per cent in the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, and 4 per cent in Cambodia (Lao Statistics Bureau, 2017). The most commonly reported perpetrators of sexual abuse among females in the Lao People’s Democratic Republic during childhood were spouses or romantic partners (54.4 per cent) and friends (25.1 per cent).

- **Boys**: While the extent to which boys experience CSEA is under researched, several studies suggest that boys may at times be at higher risk of CSEA than girls. A systematic review of childhood sexual violence in Indonesia found that sexual violence against boys is higher than against girls (Rumble et al., 2018). A nationally representative household survey of children’s experiences of sexual violence in the Philippines also found that boys experience sexual violence at higher rates than girls (Council for the Welfare of Children and UNICEF Philippines, 2016). In the Lao People’s Democratic Republic more males (12 per cent or 1 in 8) reported experiencing sexual abuse during childhood, compared to females (23 per cent or 1 in 14) (Lao Statistics Bureau, 2017; Protect Our Children Cambodia, 2014). In the same study males (40.3 per cent) were significantly more likely to report multiple perpetrators at the first incident of sexual abuse, compared to females (8.9 per cent). The most commonly reported perpetrators of sexual abuse among males in the Lao People’s Democratic Republic during childhood were family members (34.7 per cent) or friends (28.3 per cent). In Cambodia 5.6 per cent of males experienced sexual abuse prior to the age of 18.

- **Street-based children**: A study by UNODC (2014) in Southeast Asia found that the behaviour of paedophiles is generally predictable. They tend to either engage in long-term grooming of victims or focus on exploitation of highly vulnerable street-based children. A small study of boys working on the streets in Sihanoukville, Cambodia, found that 26 per cent of boys interviewed had engaged in sexual activities with adults in exchange for money, food or other gain (Davey, 2017).

- **Working children**: Girls and boys employed in the tourism industry, for example, in karaoke bars, restaurants, travel agencies, Internet cafés and hotels, are at risk of sexual exploitation by employers and patrons who may force them to fulfil ‘extra’ duties, often unknown to parents (UNODC, 2014).

- **Children from low income households**: There is some evidence from smaller studies that girls from low income households are either sold into the sex industry or join voluntarily (though this is estimated to be a minority) in order to help raise money for their families. UNODC (2014) cites a study in Cambodia which found that 8 out of 10 Vietnamese girls exploited through prostitution in Cambodia had been sold into the industry by a family member.

- **Children belonging to marginalised communities**: Socioeconomic marginalisation is frequently identified in the literature as a risk factor for both girls and boys (Davey, 2017; UNODC, 2014). For example, in the Philippines, research has found that women and children from indigenous families and those in remote areas of the Philippines are most vulnerable to SECTT (Davey, 2017).
• **Sexual minority children**: Widespread discrimination of sexual minorities in the region puts sexual minority children at increased risk of CSEA. In the Philippines, research with 3,866 children and youth aged 13–24 years found that sexual violence was highest for sexual minority children (34 per cent) compared to heterosexual boys (29 per cent) and girls (21 per cent) (Council for the Welfare of Children and UNICEF Philippines 2016).

• **Children affected by conflict**: Research conducted by Plan International (2018) with Rohingya girls aged 10–19 found that sexual violence was a large concern in Myanmar and Bangladesh. In the Philippines, sexual violence against girls as young as 14 years has also been documented in conflicts (United Nations General Assembly, 2018).

• **Children with disabilities**: A study conducted by UNICEF in the Pacific found anecdotal evidence to suggest that boys and girls with disabilities are particularly at risk of CSEA (UNICEF, 2008). Respondents suggested that disabled girls in particular may be more likely to be forced into prostitution, but the research could find limited evidence to support this.

• **Girls who are married**: Roughly 18 per cent of girls in East Asia and the Pacific are married before their 18th birthday7 (Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) and WHO, 2016), though the region has seen significant declines in child marriage. Girls who are married are more likely than non-married peers to experience forced sexual relations as well as other forms of violence such as domestic violence (IPU and WHO, 2016).

Further research is needed in order to understand better the profile of child survivors of CSEA, especially in the Pacific.

**Figure 6**: Which groups of children are at an increased risk of sexual exploitation?

- Poor children, children who are working, children who are out of school, homeless and street-based children
- LGBTQIA children and children forced into early marriage.

*Source*: Davey, 2017

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7 Percentage of women 20–24 years old who were married or in union by age 18, 2000–2010.
Risk factors and drivers of CSEA in the region

This section looks at the risk factors and drivers of CSEA in the region, using the revised socio-ecological framework. Drivers refer to factors at the institutional and structural levels that create the conditions in which violence is more or less likely to occur. Risk and protective factors reflect the likelihood of violence occurring due to characteristics most often measured at the individual, interpersonal, and community levels. Given the significant lack of data from the Pacific region, this section draws primarily from research in Southeast Asia.

Structural factors

At the structural level, research from the Pacific shows that violence is accepted behaviour in many societies which are based on rigid patriarchal social systems, and where men dominate social institutions, decision-making, ideas and practices in the private and public spheres (Pesquer, 2016). A study by Save the Children in the Solomon Islands found that recruitment of girls into prostitution was driven by gender norms. Girls’ refusal to cooperate was seen as a direct challenge to male authority and could lead to isolation from peer networks (Maebiru et al., undated).

Poverty can also contribute to placing children at higher risk of CSEA. For example, a study on the drivers of violence in the Philippines has found that poverty drives child labour, including to some extent, CSE. This is because traditional cultural values stress the importance of meeting family obligations and boys and girls may feel obligated to work, including CSE, to fulfil familial expectations (UNICEF, 2016c).

Research in the Philippines has found that children whose parents have migrated for work are at higher risk of CSEA in the home (UNICEF, 2016c). Additionally, boys cared for by relatives when their parents migrate for work are more vulnerable to sexual assault than girls (University of the Philippines Manila et al., 2016). Research in Huazhou City, China, indicates 94 per cent of sexual abuse victims were rural girl migrants, and in Shenzhen City, 88 per cent of sexual abuse victims were migrant girls (Women’s Federation of Guangdong Province, 2012). Further research is necessary to understand migration as a driver of CSEA and the extent to which this driver deserves more attention.

Institutional factors

At the institutional level, legal frameworks often offer inadequate protection to children. For example, a review in 17 countries in Southeast Asia and the Pacific, conducted by the International Centre for Missing and Exploited Children (ICMEC), found that legal frameworks to address CSAM are inadequate in the region (ICMEC, 2016). None of the Pacific Island countries have sufficient legal frameworks to address CSAM.

However, some promising practices to target online CSEA exist. For example, Malaysia’s National Child Protection Policy and Plan of Action on Child Online Protection is consistent with the Convention on the Rights of the Child and can be applied to both online and offline CSEA (Internet Society, 2017).

In addition, traditional models of policing and justice contribute to ineffective targeting of offenders and support to girls and boys affected by CSEA. The region’s justice systems continue to rely on families and children coming forward to report a crime before they take action against predators (Davey, 2017). This is highly problematic, since underreporting of CSEA is well known, due to financial reasons as children and families may be dependent on the perpetrator for financial aid, or because of shame and stigma associated with having experienced CSEA.

Service delivery to support girls and boys who have experienced CSEA is also underdeveloped in the region. Services for boys are scarce and global research suggests boys are unwilling to access services that explicitly target girls (Chynoweth, 2017, cited in Family for Every Child, 2018).
Weaknesses in the national child protection system have also been exploited by adults looking to abuse children. Recently, reports have highlighted the problem of paedophiles seeking employment or volunteering opportunities in schools and childcare institutions across the region (UNODC, 2014; Davey, 2017). Due to weaknesses in formal child protection systems, such as inadequate screening and lack of formal recruitment procedures, it is relatively easy for offenders to secure employment where they will have access to children (UNODC, 2014; Davey, 2017).

Community factors

Community factors that drive or protect from CSEA are many and varied across the region. Social and gender norms can serve to drive CSEA. For example, a study in Thailand found that some girls entered into prostitution because they were expected to support their families (Davis et al., 2013, Davey, 2017). In addition, a study conducted by World Vision in Thailand, Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Cambodia and Viet Nam found that community members and parents taking part in the research did not consider sexually abusive acts outside of rape as sexual abuse and that awareness of new forms of CSEA such as online grooming was low (Davey, 2017). The American Bar Association (2014) conducted a survey with 406 Solomon Islanders from four provinces and found that there was little sympathy for victims of trafficking. Almost half (49 per cent) of respondents agreed with the statement that victims should be held responsible for what happens to them and 24 per cent agreed that children are at fault for getting involved in commercial sex.

In a 2019 national study on CSEA in the Philippines, researchers found that even where online CSEA is perpetrated within the family, it is facilitated by the community. Members of the community can benefit economically from the continuation of what has in some places become a community-based business model. It was found that even when perpetrators were caught, they would sometimes pass on the website details to others in the community to continue the child exploitation business. Child victims were also used to recruit additional children to join the CSEA online production as a means to make money. Even where community members did not actively participate in the abuse, strong cultural norms exist in the Philippines that discourage families from interfering with each other’s family lives, and this was found to contribute to lower rates of reporting of CSEA (De La Salle University, 2019).

Interpersonal factors

At the family level, poverty is recognized to be a driver of CSEA. For example, there is a correlation between child, early and forced marriage and poverty in the region. A combination of low incomes and gender norms means that girls are seen as financial burdens to their families and a convenient solution is marriage. Thus, marriage of young daughters frequently take place to settle financial agreements, as a source of dowry, or for political reasons (IPU and WHO, 2016).

In a national study on online CSEA in the Philippines, researchers found that families are often involved in CSEA. Parents and other family members frequently believed that online CSEA was not harmful where it did not involve physical touch. Additionally, online CSEA was in many cases much more lucrative than other available sources of income, and payments of USD 30–60 were significant to families living in poverty. Culturally, many families expect children to help their families financially, and this was seen as a relatively harmless way to do so (De La Salle University, 2019).

Harmful sexual behaviour can be learned by children through observation of their parents’ relationships within the family and beyond. This type of behaviour is often learned through reinforcement, role modelling and discourses that encourage boys to use violence within relationships as a sign of strength (Family for Every Child, 2018). A study in the Philippines found that boys younger than
who were exposed to pornography by their parents had subsequently normalised abusive and violent sexual behaviour in their own intimate relationships (Family for Every Child, 2018). However, in Cambodia, researchers found that no single factor led to a child’s involvement in harmful sexual behaviour, but that generalised patterns of neglect from parents and carers can determine children’s experiences of and exposure to various forms of violence and feelings of isolation (Davis et al., 2017, cited in Family for Every Child, 2018).

