

# Crowdsourcing to Tackle Online Child Sexual Exploitation: Europol's 'Stop Child Abuse—Trace an Object' Platform

Ethem Ilbiz\*<sup>1</sup> and Christian Kaunert\*\*<sup>2</sup>

**Abstract** This article examines how Europol's 'Stop Child Abuse—Trace an Object' (SCATO) platform uses crowdsourcing to collect tips from the public in order to tackle online child sexual exploitation. The article evaluates the platform's effectiveness based on three key factors: how easy it is for the public to access the platform, the transaction costs involved in gathering information from the public, and how trust is established between the public and law enforcement agencies. By analyzing Europol documents and conducting interviews with law enforcement officers and non-governmental organizations, the article argues that the SCATO platform is user-friendly and accessible to the public. However, in order to reduce the searching cost of intelligence gathering, the images shared on the platform should encourage high-value reporting without compromising victim anonymity. Additionally, the platform should also benefit from clear guidelines and feedback mechanisms to encourage more public participation.

## Introduction

The rapid transformative advancement in the internet and information technologies has a facilitating impact on the dissemination of information between individuals residing in different countries. This technological infrastructure, however, has also enabled the sharing and the trading of improper content depicting the sexual exploitation of minors (Taylor and Quayle, 2003; Quayle and Newman, 2015). The easy accessibility and

anonymity offered by the internet, while encouraging the offenders (Meridian *et al.*, 2009; Owens *et al.*, 2016), created a relentless challenge for law enforcement agencies (LEAs) to locate the victim and offender (Yerkes, 2021). Investigating a high volume of child sexual imagery without human, fiscal and technical resources adds a considerable hindrance to tackling online child sexual exploitation (OCSE) (Goodison *et al.*, 2015; Dwyer *et al.*, 2016). As a result, community support based on open-source intelligence gathering became vital

Dr Ethem Ilbiz is a Senior Research Fellow in the International Centre for Policing and Security at the University of South Wales.

Prof Christian Kaunert is Professor of International Security at Dublin City University, Ireland, and Director of the International Centre for Policing and Security, Jean Monnet Director (Chair, Centre, and Network) on EU Counter-terrorism, and Professor of Policing and Security at the University of South Wales.

\*International Centre for Policing and Security, Faculty of Life Sciences and Education, University of South Wales, Pontypridd, Wales, UK. E-mail: [ethem.ilbiz@southwales.ac.uk](mailto:ethem.ilbiz@southwales.ac.uk)

\*\*School of Law and Government, Dublin City University, Dublin, Ireland

Advance Access publication: 23 March 2023

Policing, Volume 17, pp. 1–12

doi: <https://doi.org/10.1093/police/paad009>

© The Author(s) 2023. Published by Oxford University Press.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

for LEAs (Açar, 2018). Many police departments began establishing online platforms to increase awareness of OCSE and mobilize public support to lower their intelligence gathering costs (Yerkes, 2021).

One of these online platforms initiated by Europol is ‘Stop Child Abuse—Trace an Object’ (SCATO) (Europol, 2022c). The website displays object images associated with victims by asking civilians to report any knowledge regarding the origin of these objects (Europol, 2017). Any information the crowd provides is used to determine the country of origin and location of the victim and offender (Europol, 2018). The intelligence gathering model utilized in the SCATO platform is often referred to as ‘crowdsourcing’ (Howe, 2006; Europol, 2018) which can be categorized as a different form of the ‘sharing economy’ model (Aloisi, 2016; De Groen *et al.*, 2016; Taeihagh, 2017). In this distributed problem-solving model, a vast number of individuals contribute to the online problem-solving process per the given task required by the crowdsourcer (Brabham, 2008). According to the executive director of Europol, Cathrine De Bolle, the European policing agency has been using crowdsourcing to locate the cybercrime victims (World Economic Forum, 2019). The SCATO, in that sense, is the central platform where Europol benefits from the crowdsourcing model (Europol, 2017).

In the existing literature concerning OCSE, one of the biggest challenges for LEAs in handling online child sexual abuse cases is the public reluctance to report illegal content directly to the policing agencies (Choo, 2009). In this context, many studies have examined the effectiveness of different public intelligence gathering strategies of LEAs (Açar, 2017; Baines, 2019; Kokolaki *et al.*, 2020; Christensen *et al.*, 2021). Including the massive contribution of the intelligence from private sector tech companies via NCMEC (Açar, 2017). Crowdsourcing is one of the distinctive theoretical frameworks in this field that aims to explain LEAs open-source intelligence gathering method (Huey *et al.*, 2013). From a crowdsourcing perspective, online platforms are a practical option for LEAs to tackle OCSE to fill their resource gap and engage with the public (Yerkes, 2021). However, adding new national and regional level repositories with analogous natures

undermines the success of the efforts that may be achieved in a single global database (Franqueira *et al.*, 2018; Açar, 2020). Despite the increasing number of these platforms, Europol’s SCATO initiative has been shown as one of the best examples of how the crowdsourcing approach has been in use by LEAs to tackle OCSE (Muraskiewicz, 2018; Açar, 2020; Yerkes, 2021). A similar model is also suggested for uncovering victims of human trafficking (Muraskiewicz, 2018). Even though Europol’s SCATO platform has attracted attention in the literature, in a hermeneutic review process in which topics of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing in crime investigation are reviewed, Europol’s crowdsourcing model and its effectiveness have not been scrutinized in detail so far. There is not much evidence in the literature questioning in what aspects Europol’s SCATO platform incentivise public to the problem-solving process. Due to the vague nature of the term effectiveness (Oliver, 1991), in this study, effectiveness refers to improving public engagement to collect actionable intelligence. Considering the knowledge gap in the OCSE literature, this article aims exploring the crowdsourcing model of Europol’s SCATO platform and its effectiveness through the sharing economy platform parameters.

The article contributes to both research and practices twofold. First, it is the first empirical study where Europol’s SCATO platform has been examined through the crowdsourcing conceptual framework. This article may inspire other empirical works to use the same analytical framework while examining similar platforms initiated by public or non-governmental organizations. Second, the study’s empirical findings can help Europol and other LEA executives develop their current crowdsourcing platforms or create new ones to improve public engagement for practical intelligence and resource sharing.

The article’s methodological approach will be described in the following section. The next section will introduce the main theoretical framework of this study, the crowdsourcing model. The discussion section will debate the SCATO platform’s effectiveness through crowdsourcing variables. The concluding section will summarize the research findings and propose new research ideas and practical recommendations for the public authorities managing these platforms.

