PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE ON THE
HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD IN ZIMBABWE

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DECLARATION

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I, **Mugabe Miriam**, declare that the thesis entitled PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE ON THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD IN ZIMBABWE is my own work, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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2021

Mugabe Miriam

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved husband, Hillary Garikayi, my five children, Takura, Tinomudaishe, Mufaro, Mazvita and Makanaka, my late mother, Makanganwa, and late father, Jairos.

ABSTRACT

This study examined the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child, with the aim of suggesting sound preventive and protective measures that can be taken to mitigate the problems of child sexual abuse among Form Two learners in Gokwe District, Zimbabwe. Child sexual abuse has devastating, lifelong effects on girl victims, generating great anguish and causing disruption to their lives. This research was informed by Ellis Rational Behavioural therapy, Erikson's psychosocial theory and Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory. In this study, a qualitative phenomenological design was used, with in-depth interviews, and focus group discussions as data collection instruments from ten Form Two learners, two teachers, two headmasters and one police officer. The participants were purposively sampled. An inductive approach to analysing the responses to interviews and focus groups was undertaken to allow patterns, themes, and categories to emerge. Cultural and religious practices, poverty and HIV/AIDS were noted as the main factors which exacerbated the problem of child sexual abuse among learners. Generally, the learners who participated in this study pointed out that their perpetrators were not strangers but close family members, teachers, neighbours, care givers and respected people in the community. Findings of this study also revealed that child sexual abuse affects the moral, physical, cognitive/intellectual, emotional, social and behavioural development of form two girl learners, impacting on their academic performance, health and their survival. This study recommended that there is need for the government to introduce strict laws on offenders of child sexual abuse. There is need for all stakeholders, including the government, to address the root causes of child sexual abuse (such as poverty, cultural and religious factors, neglect, traditional myths and divorce). In addition, communities should be educated and conscientised on the dangers of child sexual abuse.

Keywords: *Child Sexual abuse, Psychosocial, holistic, cognitive, emotional, personality and behavioural development*

ABBREVIATIONS/ACROYNMS

CSA   Child sexual abuse

HIV/AIDS   Human Immune Virus /Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

NGO   Non-governmental Organization

UN   United Nations

USAIDS   United States Agency for International Development

UNICEF   United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

WHO   World Health Organization

FGD   Focus group discussions

FGI   Focus group interview

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

The study sought to explore the psychosocial effects of Child Sexual Abuse (CSA) on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe. Letourneau and Shields (2017), Lange, Condon and Gardner (2018), Amédée, Tremblay, Perreault, Hébert and Cyr (2019), McKibbin and Humphreys (2020), Fouche, Truter and Fouché (2019), Maalouf, Daigneault, Dargan, McDuff, and Frappier (2020), Lalor (2014), Martin, Bergen, Richardson, Roeger, and Allison (2004), Silverman, Reinherz, and Giaconia (1996); Spataro, Mullen, Burgess, Wells, and Moss (2004) and Muridzo (2018) lament that CSA has precipitated, and will continue to precipitate, enormous suffering to countless girl learners in both developing and developed countries. It has devastating, lifelong effects on the victims, generating great anguish and causing disruption to the lives of these children. This chapter presents the problem and its setting, focusing on the background to the study, the theoretical framework upon which the study was hinged, statement of the problem, the research questions, objectives and the significance of the study. The chapter also documents limitations and delimitations of the study, research methodologies guiding the study, research designs and research instruments used to carry out the study, and definition of key terms. The chapter ends with an outline of chapters of this thesis.

1.2 Background to the study

Child sexual abuse is a global phenomenon that is regarded as one of the greatest social problems of the 21st century (Muridzo, 2018; Bhullar, Mittal, Sidhu, & Dipti, 2017; Lawrence & Janse van Rensburg, 2006; Liu, 2016; Wismayanti, O'Leary, Tilbury and Tjoe, 2019; Posso, 2020; Tang, 2018 & Mathew, 2017). Muridzo (2020) also described CSA as a societal problem whose origins date back to the times of the ancient Greeks and Romans. It is a problem which knows no bounds and has been affecting children of all age groups, from the wealthiest to the poorest. Researchers have established that CSA is a problem which pervades all societies in both developed and developing countries (Karatas, 2020; Lalor, 2008; Kenny, Wurtele & Alonso, 2012; Laccino,

2014; Liotta, *et al.,* 2015, Russell, Higgins & Posso, 2020; Tang, 2018 & Mathew, 2017). The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2015) defines CSA as the involvement of a child in sexual activity that he or she does not fully comprehend and is unable to give informed consent to, or for which the child is not developmentally prepared, or that violates the laws or social taboos of society. The term CSA includes a wide range of activities like sexual intercourse, attempted intercourse, oral-genital contact, fondling of genitals directly or through clothing, exhibitionism or exposing children to adult sexual activity or pornography, and the use of the child for prostitution or pornography (Schumilas, Chen, Fuller & Scott, 2020; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams & Hoeve, 2019; Mugabe, Chingombe & Chinyoka, 2017; Wismayanti, O'Leary, Tilbury & Tjoe, 2019). Child Sexual Abuse has an array of effects, which can be social or psychological (Elizabeth, 2019; Magwa, 2014; Weerakoon, Keeton, Vidot, Arheart & Messiah, 2020; Spataro *et al.,* 2004; Speizer, *et al;* 2009). In line with the above, Almuneef (2019); Biere (2019); Chinyoka (2013); Tener and Sigad (2019) also argue that CSA is a global phenomenon that occurs across cultures, religions and socio-economic groups and has profound long-term physical, academic, behavioural, emotional and mental health consequences. Thus, child sexual abuse (in this case girl school children) has mostly been deleterious on the overall lives of those abused. Sexual abuse of children is a human rights violation affecting all children irrespective of sex. Though CSA has overarching effects on all children who are victims of the abuse, the extent of its effects on school children has been far-reaching and immense.

The seeming pervasiveness of this phenomenon, especially in middle and high schools, might be due to the wide media coverage of what happens in schools in the current era of information technology (Wright, 2018; Ramabu, 2020; Chikwiri & Lemmer, 2014; Chinyere, 2015). Studies depict that girl children in schools (mostly middle and high schools) form a large number of the victims of child sexual abuse in both developed and developing countries (Makamure, 2010; Thuong, Van Tu & Huong, 2019; Wurtele & Alonso, 2012; Afeta, 2020; Mapfumo & Nkoma, 2013). Child Sexual Abuse among school children as described above, in its worst forms, includes inserting fingers in private parts or fondling private parts and having sexual intercourse (Fallon, Joh-Carnella, Trocme, Chabot, Esposito, Nosrati-Inanlou & Collin-Vézina 2019; Kenny & Wurtele, 2012; Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2019). Though girls have been reported as the major victims, a surging number of sodomy cases has been reported and other homosexual-

related abuses among boys (Majeed, Ariss, Karsna & White, 2019; Musallam, 2014; Jiménez-Borja, Jiménez-Borja, Borja-Alvarez & Murgueitio, 2020).

1.2.1 Girl-child sexual abuse: Selected worldwide experiences

CSA occurs globally and no society is immune, leaving abused learners vulnerable to psychosocial problems that could impact not only how they are portrayed, but also how they express themselves in the communities that they live in (Finkelhor, 2020; Katz, Tsur, Nicolet, Klebanov, & Carmel, 2020). Rayment-McHugh (2020) and Goldman (2015) concur by stating that CSA could have catastrophic effects on the lives of children. From the above, it can be deduced that child sexual abuse is still rampant in both developed and developing countries, despite conventions signed to stop child abuse.

According to Katzenstein and Fontes (2017) and Lloyd de Mause (2008), in the United States, one of the most advanced economies, studies show that girl child sacrifice was practised to please the gods. The insensitivity of the practice is further evidenced by the merry-making in the process. It is reported that the sacrifice was accompanied by music, wild dancing and the ritual rape of virgin girls (Lloyd de Mause, 2008). This could contribute to girls feeling that they were not valued and that they were there to be feasted upon and enjoyed by men, impacting not only the values of the community, but also the self-esteem of the girls themselves.

In the far East, in China, the second largest economy after the USA, sexual abuse in the form of girl prostitution and child marriages has been found to be a common practice (Ma, 2018; Jin, Chen & Yu, 2019; Khanjari, Modabber, Rahmati & Haghani, 2017). Because of poverty and the girl-child-insensitive environment in China, girls would, thus, be forced to make a living through prostitution, servicing the male ego and sexual desires.

Japan, another highly developed economy, has been established as one of the societies in the world where incestuous marriages are approved in court circles. A study by Conolly and Don (2015) reinforces this finding by showing that even today, some Japanese parents have intercourse with their children. Tanaka, Suzuki, Aoyama, Takaoka and MacMillan (2017) concur

that this practice is still common in some rural areas of Japan, where fathers marry their daughters when the mother has died or is incapacitated, in accordance with the feudal family traditions. Thus, girls or simply the female body, is seen as a source of warmth and pleasure for men, disregarding even the blood ties between the individuals involved.

In the United Kingdom, the first modern industrialised economy in the world, studies have established that one in every twenty children has been sexually abused (Radford, 2016; Sigurðardóttir, 2017). The majority of these children have been found to be girls.

The picture is even gloomier in developing economies. Research by Childline India (2016) indicates that India, one of the fastest growing developing economies in Asia, has the largest number of sexually abused children. The research reports that a child below 16 years is raped every 15th minute and a child below 10 years is raped every 13th hour in India.

In Mexico, another developing country in the American continent, prevalence of CSA is reported to be 18.7% and 58% of this prevalence has been found to be on girls (UNICEF, 2017). In Croatia, 10.8% of the children are reported as having faced some form of CSA during childhood (UNICEF, 2017). In Boston, the burden of CSA is 26.7% and 16.7% in girls and boys, respectively (Musallam, 2014). The statistics mentioned indicate that the girl children are mostly affected by CSA.

This prevailing worldwide scenario made me decide to investigate the Zimbabwean situation, with special focus on the psychosocial impact of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe.