Importantly, the Philippines study on online CSEA found that although families often participate in or promote online CSEA, there are also families who put a lot of effort into preventing it. Some parents were reported to provide guidance to their children on staying safe online and about appropriate use of technology (De La Salle University, 2019).

**Individual factors**

Girls and boys can be at heightened risk of CSEA as a result of numerous individual factors. For example, a study in the Pacific found that children who have already experienced neglect or abuse in the home are at an increased risk of experiencing sexual abuse and commercial sexual exploitation (UNICEF, 2008). The study found offenders specifically seek out children who do not have sufficient parental oversight, and that parental neglect or domestic violence can push children into seeking attention from other sources or engage in behaviours to escape abuse at home which may put them at risk.

Children's experiences are also affected by their sex, ethnicity, gender, household situation, (dis)ability, economic status and other factors.
Types and effectiveness of national education programmes

This chapter summarises findings from a rapid desk review examining the types and effectiveness of national education programmes to prevent online and offline CSEA. The review included both CSEA-focused programmes, and programmes addressing wider and linked issues, such as comprehensive sexuality education and Internet safety. The review also included awareness-raising campaigns around CSEA.

Given the rapid nature of the review, it is important to note that this is not a comprehensive review of the programmatic and evaluative landscape at the global level. By providing a brief overview, it sets the scene for a more detailed review of programmes in the East Asia and Pacific region.

National education programmes are defined as programmes which are delivered by or in partnership with education ministries in schools. This encompasses programmes designed and implemented in schools by non-government organizations (NGOs).

The importance of a multi-disciplinary approach

The evidence on what works to prevent and address CSEA identifies education interventions as one important component within a wider multidisciplinary approach. The INSPIRE framework is the result of a global initiative to identify evidence-based approaches to prevent and respond to violence against children. It sets out the following seven strategies:

- Implementation and enforcement of laws
- Norms and values
- Safe environments
- Parent and caregiver support
- Income and economic strengthening
- Response and support services
- Education and life skills

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8 Very few of these programmes have been formally evaluated so it is not possible to make a definitive assessment of their ‘effectiveness’. See Box 2.

In addition to the INSPIRE framework, a Model National Response (MNR) framework to prevent and respond to CSEA has been developed globally by the We PROTECT Global Alliance. This framework does not set out activities or a single approach, but rather outlines 21 capabilities needed for effective child protection. Due to the lack of evidence related to online CSEA, the MNR framework is unfortunately not evidence-based.

In this review, Chapters 4 and 5 focus on the education and life skills components of the INSPIRE framework as well as the education capability of the MNR.

**Overview of available evidence**

There is a growing body of evidence for effective programmes preventing CSEA over the last 10 years. Most notably, two recent systematic reviews examined school-based child sexual abuse prevention programmes (Walsh et al., 2015; Topping et al., 2009).

Much of the evidence is from high income countries (HICs), predominantly the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. The evidence is mostly drawn from programmes which address offline CSEA with only a small number of programmes addressing online CSEA.

The evidence on prevention of online CSEA is also largely from HICs and is of low quality overall (Mishna et al., 2009). Despite the lack of evidence, a recent review noted that findings on the prevention of offline CSEA are relevant and applicable to this relatively new area of programming (Jones et al., 2014). One study, however, urged a note of caution on the applicability of findings from HICs given that Internet use among children differs considerably between HICs and low income countries (LICs) (Radford et al., 2014).

While there is recognition in the wider literature that online and offline CSEA are linked, this evidence review found that in education programmes there is often an artificial division between these forms of violence, with programmes tending to look at only online or only offline CSEA (UNICEF, 2019). Thus, there is a lack of evidence of how programmes impact on both online and offline CSEA.

Studies have focused on child sexual abuse rather than exploitation as this is where the programmatic response has been most significant. It should be noted that studies have focused on exploitation in East Asia and the Pacific. This may have important implications for the applicability of the global evidence base to regional guidelines. There are some less rigorous evidence reviews on exploitation, including a 2016 rapid evidence review conducted by the University of Bedfordshire, United Kingdom, which noted that the available evidence is limited (Bovarnick and Scott, 2016). Relevant evidence can also be found in other reviews looking at multisectoral responses or child abuse more broadly (for example Mikton and Butchart, 2009).

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10 https://www.weprotect.org/
Box 2: Key gaps in the evidence on effectiveness of national education programmes to prevent CSEA

- Rigorous evidence of the effectiveness of online CSEA prevention programmes (Jones et al., 2014).
- Robust experimental or quasi-experimental studies in low income contexts.
- Systematic reviews of the evidence on CSE prevention.
- Evidence on online CSEA prevention through education systems is lacking; the focus is on offline CSEA.
- Changes in knowledge or attitudes are commonly measured but not perpetration or victimisation outcomes (Lalor and McElvaney, 2010).
- Whilst increased knowledge is measured in almost all available studies, protective behaviours and disclosures are more rarely measured (Walsh et al., 2015).
- Robust studies on the ‘whole school approach’ (Radford et al., 2014).\(^\text{11}\)
- Evaluation follow ups to see if observed changes are sustainable (Mikton and Butchart, 2009; Research in Practice, 2017).
- Evidence of harm is only sometimes measured in evaluations (Walsh et al., 2015).
- Evidence on parental perceptions of programmes. The evidence suggests parents are concerned about harm to children, that programmes inadequately address intrafamilial sexual abuse and place an inappropriate burden on the child (Barker and Pawlak, 2012).
- Evaluations of interventions with at-risk groups, under 11-year-old children and over 13-year-old children (Mishna et al., 2009).

Programme evaluations most often measure changes in knowledge, attitudes and protective behaviour. Evaluations of prevention of online CSEA typically measure children’s knowledge of online safety strategies, knowledge of dangers involved in Internet use, and high risk online behaviour (Mishna et al., 2009).

However, the impact on disclosures or prevalence of CSEA is rarely assessed, thus the extent to which CSEA education programmes reduce victimisation and perpetration of abuse and exploitation is not known. For example, the 2015 Cochrane review on school-based education programmes for the prevention of CSE reviewed 24 studies (Walsh et al., 2015). Of these, only one study did not measure changes in knowledge, whilst five studies measured disclosures (through questionnaires for school staff or child protection agencies) and six studies measured harm (using fear and anxiety scales with children). Five studies assessed changes in protective behaviours, largely through stranger simulation tests where participants were assessed for their ability to follow programme instructions not to interact with strangers.

There is good quality evidence (albeit from HICs) on changes of knowledge on child sexual abuse as a result of curricula-based interventions. However, evidence of effectiveness beyond knowledge acquisition is patchier and it is known that change in knowledge does not necessarily equate to behaviour change. Studies examining programmes that address the broad spectrum of child sexual abuse and exploitation are much less common.

\(^{11}\) A ‘whole school’ intervention works at different levels, including pupils, teachers and non-teaching staff, parents/caregivers, communities and government, importantly including robust reporting mechanisms for children at the school level. According to Fulu et al., 2014: “By targeting several different levels at once, this approach aims to bring about systemic, sustainable change, so that individual changes in attitudes and behaviour are reinforced by supportive community and governmental response mechanisms and legal frameworks.” (p.14).
Types of national education programmes

Internet safety and online CSEA prevention programmes

As access to the Internet increases amongst children, Internet safety programmes are becoming increasingly common, particularly in HICs. For example, a recent survey of schoolchildren in the United States found that half reported receiving Internet safety education at school, and two-thirds of European countries surveyed in 2010 had Internet safety curricula in place (Jones et al., 2014; Burton et al., unpublished).

Prevention programmes delivered by teachers in schools appear to be the most common mechanism to deliver safety messages on the use of the Internet (Mishna et al., 2014). In HICs, including the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States, programmes raising awareness among children and parents about the dangers of online grooming by child sex abusers are increasingly common. These are typically designed and delivered by law enforcement agencies in school settings (Radford et al., 2015b). Delivery mechanisms for these programmes tend to focus on presentations, though some also include drama, video games and cyber solicitation simulations and target 11–13-year-olds (Mishna et al., 2014). However, the extent to which CSEA is addressed directly through these programmes is often unclear.

There is a dearth of evidence on the effectiveness of online CSEA prevention programmes in schools. However, there are a small number of evaluations of recent programmes which appear to mirror key findings from evidence reviews of prevention programmes primarily addressing offline CSEA. The 2009 systematic review of cyber abuse prevention programming found that whilst retention of safety messages is often good, the impact on risky online behaviour is not significant (Mishna et al., 2009).

Examples of recent evaluations include:

• **Missing Programme (United States/Canada).** Facilitated by teachers, this programme uses a video game to teach Internet safety where the player assumes the role of a police officer searching for a missing child. The programme has been implemented for over 10 years. An evaluation found no significant change in attitudes to Internet safety, the likelihood of posting personal information, participating in open chat rooms and emailing strangers (Misha et al., 2014).

• **i-SAFE programme (United States).** The i-SAFE programme was a multicomponent programme delivered in schools in the early 2000s. The intervention was delivered through five lessons and youth empowerment activities focusing on cyber community citizenship, cybersecurity, personal safety, predator identification, and intellectual property. Sessions were aimed at Grades 5 to 8 and delivered by teachers during class time. Almost all activities were offline in nature. The quasi-experimental evaluation measured a number of outcomes related to child sexual abuse online including Internet safety knowledge; managing the risk of online ‘friends’ trying to contact or harm them; predator identification awareness (including appearing to be a child their age); and sharing personal information such as the student’s name and where they hang out with friends.

The study found that although children retained the safety messages they received through the i-SAFE programme and were more likely to discuss risks with friends and family, there were no significant changes in online behaviour. There were important gender differences in relation to the findings. Girls had consistently higher scores in knowledge acquisition than boys. Girls also scored higher in a number of other areas, including having conversations with parents about Internet safety and were less likely to provide personal details to strangers online or display other risky behaviours.