## Methodology

Due to the absence of open-source quantitative metadata about the Europol SCATO platform, this study relied on a qualitative methodology. The relevant data were obtained from two qualitative data sources. These are publicly available Europol documents found on the Europol website and three semi-structured interviews conducted with public and private sector actors familiar with the SCATO platform and Europol's crowdsourcing model. Despite multiple attempts to recruit more participants, the number of interviewees was lower than anticipated due to non-responses or confidentiality concerns. Although this could be considered as an inevitable data limitation, similar responses given by interviewees accepted as an indication that data saturation has been reached. The data acquired from two primary sources were triangulated with the current literature on OCSE, crowdsourcing, sharing economy, and Europol.

This article employed three sharing economy variables to indicate the effectiveness of Europol's crowdsourcing model. These are the most common sharing economy variables in the literature and roughly appear with similar names in other studies. The first variable, 'low barrier accessibility' (Rifkin, 2001; Rose *et al.*, 2015), investigates how the online platform provides easy access to critical mass who are expected to share tips with Europol. The second variable, 'transaction cost' (Hamari *et al.*, 2016; Henten and Windekilde, 2016; Martin, 2016), examines whether the online platform facilitates the LEAs to reach high-value tips coming from the crowd that covers their human, fiscal and technical resource gap. High-value tips refer to vital information provided by the public that is crucial to solving a crime. The third and final variable, 'trust-building' (Dambrine *et al.*, 2015; Thierer *et al.*, 2015; Ert *et al.*, 2016), investigates the trust-building mechanism integrated into the SCATO platform that encourage high-value public reporting.

## Crowdsourcing

Sharing is an altruistic behaviour that aims mutual use of resources or space (Cohen and Zehngelbot, 2014; Munger, 2018). It is an act of

providing something and supporting others (Belk, 2014; Sedkaoui and Khelifaoui, 2020). In the last decade, sharing has shown remarkable transition. Globalization, economic crises, environmental concerns, and exponential developments in digital technologies have changed the prominent patterns in customer behaviour (Sedkaoui and Khelifaoui, 2020). The new socio-economic exchange focused on sharing resources through digital platforms (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). As a result of this transition, a new generation of sharing economy was born that had a disrupting impact on many industries including accommodation (Airbnb), mobility (Uber), freelance market (Upwork), crowdfunding (Indiegogo) (Christensen *et al.*, 2015). Although there are a plethora of terms and definitions referred to as the sharing economy (Botsman, 2013; Codagnone and Martens, 2016; Gussen, 2020; Sedkaoui and Khelifaoui, 2020), it is simply identified as sharing under-utilized or underused resources with others through an online platform for money or charitable purposes (Botsman and Rogers, 2010; Gansky, 2010; Belk, 2014; Schor, 2015). There are many variations of sharing economy platforms (Sedkaoui and Khelifaoui, 2020), and one of these is 'crowdsourcing' (Aloisi, 2016; De Groen *et al.*, 2016; Taeiagh, 2017). The term 'crowdsourcing' was first coined by Howe. He defined crowdsourcing as an open-call task performed by a large volunteer group of individuals with varying knowledge and skills (Howe, 2006). Four pillars for defining crowdsourcing were identified: the online platform, the crowd, the task, and the crowdsourcer (Hosseini *et al.*, 2014).

Similar to sharing economy, in crowdsourcing, there is an 'online platform' where the task is broadcasted. The crowd and crowdsourcer interact on this platform (Karachiwalla and Pinkow, 2021). The peer-to-peer interaction in sharing economy (Westerbeek, 2016) is replaced with crowd-to-crowdsourcer in crowdsourcing.

The 'crowd' is a large number of individuals motivated for various reasons such as earning income, developing skills, or altruistic reasons like 'love of community' (Brabham, 2010; Garcia Martinez, 2017). The crowd remains on the provider side of the platform in this model. In the literature, there

is no consensus on the crowd's composition. It can be an anonymous group of people, loosely bounded community members, a critical mass, well-trained individuals or consumers (Estellés-Arolas and González-Ladrón-de-Guevara, 2012).

The 'task' is the third essential component of crowdsourcing which is exchanged between crowd and crowdsourcer. In crowdsourcing, the crowd is free to participate voluntarily in problem-solving process (Afuah and Tucci, 2012). As the task becomes meaningful to the crowd, it positively impacts their motivation and contribution (Görzen, 2021). A precise formulation of the task and well-delineation of problems increase the quality of the solution provided by the crowd (Afuah and Tucci, 2012).

The 'crowdsourcer' is the final element of crowdsourcing. It is the demand side of the crowdsourcing process. The crowdsourcer is responsible for formulating the task, evaluating and implementing the solutions (Karachiwalla and Pinkow, 2021).

As crowdsourcing has the potential to facilitate the use of under-utilized problem-solving skills of the crowd, it can be a sustainable solution for public sector actors to fill their resource gap (Chasin and Scholta, 2015). Whether utilized by the public or private sector, the effectiveness of crowdsourcing relies on three major factors, including low barrier accessibility, reduction of transaction cost and the existence of trust-building mechanisms.

## Conceptual analysis of stop child abuse—trace an object platform

Based on the crowdsourcing conceptual framework, in the following sections effectiveness of the SCATO platform on open-intelligence gathering will be discussed according to the three variables: 'low barrier accessibility', 'transaction cost' and 'trust building'. Each variable will be examined through the crowd and crowdsourcer perspective to understand to what extent the platform is an effective tool to tackle OCSE.

### Low barrier accessibility to the stop child abuse—trace an object platform

One of the crucial factors for an efficient crowdsourcing strategy is providing a low barrier entry to

the crowd to share their diverse knowledge with the crowdsourcer. In recent years, the internet and technological infrastructure provided by online platforms have enabled a low barrier entry for individuals to share their resources (Rifkin, 2001). Anyone with an internet connection can access these platforms and interact with the crowdsourcer. The online platform, thus, plays a key mediating role between crowd and crowdsourcer (Leicht *et al.*, 2016) for network participation (Ganapati and Reddick, 2018) and facilitating the problem-solving process (Zogaj *et al.*, 2014). The online interaction provided by the platform also removes geographical barriers (Gansky, 2010; Belk, 2014). The crowd and the crowdsourcer can maintain knowledge exchange from distant locations (Afuah and Tucci, 2012).

The website associated with the SCATO platform is the central place where the crowd can provide a tip to Europol. It is a user-friendly platform for the concerned crowd as far as they have an internet connection. The easy accessibility to the platform through the internet significantly removes the geographical barrier for the crowd. Crowd members can report local information seen in the picture from anywhere worldwide.

Individuals who know OCSE material are only required to fill out a simple online form with two sections. In the first section, they only type their email address for communication purposes. In the second section, they are required to report the information associated with the picture that can help LEAs locate the victim and offender (Europol, 2022c). Other than these two, no other information is wanted from the crowd to provide easy accessibility to their reporting process.