Boxal, Tomson and Hulune (2014) postulate that the twentieth century saw significant changes with regard to child sexual abuse, worldwide. There was the declaration of the Rights in 1959, in which the United Nations declared the Rights of the child, among other things. This was aimed at protecting children against any harm, including child sexual abuse. This legislation was further revived later in 1989 and it became known as the Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC). It focused on the participation of children in matters affecting them, protection of children

against discrimination, all forms of neglect, exploitation and prevention of harm to children (Article 34 of the Convention of the Rights of the Child 1989) (as cited by Tobin, 2019, Angraini, 2019 and Magwa, 2014). Despite the legislation and societal awareness campaigns which have been put in place by the international boards, different subgroups of both developing and rich nations still terrorise and abuse children in a way similar to those that were common centuries ago.

1.2.2 The African context of girl-child sexual abuse

Frank (2019), Ramphabana, Rapholo and Makhubele (2019), and Chemhuru and Masaka (2010) posit that in the African community, children are taught to obey every instruction from elders and those in authority. This leaves children, especially girls, exposed to abuse by some adults who capitalise on this belief. The girl child, who is taught to obey elders and those in authority, is left confused as she finds herself being forced into clandestine sexual activities (Meinck, Cluver, Loening-Voysey, Bray, Doubt, Casale & Sherr, 2017; David, Ezechi, Wapmuk, Gbajabiamila, Ohihoin, Herbertson & Odeyemi, 2018, Musallam, 2014; Mathews, Hendricks & Abrahams, 2016). She is not only told that the activity is normal and enjoyable, but she is also threatened, sometimes with death, if she discloses the abuse to anyone (Frank, 2019; Sawrikar & Katz, 2017; Alaggia, Collin-Vézina & Lateef, 2019; Rapholo & Makhubele, 2019; Devries & Meinck, 2018; Rape Abuse National Network – RAINN, 2009). This calls for advocacy and new teachings to change from the culture of silence and blindly following every order, to the culture of opening up, reasoning, critically analysing situations and engaging in proper and enlightened decision making. This study seeks to fill in this gap.

In most African states, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, CSA seems to be institutionalised and has often gone unreported (Sanjeevi, Houlihan, Bergstrom, Langley & Judkins, 2018; Kidman & Palermo, 2016; Ige & Fawole, 2011; Ramabu, 2020; Gwirayi, 2013; Vinga, 2014; Nyamanhindi, 2015). Through this institutionalisation of CSA, it is reported that most girls are abused as early as at nine years old (Muridzo, 2018; Musiwa, 2019; Musiwa, 2020; Chitando, 2004; 2007; Mutanga, 2010; Sibanda, 2010). By the time they reach their early teens, most are married off as wives of men who are twice or even thrice their ages.

In Egypt and other Islamic nations of North Africa and some East African communities like the Kikuyu, girl child sexual mutilation is a common practice. In the Kenyan communities like the Kikuyu, genital mutilation and male circumcision are traditional ritual practices symbolising rites to passage from childhood to adulthood. Usually, these ritual ceremonies are followed by drinking parties that end in sexual intercourse (Kisanga, 2012).

In Tanzania, UNICEF (2021) conducted a national survey of sexual violence against children that revealed higher figures on the victims between 13 and 24 years old, where 28 % were females and 13% were males. In recent years, concern has been expressed about the rising incidents of reported crimes targeting school-going girls. Police records in Kenya documented 3,908 cases of rape in 2016, compared to 2,987 reported cases in 2014 (Ward, Artz, Leoschut, Kassanjee & Burton, 2018). The actual figure is thought to be higher, considering that not all violations are reported. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that 36-62% of all sexual assault victims are aged below 15. Complementary data from Nairobi Women's Hospital indicate that 55% of those violated are girls aged 0-15 (Munyui, 2014). Learning institutions in Kenya have gradually gained notoriety as venues of sexual assault. Since the infamous St. Kizito incident, where 70 girls were raped while 19 others lost their lives when their male peers descended on them during what was supposed to be a school strike, several other group sexual violations have occurred (Munyui, 2014; UNICEF, 2010).

In Zimbabwe and other African countries, the myth that having sex with a virgin cures HIV and AIDS, and also that having sex with a virgin makes one rich, are still rampant, though there is no recorded evidence on these ideas (Lalor, 2011; Madu & Peltzer, 2001). Mukenge, Chapanga, Takavarasha and Miti (2019), Muridzo (2020) and Lalor (2014) posit that there are many CSA cases in Zimbabwe which I believe make this study on the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the girl child in Zimbabwe very necessary.

The way that CSA is executed has to affect school children in all facets of their schooling life. Force is usually reported in cases of child sexual abuse (Musiwa, 2020; Steely & Ten Bensel, 2020), and reports have it that younger girls are forced through physical means and are usually overpowered by their abusers (Kotzé & Brits, 2019; Levitan *et al.,* 2003; Mathews & Collin-

Vézina, 2019; Richter, Dawes & Higson-Smith, 2004; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams & Hoeve, 2019; Finkelhor, 2009; Wolf & Pruitt 2019; Gewirtz-Meydan & Finkelhor, 2020). Force also takes the form of threatening girls with unspecified actions if they refuse to have sexual intercourse with their abusers. For instance, teachers can systematically force children to assent to their sexual advances through engaging in nefarious activities, unfairly treating their would-be victims (Wismayanti, O'Leary, Tilbury & Tjoe, 2019; Chikwiri & Lemmer, 2014; McKillop, 2019; Chinyere, 2015). This may include not awarding those who deserve credit that is due to them. In time, victims end up accepting the sexual advances of their abusers in a bid to get better grades. The opposite is also true where consent is at times sought by those who claim to have fallen in love with the girl in question. Though it can be seen as consent, it is usually sought through manipulating girls by giving them gifts and making to them other promises which are usually unfulfilled (Muridzo, 2018; Gwirai, 2013; Tener & Sigad, 2019; Schumilas, Chen, Fuller & Scott, 2020; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams, & Hoeve, 2019; Mapfumo & Nkoma, 2013). As a result, many female victims of CSA in most sub-Saharan African countries drop out of school (Ramabu, 2020; Meekers & Ahmed, 1999; Mlyakado & Li, 2019; Mensch *et al.*, 2001; Momanyi, Nyamwange & Nyakan, 2019; Ampiah & Adu-Yeboah, 2009; Gunawardena, Fantaye & Yaya, 2019).

1.2.3 The psychosocial consequences of girl-child sexual abuse

Girls who are sexually abused often become victims of social stigma in the societies they live in. Explicitly explained by the social interactionist, Goffman, stigma is a social label that is attached on a person. In most cases, a person who is stigmatised ends up having feelings of unbelonging, low self-esteem and self-concept, uncertainty and decreased self-worth, among other negative psycho-social consequences which usually result from labels attached to them (Hackett, Masson, Balfe & Phillips, 2015; Davies, 2019; Barnes, Mercer & Shakespeare, 2009; Delker, Salton, McLean & Syed, 2020; Barry, Bresscall & Schlesinger, 2009; MacGinley, Breckenridge & Mowll, 2019). Many girls who are affected by child sexual abuse are at times called names and labelled in such a way that most fail to fit in the school environment and the wider societies they live in (Grady, Levenson, Mesias, Kavanagh & Charles, 2019; Boyle & Kaitlin, 2014; Chinyoka, Chingombe & Mugabe, 2016; Hardner, Wolf & Rinfrette, 2018; Dahinten, 2003; Colarossi, 2005; Batool & Abtahi, 2017; Do, Nguyen, Nguyen, Nguyen, Bui, Phan & Ngo,

2019; Holguin & Hansen, 2003; Watkins-Kagebein, Barnett, Collier-Tenison & Blakey, 2019; Espelage & Holt, 2007; Bhat, 2017; Chiodo *et al.,* 2009). This then alienates them and tends to exclude them from fully participating in the socio-economic and political sectors of the societies they live in. One can, therefore, argue that these girls are negatively affected for the rest of their lives, which may lead to the inability to emancipate themselves from poverty and other psycho-social problems which are viewed as consequences of being victim.

Studies established that CSA among school girls in patriarchal societies entrenches inferiority among the victims, while entrenching men as the politico-economic and social masters, fashioning what one would call an omnipresent apartheid by-law and convention (Nakagulire, 2018; Hungwe, 2006; Hadi, 2017; Krahé, 2018; Martin, 2014; Belkhiri & Siham, 2019; McDowell, 2004; Made & Mpofu, 2005). School girls who are victims of child sexual abuse are usually found to be uncomfortable at school, especially after the news of their abuse reaches their peers at school (Kang, Kim & Kang, 2020; Hébert, Cénat, Blais & Guerrier, 2016; Zainudin & Ashari, 2018; Venter, Chikanga & Hansen, 2001; Makondo, 2017; Walsh, Duffy & Gallagher-Duffy, 2007). This has mostly been reported in cases where fellow students and teachers alike engage in spreading the rumour and making the lives of victims uncomfortable (Klein, 2018; Barbara, Collini, Cattaneo, Facchin, Vercellini, Chiappa & Kustermann, 2017; Ortega, Del Rey & Fernández Khan, Hirsch, Wambold & Mellins, 2018). The derogatory behaviour affects school girls psychologically, resulting in poor performance at school (Kiesel, Piescher & Edleson, 2016; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams & Hoeve, 2019; Muridzo, 2018; Gwirayi, 2013, Magwa, 2014; Klusa, 2003; Elizabeth, 2018; Eckes, 2006; Limpaphayom, Williams & Fadil, 2006).

Psychological consequences could also lead to difficulties in concentration and school attendance (McTavish, Sverdlichenko, MacMillan & Wekerle, 2019; Chireshe & Mapfumo, 2005; Davis & Gidycz, 2010; Pittenger, Schreier, Meidlinger, Pogue, Theimer, Flood & Hansen, 2019; Leiter, 2007; Langsford, Miller-Johnson, Berlin, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 2007; Landa, Zhou & Tshotsho, 2019 ; Musiiwa, 2019, 2020; Hardner, Wolf & Rinfrette, 2018; Young & Widom, 2014).

1.2.4 Child sexual abuse in Zimbabwe

Although there has been a steady growth of scholars on CSA in Zimbabwe (Chireshe & Mapfumo, 2005; Makamure, 2010; Gwirayi, 2013; Chikwiri & Lemmer, 2014; Chinyere, 2015; Chiroro, Viki, Frodi, Muromo & Tsigah, 2006; Magwa, 2014), most studies have not been specific about the psycho-social effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of girl children. Some scholars tend to conflate the psychological and sociological effects of child sexual abuse on girl children, hence giving room to serious flaws when it comes to deconstructing the effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child (intellectual, mental, physical, emotional, and social) as residents of the modern community. The theoretical ambiguity of child sexual abuse literature in Zimbabwe, therefore, leaves a cavernous gap, which is to examine and give a complete picture of psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the girl child's holistic development. Regardless of geographical location, some studies have accurately traced and analysed the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child. What is missing, though, is a study which is specifically Zimbabwean. It is against this background that this study aims to unpack the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child. This study does not step into the shoes of what has already been done on the subject. Rather, it intends to provide additional insight into how CSA affects the holistic development of girl children in Zimbabwe, in order to find ways to support these girls.