Key implementation challenges included time constraints for teachers to effectively deliver the curriculum as intended, and difficulties teaching children with limited computer skills (Chibnall et al., 2006; Mishna et al., 2014).
• **ThinkUKnow programme (United Kingdom).** The ThinkUKnow (TUK) programme targeted 5–16 year-olds through a school-based presentation and website. The Child Exploitation and Online Protection Centre evaluated the programme in 2009 and found that a high proportion of children were unable to remember whether they had received TUK content or not, and that recall of safety messages faded over time. Despite many children being able to articulate safety messages they had received; behaviour change was limited.

The evaluation team found that the focus of Internet safety training should be on appropriate and inappropriate social networking behaviour given girls’ extensive use of social media and their increased risk of online grooming. Some children often believed boys are not at great risk of sexual abuse (Davidson et al., 2009). Recommendations included the need for better delivery and quality control, repetition of safety messages over time, context-specific adaptation and development of age-specific materials (Davidson et al., 2009).

### Offline CSEA prevention programmes

Education programmes to prevent offline CSEA first appeared in the United States in the 1970s and have proliferated, particularly in HICs. School-based programmes teaching children about CSEA are the most common type of prevention programme, largely because school-based programmes can reach large numbers, are relatively low cost and do not stigmatise those most at risk (Brown and Saied-Tessier, 2015; Walsh et al., 2015). These tend to focus on sexual abuse rather than exploitation, although there have been calls for the inclusion of exploitation in these programmes (Eaton and Holmes, 2017). This approach has been heavily criticised for placing the responsibility on individual children to avoid abuse rather than targeting perpetrators and the wider institutional and societal factors at play (Wurtele, 2009).

Some CSEA issues are typically found in comprehensive sexuality education, particularly in HICs. Many of these do not address CSEA directly though they do address wider and related issues such as negotiating safe relationships. Child sexual abuse is often addressed in violence prevention programmes, including personal safety, body safety, child assault prevention, and child protection education programmes (Radford et al., 2014).

Programmes that target students aged 5–18 in primary and secondary schools aim to prevent CSEA by providing children and adolescents with the knowledge and skills to recognize and avoid risky situations as well as strategies to respond to potential offenders (Walsh et al., 2015). Programmes may also provide information on reporting mechanisms.

There have been a number of CSEA awareness-raising programmes in recent decades, particularly in North America and Europe from the early 1990s. These programmes have shifted from focusing on survivors, parents and teachers to targeting communities and society more widely, with some programmes delivering a combination of the two. These programmes differ in their aims, with some seeking to increase awareness whilst others combat myths, increase knowledge, shift attitudes and beliefs, and change behaviour. Unfortunately, in this area, there is a “paucity of good quality empirical evaluation” (Kemshall and Moulden, 2016).

### Comprehensive sexuality education programmes

Comprehensive sexuality education programmes may also integrate a focus on CSEA. These programmes typically aim to reduce the risk of sexually transmitted infections, unwanted pregnancies and other reproductive health problems through delivering an “age-appropriate, culturally-relevant approach to teaching about sex and relationships by providing scientifically accurate, realistic, non-judgemental information” (Holden et al., 2015).
Experiencing sexual violence is positively associated with these risks, suggesting that comprehensive sexuality education programmes that also effectively address CSEA may lead to better outcomes. Evidence suggests that these programmes can have positive effects on reducing sexual risk-taking behaviour, delaying sexual intercourse, reducing the number of sexual partners and increasing contraceptive use, however, their impact on CSEA is unclear (United Nations Population Fund [UNFPA], 2018). UNESCO’s 2015 comprehensive sexuality education global review found clear evidence demonstrating positive effects on sexual and reproductive health including later sexual debut and other ‘safer sexual behaviours’ (UNESCO, 2015). The evidence also points to the potential for comprehensive sexuality education programmes to improve knowledge and self-esteem, shift attitudes and gender norms.

Teaching about sexual abuse is addressed in UNESCO’s international standards for comprehensive sexuality education (UNESCO, 2018a and 2018b). However, CSEA is often inadequately addressed and the impact rarely evaluated in comprehensive sexuality education programmes. A 2011 review of comprehensive sexuality education programmes in Eastern and Southern Africa found that sexual and gender-based violence had been inadequately addressed in eight countries, whilst a 2014 review in Latin America and the Caribbean found that only half of the countries assessed had curricula that appropriately covered violence prevention and relationships (UNESCO, 2015; Hunt, Castagnaro and Castrejón, 2014). Where programmes with violence prevention components are evaluated, these studies have often been low quality (UNESCO, 2014).

Other programmes

Other types of programmes which may address CSEA prevention, either directly or indirectly, include:

- **Whole school approaches** to violence prevention also aim to prevent CSEA, usually through indirect means, and are most commonly used in HICs. However, in Uganda, an NGO, Raising Voices, developed the Good School Toolkit which includes over 60 activities for teachers and school staff, focusing on creating a positive school environment, respect and power dynamics, pedagogy, accountability, and learning non-violent methods of discipline (Devries et al., 2017). An evaluation of the toolkit found statistically significant positive effects on reducing physical violence perpetrated by teachers towards students although no discernible effect on sexual abuse could be found (Devries et al., 2017). Other examples include the USAID Safe Schools Programme in Ghana and Malawi (Radford et al., 2015a) and the Connect with Respect programme targeting students aged 11–14 (UNESCO, 2016c).

- **Gender education programmes to prevent gender-based violence in school settings**. These programmes enable children to critically reflect on the gender norms that influence roles and behaviour in their school and community settings and are thought to have positive impacts on respect for rights and gender-based violence prevention. They may involve an analysis of different types of gendered discrimination, intersectionality and the gendered impact of social and structural disadvantage (UNFPA, 2015).

- **Social and emotional learning or life skills programmes**. These largely curricula-based programmes focus on promoting children’s wellbeing and may indirectly address CSEA through providing the knowledge and skills to understand, manage and communicate emotions, make decisions and promote respectful relationships (UNFPA, 2015).

- **Dating and interpersonal violence prevention programmes**. Curricula-based programmes which focus on gender norms, gender equality, safe and respectful relationships, skills and coping mechanisms for unsafe situations (Radford et al., 2015b). These programmes have been rigorously evaluated showing positive results in HICs. The Safe Dates programme created in the United States in the 1990s is currently being adapted and evaluated in South Africa (Radford et al., 2015a).
Identifying common approaches

Whilst programmes differ substantially in terms of delivery mechanisms, there are some common approaches. Most programmes teach participants a set of safety rules (usually four) and concepts related to personal safety from CSEA. They also highlight that the survivor is not to blame (Walsh et al., 2015). The level of interaction with participants is variable with some programmes using didactive pedagogical approaches and others using role play and other interactive methods (Walsh et al., 2015).

Box 3: Overview of curricula-based CSEA prevention programme delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Delivery mechanisms</th>
<th>Duration and frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• 2–6 safety rules</td>
<td>• Lessons</td>
<td>• Usually 30 minutes (fits in with standard school lesson length) but may vary between 20 and 180 minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Body ownership</td>
<td>• School assemblies</td>
<td>• Sometimes a one-off event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Private parts</td>
<td>• Small group sessions</td>
<td>• Sometimes weekly/monthly sessions over a month or more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Appropriate/ inappropriate touching</td>
<td>• Plays</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying potential abuse situations</td>
<td>• Puppet shows</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Avoiding, resisting or escaping abuse situations</td>
<td>• Film</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Types of secrets</td>
<td>• Comics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reporting</td>
<td>• Books</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Survivor is not to blame</td>
<td>• Lectures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lessons</td>
<td>• Discussions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Institutional school environment

This review found very few references to programmes targeting the institutional school environment, such as teacher training and school policy development. A 2012 paper on CSEA school prevention programmes in Australia highlighted that although teachers are increasingly expected to deliver CSEA prevention in schools, teacher training is lacking in this area, not only on how to deliver the most effective interventions but also to develop their own awareness in order to create a safe school environment for children (Scholes et al., 2012).

School-based programmes targeting multiple levels of the socio-ecological framework including parents, the wider community and Internet providers are very rare, although the police have been involved in some CSEA awareness-raising programmes in a number of contexts. In addition, there is very little explicit focus on children as possible perpetrators; rather the focus tends to be an undefined and adult aggressor.

What does the evidence tell us?

Evidence reviews find that education programmes can improve awareness and knowledge, and, to a lesser extent, attitudes and skills related to offline CSEA (Radford et al., 2014). Integrating safety knowledge into regular teaching can increase children’s knowledge acquisition (Brown and Saied-Tessier, 2015). Active parental involvement can also improve children’s knowledge acquisition (Brown and Saied-Tessier, 2015).

Broader programmes, including comprehensive sexuality education and whole school programmes, can achieve positive results with reducing CSEA risk factors and other types of violence against children.

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12 Teacher-centred, theoretical approaches as opposed to more informal, interactive and skill-based pedagogies.
Some evaluations suggest that **programmes can increase disclosure of CSEA** and may reduce self-blame if participants are victimised later (Radford et al., 2015b).

However, **there is limited evidence on the extent to which they influence behaviour and victimisation** (Lalor and McElvaney, 2010) and limited studies examining the sustainability of these changes beyond 3 to 12 months, particularly in LICs (Fulu et al., 2014).

There are a small number of studies conducted in the United States suggesting child sexual abuse prevention programmes **may decrease the occurrence of abuse:**

- One follow-up study to an evaluation found that participants were more likely to use protective strategies when targeted with threats and assaults (Walsh et al., 2015);
- Epidemiological studies in Europe and North America show a reduction in rates of child sexual abuse which has sometimes been explained by the provision of prevention programmes in schools (Barker and Pawlak, 2012);
- A recent systematic review examining the effectiveness of school-based data and sexual violence prevention programmes showed a significant impact on knowledge and attitudes although less encouraging results with perpetration and victimisation. However, the review noted that few evaluations measured perpetration and victimisation as an outcome and recommended programmes include a focus on behaviour change through skill-building (De La Rue et al., 2014);
- One recent systematic review suggests that intimate partner violence prevention programmes amongst adolescents in school settings can be effective in reducing perpetration and victimisation where the programmes are comprehensive and long term in nature (De Koker, 2014).