Europol also promotes easy access to the platform through different social media platforms such as Twitter (Europol, 2022a) and LinkedIn (Europol, 2022b). On these social media platforms, Europol promotes the SCATO platform's activities to attract a bigger crowd's attention and encourages them to share their tips with Europol. Moreover, the SCATO platform's online links are cross-posted by well-known online platforms aiming to tackle OSCE (Online Interview\_3), such as the Australian Centre to Counter Child Sexual Exploitation and Bellingcat. Their cross-posting also provides a low-barrier entry to the crowd who do not know the SCATO platform before.



## The role of stop child abuse—trace an object platform in reducing transaction cost

The second important feature of a sharing economy is that it reduces the transaction cost for platform members. The transaction cost is often regarded as all costs associated with searching, contacting, and contracting (Williamson, 1985; Aigrain and Aigrain, 2012; Munger, 2018). It includes expenses such as intermediary fees, costs linked with transactions, logistical costs for delivery and service related outlays and other costs associated with barriers to communication and matchmaking (Munger, 2018). The technological infrastructure utilized by crowdsourcing platforms eases the listing of tasks and distribution of problem-solving processes to a big audience (Wirtz *et al.*, 2019). These platforms enable easy access to a large crowd with diverse knowledge, skills and expertise (Karachiwalla and Pinkow, 2021). As the number of people in the crowd increase, it creates a knowledge diversity for the crowdsourcer. If the crowdsourcer manages to refine knowledge diversity of a big crowd, it increases the possibility of receiving a high number of quality solutions (Afuah and Tucci, 2012; Blohm *et al.*, 2013). According to Frey *et al.* (2011), a crowd with diverse knowledge and skills can perform well during problem-solving by making connections between distributed knowledge. This crowding effect, as a result, reduces the transaction cost for the crowdsourcer to acquire diverse and valuable external knowledge (Mack and Landau, 2020).

The success of a crowdsourcing platform also depends on how it attracts and motivates the crowd to participate in the problem-solving process (Ford *et al.*, 2015). In this respect, the problem's complexity is the primary determinant in encouraging or discouraging the crowd (Lee *et al.*, 2015; Ghezzi *et al.*, 2018). Well-delineated and manageable tasks that are easier to understand encourage crowd participation because individuals in the crowd may have no specific skills or expertise to participate in problem-solving process (Rouse, 2010; Muhdi *et al.*, 2011; Afuah and Tucci, 2012). To receive high-value solutions, the crowdsourcer should present the crowd with a well-defined, easily understandable task. With less complex and well-defined tasks, the

crowdsourcer will receive positive solutions more quickly, lowers the transaction cost of the problem-solving process.

Crowdsourcing as an effective problem-solving model also offers a low-cost alternative for crowdsourcer by mobilizing the knowledge and expertise of the crowd (Zhao and Zhu, 2014; Ford *et al.*, 2015). It compensates for the limited resources of crowdsourcer which is sometimes not sufficient for the resolution of the problem (Afuah and Tucci, 2012; Ye and Kankanhalli, 2017). Obtaining knowledge from a voluntary crowd rather than using its resources creates a consumer plus for the crowdsourcer. Consumer surplus, in that sense, is the difference between the highest resource the crowdsourcer is willing to allocate to the problem-solving process and the actual resource allocated for knowledge acquisition from the crowd (Sundararajan, 2016). Crowdsourcers generate a surplus by allocating fewer resources. As online platforms reduce transaction costs and increase consumer surplus, they become more popular for crowdsourcing knowledge, expertise and skills (Afuah and Tucci, 2012; Boudreau and Lakhani, 2013).

In an OCSE case, reaching the crucial evidence on time is vital for the victim's safety. The sooner the LEAs receive a high-value tip, the greater the chance of preventing the dissemination of these images and rescue victims. Otherwise, the longer it takes to begin the investigation, the more likely the offender may destroy or hide the evidence, change the victim's location, and the transaction of images can be out of control (Yerkes, 2021). Given the limited time available to examine high-volume OCSE images and the insufficient number of LEA employees, high-quality tips provided by the public may increase the chances of saving victims and halting the spread of these images. Moreover, public support for identifying the victim can create a consumer surplus for the LEAs. Policing departments can allocate less human and technical resources for these extremely time-consuming investigations that sometimes have a traumatic impact on investigators (Perez *et al.*, 2010). In this regard, the crowdsourcing model is expected to reduce the transaction cost for LEAs to acquire critical information with less human and technical resource allocation to stop the spread of OCSE material, save victims,

and apprehend offenders. Crowdsourcing, in this respect, is not delegating police authority to the crowd but rather supplementing the human and technical resources of LEAs.

According to senior LEA officials from two countries in charge of investigating OCSE cases, crowdsourcing is not always the best way to investigate OSCE cases. They claim that crowdsourcing has the risk of increasing transaction costs for LEAs while they are collecting intelligence (Online Interview\_1 and Online Interview\_2). When the LEAs receive tens of thousands of tips which have no value for the investigations, they only bring a new burden for investigators rather than reducing their workload (Online Interview\_1 and Online Interview\_2). Therefore, high-value tips are essential for an efficient crowdsourcing model that reduces the transaction cost for LEAs.

In terms of receiving high-value tips, the task associated with the OCSE case should be easy to understand and interpret by a crowd with diverse knowledge and skills (Rouse, 2010; Muhdi *et al.*, 2011; Afuah and Tucci, 2012). Although identifying the victim, crime scene or offender through a simple picture is not a complex task for the crowd; the pictures shared on the SCATO platform do not always quickly spark recognition from the public. The main reason for this inefficiency is that Europol rightly refrains from sharing a complete picture of the crime scene and victim because more details risk revealing the minor's identity and jeopardizing the ongoing investigations (Europol, 2022c). As a result, the simple task designed to engage the audience and deliver high-value solutions became more challenging for the general due to obscured images. This challenge is also apparent in Europol's official figures. According to Europol documents shared in June 2022, since 2017, only twenty-three victims were saved, and five offenders were arrested out of twenty-seven thousand tips (Europol, 2022b). These figures also show that as recognizing OCSE-related items becomes more difficult for the public, the value of tips associated with the picture remains low. The diminishing value of tips for the LEAs thus increases the transaction cost of reaching high-value intelligence.

The low-value tips from the crowd also do not create a consumer surplus for the LEAs. Instead,

they add a new workload for LEAs and policing departments have to allocate more financial resources to automated triage technologies (Online Interview\_3). If the crowd knowledge does not create a significant consumer surplus for LEAs due to low-value tips, LEAs continue to invest in artificial intelligence (AI) and photo DNA technologies for data analysis to conduct their investigations (Online Interview\_1 and Online Interview\_2). The LEAs must continue paying licence fees to the private sector to obtain AI software and keep it updated to maintain the pace of innovation (Online Interview\_3). So, in the absence of valuable public support, the role of crowdsourcing in lowering the transaction cost of gathering valuable intelligence remains insignificant.