1.3 Theoretical framework

This section gives a brief discussion of the theoretical framework guiding this study, as it will be discussed fully in Chapter Two. The study is grounded in Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory, Albert Ellis's Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) and Erikson's Psychosocial Theory.

1.3.1 Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory consists of the following five nested structures: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem (Soyer, 2019; Sunsern & Lawang, 2019; Rathus, 2006:26; Berk, 2007:23; McKillop, 2019; Martinello, 2020; Koller, dos Santos Paludo & De Morais, 2019; Donald *et al.,* 2010:36). This theory was used to examine the development of sexually abused girls within the context of the system of relationships that form her environment. This theory explains how the inherent qualities of the girl child and the environment interact to influence the way the sexually abused girl child grows and develops. The

child is studied in the context of multiple environments (ecological systems) in an attempt to understand her development. In this study, the rural and urban environments are considered.

The microsystem is the smallest and most immediate environment in which the sexually abused girl lives, for example, the home, school, peer group or community environment (Zhu, Lau & Navalta, 2020; Analisah & Indartono, 2019; Bronfenbrenner, 2006). It follows that the girl interacts within the microsystem with the family members, classmates, peers, teachers and the community members in which positive and negative influence can be developed. The girls can be led into sexual activities from the influence of these group members. Some members can positively influence the girls not to indulge in sex activities; hence positive influence can be noted from the microsystem. Negative influence may result in the teenager getting pregnant and this may result in school dropout, suicide, health problems resulting from attempts to terminate the pregnancy, and rejection from the family members or the society.

The mesosystem encompasses the interaction of the different people in the microsystem. This can be linkages between home and school, peer group and family, or family and church. These linkages also have their positive and negative influences on girl learners. Some churches, for example, encourage early marriages and multiple wives. These have negative influence on families as they may cause teenage pregnancies. On the other hand, some doctrines or beliefs followed by some churches may discourage teenage pregnancies. However, trusted and respected members of the communities, such as neighbours, uncles, cousins, fathers, stepfathers and friends in children's microsystem and mesosystem, who should be protecting the children from harm, are the same people who may betray their trust by violating and robbing girl children of their innocence. Many cases have been suppressed as some parents are paid to conceal such abuse. In some cases, the offenders would be the guardians. This leads to silence, as people are afraid of losing the breadwinner (Musiwa, 2019; Musiwa, 2020; Fennie Mantula & HaroonSaloojee, 2016; Gwirayi, 2013; Shamu, Shamu, Zarowsky, Temmerman, Shefer & Abrahams, 2019; Kurebwa, 2019).

The exosystem pertains to the linkages that may exists between two or more settings, one of which may not contain the developing child but affects her indirectly. Parents' workplaces, the larger neighbourhood and the extended family members can be the examples (Bronfenbrenner,

2006). In extended families, for example, the aunties can influence CSA, depending on the family history.

The fourth, the **macrosystem,** is the largest and most distant collection of people and places to the child. However, it still exercises significant influence on the child. It is composed of the child's cultural patterns and values, specifically the child's dominant beliefs and ideas, as well as political and economic systems. Children in war areas, for example, will experience a different kind of development fom that of children in communities where peace reigns (Wamser-Nanney & Campbell, 2019; Bronfenbrenner, 2006). Girls in urban areas, for example, can experience cultural patterns and values which are different from girls in rural areas, in relation to strategies employed to minimise CSA in secondary schools. The urban settings with more television, the use of internet and more social interactions than rural settings can have a different bearing on girls from the rural set-up. In rural areas, more value can be placed in marriage as a result of cultural patterns and values.

Chronosystem: This ecological sector may include a change in family structures, address and parent's employment status, in addition to immense society changes such as economic cycles and wars (Bronfenbrenner, 2006; McKillop, Rayment-McHugh, Smallbone & Bromham, 2018; Pittenger, Huit & Hansen, 2016). Family structure can change as a result of deaths of parents, resulting in children becoming orphans. The country's economic environment, like the one being experienced in Zimbabwe at the time of writing this thesis, can result in a chronosystem, hence can cause an increase in CSA in secondary schools. Thus, the ecological perspective explains the plight of the sexually abused girls more convincingly than any other theory.

1.3.2 Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT)

Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) is applied to assist sexually abused girls to identify their irrational beliefs that are unrealistic, destructive and self-defeating, in order to replace them with rational ones.

REBT is based on the assumption that human beings are self-actualizing in nature and have a strong biological tendency to think irrationally (especially the sexually abused learners in this case). People have rational and irrational beliefs (Eseadi, Anyanwu, Ogbuabor & Ikechukwu-Ilomuanya, 2016; Eseadi, Oyeoku, Onuigbo, Otu, Nwefuru & Edeh, 2019). Irrational thinking

may be through cognitive deficiencies (lack of planning) or cognitive distortions (inaccurate information processing and perceptions). Mugabe (2016) postulates that naturally, people are hedonistic in nature. That is why they fundamentally strive for survival, happiness and freedom from pain.

An irrational belief is rigid or extreme. For instance, a learner can say, "l was sexually abused because l am loose." lf abused learners harbour irrational beliefs, they become emotionally disturbed and feel angry, stressed, anxious, depressed, worthless, and are filled with self-pity simply because of thinking irrationally. Ellis (2014), DiGiuseppe and Bernard (2014) and Muridzo (2018) concur and describe irrational thinking as happening in a circular process, leading to self-hatred, which leads to self-destructive behaviour and eventually, hatred towards others. This, in turn, causes others to act irrationally toward the individual, as shown in Fig. 1:1:
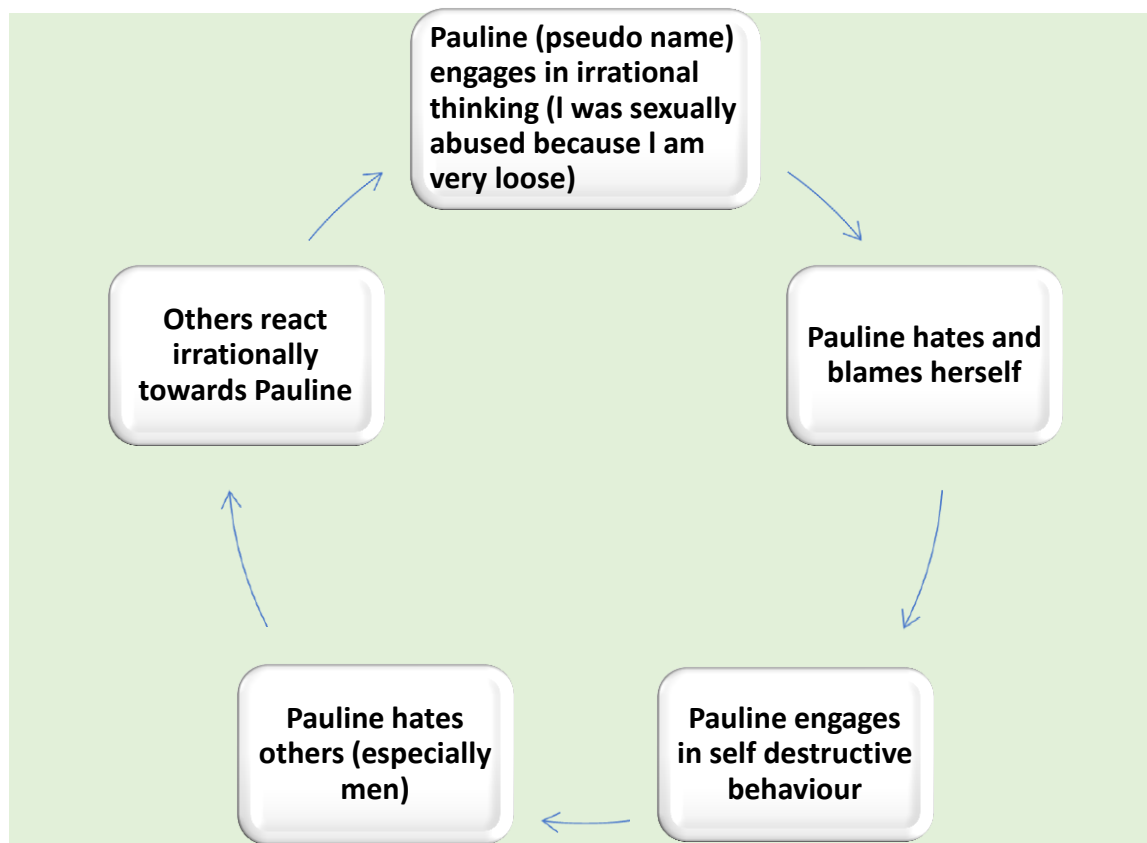
[1]**Fig 1.1: The cycle of irrational thinking by a sexually abused girl (Field Studye, 2019)**

Given the above scenario, by using different cognitive, emotive and behavioural methods and activities, the sexually abused girls can gain a more rational, self-helping and constructive way of thinking and behaving. The abused girl is then assisted to work through her fears, beliefs and thoughts before behaviour modification techniques are implemented. Thus, the Emotive Behavioural Theory is relevant to this study because it helps in identifying all the negative, irrational consequences as a result of CSA. It, therefore, could assist in detailing the emotions and behaviours developed as a result of CSA.