Whilst the link between CSEA prevention programming in schools and reduced CSEA is largely unevidenced due in part to methodological barriers, even evaluations of intensive and well-designed programmes have shown little impact on behaviour (Bovarnick and Scott, 2016). Some of the literature underlines that CSEA prevention education can only be one aspect of an effective CSEA response, “at best, high quality education may mean that children disclose experiences of abuse (although more research is needed to support such a supposition)” (Eaton and Holmes, 2017).

It is important to note that studies do not demonstrate significant adverse outcomes, such as anxiety, fear and nightmares, although a small minority of children do experience negative reactions (Walsh et al., 2015; Zwi et al., 2007).

**Box 4: Improving child sexual abuse knowledge amongst primary schoolchildren in China**

An evaluation of a curricula-based programme in Beijing showed that teacher-led interventions can have significantly more impact on children’s knowledge than parent-led interventions. The curriculum was based on the Body Safe Training Programme, a programme used in the United States since the 1990s. The curriculum teaches the following concepts:

- The concept of private parts.
- Body safety rules.
- Recognition of appropriate/inappropriate touch.
- Strategies for saying ‘no’ in life situations.
- Self-protection skills in potentially abusive situations, children should say ‘no’, try to get away and tell someone (skill of ‘No’, ‘Go’ and ‘Tell’).

Other concepts emphasised included ‘it is never a child’s fault in sexual abuse’ and ‘it is not ok to keep secrets involving inappropriate touch requests.’ The curriculum was administered to children by trained teachers in three 30-minute sessions. For the parents, the same curriculum was compiled into a handbook, so that parents could tutor their children.

**Source:** Jin et al., 2017
Programmatic best practice

Whilst there are many gaps in the evidence, the literature advocates for a whole school approach to preventing CSEA. “Creating an educational environment in which there is a ‘whole-school’ approach to addressing gender inequality, sexual consent, and relationships built on respect is crucial in responding to violence and abuse, including CSE” (Sharp-Jeffs et al., 2017).

A number of other best practice approaches in the design and delivery of education programmes seeking to prevent offline CSEA are identified (Box 5). Whilst these best practice approaches are often not supported by robust evidence; they are based on assessments of previous and existing programmes and therefore also highlight possible pitfalls. In large part, these critiques do not go beyond the dominant model of school-based modules to increase children’s CSEA prevention knowledge and skills, delivered by teachers.

**Box 5: Best practice approaches in offline CSEA education programmes**

- **Focus on skill-building and behaviour change** rather than awareness-raising and attitudinal change, including time to practice new skills and including complex scenarios such as peer harassment, risky sexual decisions etc.

- **Design programmes to include the whole socio-ecological framework** with activities that address risks and opportunities at all levels (the individual, family, school, community, institutional), address the interrelated factors related to CSEA risk and ensure a joined-up approach to prevention and response by involving social services, justice, police etc.

- **Longer term, intensive programmes** with regular reinforcement of key concepts, for example, weekly hour-long sessions over a number of months.

- **Design evidence-based programmes with sound and explicit programme logic** that avoid generic and broad messaging.

- **Well trained teachers/staff delivering the programme who have access to guidance, support and reporting mechanisms.** This is often not the case. For example, research from ten countries in Eastern and Southern Africa found that most comprehensive sexuality education curricula did not mention access to guidance, supervision or reporting requirements for teachers who encountered disclosure of sexual abuse (UNESCO, 2015).

- **Active and interactive** sessions delivered through a variety of media, incorporating Internet-based activities such as computer games and mobile apps.

- **Critical reflection** on the social norms, attitudes and behaviours and gender inequality underpinning exploitation and abuse.

- **Age and culturally appropriate.** For example, content should be tailored to the age range targeted; cultural sensitivities related to directly addressing CSEA should be considered in the design.

- **Avoid fear tactics** which have repeatedly been shown to be ineffective.

- **Display sensitivity in relation to programme contact,** provide ongoing wraparound support for children during and after materials depicting exploitation and abuse are used; avoid retraumatising survivors of exploitation and abuse; and make clear that the survivor is not at fault.

- **Additional support for high risk children,** for example, inclusive materials for children with disabilities.

- **Strong quality control mechanisms.**

Source: Bovarnick, S. and Scott, 2016; UNFPA, 2015; Eaton and Holmes, 2017; Brown and Saied-Tessier, 2015; Fulu et al., 2014; and Barker and Pawlak, 2012; UNESCO, 2015; Burton et al., unpublished; Radford et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2014; Mishna et al., 2014.
This chapter summarises findings from a desk review of national education programmes addressing CSEA in both online and offline environments in East Asia and the Pacific.

**Methodology**

The review includes both CSEA-focused national education programmes as well as initiatives addressing linked issues (e.g., cybersafety) through formal education systems.

The review provides an overview of different approaches, examines evidence of effectiveness and includes case studies of current programmes which may have promising practices to inform the design of future programmes. Case studies highlight different types of approaches, the specific types of CSEA being addressed, stakeholders, activities, target groups, and results to date (Annex). Gender and disability are also explored as cross-cutting themes. This review may not be exhaustive, but it is representative of programmes where there is publicly available information.

Following an initial review of the evidence, the inclusion criteria were expanded to include programmes which appear promising but have not yet been evaluated (Box 6).

**Box 6: Inclusion criteria for CSEA programmes under review**

**Thematic focus**

- Thematic relevance to child sexual abuse and exploitation (online and/or offline).
- Education programmes addressing wider and linked issues, i.e. sexuality education and cybersafety.
- National awareness-raising campaigns of CSEA (online and/or offline).

**Delivery**

- Delivered by or in partnership with national government ministries including ministries of education (MoE).
- Existing or recent programmes (within the last five years).
- Formal education in schools and universities.

**Criteria for inclusion of evidence**

- Both evaluated and non-evaluated programmes.
- Sufficient English language information on approaches and activities available publicly online.

**Geographic focus**

- UNICEF Programme countries in East Asia and the Pacific.

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13 The initial review highlighted a lack of rigorous evidence on the effectiveness of national education programmes aimed at tackling CSEA, with the majority of programmes not evaluated.

14 As listed on the UNICEF website https://www.unicef.org/eap/where-we-work.
Overview of CSEA programmes in the region

Overall there is a limited number of initiatives specifically targeting CSEA in the East Asia and Pacific region, and wide variation within the region. In total, 16 programmes in ten countries were identified as meeting the inclusion criteria. An important caveat is that this does not present an exhaustive list of interventions tackling CSEA within the region, as the desk review was limited to programmes where there is sufficient English language material accessible online.

The bulk of initiatives identified are part of broader educational efforts to keep children safe online. In response to evidence on the opportunities and risks of Internet use for young people, there are a number of programmes in countries with high Internet penetration which aim to educate primary and secondary school students, teachers and parents on the risks of the Internet, promote safe and responsible Internet use and keep children safe online. Delivered at the school and complemented by online resources, these ‘digital citizenship’ or cybersafety programmes are typically public-private partnerships between MoEs, technology providers and child rights partners. It is important to note that while online safety education may be helpful to raise awareness amongst older children about some risks of online CSEA such as grooming and sextortion, online CSEA requires much more comprehensive education programmes that do not put the onus on children to protect themselves against crimes committed against them.

The most common forms of abuse addressed by regional initiatives include online forms of abuse such as grooming and sharing of explicit material. There are also a few examples of programmes which use body safety education to educate young people on safe/unsafe touching, how to say no and disclosing abuse.

Delivery mechanisms of national education programmes tackling CSEA most commonly involve both online and offline resources for children, parents and teachers, and are often coupled with awareness-raising activities or targeted lessons in the school. The typical mode of delivery is by teachers in schools; however, a number of initiatives also aim to build the skills of parents to talk to their children about how to avoid potentially abusive and exploitative situations.

Duration and frequency depend on the type of approaches, ranging from one-off events to regular level-based modules delivered as part of national education curricula. It is important to note that most programmes employ multiple approaches so that children are exposed to information on how to protect themselves from multiple sources.

The programmes all include an element of strengthening referral and response mechanisms by promoting hotlines and other reporting mechanisms; incorporating key messages around the importance of disclosing abuse to a safe adult; and/or providing information for parents, guardians and teachers on how to identify and respond to abuse.

The majority of initiatives target upper primary and secondary level students, with a few examples of initiatives also targeting younger children. Curriculum-based approaches tailor content to different age groups, however there is a lack of evidence of the age-appropriateness of the majority of other types of interventions.

In general, gender is not widely mainstreamed into programmes, with a lack of evidence of programmes specifically factoring in the gendered dimensions of CSEA into their design, and

15 See Annex for a summary table of programmes by country.
16 In its recent study, UNESCO (2016) articulates a broad definition of digital citizenship as “being able to find, access, use and create information effectively; engage with other users and with content in an active, critical, sensitive and ethical manner; and navigate the online and ICT environment safely and responsibly, being aware of one’s own rights.”
a lack of sex-disaggregated data. Similarly, *disability is largely absent* with a lack of evidence that any of these interventions have factored disability into their design, and consequently accessibility for children with disabilities.

**The evidence base on what works to tackle CSEA in educational programming is at an early stage in scope and scale**, with very limited robust evidence on the effectiveness of CSEA-focused initiatives within the region. Few comprehensive assessments or evaluations of education programmes tackling CSEA have taken place and/or are publicly available. For the majority of interventions included in this review, there is no publicly available information on results to date, and it is unclear whether these interventions are currently being evaluated, and how. In particular, there is a lack of evidence of impact on children’s, parents’ and teachers’ attitudes, knowledge, skills and behaviour. There is also no evidence to suggest that the majority of these interventions were designed using evidence-informed theories of change methodology.

### Overview of programme approaches

The majority of programmes included in this review operate at multiple levels and employ multiple strategies to tackle CSEA. For the purpose of this review, programme approaches have been categorised into six broad categories, which although simplistic, reflect the core objective of each intervention or where it is most unique.

- **Awareness-raising approaches in schools** – awareness-raising activities at the school coupled with support for teachers and teaching materials.
- **Curriculum-based** – including both standalone curricula focused on prevention of CSEA, as well as integrated material within existing national curricula.
- **Online hubs** – providing both online and offline resources for children, parents and teachers.
- **Targeted resources for parents** – to equip parents with knowledge, ideas and ways to communicate with children to protect them from online sexual abuse.
- **National awareness-raising campaigns** – awareness-raising campaigns targeting the whole community.
- **Reporting and response mechanisms** – including helplines.