### Trust-building in the stop child abuse—trace an object platform

Trust is commonly defined as a firm belief in the reliability of someone or something (Oomsels and Bouckaert, 2012). It is an essential part of human relationships and the functioning of society. Trust allows individuals to rely on each other and work together towards common goals. Without trust, it would be difficult for people to form and maintain relationships, cooperate with others, or engage in transactions and exchanges (Choudhury, 2008). As online platforms frequently involve individuals sharing their personal assets or services with others, a high level of trust must exist between users for the platform to function properly (Ravenelle, 2019). There is a tied interdependence between online platform users, and without trust, they cannot maintain share of resources and goals (Renard and Davis, 2019). In crowdsourcing platforms, the crowdsourcer needs to ensure trust to motivate and convince the crowd to participate voluntarily in the problem-solving process (Blohm *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2016a; Garcia Martinez, 2017). However, building confidence between interacting parties is difficult on online platforms because of the absence of physical contact and uncertainties about who is behind the online profile (Benkler, 2004; Bratianu, 2018). In order to create a climate of trust in crowdsourcing platforms, two trust-building mechanisms prevail; clear guidelines and

communication mechanisms for constructive feedback (Karachiwalla and Pinkow, 2021).

Having a clear guideline is one of the necessary conditions to build trust between the crowd and the crowdsourcer. Crowdsourcing projects are open-call, and there is usually no contract between the crowd and the crowdsourcer. Without a contract, the crowdsourcer has little or no control over the crowd while acquiring knowledge (Kannangara and Ugucconi, 2013). Therefore, clear guidelines provided by the crowdsourcer can help the crowd develop solutions (Steils and Hanine, 2016) and understand how their solution is evaluated by the crowdsourcer (Afuah and Tucci, 2012). Clear guidelines, in that sense, encourage crowd participation (Blohm *et al.*, 2018) and reduce the risk of low-quality problem solutions for the crowdsourcer (Liu *et al.*, 2016a, b). Eliminating these uncertainties through clear guidelines helps to build trust between the crowd and the crowdsourcer.

A communication mechanism for feedback is the other trust-building mechanism in crowdsourcing. Its integration into the online platform has a crucial role in assuring trust between crowd and crowdsourcer and coordinating the efforts of a large number of people toward a common goal (Foss *et al.*, 2016). As rational actors, individuals participating in the problem-solving process expect to receive appreciation for their contribution (Ye and Kankanhalli, 2017) or with altruistic motives to contribute to finding a solution to a problem (Garcia Martinez, 2017). The solvers who can easily communicate with crowdsourcer and receive constructive feedback about their task are more engaged in the problem-solving process and provide high-quality solutions (Blohm *et al.*, 2013; Camacho *et al.*, 2019; Chan *et al.*, 2021). The feedback in this respect aims to nurture the efforts of community members as part of an ongoing information generation process (Chan *et al.*, 2021). It is also more motivating when cultivating a culture of supportive social interactions and improving the social nature of a community (Joshi *et al.*, 2010). The existence of a feedback-oriented communication mechanism, in that sense, builds trust between the crowd and crowdsourcer and motivates the crowd to develop more solutions in the future open calls (Blohm *et al.*, 2013; Camacho *et al.*, 2019).

The nature of OCSE cases is very sensitive to deal with. The public is generally reluctant to report these cases (Choo, 2009). Even if they want to provide information about the case, they want to be left out of the story, especially if the offender is a relative or someone who takes care of the children (Online Interview\_2). Therefore, building trust between the crowd and LEAs is vital for efficient information gathering in crowdsourcing platforms.

In terms of providing clear guidelines, Europol's SCATO platform does not offer clear guidelines for the crowd, how their tips are collected, processed, stored, terminated and what will happen afterwards (Europol, 2022c). Even though a short notification replaced at the bottom of the webpage, which also refers to the European Parliament and Council Regulation on the protection of natural persons with regard to processing of personal data by the European institutions (Regulation 1725, 2018), such a short notification does not encourage crowd participation which has diverse knowledge on reading and understanding a legal document and having trust issues with LEAs (Choo, 2009). Therefore, a clear and straightforward guideline explaining to the crowd how their tips are utilized and how Europol and other LEAs evaluate their solution might encourage more crowd participation and build confidence, especially in some societies where a general distrust exists towards LEAs (Online Interview\_3).

The communication mechanisms for feedback is another important mechanism for a crowdsourcing platform to foster trust and confidence between the crowd and the crowdsourcer (Muraszkiewicz, 2018). In the context of OCSE, feedback loops are a severe problem between LEAs and civilian partners. The reluctance of LEAs to provide feedback sometimes disincentivises civilians to report more (Online Interview\_3). For an efficient crowdsourcing model, LEAs should provide feedback to the crowd on how the agencies have used their tips to enlighten a case or if it is not being used, then they should explain why no action is not taken (Myhill, 2006). Regarding feedback mechanisms, Europol shares statistical data with the public on its platform and social media accounts regarding its success (Europol, 2022a,c). Even though this feedback aims to show the crowd's positive impact, comparatively

**Table 1** : Summary of analysis

Stop child abuse—trace an object		
Sharing Economy—Crowdsourcing		
Low barrier accessibility	Transaction cost	Trust-building mechanisms
+	-	-
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Easy Online Accessibility</li> <li>• User-Friendly Website</li> <li>• Cross-posting in multiple social media channels and other platforms</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low-Quality and High-Volume Tips</li> <li>• More Resource Allocation</li> <li>• Lack of Consumer Surplus</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of Clear Guidelines</li> <li>• Discouraging feedback mechanism</li> </ul>

low success rates show another reality: the majority of tips provided by the crowd are not helpful and are not being used (Online Interview\_3). In response to Europol's social media sharing, the critical comments on social media posts show that numbers are not promising (Europol, 2022a,b). In this respect, for better communication with the crowd and to provide constructive feedback, statistical data should be accompanied by successful operation stories where victims are saved (Online Interview\_3). The feedback combining statistical data and case studies can potentially drive a behavioural and cultural change in the crowd. Even though 99% of these tips were not helpful, 1% still helped save children (Online Interview\_3).

## Conclusion

This article has shown that Europol's SCATO platform has all the main characteristics of a crowdsourcing platform. There is an online platform where the public (crowd) and Europol (crowdsourcer) interact. Identifying the local information associated with the victim, crime scene, and the offender is a simple task for the crowd that ultimately helps Europol rescue OCSE victims and offenders. However, when the most prominent sharing economy variables are employed, the crowdsourcing model utilized in the SCATO platform needs further development for efficient open-intelligence gathering (see Table 1).