1.3.3 Erikson's Psychosocial Theory

This study was further informed by Erikson's Psychosocial Theory. Human development experts assert that CSA interferes with the physical, social, psychological and emotional processes of children's development. According to Erikson (1963), Chung (2018), Newman and Newman (2017), the Psychosocial Theory holds that people go through eight psychosocial stages of development. These are: trust versus mistrust (0-1 year), autonomy versus shame and doubt (2-3 years), initiative versus guilt (4-5 years), industry versus inferiority (6-11 years), identity versus confusion (12-18 years), intimacy versus isolation (18-35), generativity versus stagnation (35-65 years) and integrity versus despair (65+), which will be unpacked in the next chapter. Each stage consists of a unique developmental task that the girl child needs to accomplish in order to develop normally. Failure to resolve a crisis, in this case due to CSA, could result in problems or pathology. Like Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexual development, Erikson's developmental stages are closely tied to ages at which people are expected to experience crises. Girls will experience conflicts as they progress through these stages, but it is the way they handle these conflicts that will directly and indirectly impact on their lives (Wurdenman, 2015). Failure to resolve conflict by the sexually abused girl learner will influence the way she will go through the stages. As she grows up, she moves with the stages despite the fact that there is unresolved conflict of CSA. Erikson's Psychosocial Theory is, therefore, relevant to this study because it helps in detailing the emotions and behaviours developed as a result of CSA.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

Child sexual abuse (CSA) is a universal global problem with severe life-long outcomes, but studies on it and its psychosocial effects on holistic development of school girls have been unexpectedly scarce. Due to the harsh socio-economic environment in Zimbabwe, the country has witnessed a surge in child-sexual abuse, especially the girl child, as evidenced in daily public and private media. Nevertheless, studies on psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of girls are very scarce, if any, in Zimbabwe. This study, thus, seeks to fill in the gap.

1.5 Aim

The aim of the study is to determine the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Objectives

The objectives of the study are to:

- explore the causes of sexual abuse among girl children in Zimbabwe.

- explore the psychosocial consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child.

- explore how sexual abuse affects academic performance of girl learners.

- explore how children who have been sexually abused can be helped in the school.

1.7 Research questions
Major Research Question

- What are the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child?

Sub Research questions

- What are the main causes of sexual abuse among girl children in Zimbabwe?

- What are the consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child?

- How does sexual abuse affect academic performance of girl learners?

- How can children who have been sexually abused be helped in the schools?

1.8 Significance of the Study

The value of this study lies in enlightening learners, parents, educators and members of the community on the scourge of child sexual abuse, as well as its devastating effects on the girl child, family and society at large. In the same vein, different stakeholders will be made aware of the prevention measures that will be outlined, analysed and discussed in this research study, in order to address and attempt to minimise the negative effects of CSA.

This study will benefit the policy makers by providing crucial information that will support the review of the constitution on Children's Act and the draft of children policies. The study will also serve as point of reference to educators and academics in their studies. In addition, communities will be made aware of the lifelong effects of child sexual abuse on girl children.

The study is also intended to assist NGOs and Church leaders in designing psychosocial support programmes that will educate children on Child Sexual Abuse, and also provide platforms for disclosure. This study, therefore, intends to provide a brief overview of psychosocial effects of CSA on holistic development of girl children, with the aim of enhancing the awareness of primary care physicians, policy makers, counsellors, police personnel, teachers, and the community on negative effects of CSA.

1.9 Research methodology

This study was rooted in the interpretive paradigm, which is qualitative and, thus, descriptive in nature, in order to explore the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of girls in Gokwe, Zimbabwe. The methodological aspects discussed are: the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sample and sample selection, the research instruments and their trustworthiness, reliability and validity, data collection and data analysis.

1.9.1 Research paradigm

Creswell (2013), Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), and Park, Konge and Artino (2020) posit that every research is governed by some underlying philosophical assumptions which lead to the selection of research methods which are appropriate for the development of knowledge in a given study. He then defines a paradigm as a culture with a set of beliefs and assumptions that a community of researchers have in common regarding the nature and conduct of research. Paradigm refers to the world's view of the nature of reality and knowledge. Gephart, as quoted by Creswell (2014), Park, Konge and Artino (2020) and Bryman (2017), gives the following classification of paradigms: positivism, interpretivism and post-modernism.

For purposes of this study, the interpretivism paradigm was employed. Interpretivism was relevant because it endeavoured to derive constructs from the field of an in-depth examination of the phenomena of interest. Gephart, as quoted by Creswell (2014), O'Donoghue (2018), Alharahsheh and Pius (2020), argues that interpretivists assume that knowledge is an act of interpretation, hence there is no objective knowledge which is independent of human thinking and reasoning.

Pham (2018), Creswell (2009), Pulla and Carter (2018) add that the premise of interpretive researchers is that access to reality is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meaning. Thus, in this study, the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe was explored.

1.9.2 Research approach

The research approach which was used for this study was the qualitative approach. According to Ndabezihle in Tichapondwa (2013), Alase (2017) and Tuffour (2017), the qualitative approach is relevant to a study with research questions which call for inductive reasoning, where specific objects were observed in their natural setting. Bricki and Green (2017) state that the qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based on multiple meanings, socially and historically, and are constructed with an intention of developing a pattern. A qualitative study is defined as an inquiry process of understanding a social human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of

informants and conducted in a natural setting (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2020; Byrd, 2020; Allan, 2020). Similarly, Christensen (2011), Merriam and Grenier (2019) and Flick (2018) describe qualitative research as one relying principally on collection of qualitative data. Qualitative research is chiefly exploratory research. It is mainly used to acquire an understanding of fundamental reasons, opinions and motivation, and for this reason, this approach was deemed relevant for this study. Through the qualitative approach, this research gained insights from learners', teachers', school heads', and community health workers' experiences.

1.9.3 Research design

A qualitative phenomenological design was adopted in this study. It asks the question 'why?' and seeks to describe phenomena in words. Barken, Thygesen and Söderhamn (2018) and Creswell (2013) posit that the purpose of a phenomenological study is to understand experiences from a participant's point of view and in the participant's natural settings. A research design is analogous to a plan or a map used in the process of finding solutions to the research problem (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Dannels (2018), and Kruger (2010) posit that phenomenologists were concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspectives of people involved. For that reason, the research participants were dealt with in their natural setting, in this case, the school. According to Chinyoka (2013), O'Donoghue (2018), and Alharahsheh and Pius (2020), phenomenological inquiry requires the researcher to go through a series of steps in which his or her assumptions and biases are eliminated. In this study, the researcher was as open- minded as possible, in trying to gain insights into effects of CSA among girl learners.

Pham (2018), De Vos *et al.* (2011), Konge and Artino (2020) and Bryman (2017 highlight that phenomenology is concerned with understanding and interpreting meanings that particular subjects give to their lives, as well as investigating people's perceptions, perspectives and understanding of particular situations. Muridzo (2020), Ataro (2020), Ganga (2013), Chinyoka (2013) and Magwa (2014) also say that the design is flexible to use and allows for a systematic collection of data, as one has to penetrate the realities of the situation. For these reasons, the researcher opted to use the phenomenological design since it seeks to discover issues in order to deal with cause and effect. Furthermore, according to Oh and Yoo (2020), Vladimir and Robertson (2020), McMillan and Schumacher (2010), phenomenology seeks to transform the

lived experiences into a description of essence and allows for reflection and analysis. This, therefore, made the researcher carry out lengthy interviews with the informants, on a face-to-face basis.

While a lot points to the effectiveness of phenomenology as a research design, it also has its own weaknesses. It is necessary to note that it is time-consuming. Creswell and Creswell (2017) point out that it generates a lot of data through interview notes, tape recordings, jottings and other records which consume a lot of time. Another weakness is that it may yield inaccurate results because of over- and under-rating (Bernard, 2012). Kufakunesu (2016) and Chinyoka (2013) suggest that the above can be minimised by conducting pilot studies and clarifying ambiguous terms and questions. The researcher took a leaf from the suggestions made by Chinyoka (2013) to minimise the above challenges.

1.9.4 Population, sample and sampling procedures

Population is a collective term used to describe the total quantity of cases of the type that are the subject of your study (Walliman, 2014; Englander, 2019; Boddy, 2016; Flick, 2018). The population comprised all Form Two learners from two secondary schools in Gokwe, their teachers, school heads and the police in charge of the community welfare. The Form Two learners were targeted because they are considered to be cognitively mature enough to verbalise their experiences in cases where they have been sexually abused. The target population comprised one hundred and sixty (160) girls doing Form 2, two school heads and eighteen (18) qualified teachers teaching Form Two girl learners at the two secondary schools. The total target population was, therefore, one hundred and eighty-two (182).

From the target population, a sample was selected for use in the study. According to Walliman (2014), Hennink, Kaiser and Weber (2019), and sizVasileiou, Barnett, Thorpe and Young (2018), a sample is a fraction of the population of a group that you want to study. From a population of around one hundred and eighty-two (182), a sample of fifteen (15), comprising two (2) teachers, ten (10) sexually abused learners who were obtained through snowballing, two (2) school heads, and one (1) police officer, was purposively drawn from the population. Considering the sensitivity of CSA, snowballing was used to identify sexually abused learners. This sampling technique is often used in hidden populations which are difficult for researchers to

access (Heckathorn, 2015). The teachers were selected because they keep a record of children's background information, behaviour and performance in class. For the sake of comparison of data, the researcher collected information from the police officer using the interview. School heads were included because the researcher wanted to find out how often cases of child sexual abuse were reported to the schools and what measures were taken by the schools.

Purposive sampling has advantages in that it is less time-consuming. It usually assures high participant rate. Generalisation is possible to similar subjects and adds credibility (Guenther & Falk, 2019; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Lodhia, 2019).

1.8.5 Data gathering methods

The researcher used in-depth face-to-face interviews with two (2) teachers, two (2) school heads, and one (1) police officer. Two focus groups (FGD1 and FGD2), each consisting of five learners from each school were used to gather data from the research participants. In-depth interviews were carried out until the researcher was satisfied that no other responses came from the interviewees.

According to Hennink, Kaiser and Weber (2019), Robinson (2020) and Creswell (2003), interviews and focus group discussions have advantages in that, the research questions may change and be refined as the researcher learns what to ask and to whom it should be asked. Detailed data was, therefore, gathered through open-ended questions.

1.8.6 Data analysis

An inductive approach to analysing the responses to interviews and focus groups was undertaken to allow patterns, themes, and categories to emerge, rather than being imposed prior to data collection and analysis (Hellstadius, Malmström, Lagergren, Sundbom & Wikman, 2019; Leedy and Ormrod, 2012; Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2020; Patton, 2015). For thematic analysis, Tesch's open coding method was used. Participants' responses were recorded verbatim. The most illustrative quotations were used to buttress important points that emerged from the data gathered from respondents.