For each approach, promising practices and insights are highlighted.

### Awareness-raising approaches in schools

In the Philippines and Malaysia, governments are implementing targeted awareness-raising campaigns in schools to tackle online safety. Delivered in partnership with private sector technology partners as well as specialist child protection organizations, these ‘digital citizenship’ or ‘cybersafety’ programmes are a combination of school-wide awareness-raising activities coupled with training support for teachers and online resources.

These programmes tend to focus on online abuse more broadly, including online harassment, stalking and bullying. They do not have an explicit focus on sexual abuse, however the key messages promote protective factors for CSEA, for example, encouraging young people to never share personal details and to report CSAM. The messaging and content are focused on stranger perpetration rather than...
intrafamilial abuse. It is unclear whether any of these programmes provide opportunities for young people to practice the skills required to navigate very complex, potentially abusive situations.

**Key features include:**

- Awareness-raising talks and seminars delivered by teachers in schools.
- Engaging and interactive teaching materials tailored to the local context including videos, games and quizzes.
- Teacher training.
- Online resources – for young people, parents and teachers.

**Innovative features** include ambassador programmes for teachers and students, as well as competitions for schools and students to promote the campaign, increase engagement of young people and promote key messages (CyberSAFE). iFIGHT in the Philippines implements a peer-led model of youth-led activities such as school clubs as well as using social media to support children with the skills to protect themselves from online abuse. The CyberSAFE programme also promotes reporting mechanisms such as the hotline ‘Cyber 999’ for disclosing online abuse.

**Age-appropriateness:** It is unclear the extent to which awareness-raising activities are tailored to meet the different needs of different age groups.

**Gender:** The approaches appear to be gender-absent, with gender norms and unequal power relations not considered in the design or delivery of activities. Activities and messages do not appear to address gendered dimensions of CSEA. They target both boys and girls together, and do not encourage (or discourage) single sex information or activities. Data on reach is not disaggregated by sex.

**Disability:** The interventions do not appear to have mainstreamed disability issues, or explicitly considered disability in the design or delivery of activities. There is subsequently a lack of data disaggregated by disability (or other social characteristics or groupings). Teaching materials and resources have not been made accessible for children with different impairments.

**Evidence of effectiveness:** There is limited evidence of the effectiveness of the initiatives to date with only an evaluation of the Malaysian CyberSAFE Programme being publicly available and limited to self-reported perceptions of safety online. There is a lack of evidence of the impact on knowledge and skills of young people and teachers, or reporting. There is little evidence to suggest that any of the awareness-raising programme designs were based on evidence-informed theory of change methodology.

**Curriculum-based approaches**

This review identified a few programmes with comprehensive age-appropriate school curriculums that aim to teach children, teachers and parents the necessary tools to keep children safe – both online and more broadly. These approaches couple teacher training with tailored teaching materials that are either standalone curricula or incorporated within existing national curriculums.

**Key features of these curriculum-based approaches include:**

- Age-appropriate curricula adapted to local contexts.
- Interactive and engaging lesson plans.
- Teacher training.
In Singapore and the Philippines, MoEs are implementing curriculum-based programmes for the prevention of online abuse. Singapore’s Cyber Wellness programme targets online abuse more broadly including online harassment, stalking and bullying, whereas CyberSafe in the Philippines has more specific focus on CSEA including online sexual abuse.

This review also identified a curriculum-based programme in the Pacific island of Guam focusing on preventing sexual abuse with plans to integrate information on other forms of online abuse. All of the programmes aim to equip young people with the skills to identify potentially harmful situations, avoid abusive relationships, provide information on children’s rights and highlight the importance of disclosing any abuse to a trusted adult.

The majority of countries in the region have sexuality education curricula at both primary and secondary levels (UNESCO, 2012). However, the UNESCO review found that coverage and quality vary substantially, with most countries not yet delivering comprehensive curricula which go beyond teaching biology and abstinence approaches to sexually transmitted diseases. However, this review identified one programme in China which targets primary school age migrant children with a specific aim to prevent CSEA among this particularly vulnerable group (Annex).

All programmes include teacher training. In the Philippines, the CyberSafe initiative includes a Safe Schools Training package with modules on child rights and child sexual abuse prevention as well as child protection policy. In order to enable a coordinated approach to tackling CSEA, the programme also provides training for service workers in the health and social welfare sectors to ensure a coordinated response.

- **Innovative features** include supplementary peer-to-peer activities to disseminate key messages (Cyber Wellness Programme), online resource portals (Cyber Wellness and CyberSAFE), and workshops with parents (Cyber Wellness Programme).

- **Age-appropriateness**: Lesson plans and teaching materials are tailored either by school level or grade. Each grade’s theme focuses on developing skills for staying safe, matched with the child’s general development.

- **Gender**: From the limited materials available, it is unclear the extent to which activities and messages address gendered dimensions of CSEA. These programmes target both boys and girls, and do not encourage (or discourage) single sex information or activities. Data on reach is not disaggregated by sex.

- **Disability**: These interventions do not appear to have mainstreamed disability issues or explicitly considered disability in the design or delivery of activities. There is subsequently a lack of data disaggregated by disability (or other social characteristics or groupings). Teaching materials and resources have not been made accessible for children with different impairments.

- **Evidence of effectiveness**: There is no evidence of the impact on knowledge and skills of young people and teachers, or impact on reporting, with no publicly available evaluations. Programmes appear to have been designed using age-appropriate content but there is no information available on how they were designed.

**Online hubs**

Online hubs where teachers, children and parents can access information and resources to help protect children from online abuse are a common feature of national education programmes tackling online safety. Sometimes complemented by in-school activities (see section above), key features of these hubs include:

- **Age-appropriate information** targeting young and older children, parents and teachers on how to identify and protect children from online abuse.
• **Teaching materials and engaging resources** (including videos and posters on key issues).

• **A dedicated page on referral networks** with key information on where to report abuse.

  - **Age-appropriateness:** Online resources provide materials tailored to different age categories – although these are very broad (i.e. children and young people) – and there is a lack of information around how these categories are defined and content adapted. For example, the CyberSafe programme website in the Philippines includes information on cyberbullying, cyberstalking and harassment in the youth section, whereas the kids section focuses on managing cyber friends and safeguarding personal information.

  - **Gender:** Online resources target both boys and girls equally. No sex disaggregated data is available on who is using the site.

  - **Disability:** Websites do not appear to have been designed to be compliant with disability issues and score low ratings for people with low vision, cognitive and learning disabilities using online website assessment tools.  

  - **Evidence of effectiveness:** There is limited evidence of the effectiveness of online initiatives with no publicly available data on usage or outcomes of initiatives.

### Programmes targeting parents and caregivers

Most education programmes recognize the critical role that parents can play in preventing CSEA (especially ICT-related exploitation and abuse) and provide targeted resources for parents and caregivers.

Two initiatives in Viet Nam and Thailand have parents and caregivers as their primary focus and aim to equip parents with information, skills and resources to discuss sensitive CSEA-related issues with their children. In Malaysia, a campaign uses body safety education as a platform to engage young people and parents and equip them with the skills to protect themselves from sexual exploitation and abuse.

**Key aspects of these campaigns include:**

- Handbooks for parents and caregivers (physical and/or online).
- Child friendly and age-appropriate resources for discussing sensitive topics.
- Tips for identifying signs of abuse.
- Links to reporting mechanisms.

  - **Age-appropriateness:** These campaigns target parents of children from all age groups. Netsmart! includes specific information tailored to risks facing different age groups from children as young as two-years-old to teenagers.

  - **Gender:** Resources are aimed at parents of both genders and target both boys and girls. They do not address any of the gendered dimensions of CSEA.

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17 The website https://try.powermapper.com was used to test websites for accessibility issues. For example, 89 per cent of AlamBau.ph web pages and 61 per cent of www.cybersafe.asia/ web pages were scored as having poor accessibility.
Disability: No information is provided on the specific risks facing disabled children or barriers they may face seeking support. Materials for parents are not available in accessible forms such as easy read, audio or sign language.

Evidence of effectiveness: The effectiveness of these initiatives on parents or young people’s knowledge and skills, prevalence of abuse or disclosure rates are unknown with no information available on whether or how these initiatives were monitored or evaluated.

National awareness-raising campaigns

In Cambodia, Viet Nam, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Thailand, a national awareness raising campaign – the Child Safe Movement – is a key part of national efforts to prevent and respond to child abuse and exploitation, including sexual abuse. Operating outside of the education sector, this programme targets at-risk children who are typically out of school, the wider community and business operators in tourism hotspots.

The campaign aims to foster a shared communal responsibility for prevention and responding to signs of child abuse and is notable for their engagement with the private sector to widen dissemination of key messages (for example, tuk drivers, backpacker hostels, restaurants and hotel chains).

Key features of this campaign include:

- Wide dissemination of key messages in public areas and throughout the private sector.
- Engagement of media to promote the campaign.
- Certification programme for private sector partners in the tourism sector.
- Training for partners and workshops with community members.
- Tailored resources for children, parents and community members.
- Promotion of child helplines for reporting instances of abuse.

Age-appropriateness: The facilitator’s guide includes tailored age-appropriate lesson plans for three different age groups: 5–7 year-olds, 8–10 year-olds, and 11–17 year-olds.

Gender: Whilst the campaign is targeted at both male and female potential victims of CSEA, it does not appear to directly address the gendered dimensions of CSEA.

Disability: No information is provided on the specific risks facing disabled children or barriers they may face seeking support. Campaign materials are not available in accessible forms such as easy read, audio or sign language.

Evidence of effectiveness: There is no publicly available evidence on the results of the campaign to date.
Reporting and response mechanisms

Effective reporting and response mechanisms are a key part of CSEA prevention. The programmes included in this review all include an element of strengthening referral and response mechanisms by:

- Promoting hotlines and other reporting mechanisms.
- Incorporating key messages on the importance of disclosing abuse to a safe adult.
- Providing information for parents, guardians and teachers on how to identify and respond to abuse.

Delivery mechanisms of these approaches range from toll free numbers for dedicated police teams to nationwide networks of social services for children at risk and their families. Hotlines link children and parents with psychological, legal and health services and provide emergency response.

Innovative features include the use of media to raise awareness and to empower children and communities to have a voice and be heard, as well as community and school outreach programmes (e.g., Bantay Bata in the Philippines).