The most important strength of the platform is that it provides easy accessibility to the worldwide crowd as far as they have an internet connection. Cross-posting the platform content from social

media platforms and other platforms aiming to tackle OCSE improves the visibility of the SCATO to a global audience. For a low barrier entry to the problem-solving process, Europol also requires only the email address of the informant and the tip associated with the picture shared on the platform.

On the other hand, the role of the SCATO platform in reducing the transaction cost of open-intelligence gathering is debatable. One of the biggest problems that cause low-value tips is that item pictures shared on the platform do not spark an easy recognition in public. Europol rightly refrains from sharing much detail in the pictures not to reveal the victim's identity and jeopardize ongoing police investigations. However, an item picture isolated from the surrounding environment can potentially cause low-quality tips received by Europol. These low-quality tips increase LEAs' workload, but they do not generate a consumer surplus for policing agencies. As a result, the LEAs must allocate more human and technical resources to tackle the workload of low-quality open-intelligence analysis.

Similarly, trust-building mechanisms between the crowd and Europol to encourage public participation and high-quality problem solution is also not promising. The current guideline does not address how crowd tips are collected, processed, shared, stored, and terminated. In the absence of straightforward and easy-to-understand guidelines, building confidence between crowd and LEAs is not easy, especially in OCSE cases where the public is generally reluctant to report cases not only because of the sensitivity of the crime but also potential distrust towards the LEAs. In terms of providing feedback, only sharing statistical data indicating the



platform's low success rate can discourage crowd participation and cause an unfair criticism towards Europol despite the effort dealing with vast volumes of OSCE materials and tips.

Based on the current inefficiencies in the SCATO platform, there are a few solutions Europol authorities may consider to improve their existing crowdsourcing strategy. First, to receive high-quality tips, Europol can use computer-generated pictures to represent the surrounding space of the item without compromising the victim's anonymity (Online Interview\_3). In this regard, simulating a crime scene can inspire the crowd's sense of place and time, allowing them to recognize a key object and its natural location. Second, clear and simple guidelines are vital to encourage crowd participation to build confidence in the crowdsourcing platform. Third, for a better feedback mechanism, apart from transparent statistical data, the SCATO platform should share success stories in the same space showing the crowd how their tips are essential to save victims and arrest offenders, despite the low success rates.

This article was the first attempt to examine Europol's SCATO platform through the crowdsourcing concept. A similar multi-disciplinary perspective can also be pursued by investigating other crowdsourcing platforms that tackle OCSE, other crime fields or different e-governance platforms. The conceptual framework presented in the article can lead other researchers to follow the same conceptual pattern or modify the existing variables for better conceptualization. Furthermore, despite many efforts to recruit more interviewees during the data collection stage, the number of research participants was not at the desired level. Based on this unavoidable limitation, future studies can enrich the systematic analysis by adding more diverse empirical data.

## Funding

This research has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement No. 886141 as well as Jean Monnet research funding (Module, Chair, Centre, Network and Teacher Training).

## References

- Açar, K. V. (2017). 'Organizational Aspect of the Global Fight against Online Child Sexual Abuse.' *Global Policy* 8(2): 259–262. doi: [10.1111/1758-5899.12418](https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-5899.12418).
- Açar, K. V. (2018). 'OSINT by Crowdsourcing: A Theoretical Model for Online Child Abuse Investigations.' *International Journal of Cyber Criminology* 12(1): 206–229.
- Açar, K. V. (2020). 'Framework for a Single Global Repository of Child Abuse Materials.' *Global Policy* 11(1): 178–190. doi: [10.1111/1758-5899.12739](https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-5899.12739).
- Afuah, A. and Tucci, C. L. (2012). 'Crowdsourcing as a Solution to Distant Search.' *The Academy of Management Review* 37(3): 355–375.
- Aigrain, P. and Aigrain, S. (2012). *Sharing Culture and the Economy in the Internet Age*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.
- Aloisi, A. (2016). 'Commoditized Workers: Case Study Research on Labour Law Issues Arising from a Set of 'On-Demand/Gig Economy' Platforms.' *Comparative Labour Law and Policy Journal* 37(3): 653–690.
- Baines, V. (2019, 2019/05/04). 'Online Child Sexual Exploitation: Towards an Optimal International Response.' *Journal of Cyber Policy* 4(2), 197–215. doi: [10.1080/23738871.2019.1635178](https://doi.org/10.1080/23738871.2019.1635178).
- Bardhi, F. and Eckhardt, G. M. (2012). 'Access-Based Consumption: The Case of Car Sharing.' *Journal of Consumer Research* 39(4): 881–898. doi: [10.1086/666376](https://doi.org/10.1086/666376).
- Belk, R. (2014, 2014/08/01/). 'You are What You Can Access: Sharing and Collaborative Consumption Online.' *Journal of Business Research* 67(8), 1595–1600. doi: [10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.10.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.10.001).
- Benkler, Y. (2004). 'Sharing Nicely: On Shareable Goods and the Emergence of Sharing as a Modality of Economic Production.' *The Yale Law Journal* 114(2): 273–358. doi: [10.2307/4135731](https://doi.org/10.2307/4135731).
- Blohm, I., Leimeister, J. M. and Krcmar, H. (2013). 'Crowdsourcing: How to Benefit from (Too) Many Great Ideas.' *MIS Quarterly Executive* 12(4): 199–211.
- Blohm, I., Zogaj, S., Bretschneider, U. and Leimeister, J. M. (2018). 'How to Manage Crowdsourcing Platforms Effectively?.' *California Management Review* 60(2): 122–149. doi: [10.1177/0008125617738255](https://doi.org/10.1177/0008125617738255).
- Botsman, R. (2013). The Sharing Economy Lacks A Shared Definition. <https://www.fastcompany.com/3022028/the-sharing-economy-lacks-a-shared-definition> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Botsman, R. and Rogers, R. (2010). *What's Mine is Yours: The Rise of Collaborative Consumption*. New York: Harper Business.
- Boudreau, K. J. and Lakhani, K. R. (2013). 'Using the Crowd as an Innovation Partner.' *Harvard Business Review* 91(4): 60–9, 140.
- Brabham, D. C. (2008). 'Crowdsourcing as a Model for Problem Solving: An Introduction and Cases.' *Convergence* 14(1): 75–90. doi: [10.1177/1354856507084420](https://doi.org/10.1177/1354856507084420).