1.9 Ethical considerations

When conducting human research, especially research on effects of child sexual abuse, the researcher has the responsibility to conform to a morally acceptable code of conduct, as determined by the scientific community. The researcher respected the participants' right to privacy, the identity or any identifying particulars of the participants remained anonymous throughout the study. All participants were made aware of the research aims and the researcher ensured that the participants understood the research aims. Participants signed a letter of informed consent that allowed the researcher to use the information gathered for the research purposes. Permission was also sought from the participants' parents, school heads and teachers who participated in this study, as well as the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture. Furthermore, the researcher submitted an ethics form to the University of Free State ethics board in order for the study to be ethically cleared, the ethics clearance number being UFS-HSD2017/0770. Furthermore, a social worker was on standby for social support.

Bernstein (2011), Markwei and Tetteh (2020) and Cao, Fang, Hou, Han, Xu, Dong and Zheng (2020) point out that psychologists take very serious ethical considerations to minimise any immediate discomfort or risk for research participants, as well as the need to protect participants from long term harm. Barnsley (2020), Makore-Rukuni (2001), Srivastava, Heidari and Krause (2019) say that descriptive ethics are used in research and give the researcher guidelines on how to conduct research. Descriptive ethics emphasise on rules that are rational, objective, universal and impartial. Ethical responsibilities entail protecting the rights of participants and reporting results fairly and accurately. Ethics are standards imposed by professional members to safeguard themselves, their profession and pride. Ethical considerations include informed consent, confidentiality, deception and debriefing, de-hoaxing, non-maleficence, beneficence, as well as justice and fairness (Barnsley, 2020; Alderson & Morrow, 2020; Milton, 2019).

Ethical considerations were observed in this study. Through informed consent, the participants were made aware of the pros and cons of participation. Thus, the benefits and risks were clearly outlined. Participants were not coerced to participate. Confidentiality was also upheld. Deception was discouraged and the researcher tried to build trust and transparency. A brief description of the results of the study was also given to the participants. Beneficence and non-maleficence were

upheld during and after the research study. Informed consent of the pupils was sought from their parents or guardians, as they were below the age of eighteen. The girl learners also completed the assent forms. Participants were assured that the data collected in the study would be used for the purpose of the study only.

1.10 Limitations of the study

A number of factors contributed to challenges experienced when executing this study. Firstly, since the researcher is a full-time employee of a Non-Governmental Organisation based in Gweru, Zimbabwe, and a part-time lecturer at Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU), time to complete the study in the set period was a challenge. This is because apart from carrying out the study, the researcher was at work during normal working hours. To guard against this, the researcher chose to use only two schools which were close to each other. The target group were form two girl learners who were victims of CSA.

Furthermore, teachers and school heads were initially not motivated to contribute meaningfully to the study, as they felt there were no financial gains to be made from contributing to the research. After a lot of persuasion, the participants became more and more interested in the research. This also came about after the teachers realised the importance of the study to their practice.

In addition, the issue under study was somewhat sensitive, hence there was no guarantee that informants provided correct information. There are moments in life when individuals prefer preserving their private issues, especially about their sexual behaviour and beliefs, to divulging them. The girls were most likely to be reluctant to talk about the subject of sexual abuse and admit that they had been abused. They could also find it difficult to give an account of the abuse in detail. Teachers could also be reluctant to talk about the subject or disclose any cases that they had come across since they considered it to be a sensitive and confidential issue. To control this possible setback, efforts were made to promote autonomy and guarantee privacy to all respondents. The study was limited to learners between the age ranges 14-16. This could exclude some participants who did not fall in the age group under study. Attempts were made, therefore, to include learners who were already teenage mothers and yet might not fall into this age bracket.

1.11 Definitions of key terms
Operational definitions of key terms are given below.

The child: The Children's Protection and Adoption Act, Chapter 33, defines a child, in section 2, as any person (including an infant) under the age of 16. The Legal Age of Majority Act, 1982, defines any person below the age of 18 as a minor. A person between the age of 16 and 18 is defined as a young person in Chapter 33. It has been suggested that Chapter 33 be amended to reflect 18 years as the only age of majority, to avoid confusions and loopholes. In this study, a child is defined as any person below the age of 18 (Muridzo, 2018; Magwa, 2015; Gwirayi, 2013; Gallego, Novo, Fariña & Arce, 2019).

Sexual abuse: This can be defined as including the following: touching or fondling of private parts, penetration against one's will or as long as the child is still below the age of consent, looking in a suggestive way, teasing in a sexually suggestive way and use of inappropriate language (Muridzo, 2018; Mathews, 2019; Pulverman, Kilimnik & Meston, 2018; Simon, Luetzow & Conte, 2020; Leroux, Clow, Motayne & Seto, 2020).

Child sexual abuse: This means the engaging of a child in sexual activities that she does not understand, to which the child cannot give informed consent, or which violate the social taboos of society (Afeta, 2020; Mugabe, Chingombe & Chinyoka, 2017).

Incest: It is when a person intentionally has sexual intercourse with another person who is a blood relative or related by marriage or adoption, and thus unable to contract a valid marriage (DiPlacidi, 2018; Davidoff, 2018; Greydanus & Joav Merrick, 2017; Gqgabi & Smit, 2019).

Holistic: This encompasses the moral, cognitive, emotional, social, personality and behavioural development of an individual (Johnson, 2016; Brodie, 2018, & Eaude, 2018).

Psychosocial effects: This can be defined as being common, the rate of incidence of an event in a given community (Zainudin & Ashari, 2018; Cantón-Cortés, Cantón & Cortés, 2016; Lind, Brown, Sheerin, York, Myers, Kendler & Amstadter, 2018).

Personality: The term refers to the sum total of all the behavioural and mental characteristics by means of which an individual is recognized as being unique (Beck & Jackson 2020).

Learning: Gaining knowledge of, or skill in, by study, practice or by being taught (Stracke, 2017 and Halverson & Halverson, 2020).

Performance: Manner or quality of manner or quality of functioning (Fernandes, Holanda, Victorino, Borges, Carvalho & Van Erven, 2019; D'Alessio, Avolio & Charles, 2019; Alamri, 2019; Barnett, Melugin & Hernandez, 2020).

1.12 Chapter division

The study is organised into six chapters and they are outlined as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

Chapter 2: Psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of learners

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 5: Research findings, analysis and discussion

Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

1.13 Summary

This chapter is an introduction to the study. It addresses the background as well as the orientation to the study. Among other issues, therefore, analysis and description of the problem is done. Furthermore, the theoretical framework underpinning the study, the aims of the research, the research methods and design, the limitations and the demarcation of the study are all outlined. Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter focusing on the background to the study, theoretical framework, statement of the problem, problem questions, the aim/purpose of the study and motivation for the study. It also addresses the limitations, the scope or delimitation of the study, as well as definition of key terms. The next chapter focuses on the literature related to the study.

CHAPTER TWO

PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF CSA ON THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews existing related literature focusing on study objectives, with the aim to enrich the study with insights from research already executed, as well as to establish gaps in which to launch the thesis argument. The chapter discusses the global, regional and national perspectives on the effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child, consequences and policy responses. The chapter also examines psychosocial effects of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child as examined in various research studies and from various perspectives.

2.2 Global overview of CSA

CSA is a universal problem, with serious life-long outcomes, robbing young girls of their innocence and holistic development. CSA occurs in all countries and children of all age groups and all socioeconomic classes are affected. The difference is in the magnitude. CSA is a global societal problem of massive proportions, with its origin dating back to ancient times (Greydanus, & Joav Merrick, 2017; Annointe, 2010; Ruck, 2019; Muridzo, 2020). According to Many (2018), Fisher, Goldsmith, Hurcombe and Soares (2017), Elizabeth (2020) and Ormond (2010), child sexual assault as a pervasive problem has affected the health, social and psychological wellbeing of children, globally.

The WHO (2014) report (in Slavin, Scoglio, Blycker, Potenza and Kraus, 2020) defines sexual violence as, "any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise direct against women's sexuality, using coercion for example, psychological intimidation, physical force or threats of harm, by a person, regardless of relationship to the victim, in any setting, including, but not limited to, home and work".

The World Health Organization estimates that about 223 million children (150 million girls and 73 million boys) have experienced forced sexual intercourse or other forms of sexual violence globally in 2017 (Muridzo, 2018). The global prevalence of CSA has been estimated at 19.7% for females and 7.9% for males (Artz *et al.*, 2018). Most sexual abuse offenders are acquainted with their victims, approximately 30% are relatives of the child, most often brothers, fathers, uncles, or cousins, around 60% are other acquaintances such as "friends" of the family, and babysitters, or neighbours, strangers are the offenders in approximately 10% of CSA cases (Muridzo 2018; Magwa, 2014; Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2019). Most CSA is committed by men; studies on female child molesters show that women commit 14% to 25 % of offenses reported against boys and 6% of offenses reported against girls (Wheeling, 2007; Muridzo, 2018). According to UNICEF, nearly half of reported rape victims in Papua New Guinea are under 15 years of age and 13% are under 7 years of age. A report by Child Fund Australia, citing former Parliamentarian Dame Carol Kidu, stated that 50% of those seeking medical help after rape are under 16, 25% are under 10 and 10% are under 8.

Globally, even though governments have taken measures to reduce cases of child sexual abuse, statistics show that child sexual abuse cases are increasing. According to Mantula and Haroon Saloojee (2016), the global prevalence of CSA has been estimated at 11.8% (118 per 1,000 children), with the rate highest in Africa (34.4%) and lowest in Europe (9.2%). Europe, America and Asia had prevalence rates of 9.2%, 10.1% and 23.9%, respectively. A review of studies from 21 high and middle income nations showed that 7 to 36% of females reported being victims of sexual abuse during their childhood (Sanjeevi, Houlihan, Bergstrom, Langley & Judkins, 2018; Burton & Chamberlin, 2004).

According to MaCrann (2017), the evidence of child sexual abuse continues to appear and prevalence figures have been recorded in such diverse places as El Salvador, India and Palestine. Among children who are sexually abused, girls form the majority of the group. For instance, a study by Astie, Bouvier, Halperin, Jaffe, Mounoud, Pawlak, Laederach and Wicky (2016) in Switzerland, where 1193 adolescents aged 13-17 were chosen, showed that 33.8 % and 10.9% of girls and boys, respectively, reported having experienced at least one sexual abuse event.

According to a report commissioned by the US Department of Education, between 6% and 10% of school children in USA public schools have been sexually abused by school employees, relatives and teachers, while in Britain, hundreds of teachers have been accused of having sex with pupils (Magwa, 2014).