Gender: This review found no sex-disaggregated data available which makes it difficult to assess whether these services provide the same level of support and outcomes for both boys and girls, or what tailored support might be provided (i.e. same-sex counselling).

Disability: This review found little evidence that these approaches had considered the needs of disabled children in their design. Reporting mechanisms tend to rely on telephone hotlines, which may not be accessible for children with hearing impairments.

Evidence of impact: Reported data shows that these reporting mechanisms are receiving a high number of calls, although their effectiveness in reaching children most at need is unknown. There is also a lack of data tracking the outcome of reported instances of abuse through these mechanisms.
**Defining child sexual exploitation and abuse**

Child Sexual Exploitation and Abuse (CSEA) is defined as any sexual activities imposed by an adult on a child against which the child is entitled to protection by criminal law; and any sexual activities committed by another child in the context of differences in age, use of power, exertion of threats and other forms of pressure.

Online CSEA involves the use of the Internet as a means to exploit children sexually, including production and distribution of CSAM, online grooming, sextortion and webcam sex shows.

There is currently no clear boundary between offline and online CSEA, and it is not always possible to separate these forms of violence. A child may be abused offline and this can continue online or vice versa (UNICEF, 2019).

**Child sexual exploitation and abuse in East Asia and the Pacific**

CSEA takes many forms in East Asia and the Pacific, including the sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism, online child sexual exploitation, the production and distribution of child sexual abuse materials, specific forms of live online sexual exploitation, child trafficking for sexual exploitation or prostitution (Davey, 2017). The available data on prevalence is limited and patchy, however where data is available this suggests CSEA is a widespread and gendered phenomenon, with boys and girls experiencing it in different ways.

**Key statistics include:**

- A 2012 UNICEF systematic review of violence against children in East Asia and the Pacific found that the prevalence of child sexual abuse ranges from 11–22 per cent for girls and 3–16.5 per cent for boys across the East Asia and Pacific region (UNICEF, 2014).

- In a study on young people’s experience of forced sex, 17.1 per cent of young people reported they had ever experienced forced sex in Thailand in 2005, rising to 21 per cent in 2007; this compares to 14.2 per cent in Palau in 2003, increasing to 35.8 per cent in 2007; 29.3 per cent in the Marshall Islands in 2003 and 22.8 per cent in 2007; and 13.8 per cent in the Mariana Islands in 2003, rising to 22.8 per cent in 2007 (UNICEF, 2014). It is important to note that these increases may be more of a reflection of increased rates of reporting than actual increases in prevalence.

- In the Philippines, 33.8 per cent lesbian, gay, bi- and transgender adults reporting having experienced sexual violence before the age of 18 (CWC and UNICEF, 2016).

- In a UNICEF study on 16–17-year olds who had been touched inappropriately at school in the past month, 11 per cent of children in Fiji, 7 per cent in Kiribati, 32 per cent in the Solomon Islands, and 21 per cent in Vanuatu said that they had been touched inappropriately (UNICEF, 2014).
• Prevalence of child sexual abuse of girls before the age of 15 is 37 per cent in the Solomon Islands, 30 per cent in Vanuatu and 19 per cent in Kiribati (UNICEF, 2015).

• In Papua New Guinea, 32 per cent of men reported they had experienced sexual violence before their 18th birthday (Fulu et al, 2013).

Although few studies exist on online CSEA, emerging evidence suggests online grooming and webcam sex involving children are significant problems in the region. In 2013, a research team spent 10 weeks posing in online chat rooms as pre-pubertal Filipino girls and were approached by 20,172 predators (Terre des Hommes, 2013).

CSEA prevention in education programmes: what we know

Programmes seeking to prevent CSEA through education have significantly increased in number in low- and middle-income settings in recent years. School-based programmes teaching children about CSEA are the most common type of prevention programme as these are usually low cost and can reach large numbers of children without stigmatising those at risk (Brown, 2015). These programmes typically provide children and adolescents with the knowledge that may help them to recognize and avoid risky situations as well as strategies to respond to potential offenders.

There are a growing number of programmes seeking to prevent online CSEA however these are most common in high income contexts and are rarely integrated into broader CSEA prevention initiatives. Individual programmatic approaches include whole school approaches; awareness-raising and teacher support; curriculum-based interventions; online hubs providing resources to children, parents and teachers; targeted resources for parents; national awareness raising campaigns; and reporting and response mechanisms such as helplines.

A growing body of evidence suggests that:

• School-based interventions often lead to positive changes in knowledge and (sometimes) protective behaviours against CSEA. This is particularly the case where safety knowledge is integrated into regular teaching and where parents play an active role in the programme (Brown, 2015).

• Programmes can increase disclosure of CSEA and may reduce self-blame (Radford et al., 2015).

• Programmes do not tend to measure negative outcomes, such as anxiety, fear and nightmares. Where it is measured, only a small minority of children experience negative reactions (Walsh et al., 2015).

• Some models can achieve other related positive impacts, with evidence showing comprehensive sexuality education can reduce risky sexual behaviour, and whole school approaches can reduce physical violence perpetrated by teachers in schools.

Guidelines to develop national education programmes

It is recommended that governments develop education programmes on CSEA as part of a broader CSEA prevention strategy that includes both online and offline elements of CSEA.
It is further recommended that CSEA be addressed in the context of broader efforts to prevent and respond to violence against children and integrated into programming within the existing INSPIRE framework. For example, integrating modules on both online and offline CSEA prevention into parenting programmes; addressing drivers of CSEA such as poverty through income generation; and ensuring that the whole school is a safe environment for children.

This broader educational strategy on CSEA prevention online and offline should include:

(a) a broad awareness campaign targeting the general public;
(b) school-based interventions addressing different age groups;
(c) a digital strategy for children who are social media users; and
(d) targeted interventions for high risk groups, such as children with disabilities and children on the move.

**Best practices and key considerations for programming**

**Planning and design:**

- Given the limited evidence available on what works in East Asia and the Pacific, high quality contextual analysis is crucial. Conduct formative research to understand the national and local context of CSEA.
- Ensure interventions are based on sound theories of change rooted in the consideration of gender norms and power dynamics.
- Ensure education on online CSEA is incorporated into national curricula in schools so that prevention messages can reach all children.
- Ensure education programmes relate to both online and offline CSEA, take account of the kinds of CSEA that are faced by children at different ages, and of different genders:
  - there is a need to target children aged under 13 with CSEA prevention education programmes regarding self-generated images, especially children aged 11-13 years old;
  - educational materials aimed at younger children must take account of their dependence on those abusing them and offer realistic reporting mechanisms to seek assistance outside of the family or caretaking relationship;
  - there is a need for education programmes that target pre-pubescent children and recognize that CSEA at this age is likely to be perpetrated by nuclear and extended family members;
  - sextortion is a topic that needs to be included in education about risks involved in use of social media and video chats and should be directed at children aged 8–17 years old; and
  - education programmes related to perpetrators contacting children directly should be focused on older children aged 14–15 and above.
- Incorporate information about online CSEA and how to address it into parenting programmes.
- Identify child protection support and referral mechanisms.
- Include interventions at all levels of the socio-ecological framework (the individual, family, school, community, institutional), consider the increased risk some groups of children face, and ensure a joined-up approach to prevention and response by involving social services, justice, police etc.
- Ensure programmes are age, gender and culturally appropriate.
  - Consider the participation of diverse groups, including for children with disabilities and children from minority ethnic groups, for example accessible materials for children with disabilities, and materials translated into minority languages.
Delivery:

• Focus on skill-building and behaviour change with time to practise new skills including complex scenarios such as peer harassment and risky sexual decisions.

• Implement long term, intensive programmes with regular reinforcement of key concepts, for example weekly hour-long sessions over a number of months.

• Use active and interactive sessions using a variety of media, for example computer games and mobile apps.

• Avoid fear tactics, insensitivity and victim-blaming as these can cause harm.

• Avoid generic and broad messaging as these have been shown to be ineffective.

• Encourage critical reflection on social norms and gender inequality underpinning exploitation and abuse.

• Ensure teachers and those delivering the intervention are well trained and have access to guidance, support and reporting mechanisms.

• Ensure strong quality control mechanisms.

Monitoring and evaluation:

• Given the limited global evidence base on CSEA prevention programmes, particularly in low- and middle-income contexts and for online CSEA prevention, research should be built into programming to contribute to these gaps (see Box 7).

• Encourage governments to collect CSEA online and offline data in periodic national surveys and as part of violence against children studies. Programmes should build appetite for and share learning with other interested stakeholders.

• Ensure safeguarding, ethical and child protection considerations are embedded in monitoring and evaluation activities.

Box 7: Suggestions for further research to address evidence gaps

The following evidence gaps should be considered when designing research and evaluation of CSEA prevention programming:

• Most of the available evidence on programme effectiveness is on offline child sexual abuse prevention in schools in high income contexts and is low quality in general.

• There is very little evidence on what works in East Asia and the Pacific, particularly robust evaluations with control groups.

• Few evaluations exist examining both online and offline CSEA.

• The evidence focuses on curriculum-based interventions, usually delivered by teachers, directly to children, with a lack of emphasis on work with teachers or whole school approaches.

• Evaluations tend to measure increased knowledge around CSEA rather than change in behaviour or CSEA reporting, meaning little is known about the impacts of programmes on actual prevalence of abuse and exploitation.

• Studies do not tend to disaggregate data, by age, gender and disability.

• Studies do not tend to measure evidence of unintended, harmful effects of interventions.

• Studies tend to measure outcomes very soon after the intervention ends and do not follow-up to assess the sustainability of outcomes.