- Brabham, D. C. (2010, 2010/12/01). 'Moving the Crowd at Threadless.' *Information, Communication and Society* 13(8): 1122–1145. doi: [10.1080/13691181003624090](https://doi.org/10.1080/13691181003624090).
- Bratianu, C. (2018). The Crazy New World of the Sharing Economy. In Vătămănescu, E.-M. and Pinzaru, F. M. (eds), *Knowledge Management in the Sharing Economy: Cross-Sectoral Insights into the Future of Competitive Advantage*. Cham: Springer International Publishing, pp. 3–18. doi: [10.1007/978-3-319-66890-1\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-66890-1_1).
- Camacho, N., Nam, H., Kannan, P. K. and Stremersch, S. (2019). 'Tournaments to Crowdsourcing Innovation: The Role of Moderator Feedback and Participation Intensity.' *Journal of Marketing* 83(2): 138–157. doi: [10.1177/0022242918809673](https://doi.org/10.1177/0022242918809673).
- Chan, K. W., Li, S. Y., Ni, J. and Zhu, J. J. (2021). 'What Feedback Matters? The Role of Experience in Motivating Crowdsourcing Innovation.' *Production and Operations Management* 30(1): 103–126. doi: [10.1111/poms.13259](https://doi.org/10.1111/poms.13259).
- Chasin, F. and Scholta, H. (2015). 'Taking Peer-to-Peer Sharing and Collaborative Consumption onto the Next Level-New Opportunities and Challenges for E-Government.' ECIS 2015 Completed Research Papers. Paper 27. ISBN 978-3-00-050284-2. [https://aisel.aisnet.org/ecis2015\\_cr/27](https://aisel.aisnet.org/ecis2015_cr/27).
- Choo, K. R. (2009). 'Responding to online child sexual grooming: an industry perspective.' *Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice* 379. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. <https://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/tandi379..>
- Choudhury, E. (2008). 'Trust in Administration: An Integrative Approach to Optimal Trust.' *Administration and Society* 40(6): 586–620. doi: [10.1177/0095399708321681](https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399708321681).
- Christensen, C. M., Raynor, M. E. and McDonald, R. (2015). 'What is Disruptive Innovation?' *Harvard Business Review, December*. <https://hbr.org/2015/12/what-is-disruptive-innovation> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Christensen, L. S., Rayment-McHugh, S., Prenzler, T., Chiu, Y. -N. and Webster, J. (2021). 'The Theory and Evidence Behind Law Enforcement Strategies That Combat Child Sexual Abuse Material.' *International Journal of Police Science and Management* 23(4): 392–405. doi: [10.1177/14613557211026935](https://doi.org/10.1177/14613557211026935).
- Codagnone, C. and Martens, B. (2016). *Scoping The Sharing Economy: Origins, Definitions, Impact and Regulatory Issues*. doi: [10.2139/ssrn.2783662](https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2783662)
- Cohen, M. and Zehngobot, C. (2014). 'What's Old Becomes New: Regulating the Sharing Economy.' *Boston Bar Journal* 58(6). <https://bostonbar.org/journal/whats-old-becomes-new-regulating-the-sharing-economy/> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Dambrine, B., Jerome, J. and Ambrose, B. (2015). 'User Reputation: Building Trust and Addressing Privacy Issues in the Sharing Economy.' [https://fpf.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/FPF\\_SharingEconomySurvey\\_06\\_08\\_15.pdf](https://fpf.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/FPF_SharingEconomySurvey_06_08_15.pdf) (accessed 27 February 2023).
- De Groen, W. P., Maselli, I. and Fabo, B. (2016). *The Digital Market for Local Services: A One-night Stand for Workers?* Dwyer, R. G., Seto, M., DeHart, D., Letourneau, E., Mckee, T. and Moran, R. (2016). Protecting Children Online: Using Research-Based Algorithms to Prioritize Law Enforcement Internet Investigations, Technical Report.
- Ert, E., Fleischer, A. and Magen, N. (2016). Trust and reputation in the sharing economy: The role of personal photos in Airbnb. *Tourism Management* 55: 62–73. doi: [10.1016/j.tourman.2016.01.013](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.01.013).
- Estellés-Arolas, E. and González-Ladrón-de-Guevara, F. (2012). 'Towards an Integrated Crowdsourcing Definition.' *Journal of Information Science* 38(2): 189–200. doi: [10.1177/0165551512437638](https://doi.org/10.1177/0165551512437638).
- Europol. (2017). Europol Launches Public Appeal to Help Identify Victims of Child Sexual Exploitation. <https://www.europol.europa.eu/media-press/newsroom/news/europol-launches-public-appeal-to-help-identify-victims-of-child-sexual-exploitation> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Europol. (2018). With Your Help We are 21000 Steps Closer to Saving a Child from Sexual Abuse. <https://www.europol.europa.eu/media-press/newsroom/news/your-help-we-are-21-000-steps-closer-to-saving-child-sexual-abuse> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Europol [Europol]. (2022a, 10 June 2022). *Help us #StopChildAbuse. Submit a Tip Here*. Hague: Twitter.
- Europol. (2022b, 10 June 2022). *Our #TraceAnObject initiative was launched to help victim identification specialists solve cold cases of child sexual abuse*. <https://twitter.com/Europol/status/1535279727048642564> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Europol. (2022c). Stop Child Abuse—Trace an Object. <https://www.europol.europa.eu/stopchildabuse> (accessed 16 April 2022).
- Ford, R. C., Richard, B. and Ciuchta, M. P. (2015, 2015/07/01/). 'Crowdsourcing: A New Way of Employing Non-employees?' *Business Horizons* 58(4): 377–388. doi: [10.1016/j.bushor.2015.03.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2015.03.003).
- Foss, N., Frederiksen, L. and Rullani, F. (2016). 'Problem-formulation and problem-solving in self-organized communities: How modes of communication shape project behaviors in the free open-source software community.' *Strategic Management Journal* 37(13): 2589–2610. doi: [10.1002/smj.2439](https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.2439).
- Franqueira, V. N. L., Bryce, J., Al Mutawa, N. and Marrington, A. (2018). 'Investigation of Indecent Images of Children Cases: Challenges and Suggestions Collected from The Trenches.' *Digital Investigation* 24: 95–105. doi: [10.1016/j.diin.2017.11.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diin.2017.11.002).
- Frey, K., Lüthje, C. and Haag, S. (2011). 'Whom Should Firms Attract to Open Innovation Platforms?' *The Role of Knowledge Diversity and Motivation, Long Range Planning*, 44(5–6): 397–420. doi: [10.1016/j.lrp.2011.09.006](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2011.09.006).
- Ganapati, S. and Reddick, C. G. (2018). 'Prospects and Challenges of Sharing Economy for the Public Sector.' *Government Information Quarterly* 35(1): 77–87. doi: [10.1016/j.giq.2018.01.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2018.01.001).
- Gansky, L. (2010). *The Mesh: Why the Future of Business Is Sharing*. New York: Portfolio.