In addition, National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System (2006) found that 8.8% of children were abused sexually in the United States. In a study conducted in Brazil in 2009, the prevalence rate was 5.6% among girls and 1.6% among boys (Haile, Kabeta & Kassie, 2013). Tang (2014) notes that a study conducted in Mexico revealed that the reported prevalence of CSA was 58% in girls and 42% in boys. A study among a Chinese population reported the prevalence of CSA before the age of 14 to be 4.2% in males and 5% in females (Song, Ji & Agardh, 2017). In addition, college students in Hong Kong recalled sexual abuse before 17 years of age and it was 6% higher in females (Tang, 2014). Furthermore, a study by Byrne, Conroy, DeBarra, Garavan and MaGee (2003) in the Republic of Ireland, demonstrated that out of a sample of 3118, one in five girls reported experiencing contact sexual abuse. These alarming figures of girls who are sexually abused motivated this researcher to explore the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl learners.

2.3 African perspective on child sexual abuse

While past studies have tried to determine the extent of rape and the factors contributing to child sexual abuse, evidence has suggested that these studies have been biased on the girl child (Hoot, Tadesse and Abdella, 2006). African countries which are signatories to the Convention on the Rights of Children are not seriously upholding the rights of the girl child. There still remains an overwhelming amount of evidence on the increased number of girl child sexual exploitation in Africa, according to Hanzi (2006), King (2018), Lalor (2004), Fouche and Le Roux (2018), Muridzo (2018), Watts and Zimmerman (2002) and Hynes (2004). O'Donnell *et al.* (2012) and Filtoe (2017) state that the magnitude of the problem of child sexual abuse is not exhaustive because of the weak legal systems of many African countries, fear of disclosure, underreporting and low conviction rates of offenders. As a result, girls are continuously being sexually abused without reprieve.

In African countries, CSA of the girl child has been neglected because of other social and economic problems such as malnutrition, unemployment, hunger, poverty and HIV, among other problems that need to be dealt with before the resources are spared to deal with such a subject. Moreover, Bundy, Bundy-Nyandiya, Doeke, Ebigbo, Lackman, Poblete and Killion (2002), Magwa (2016) and Gwirayi (2014) point out that the relative dearth of research in developing countries has been the result of many factors, leading to the enormity of the problem. In Kenya, South Africa, Botswana and Nigeria, lack of resources has hampered a detailed research on girl child sexual abuse and its psychological impact on the holistic development of the girl child (Gwirayi, 2019).

Vulnerability to CSA is higher among the poorest communities (Stoltenborgh, Ijzendoorn, Van and Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2011; Lacey, Howe, Kelly-Irving, Bartley & Kelly, 2020; Farrell, Fleegler, Monuteaux, Wilson, Christian & Lee). In Africa, the World Health Organization (2010) estimates that 24 million girls under the age of 18 years have experienced some form of sexual abuse involving physical contact. In studies conducted in Kenya by Ruto (2009), the findings showed that 58% of girls are sexually abused. In studies conducted in South Africa, it was reported that 17% of males and 39% girls have been abused once in childhood (Moore *et al.*, 2008). Muridzo (2020) noted that 1 in 6 of all reported cases of chronic sexual abuse in South Africa are of girls under the age of 12 years. The Tanzania Judicial Service Commission (2012) notes that a high prevalence of sexual violence in Tanzania was experienced by females before the age of 18 years. These figures are a tip of an iceberg, hence the need to explore the psychosocial impact of CSA on the holistic development of girl learners.

In Southern African countries like South Africa, Namibia, Botswana and Swaziland, child sexual abuse is also reported to be on the rise. In a report by SAFAIDS (UNICEF, 2013), it is mentioned that Southern Africa has the highest sexual abuse rates globally. This increases the risk and vulnerability of girls and women to HIV infection. In South Africa, it is believed that a rape occurs every 26 seconds, a woman or girl is raped every 60 seconds in Namibia, with the

youngest rape victim being six months old, while the oldest was eighty-five years old (Chiwanga, 2012).

Child sexual abuse continues to affect school girls and has increasingly become manifest and noticeable in Africa (Chikwiri and Lemmer, 2014; Chinyere, 2015; Pratiwi and Asyary, 2017). Though incidences of child sexual abuse have historically been pervasive in Africa, their improved coverage and reportage seem to have made them more noticeable (Badoe, 2017; Dubowitz, 2017; Weatherred, 2015).

According to Makondo (2017) twenty five percent of girls experienced sexual abuse in their life time, with nearly one in twenty-one having experienced abuse that was so severe that it required medical attention in Swaziland. Child marriage is very common in West Africa and in some countries in East and Southern Africa, especially Mozambique, Uganda and Ethiopia, where more than a million marry before they reach the age of 18 (UNICEF, 2020). Abiodun, Sodeinde, Jagun, Ladele, Adepoju, Ohiaogu and Mbonu (2020) note that about 200,000 children are trafficked annually across borders in the sub-regions of West and Central Africa, into countries such as Benin, Ghana, Nigeria, Mali, Burkina Faso and Mauritania. According to a UNICEF (2010) report, 46% of Congolese school girls confirmed that they had been victims of sexual harassment, abuse, and violence inflicted on them by their teachers or other school personnel. In Mozambique, a study by the Ministry of Education found that 70 percent of female respondents reported knowing teachers who use sexual intercourse as a necessary condition to advance students to the next grade (Magwa, 2014; Stoltenborgh *etal.* 2011). According to UNICEF, teachers in Mali are known to use "La menace du bic rouge" ("the threat of the red pen") or bad marks if girls do not accept sexual advances. According to Plan International, 16% of children in Togo, for instance, named a teacher as responsible for the pregnancy of a classmate.

2.4 CSA in Zimbabwe
Gallagher (2017), Okunlola, Gesinde, Nwabueze and Okojide (2020) indicate that child sexual abuse, especially rape, has been recognised in Zimbabwe as a national threat. The Musasa

Project (2020) reported that 1 in 6 women were raped or escaped an attempt to rape them, and 1 in 9 women stated that they received rude sexual comments. Findings show that 2 045 children were raped in 10 months and this sent shivers among women. A report by the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (Zimstats) Quarterly Digest of Statistics (2017) indicates that a total of 9 195 cases of rape were reported in the first five months of 2017. The recent findings by Zimstats (2020) and the UN Children's Educational Fund (UNICEF) reveal that 1 in 3 girls is raped or sexually assaulted before she reaches the age of 18 and is followed by men in a threatening way. Makore (2018), Daniels (2016), Ritchie (2009), Rizkalla, Zeevi-Barkay and Segal (2017) state that rape causes a trauma in a minor's life. This might end up causing the individual to fail to fit in society if proper measures are not taken. Researches done by UNICEF (2013) and Zimstats (2013) conclude that child sexual abuse accounted for 98% of child survivors of sexual abuse.

Children who are sexually abused can be manipulated by their abuser to believe that the abuse is their fault. The feelings of shame and guilt that come from the abuse can reduce the likelihood of that child telling anyone about the abuse (King, 2018; Muridzo, 2020; Allnock, 2010). Laccino (2014) says that Zimbabwe has the ignominious distinction of being ranked among 5 countries with the highest prevalent rates, globally. In addition, the Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) (2018) revealed that cases of child sexual abuse are on the rise. Results from the Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) (2020) showed that 34 % of girls suffered sexual abuse before they reached 15 years. Zifa (2018) reviewed cases of child abuse that were seen at three clinics of the Family Support Trust in Zimbabwe in the period 2012 to 2017. In total, 8,470 children were under study, of whom 93% were females. In addition, the majority of them were below the age of 16. Under the current law of Zimbabwe these girls are not even eligible for marriage. This is an indication of the magnitude of the problem in society.

The phenomenon of CSA in Zimbabwe has become an issue of national concern that has attracted the attention of stakeholders from various backgrounds. In Zimbabwe, CSA is caused by cultural factors, religion, economic hardships, parenting styles and child marriages. The belief that having sexual intercourse with a virgin cures HIV and AIDS and virgins make businesses

thrive makes men sexually abuse children. This is supported by Sivelä (2016), and Amuche, Emmanuel & Innocent (2017) who argue that HIV leads men to coerce young girls into sexual relations. These men think that they are less likely to be infected if they have sex with young women. It has been reported that girls are sexually abused by people that are known to them, which leads to a culture of silence on rape within families. No one wants the breadwinner to go to jail and in most instances the abuse is exposed when the girl becomes terminally ill or pregnant. This is because most women who go through domestic violence are economically dependent on men.

In Zimbabwe, studies on child sexual abuse among school girls have surged since the increased drive of the new mandate to meet the Sustainable Development Goals, whose deadline is slated for 2030. The case of Zimbabwe shows how the issue of educating the girl child about CSA and the drive to end the abuse (which may hinder the girl children's attainment of education) are closely connected. Marrying off girls before they reach the age of eighteen, using girls to avenge spirits of the dead (a practice which centres around giving away of a virgin by the perpetrator family to the aggrieved family in order to atone for a wrongdoing) and other issues which involve CSA, have spurred debate. They have also led to the enactment of laws aimed at protecting girls from abuse. For instance, a Presidential decree which prohibits pledging girls to avenge spirits of a murdered person was passed during the 1990s.

Other cultural customs which disenfranchised girl children have slowly been out of practice by default, following the outlawing of pledging girls to avenge spirits. New laws and statutes aimed at stopping CSA and other forms of abuse meted on girl children, have been passed in the country. Notable among them was the recent passing of a law which outlawed marrying girls who are less than eighteen years of age (Bvirindi & Landa, 2016). It is within this milieu, where scholarly attention on child sexual abuse and other related issues on child abuse have surged, that most debates focus on abuse and the access of girls to education, especially under the background of the threats and actual abuse of girls which lead them into either dropping out of school or completely failing to get access to education (King, 2018; World Health Organization, 2014; Chireshe & Mapfumo, 2015; Mugabe, 2016; Wurtele, 2009; Muridzo, 2018; Finkelhor,

2009; Gwirayi, 2013; Davis & Gidycz, 2010; Walsh, Brandon and Chirio, 2012; World Health Organization, 2010; ; Zeuthen and Hagelskjær, 2013; Chikwiri & Lemmer, 2014; Weatherred, 2015; Chinyere, 2015).