• The review found no systematic reviews of child sexual exploitation prevention.
The key features, objectives, delivery mechanisms and effectiveness (where results are available) are presented for the following CSEA prevention programmes in East Asia and the Pacific.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>CSEA initiatives and programmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Regionwide** | #SafeWeb4Kids  
The Child Safe Movement |
| **Cambodia** | The Child Safe Movement  
#SafeWeb4Kids |
| **China** | Primary School Sexuality Education Project for Migrant Children  
#SafeWeb4Kids |
| **Guam, Pacific Islands** | My Body is Special: A Sexual Abuse Prevention Curriculum |
| **Indonesia** | #SafeWeb4Kids |
| **Lao People’s Democratic Republic** | The Child Safe Movement |
| **Malaysia** | CyberSAFE in schools programme  
Click Wisely  
Body Safety Education Campaign  
#SafeWeb4Kids |
| **Philippines** | Cybersafe  
IFIGHT  
AlamBau.com  
Bantay Bata 163  
#SafeWeb4Kids |
| **Singapore** | Cyber Wellness programme |
| **Thailand** | Safe Internet Initiative  
The Child Safe Movement  
Child Helpline 1387  
#SafeWeb4Kids |
| **Viet Nam** | Netsmart!  
The Child Safe Movement  
Child Helpline Magic Keypad  
#SafeWeb4Kids |
### Awareness raising approaches in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The CyberSAFE in Schools Programme</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Key stakeholders** | Public/private partnership between DiGi Telecommunications, Childline Malaysia, CyberSecurity Malaysia and the Ministry of Education. |

| **Brief description** | CyberSAFE (Cyber Security Awareness For Everyone) is an outreach programme that advocates online safety by raising public awareness on the risks facing Internet users and empowering Malaysian children to stay safe online. Centred on building digital citizenship and creating a safer Internet experience, the programme was designed to educate school children on how they can protect themselves against online threats and cyber risks, equipping them with the right tools to enjoy a positive Internet experience. |

| **Types of CSEA addressed** | The programme has a focus on online relationships, cyberstalking, cyberbullying and online harassment. Uses a rights approach – including the right to be safe from sexual abuse. |

| **Target audience(s)** | Primary and secondary school students, and teachers. Online resources target both ‘kids’ and youth. |

| **Key activities** | Combination of awareness-raising activities in schools together with online resources including: |
| | • Awareness talks in schools |
| | • Young Ambassadors Programme |
| | • Cadets Summer Camp |
| | • Awareness seminar for teachers |
| | • Ambassador programme for teachers |
| | • Online resources including videos, games and quizzes |
| | • Competitions targeted at students and schools |
| | • Guidelines for parents, guardians and educators |
| | • CyberSAFE website (www.cybersafe.my) |
| | • Annual Safe Internet Day |
| | • Promoting reporting mechanisms, i.e. the Malaysia Computer Emergency Response Team and the hotline ‘Cyber 999’ for disclosing online abuse. |

| **Duration/frequency** | One-off awareness-raising activities |

| **Results to date** | To date, DiGi CyberSAFE in Schools programme has successfully reached more than 70,000 primary and secondary school students and 4,000 teachers with more than 850 ICT teachers being trained as ‘CyberSAFE ambassadors.’ According to a 2013 pre/post survey of students who had taken part, the CyberSAFE in school workshop led to a 20 per cent increase in students feeling safe using the Internet. Following the workshop, 8 out of 10 students felt better able to protect themselves online, and awareness of cyber bullying increased. Data is not disaggregated by gender or disability (Malaysian Ministry of Education et al., 2013) |

| **Further information** | Programme website: www.cybersafe.my/en/ |
### Click Wisely

**Country**  
Malaysia

**Key stakeholders**  
Malaysian Communications and Multimedia Commission

**Brief description**  
Click Wisely is a public awareness campaign which aims to educate young people, parents and educators on how to keep children (and adults) safe online.

**Types of CSEA addressed**  
The programme has broad focus on online abuse.

**Target audience(s)**  
Young people (ages 13–18), parents and educators

**Key activities**  
Key activities of the campaign include:  
- Educational materials including posters and brochures  
- Media articles  
- Training programmes  
- Awareness-raising talks in schools and universities  
- Competitions

**Frequency/duration**  
One-off awareness-raising activities

**Results to date**  
As of 2016, over two million people have taken part in the programme according to media reports (Borneo Post, 2016). An evaluation of the programme has been undertaken although results are not publicly available (Waheed et al., undated).

**Further information**  

### iFIGHT, 2013-present

**Country**  
Philippines

**Key stakeholders**  
A youth-led movement implemented by anti-trafficking NGO, Visayan Forum, together with stakeholders including communities, churches, private and corporate sectors, and local governments.

**Brief description**  
A peer-led awareness-raising campaign in schools which seeks to end human trafficking and modern slavery.

**Types of CSEA addressed**  
Human trafficking and modern slavery. Cybercrimes and cyberbullying.

**Target audience(s)**  
Primary, secondary and university students.
iFIGHT, 2013-present

Key activities
Awareness-raising activities in schools and universities including:
- Seminars, workshops, forums, symposiums, film showings and art exhibitions.
- Young people are encouraged to set up their own iFIGHT club and training and workshops are provided throughout the year to support club activities.
- Spreading key messages through social medial #ifightmovement.
- YouTube videos.
- Website including iFIGHT manual and student toolkit.

Frequency/duration
One-off awareness-raising activities supplemented by youth-led activities and online resources.

Results to date
No publicly available evaluation to date

Links
The iFIGHT website: http://voiceofthefree.org.ph/ifight/

Curriculum-based approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cyber Wellness Programme</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery mechanisms</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex 2: CSEA programme case studies

Cyber Wellness Programme

**Delivery mechanisms (continue)**
As part of the programme’s multistakeholder approach, parents are recognized as being essential to ensuring better uptake of cyber wellness principles by students, and additional activities include workshops with parents on setting boundaries on Internet use and being good examples to their children to reinforce cyber wellness principles learned at school.
There is also a dedicated website with online resources for teachers and students (https://ictconnection.moe.edu.sg/cyber-wellness/cyber-wellness-101).

**Duration/frequency**
CW lessons are integrated within the school curricula with accompanying protected curricula time depending on the educational level (See table below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3 Principles</th>
<th>3 Big Ideas</th>
<th>4 Themes</th>
<th>8 Topics</th>
<th>Protected Curriculum Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify</td>
<td>Cyber identity: Healthy self-identity</td>
<td>• Online Identity and Expression</td>
<td>Primary: 14 lessons within first Teacher Guidance Period since 2014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyber Use: Balanced life and balanced use</td>
<td>• Balanced Use of ICT</td>
<td>Secondary: 18 lessons in the CCE CW Guidance Module since 2014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Cyber relationships: Safe and meaningful</td>
<td>• Netiquette</td>
<td>4 hours for Sec One to Four</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Cyber Bullying</td>
<td>• Online Relationships</td>
<td>2 hours for Sec Five</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choices</td>
<td>Cyber Citizenship: Positive presence</td>
<td>• About the Cyber World</td>
<td>Pre-University: 2 lessons within the CCE curriculum from 2016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Handling Online Content and Behaviour</td>
<td>• Cyber Contacts</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Results to date**
No publicly available evaluations of the programme.

**Further information**

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**CyberSafe**

**Country**
Philippines

**Key stakeholders**
Partnership between the Department of Education and Stairway (child rights organization) and supported by UNICEF.

**Brief description**
The CyberSafe project aims to protect Filipino children from cyberbullying and online child abuse.

**Types of CSEA addressed**
Online child abuse including sexual abuse and CSAM.

**Target audience(s)**
Students in Grade 5 and 6; junior high school and teachers
### CyberSafe

**Delivery mechanisms**

Key activities include:

- Safe Schools Training package for schools includes four modules:
  - Module 1: Basic child rights and child sexual abuse prevention
  - Module 2: Child protection policy
  - Module 3: Personal safety and protective behaviour
  - Module 4: CyberSafe
- The development of two CyberSafe project manuals for teachers (Grade 5 and 6, junior high school) and accompanying DVD materials – including information on responding to disclosures of abuse.
- Eight modules for Grades 5 and 6 including account privacy; cyberbullying; image and content sharing; online friends; and online pornography.
- Child sexual abuse prevention training and cyber safety training for direct service workers (e.g., social workers, psychologists).
- In 2018, the Stairway Foundation also piloted new lesson plans targeting Grade 1–4.

**Results to date**

No publicly available evaluation has been undertaken to date.

**Frequency/duration**

Eight hours of lessons targeting Grade 5 and 6.

**Further information**

CyberSafe website: https://www.cybersafe.asia/

### My Body is Special: A Sexual Abuse Prevention Curriculum

**Country**

Guam, Pacific Islands

**Key stakeholders**

Guam Department for Education, Attorney General’s office, Guam Police Department and government and private social service agencies.

**Brief description**

Age-appropriate curriculum designed to raise student awareness about sexual assault and violence.

**Types of CSEA addressed**

Sexual abuse and violence. Addressing sexting and cyberbullying will eventually be integrated into the programme.

**Target audience(s)**

Primary, middle school and high school students.

**Delivery mechanisms**

A curriculum-based programme adapted from Hawaii’s national curriculum to the local context. The K-12 curriculum is integrated within health classes, and is split into age-appropriate levels:

- ‘My Body is Special’ is for pre-school to second grade.
- ‘My Body, My Boundaries’ for third to fifth grade.
- Respect: A Sexual Abuse Prevention Curriculum for middle and high school.

Teachers are trained on how to teach the curriculum, programme materials and how to deal with students who report sexual assault.

**Results to date**

4-5 hours of lessons for each of the programme levels.

**Links**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>China</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>Launched in 2007 by Beijing Normal University, with support from the Ford Foundation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>Sexuality education programme targeted at migrant workers and their children in China – a group at high risk of CSEA. Guided by UNESCO's International Technical Guidance on Sexuality Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>Understanding, preventing and dealing with child sexual abuse; life skills, including how to say no and asking for help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></td>
<td>Migrant children in primary schools, and their parents/caregivers. Research shows that due in part to the <em>hukou</em> (registration) system, migrant children often live in crowded accommodation and are at higher risk of physical and sexual abuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery mechanisms</strong></td>
<td>Sexuality education curriculum for primary school; textbooks have been developed for migrant children in Grades 1–6. Key concepts include: (1) family and friends (relationships); (2) life skills (values, attitudes and skills); (3) gender and rights (culture, society and human rights); (4) human development; (5) sexuality and healthy behaviour (sexual behaviour); and (6) sexual and reproductive health. In total, 12 topics are taught for each concept in Grades 1–6, making a total of 72 topics to be taught during six years of primary school. Teacher training to deliver sexuality education using participatory teaching methods. Parents have been involved through parent-child activities, home visits by project staff, and surveys of parents’ knowledge and attitudes to sexuality education before, during and after the school year. An online WeChat platform offers advice to parents, and the project also uses text messaging, a blog and a website to reach parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results to date</strong></td>
<td>A mixed-method evaluation is being conducted by tracking a cohort of children and parents in Xingzhi primary school, as well as a control group, followed by further research. Preliminary evaluation findings: • Home visits provided important information on the precarious situations migrants face and helped with the design and implementation of the programme. • Many parents directly benefit from sexuality education, e.g., spending more time talking with and listening to their children, communicating more openly. Plans for further evaluation include an assessment of training for parents whose children are in different age groups (preschool, primary school, middle school and high school) and follow-up research with students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
#SafeWeb4Kids, regional initiative 2016- present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Key stakeholders**
Launched in 2016 by the Child Rights Coalition Asia and UNICEF.