- García Martínez, M. (2017, 2017/04/01). 'Inspiring Crowdsourcing Communities to Create Novel Solutions: Competition Design and the Mediating Role of Trust.' *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* **117**: 296–304. doi: [10.1016/j.techfore.2016.11.015](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2016.11.015).
- Ghezzi, A., Gabelloni, D., Martini, A. and Natalicchio, A. (2018). 'Crowdsourcing: A Review and Suggestions for Future Research.' *International Journal of Management Reviews* **20**(2): 343–363. doi: [10.1111/ijmr.12135](https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12135).
- Goodison, S. E., Davis, R. C. and Jackson, B. A. (2015). *Digital Evidence and the U.S. Criminal Justice System: Identifying Technology and Other Needs to More Effectively Acquire and Utilize Digital Evidence*. RAND Corporation. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7249/j.ctt15sk8v3>.
- Görzen, T. (2021). 'What's the Point of the Task?' Exploring the Influence of Task Meaning on Creativity in Crowdsourcing.' *International Journal of Innovation Management* **25**(01): 2150007. doi: [10.1142/s1363919621500079](https://doi.org/10.1142/s1363919621500079).
- Gussen, B. F. (2020). Sharing City Seoul and the Future of City Governance. In Corrales Compagnucci, M., Forgó, N., Kono, T., Teramoto, S. and Vermeulen, E. P. M. (eds), *Legal Tech and the New Sharing Economy*. Singapore: Springer, pp. 21–45. doi: [10.1007/978-981-15-1350-3\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-1350-3_3).
- Hamari, J., Sjöklint, M. and Ukkonen, A. (2016). 'The Sharing Economy: Why People Participate In Collaborative Consumption.' *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology* **67**(9): 2047–2059. doi: [10.1002/asi.23552](https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.23552).
- Hansen Henten, A. and Maria Windekilde, I. (2016). 'Transaction Costs and The Sharing Economy.' *INFO* **18**(1): 1–15. doi: [10.1108/info-09-2015-0044](https://doi.org/10.1108/info-09-2015-0044).
- Hosseini, M., Phalp, K., Taylor, J. and Ali, R. (2014, 28–30 May 2014). 'The Four Pillars of Crowdsourcing: A Reference Model.' 2014 IEEE Eighth International Conference on Research Challenges in Information Science (RCIS), Marrakech, Morocco.
- Howe, J. (2006, 01/01). 'The Rise of Crowdsourcing.' *Wired* **14**. <https://www.wired.com/2006/06/crowds/> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Huey, L., Nhan, J. and Broll, R. (2013). 'Uppity Civilians' and 'Cyber-Vigilantes': The Role of the General Public in Policing Cyber-Crime.' *Criminology and Criminal Justice* **13**(1): 81–97. doi: [10.1177/1748895812448086](https://doi.org/10.1177/1748895812448086).
- Joshi, K. D., Chi, L., Datta, A. and Han, S. (2010). 'Changing the Competitive Landscape: Continuous Innovation Through IT-Enabled Knowledge Capabilities.' *Information Systems Research* **21**(3): 472–495.
- Kannangara, S. N. and Uguccioni, P. (2013). 'Risk Management in Crowdsourcing-Based Business Ecosystems.' *Technology Innovation Management Review* **3**(12): 32–38.
- Karachiwalla, R. and Pinkow, F. (2021). 'Understanding Crowdsourcing Projects: A Review on the Key Design Elements of a Crowdsourcing Initiative.' *Creativity and Innovation Management* **30**(3): 563–584. doi: [10.1111/caim.12454](https://doi.org/10.1111/caim.12454).
- Kokolaki, E., Daskalaki, E., Psaroudaki, K., Christodoulaki, M. and Fragopoulou, P. (2020). 'Investigating the Dynamics of Illegal Online Activity: The Power of Reporting, Dark Web, and Related Legislation.' *Computer Law and Security Review* **38**: 105440. doi: [10.1016/j.clsr.2020.105440](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clsr.2020.105440)
- Lee, C. K. M., Chan, C. Y., Ho, S., Choy, K. L. and Ip, W. H. (2015). 'Explore the Feasibility of Adopting Crowdsourcing for Innovative Problem Solving.' *Industrial Management and Data Systems* **115**(5): 803–832. doi: [10.1108/IMDS-09-2014-0249](https://doi.org/10.1108/IMDS-09-2014-0249).
- Leicht, N., Durward, D., Haas, P. et al. (2016). 'An Empirical Taxonomy of Crowdsourcing Intermediaries.' *Academy of Management Proceedings* **2016**(1): 17518. doi: [10.5465/ambpp.2016.17518abstract](https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.2016.17518abstract).
- Liu, S., Xia, F., Zhang, J., Pan, W. and Zhang, Y. (2016a). 'Exploring the Trends, Characteristic Antecedents, and Performance Consequences of Crowdsourcing Project Risks.' *International Journal of Project Management* **34**(8): 1625–1637. doi: [10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.09.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.09.002).
- Liu, S., Xia, F., Zhang, J. and Wang, L. (2016b). 'How Crowdsourcing Risks Affect Performance: An Exploratory Model.' *Management Decision* **54**(9): 2235–2255. doi: [10.1108/MD-12-2015-0604](https://doi.org/10.1108/MD-12-2015-0604).
- Mack, T. and Landau, C. (2020). 'Submission Quality in Open Innovation Contests—An Analysis of Individual-level Determinants of Idea Innovativeness.' *R&D Management* **50**(1): 47–62. doi: [10.1111/radm.12345](https://doi.org/10.1111/radm.12345).
- Martin, C. J. (2016). 'The Sharing Economy: A Pathway to Sustainability or a Nightmarish Form of Neoliberal Capitalism?' *Ecological Economics* **121**: 149–159. doi: [10.1016/j.ecolecon.2015.11.027](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2015.11.027)
- Merdian, H. L., Wilson, N. and Boer, D. P. (2009). 'Characteristics of Internet Sexual Offenders: A Review.' *Sexual Abuse in Australia and New Zealand* **2**(1): 34–47.
- Muhti, L., Daiber, M., Friesike, S. and Boutellier, R. (2011). 'The Crowdsourcing Process: An Intermediary Mediated Idea Generation Approach in the Early Phase of Innovation.' *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management* **14**(4): 315–332. doi: [10.1504/ijeim.2011.043052](https://doi.org/10.1504/ijeim.2011.043052).
- Munger, M. C. (2018). *Tomorrow 3.0: Transaction Costs and the Sharing Economy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi: [10.1017/9781108602341](https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108602341).
- Muraszkiewicz, J. (2018). 'Crowd Knowledge Sourcing—A Potential Methodology to Uncover Victims of Human Trafficking.' In Leventakis, G. and Haberfeld, M. R. (eds), *Societal Implications of Community-Oriented Policing and Technology*. Cham: Springer International Publishing, pp. 23–30. doi: [10.1007/978-3-319-89297-9\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-89297-9_3).
- Myhill, A. (2006). *Community Engagement in Policing: Lessons from the Literature*. London: Home Office.
- Oliver, C. (1991). 'Strategic Responses to Institutional Processes.' *Academy of Management Review* **16**(1): 145–179. doi: [10.5465/amr.1991.4279002](https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1991.4279002).
- Oomsels, P. and Bouckaert, G. (2012, 12–13 April). 'Managing Trust in Public Organisations: A Consolidated Approach and its Contradictions.' XVI IRSPM