In Zimbabwe the facts and figures on CSA in the school, community and home point to increased reporting on once unreported rape cases. This has been necessitated by different stakeholders, improved media coverage and sensitisation programmes around child abuse in general and the girl CSA in particular. Some rape cases that result in pregnancy are the ones that are reported, while most are settled out of court, even though they involve minors aged 16 and below. The Zimbabwe Republic Police reported that more than 100 girls are sexually abused every day in Zimbabwe (Mugabe *et al.*, 2016).

 Teachers, in their position of authority, also hold significant power over school children. Therefore, sexual abuse by teachers has been found to be a significant problem in Zimbabwean schools (Márquez-Hernández & Granados-Gámez, 2016; Call, 2019; Townsend & Dawes, 2004). The current economic climate in Zimbabwe has exacerbated the increase in CSA and trafficking of some young girls daily from schools to brothels. Some of the owners of the brothels instil so much fear in the girls that they will never open up. Many girls are being sexually abused on a daily basis but only a fraction (1/10) gets to be known. Most girl victims are sucked and made to suck male organs until ejaculation occurs, 'to cure AIDS'. Longstanding attitudes, perceptions and practices, like virginity tests, exchanging daughters for food (kuzvarira), inheriting one's sisters / aunt's husband after death (chimutsamapfiwa) and other sexual imitation ceremonies done to girls under the age of 16, expose children to sexual abuse. Prominent Zimbabwean women rights activist and secretary general of the Young Women Christian Association (YWCA), Nyaradzai Gumbonzvanda, during a workshop in Victoria Falls in September 2015, claimed that 39000 underage girls were being forced into marriages with older men each day throughout the world. She further argued that the problem of child marriages was not peculiar to African countries only, but, rather, a multidimensional problem in other continents as well.

2.5 Culture of silence

As already seen above, there is a disturbing culture of silence that has resulted in many cases of CSA going unreported.

The child may be threatened, bribed or tricked into keeping quiet about the abuse. Nyandiya-Bundy, in Taylor and Stewart (2014), conducted a research and concluded that sexual abuse is much more difficult to detect than other forms of abuse. The relationship between adult and child may continue for a long time as 'our little secret'. Rewards of sweets and pocket money may be dispensed by the adult, and finally threats of violence or rejection may be used to keep the secret guarded. Children rarely divulge the secret and sexual abuse is often detected through a sexually transmitted disease or resultant pregnancy (Muridzo, 2018; Finkelhor, 2009; Gwirayi, 2013). Organisations dealing with CSA in Zimbabwe support this view when they say that most victims suffer in silence as they are intimidated by the perpetrators, who are usually close relatives. This often results in the victims being abused several times.

One of the reasons for the silence may be because many children encounter disbelief or dismissal of their claims because adults do not wish to acknowledge that abuse is occurring. Consequently, victims may feel inadequate, embarrassed, isolated, guilty, shameful, and powerless (Alaggia, Collin-Vézina & Lateef, 2019). This is supported by research carried out by Chinyoka and Ganga (2019), which proved that most of the CSA cases were not new but had happened many years back. Many people suppress what they perceive as shameful secrets until later in life. Azzopardi, Eirich, Rash, MacDonald and Madigan (2019), McTavish, Sverdlichenko, MacMillan and Wekerle (2019), David, Ezechi, Wapmuk, Gbajabiamila, Ohihoin, Herbertson, and Odeyemi (2018) observe that in CSA, only a small proportion of victims disclose their experiences and among these, many wait to disclose until months or years after they have experienced the abuse.

The various forms of CSA are discussed below:

2.5.1 Intra-familial abuse (incest)

Incest, like other forms of sexual abuse, is where the perpetrator is known by the child. It often progresses from behaviour such as tickling or observing the child in the bath, to more obviously sexual and damaging behaviour such as mutual masturbation, oral sexual stimulation and anal or vaginal intercourse. Musiiwa (2018) and Finkelhor (2009) contend that children with stepfathers are most vulnerable to abuse even if the stepfather is not the perpetrator (Muridzo, 2018; Finkelhor, 2009; Lobi & Kheswa, 2017). Incest between a child or adolescent and a related adult has been identified as the most widespread form of CSA with a huge capacity for damage to a child (Gqgabi & Smit, 2019; Pereda, 2009; Aruna, 2018).

The most-often reported form of incest is father-daughter and stepfather-daughter incest, with most of the remaining reports consisting of mother/stepmother-daughter/son incest (Russell *etal*., 2020). Father-son incest is reported less often, although it is not known if the actual prevalence is less or under-reported by a greater margin (Child Line, 2018). Prevalence of parental CSA is difficult to assess due to secrecy and privacy.

2.5.2 Extra-familial abuse

This is a situation where molestation or rape of a child is done by those outside their homes and this includes strangers and a variety of people in the community. Extra-familial abusers also cajole and bribe, but may, in addition, use threats or even force (Cohen, 2012). When the perpetrator is a respected, well-known member of the community, it places the family in a very complicated situation, especially when it comes to reporting the abuse to the authorities and laying a criminal charge (Muridzo, 2018; De Witt, 2009).

In recent-immigrant communities where some residents may not be legal citizens, disclosing sexual abuse to child protection or law enforcement authorities can be especially risky for youth as well as adults who suspect CSA, since removal of a perpetrator may jeopardize other family relations through citizenship status checks and the threat of deportation (Tabachnick, 2011). The

family may not report to the police if their child is being sexually abused, and prefer to settle the matter on their own.

Africans believe that they should not wash their dirty linen in public. In Zimbabwe, rape cases are sometimes settled out of court when the perpetrator either pays compensation to the girl's father or pays bride price and marries the girl, to avoid bringing public attention and shame to the girl and her family. Some employed adults pay in order to protect their jobs (Prasad, 2018). If perpetrators are parents, relatives or guardians, the victims are intimidated and do not report, for fear of being punished. Mothers have been known for being reluctant to report cases of CSA even though they will be hurting inside. They will rather watch their children suffer silently, especially if the abuser is the breadwinner.

2.6 Factors contributing to child sexual abuse among girls

After understanding the meaning, forms and rate of disclosure above, it becomes imperative to look at the various factors that have been found to cause child sexual abuse among girls in Zimbabwe. With regards to the causes of child sexual abuse, a number of explanations have been given using different frameworks, including offender-focused explanations (McCrann, 2017; Ward and Beech, 2006; McGlynn & Rackley, 2017). These range from process-oriented (Dangerfield, Ildeniz, Ciardha, 2020) feminist (Clayton, Jones, Brown & Taylor, 2018) to multi-systemic models (European Commission, 2010). These frameworks differ in terms of their lists of sexual violence but they agree on certain factors. These are: "the majority of perpetrators are males, while the majority of victims of child sexual abuse are females. Most perpetrators are not strangers; rather, they know their victims and tend to prepare the offence through so-called grooming strategies (for example establishing a close emotional relationship with the child, "testing" it by telling secrets, giving gifts)" (Böhm, 2016:8). This frequently makes it difficult for other adults in the child's environment to believe that actual abuse is taking place, since the offender often appears to be someone who cares for the child. In addition, child sexual abuse occurs at any level of the child's interaction at home, school, community and the larger society (Muridzo, 2018; Antonowicz 2010:15; Magwa 2015; Gwirayi, 2014). In highlighting factors that make girls more vulnerable to child sexual abuse, the researcher refers to the Socio-Ecological Model.

SOCIAL ECOLOGICAL MODEL

INDIVIDUAL:
Factors in an individual's biological and personal history that increase the possibility of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence.

Example: Attitudes or beliefs that support sexual violence, impulsive and anti-social behaviors, history of abuse or witnessing abuse, alcohol or drug abuse.

RELATIONSHIP:
Factors within an individual's closest relationships, such as social peers, intimate partners, and family members that increase their risk.

Example: Association with sexually aggressive peers, emotionally unsupportive, physically violent or strongly patriarchal family environment.

COMMUNITY:
Factors on the community level such as relationships with schools, workplaces, and neighborhoods that may increase the individual's risk.

Example: General tolerance of sexual assault, lack of support from police or judicial system, poverty, weak community sanctions against perpetrators.

SOCIETAL:
Societal or cultural norms that create an environment that accepts or condones violence or inequality.

Example: Inequality due to an individuals gender, religion, culture, sexual orientation, or race. inequality due to economic and social policies.

[2]**Fig 2.1** *Causes of child sexual abuse among children.*

Source google images, accessed 2019

According to the Social Ecological Model, there are factors within the child or individual which make her vulnerable to CSA. Though children are not responsible for the abuse inflicted upon them, certain child characteristics have been found to increase their risk of being sexually abused. Some children face additional vulnerability owing to their gender (Brown, 2013) or poor socioeconomic background (Muridzo, 2018; Chinyoka, 2013). Wangamati, Sundby and Prince (2018), Glasby (2020), Cant, O'Donnell, Sims and Harries (2019) view perceived difficulties in the child, for example, being a stepchild, a disabled, a mentally challenged or an orphaned child as factors that increase vulnerability.

In a study carried out by Shumba (2011), it was discovered that children with disabilities were vulnerable to child abuse in their schools. In agreement are Jones (2012), Krohn (2014:4), Mapp (2011:118), Fergusson *et al.* (2013), Putnam (2003), Glasby (2020), who point out that children

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with disabilities are more susceptible to sexual abuse than others. In most cases people look down upon them and perceive girls with disabilities as passive and weak.

Besides inherent disability, the gender factor also plays a significant role in sexual abuse. The paradigms of upbringing that do not expect girls to withstand (social) hardships and to be resilient in the face of adversity leaves them vulnerable to issues such as poverty (Osujo, 2010; Gordon, 2008). An example from this perspective is that in instances where the family cannot afford tuition fees, decent clothing and/or school uniforms, girls seem to be less likely to seek alternative means to generate income to maintain themselves at school (Fry, 2003; Muridzo, 2018; Musiiwa, 2018; Hammond, Linton, Sminkand Drew, 2007).

Sexual abuse is a product of a troubled society which is characterised by factors such as changes in family dynamics, isolation of children, physical neglect and substitute care (Gwirayi, 2014; Loffell, 2007). Child sexual abuse does not occurin a vacuum. In many cases, the abuse has to do with the child's immediate family. Factors in the family, such as parenting styles, breakdown of family systems, poor housing facilities and economic challenges have been found to exacerbate child sexual abuse. Many families are being subjected to social problems like death due to cancer, the HIV/AIDS pandemic and divorce, leaving many children orphaned. As a result of this, there has been an increase in child-headed families in which children are forced to take up adult roles that deprive them of their right to childhood.