**Brief description**
Age-appropriate curriculum designed to be used in schools to teach children about online risk and harm. The campaign aims to help children maintain their privacy, seek help, and exercise caution while using the Internet.

**Types of CSEA addressed**
The focus is on online safety more broadly, but material also specifically references online pornography.

**Target audience(s)**
Upper primary and secondary schoolchildren

**Delivery mechanisms**
The campaign is delivered through printed materials and short videos produced by children. The material is available in eight languages: English, Traditional Chinese, Bahasa Indonesia, Bahasa Malaysia, Filipino, Khmer, Thai and Vietnamese.

**Results to date**
No publicly available evaluation has been undertaken to date.

**Further information**
Child Rights Coalition Asia
http://www.crcasia.org/campaigns/safeweb4kids/
English booklet: https://resourcecentre.savethechildren.net/node/10219/pdf/safeweb4kids.pdf
Country-specific videos
https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=safeweb4kids

**Online hubs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AlamBaU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Country**
Philippines

**Key stakeholders**
Dakila – Philippine Collective for Modern Heroism – in partnership with the Asia Foundation and the Australian Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade.

**Brief description**
Launched in 2018, AlamBaU is a Philippine online hub that educates, supports and connects stakeholders in the protection of children from online sexual abuse and exploitation.

**Types of CSEA addressed**
Online CSEA
### AlamBaU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></th>
<th>Kids, teens, parents, teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery mechanisms</strong></td>
<td>The online hub includes resources for parents, teachers and age-appropriate content for children (split into kids/teens sections) containing information on basic cybersafety issues such as online grooming, how to identify signs of abuse and actions to take in cases of suspected or actual incidents of online abuse. It also has a resource page containing cyber safety manuals and teaching resources including videos and posters, modules and other materials for educators, cyber safety orientations and education institutions, as well as a directory of relevant authorities and organizations. The website features a page dedicated to reporting abuse with links to online reporting mechanisms and contact details of support organizations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results to date</strong></td>
<td>No publicly available evaluation or data available on use and impact of the online hub.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Further information</strong></td>
<td>AlamBaU website: <a href="https://alambau.ph/">https://alambau.ph/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Safe Internet Initiative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Country</strong></th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>Telco company Dtac, Thai Ministry of ICT and the National Broadcasting and Telecommunications Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>Digital citizenship campaign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>Online abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></td>
<td>Young people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Delivery mechanisms** | Campaign activities include:  
  - Dtac is initiating the first Thai Digital Citizen Hub in Thailand as a forum for young people to learn about and share ideas and experiences on cyber safety and Internet behaviour.  
  - Talk show ‘Digital Citizen Talk’ hosted by A-list Thai TV personalities and nationally televised to educate young children on the Internet and online dangers. The show will also travel on location to 10 pilot schools across the country. |
| **Results to date** | No publicly available results available. |
| **Further information** | Campaign announcement  
### Programmes targeting parents and caregivers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Viet Nam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>The Embassy of Sweden and Save the Children, together with the Department of Children, Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>A booklet for parents on how to protect children from sexual abuse on the Internet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>Online sexual abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></td>
<td>Parents, teachers, educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery mechanisms</strong></td>
<td>Launched at the 2017 Internet Forum, the handbook Netsmart! aims to equip parents with knowledge, ideas and ways to communicate with children to protect them from online sexual abuse. The handbook includes a compilation of advice from child psychologists, police as well as personal narratives of young people who have been subjected to abuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results to date</strong></td>
<td>None available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Further information</strong></td>
<td>English language booklet <a href="https://www.dropbox.com/s/v2fba283jsl5l542d/Netsmart-English.pdf?dl=0">https://www.dropbox.com/s/v2fba283jsl5l542d/Netsmart-English.pdf?dl=0</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Body Safety Education Campaign

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>Penang local government with inputs from Women's Centre for Change, UNICEF Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>The Body Safety Education initiative was created with the goal to stop and prevent child sexual abuse through body safety education and awareness-raising among parents, caregivers and educators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>Offline focus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Body Safety Education Campaign

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></th>
<th>Children, parents, caregivers, educators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery mechanisms</strong></td>
<td>Body Safety Education E-book is intended to be read together by parents and children and enable parents to talk about preventing CSEA in a child-friendly way. The book includes information on body safety rules, how to spot signs of potential abuse/abusers, with links to a national hotline as well as child-friendly games to help parents to discuss sensitive issues with their children. Body Safety Education website promotes the campaign with links to the downloadable E-book, information on upcoming events as well as reporting and referral mechanisms (i.e. hotlines).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results to date</strong></td>
<td>None available.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### National awareness raising campaigns

**The Child Safe Movement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Country</strong></th>
<th>Cambodia, Viet Nam, Laos, Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>World Vision, national tourism organizations, governments, tourism industry and communities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>The Child Safe Tourism campaign aims to combat the sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism, particularly in Southeast Asia. The campaign is part of an Australian Government initiative, Project Childhood, which aims to combat SECTT in the Mekong subregion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>Child sexual abuse and exploitation in tourism areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></td>
<td>Children in tourist areas, tourists, communities, governments and business operators.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Delivery mechanisms** | The Child Safe Tourism campaign arms travellers with knowledge and information on simple actions to protect children and young people from abuse in tourism areas. Key activities include:  
- Dissemination of key messages in public areas and the private sector.  
- Certification programme for private sector partners in the tourism sector.  
- Training.  
- Facilitator toolkits.  
- Promotion of child helplines.  
- Educational materials for children, parents, community representatives and the tourism sector. |
| **Results to date** | No publicly available results. |
| **Further information** | [http://childsafetourism.org/](http://childsafetourism.org/)  
[https://www.wvi.org/asiapacific/childsafetourism](https://www.wvi.org/asiapacific/childsafetourism) |
## Reporting and response mechanisms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Bantay Bata 163</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>The child helpline works with the ABS-CBN Foundation International in close collaboration with partners including the Philippine National Police-Anti-Cybercrime Group and Department of Social Welfare and Development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>Launched in 1997, Bantay Bata 163 aims to protect disadvantaged and at-risk children through a nationwide network of social services. These include a national emergency hotline ‘163’ which allows people to call in and report incidents of CSEA, and offices in major cities which allow immediate response to emergency calls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>The programme targets child survivors of all forms of CSEA although there are a growing number of calls involving online abuse and exploitation (UNICEF and Child Helpline International, 2017).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Target audience(s)</strong></td>
<td>Child survivors of abuse and exploitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery mechanisms</strong></td>
<td>Services include: Direct child protective services – including a hotline where children and parents can access psychological counselling and legal assistance. Residential services – for children who have experienced significant abuse. Community and family support services – including community and school outreach programmes. In addition, the programme uses media – including documentary films, social media and testimonials from children – to raise awareness and to empower children and communities to have a voice and be heard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results to date</strong></td>
<td>No publicly available data on use or impact of services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Further information</strong></td>
<td><a href="https://corporate.abs-cbn.com/lingkodkapamilya/donation">https://corporate.abs-cbn.com/lingkodkapamilya/donation</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>ChildLine – Magic Keypad-18001567</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key stakeholders</strong></td>
<td>Operated by the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs’ Childcare and Protection Department with cooperation agreements to refer cases to the Ministry of Public Security, the Ministry of National Defence and the Viet Nam Women’s Union, as well as an informal network of child protection organizations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brief description</strong></td>
<td>Launched in 2004, the child helpline ‘Magic Keypad-18001567’ is a national public service for children and families that provides information, advice, psychosocial support and counselling on child protection. The helpline also provides referrals to relevant agencies and specialized service providers. The helpline has two core mandates – child protection and care; and addressing human trafficking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of CSEA addressed</strong></td>
<td>All forms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ChildLine – Magic Keypad-18001567

**Target audience(s)**  
Child survivors of CSEA. However, a UNICEF and Child Helpline International report (2017) found that the hotline is more used by parents to report and discuss concerns around their children's welfare including familial relations and use of online social media.

**Delivery mechanisms**  
The child helpline has an informal coordination mechanism with relevant child protection organizations.  
The helpline also provides data and information to government agencies that are responsible for policy and programming.  
In 2017, a new free of charge telephone hotline number 111 was launched, with plans to gradually phase out the old 18001567 number.

**Results to date**  
Between 2004 and 2007, the helpline received over 130,000 calls of which 17,600 callers received intervention and support (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2008).

**Further information**  

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### 1387: Thailand’s 24-hour child helpline

**Country**  
Thailand

**Key stakeholders**  
Safe Child Thailand

**Brief description**  
The 24-hour helpline provides children across Thailand with access to protection, health and welfare services.

**Types of CSEA addressed**  
All forms

**Target audience(s)**  
Child survivors of CSEA and their parents and families.

**Delivery mechanisms**  
Child helpline service provides professional counselling, psychosocial support and emergency response as well as referrals to relevant services (police, courts, social services, or relevant local support services).  
Individual case management, to ensure each child’s case is assessed, followed up and channelled through the correct legal and social systems.

**Results to date**  
In 2016 the call centre answered 40,000 calls from children in need of support and protection.

**Further information**  
https://www.safechildthailand.org/projects/child-protection-0


Davidson, J., E. Martellozzo and M. Lorenz, *Evaluation of Child Exploitation and Online Protection Centre ThinkUKnow Internet Safety Programme and Exploration of Young People’s Internet Safety*
Knowledge, Kingston University, Centre for Abuse and Trauma Studies, 2009, <http://eprints.mdx.ac.uk/5976>.


De La Salle University, Social Development Research Center, National Study on Online Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children in the Philippines, Manila, 2019.


De La Salle University, Social Development Research Center, National Study on Online Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children in the Philippines, Manila, 2019.