- Conference: Contradictions in Public Management: Managing in Volatile Times, Rome: Italy.
- Owens, J. N., Eakin, J. D., Hoffer, T., Muirhead, Y. and Shelton, J. L. E. (2016). 'Investigative Aspects of Crossover Offending From a Sample of FBI Online Child Sexual Exploitation Cases.' *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 30: 3–14. doi: [10.1016/j.avb.2016.07.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.07.001).
- Regulation on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data by the Union institutions, bodies, offices and agencies and on the free movement of such data, and repealing Regulation (EC) No 45/2001 and Decision No 1247/2002/EC. (2018).
- Perez, L. M., Jones, J., Englert, D. R., and Sachau, D. (2010, 2010/10/01). 'Secondary Traumatic Stress and Burnout among Law Enforcement Investigators Exposed to Disturbing Media Images.' *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology* 25(2): 113–124. doi: [10.1007/s11896-010-9066-7](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11896-010-9066-7).
- Quayle, E. and Newman, E. (2015). 'The Role of Sexual Images in Online and Offline Sexual Behaviour With Minors.' *Current Psychiatry Reports* 17(6): 43. doi: [10.1007/s11920-015-0579-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11920-015-0579-8).
- Ravenelle, A. J. (2019). *Hustle and Gig: Struggling and Surviving in the Sharing Economy*. California: University of California Press.
- Renard, D. and Davis, J. G. (2019). 'Social Interdependence on Crowdsourcing Platforms.' *Journal of Business Research* 103: 186–194. doi: [10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.06.033](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.06.033).
- Rifkin, J. (2001). *Age of Access: The New Culture of Hypercapitalism, Where All of Life is a Paid for Experience*. New York: Penguin Putnam.
- Rose, J., Persson, J. S., Heeager, L. T. and Irani, Z. (2015). 'Managing e-Government: Value Positions and Relationships.' *Information Systems Journal* 25(5): 531–571. doi: [10.1111/isj.12052](https://doi.org/10.1111/isj.12052).
- Rouse, A. C. (2010). *A Preliminary Taxonomy of Crowdsourcing*. 21st Australasian Conferences on Information Systems (ACIS). Brisbane: Queensland.
- Schor, J. B. (2015). 'Getting Sharing Right.' *Context* 14(7): 14/15.
- Sedkaoui, S. and Khelfaoui, M. (2020). *Sharing Economy and Big Data Analytics*. London: Wiley and Sons. doi: [10.1002/9781119695035](https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119695035).
- Steils, N. and Hanine, S. (2016). 'Creative Contests: Knowledge Generation and Underlying Learning Dynamics for Idea Generation.' *Journal of Marketing Management* 32(17–18): 1647–1669. doi: [10.1080/0267257X.2016.1251956](https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2016.1251956).
- Sundararajan, A. (2016). *The Sharing Economy: The End of Employment and the Rise of Crowd-Based Capitalism*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.
- Taeiagh, A. (2017). 'Crowdsourcing, Sharing Economies and Development.' *Journal of Developing Societies* 33(2): 191–222. doi: [10.1177/0169796x17710072](https://doi.org/10.1177/0169796x17710072).
- Taylor, M. and Quayle, E. (2003). *Child Pornography: An Internet Crime*. Routledge.
- Thierer, A. D., Koopman, C., Hobson, A. and Kuiper, C. (2015). 'How the Internet, the Sharing Economy, and Reputational Feedback Mechanisms Solve the 'Lemons Problem.' *University of Miami Law Review* 70(3): 830–878.
- Westerbeek, J. (2016). *Mapping the Effects of Peer-to-Peer Sharing Economy Platforms on Society* Delft University of Technology. Netherlands: Delft.
- Williamson, O. E. (1985). *The Economic Institutions of Capitalism: Firms, Markets, Relational Contracting*. Collier Macmillan: Free Press.
- Wirtz, J., So, K. K. F., Mody, M. A., Liu, S. Q. and Chun, H. H. (2019). 'Platforms in the Peer-to-peer Sharing Economy.' *Journal of Service Management* 30(4): 452–483. doi: [10.1108/JOSM-11-2018-0369](https://doi.org/10.1108/JOSM-11-2018-0369).
- World Economic Forum. (2019, 24 January 2019). Crowdsourcing is a Strong Tool Helping Europol to Identify Victims of Cyber Crime. Twitter. <https://twitter.com/davos/status/1088355214229467137> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Ye, H. and Kankanhalli, A. (2017). 'Solvers' Participation in Crowdsourcing Platforms: Examining the Impacts of Trust, and Benefit and Cost Factors.' *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems* 26(2): 101–117. doi: [10.1016/j.jsis.2017.02.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsis.2017.02.001).
- Yerkes, E. (2021). *Stepping Out of the Shadows: Leveraging the Community to Stop the Sexual Exploitation of Minors* Monterey, California: Naval Postgraduate School (U.S.), Center for Homeland Defense and Security. <https://www.hsdl.org/c/view?docid=854382> (accessed 27 February 2023).
- Zhao, Y. C. and Zhu, Q. (2014). 'Effects of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation on Participation in Crowdsourcing Contest.' *Online Information Review* 38(7): 896–917. doi: [10.1108/OIR-08-2014-0188](https://doi.org/10.1108/OIR-08-2014-0188).
- Zogaj, S., Bretschneider, U. and Leimeister, J. M. (2014). 'Managing Crowdsourced Software Testing: A Case Study Based Insight on The Challenges of a Crowdsourcing Intermediary.' *Journal of Business Economics* 84(3): 375–405. doi: [10.1007/s11573-014-0721-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11573-014-0721-9).

## Interviews

Online Interview\_1, 29 April 2022, Senior European Law Enforcement Agency Official Responsible for Prevention of Online Child Sexual Exploitation.

Online Interview\_2, 06 June 2022, Senior Ministry of Interior Official Responsible for Prevention of Online Child Sexual Exploitation.

Online Interview\_3, 21 June 2022, Executive Director of a Policy Oriented Non-Governmental Organisation Aiming to Prevent Online Child Sexual Exploitation.