According to Hunter (2010:15), WHO (2010) and Child Line (2015), children have shown to be more vulnerable to child sexual abuse following parental separation, when they are living with single parents. Mendelson and Letourneau (2015), concur and assert that most children are vulnerable due to unstable households. If parents are experiencing problems with the sexual side of their relationship, there is an increased risk of incest (Spies, 2006:15; Meyer and Kotzè, 1994: 154).

In some families, parenting styles have a hand in child sexual abuse. Santrock (2010) perceives parenting as a psychological construct representing standard strategies that parents use in their child rearing. The personality styles of girls from neglectful parents are characterised by social

incompetence, poor self-control and failure to handle independence well (Ellis, 2003). Due to neglectful parental style, the neglected girls become more vulnerable to sexual abuse.

Families of today generally can no longer provide the same support, rules and guidelines in the same way our ancestors used to. Family values and authority are continually weakening and this sometimes means that girls have to make important decisions on their own. This creates a potentially dangerous situation which worsens the plight of girls and exposes them to child sexual abuse. Bowlby (1998), cited in Howe (2005), Formella (2020), and Garcia, Fuentes, Gracia, Serra Garcia (2020) posit that due to cruel parenting, children often exhibit attachment patterns of insecurity and anxiety. Mwamwenda (2004) points out that after interacting with learners in South Africa, he learnt that a parent can never be said to be wrong and even when he/she is wrong, the child is expected to just obey the parent. According to Guma and Henda (2004) and Rizvi and Najam (2019), children are socialised to respect and obey their elders and harsh methods of discipline are still used to enforce parental control. This unquestionable authority of adults allows for sexual violence to occur without much resistance from children (Fomella, 2020; Townsend and Dawes, 2004). The girl child is drilled into submission and this blind obedience creates room for sexual abuse as the elders abuse their authority and respect.

Playing house is when children allocate each other roles and positions like those in family set ups. The one who emulates the role of the father and the other of the mother usually become intimate during the play. Goldman and Goldman reported that 57% of incest involved siblings. Finkelhor (2010) reported that over 90% of nuclear family incest involved siblings, while Cawson, Wattam, Brooker and Kelly (2000), Salam, Mullick, Khanam and Nahar (2016), Gul, HGul, Yurumez and Öncü, 2020, and Cofnas (2020) show that sibling incest was reported twice as often as incest perpetrated by fathers/stepfathers. It is estimated that it occurs five times more often than parent-child incest. Playing house is common in Zimbabwe.

Arata (2010) observed that girls are abused because of their lack of knowledge about sexual abuse and when they fall victims, they do not report the crime for fear of being blamed for the

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ordeal. Melsrose (2014) identified parents' supervision as a causative factor contributing to child sexual abuse in Ireland. Melrose (2014) contends that mostly, victims who are abused in unfamiliar territories have parents who are strict and would have prevented them from being exposed to surrounding areas. This strict supervision of young girls makes them ignorant of the real dangers of surrounding areas, which perpetrators of child sexual abuse can take advantage of.

The economic situation in Zimbabwe is not favourable for families to spend time together. Many parents spend most of their time at work or work away from home. This leads to poor protection of children and exposes them to child sexual abuse.

Many people are being laid off from work, thus increasing the number of jobless people. The children of these people may be forced to engage in child prostitution or decide to live on the streets where they will be sexually assaulted, hence worsening the problem of child sexual abuse. Mapp (2011), Wangamati, Sundby and Prince (2018) and Franchino-Olsen (2019) assert that poverty can create a chance for sexual abuse as children may be attracted into performing sexual acts in return for material or financial returns. This is supported by Antonowicz (2010:28) and Chung, Siegel, Garg, Conroy, Gross, Long and Yin (2016), who concur that poverty is a root cause of child sexual abuse. The researcher agrees with this sentiment as girl children can be vulnerable to peer influence. Form Two girl learners are treated as teenagers and at this stage, they might be unable to make healthy decisions for themselves, without peer influence. It has been established that adolescents typically have a tendency to spend considerably more time with their peers than their parents (Cui, Criss, Ratliff, Houltberg, Silk & Morris, 2020; Steinberg and Morris, 2001:93).

Due to financial constraints and poverty, some parents turn to alcohol and drug abuse. This results in the family having poor control of adult behaviour, leading the family to take advantage of the children sexually.

Human Rights Watch (2001) and Athiemoolam, de Lange and Khau (2020) state that unequal power relations provide men with space to sexually abuse children. Perpetrators are mainly male adults and youth who are known to the girl, in particular relatives and acquaintances (Benedet, 2020; Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi 2013; Makoae *et al.*, 2009). In some instances, sexual abuse is used as a means to punish a mother or the girl child, with rape used as a display of control (Jewkes *et al.*, 2005; Mathews, 2019; Young, 2018). In Zimbabwe, boys are brought up as being superior to girls. This socialisation makes them treat girls as second-class citizens even later in life. Male domination in all African countries has made women and girls vulnerable. Their position in society makes them dependent on their male counterparts for economic, political and social gain. As a result, Benedet (2020) observes that males take advantage of this situation and sexually exploit girls in exchange for shelter, food or gifts. Ruto (2009) claims that patriarchal societies have also promoted child marriages and prostitution, with evidence pointing out that on average, 23% of 13-17-year-old children from Lesotho, Swaziland, Zambia, Namibia, Uganda and Zimbabwe have either been forced into early marriages or engaged in prostitution.

Most towns in Zimbabwe are overcrowded and usually, this leads to many families sharing accommodation. Overcrowded housing, thus, leads to loss of privacy and increases the risk of child sexual abuse (Chinyoka, 2013). Children are made to share the bedroom with their parents and some see the sexual activities between their parents, causing them to be curios and try it with peers. In the same vein, Olsen (2010:12) affirms that poor or insufficient sleeping provisions lead to overcrowding and sharing of beds, factors which could lead to inappropriate sexual behaviour. In some of these set-ups, that is where brother to sister incest occurs.

The open discussion of sex is widely considered taboo and a topic reserved for adults in many contexts (Muridzo, 2018; Anarfi, 2003; Guneand Manuel, 2011; Tamale, 2011). As a result, many adults struggle with the open discussion of sex with children (Pattman & Chege, 2003). So do teachers in some instances. Teachers often feel uncomfortable teaching various aspects of sexuality due to personal moral values (Dzifa, 2016; Beyers 2011; Nyimbili, Mainza, Mumba &

Katunansa, 2019). This has caused men to abuse young girls, knowing that they will not report the abuse.

It is worth mentioning that there has been a high level of sexual ignorance among the African girl children because of lack of sex education, which is regarded as taboo in most African societies (Mkhize, Mphatheni & Olofinbiyi, 2020; Hoot, Tadesse & Abdella, 2006; Muridzo & Chikadzi, 2020). This generally leads to misconceptions about what constitutes child sexual abuse. Due to sexual abuse's hidden nature, most victims are too traumatised to even confide in someone about their experience of abuse. Worku *et al.* (2006:137) and Muridzo (2020) point out that child sexual abuse often goes unnoticed and undocumented, partly due to taboo and its highly sensitive nature, and because it particularly affects the less powerful individuals in society (children, adolescents, and women). According to Yoder and Khan (2008), an estimate of ten million women above the age of 10 are reportedly living with the trauma of sexual abuse which they once experienced in their lives.

One of the main causes of early marriages is the great desire of the guardian or the father of the girl to acquire wealth. This has an effect of perceiving the girl child as the property of male members of the family in Africa. Bride price (roora) is defined as the payment of money or other material things for the purpose of entering into a valid marriage and in Zimbabwe, the acceptance of roora is an essential requirement for entering into a customary marriage. In Africa, some families conceive it as a source of income to the family and this makes child marriages very common.

Some religious beliefs that perpetuate and encourage polygamous unions provide fertile ground for girl child sexual abuse. According to Macrann (2017), African traditions and cultures have subjected girls to sexual abuse. Through these factors, sexual abuse has been institutionalised within the society. Young girls are tacitly prepared for marriage to older men. This is worse in situations where churches do not allow children to go to school. This is very common in Zimbabwe with the JohanneMarange Apostolic Sect. Child sexual abuse is extensively spreading

among religious groupings (Sibanda, 2011; Pinheiro, 2006; Muridzo, 2018; Muchacha, 2015). Chiremba and Rukuni (2002), Musiwa (2019), and Chinyoka, Chingombe and Mugabe (2016) argue that cultural or traditional perspectives in Zimbabwe seem to condone child sexual abuse. There are some practices that are cultural but indirectly encourage child sexual abuse. This view is also supported by Palmer and Feldman (2017), Somer and Szwarcberg (2001), Johnson (2004), Hinds and Giardino (2020), Sanderson (2004) and Horsman (2017), who state that some common practices and stereotypes can assist perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

 In the Shona or Ndebele cultures, the male is allowed to sexually play with, or touch his wife's, younger sister, or his wife's brother's daughter, even when she is a child. Traditionally, such girls are regarded as potential successors to their married sisters when they die or become old women. The girl can even be taken on as a second wife in her older sister's or aunt's household. This practice is known as 'chiramu' or' sibale' in the Shona and Ndebele culture, respectively (Muridzo, 2015). Hanzi (2006) concurs that some men are inclined to treat their wive's younger sisters as their own sexual property *(kutamba chiramu),* even if there is no plan of a second marriage. The researcher views this practice of '*kutamba chiramu*' as exposing the girl child to abuse. This is because there appears to be a few guidelines governing these 'sexual touching rights' or sexual play. This activity also involves young girls who are immature about sexual matters.

Long-standing attitudes perceptions and practices expose children to sexual abuse. These include virginity tests, exchanging daughters for food (kuzvarira) inheriting one's sisters/aunt's husband after death (chimutsamapfiwa) and sexual imitation ceremonies done to girls under the age of 16 (Kirton, 2011:190; Thompson & Wilkinson, 2010:49). *'Kuzvarira'* entails marrying off a very young or even unborn girl to an old man, for economic reasons or for friendship (Muridzo, 2018). Many cultures, especially African ones, practise arranged marriages, which are often arranged when the children are at very young (Thompson & Wilkinson, 2010:49). Related to this practice are cases where a girl is given to another family in order to appease an angry spirit or *'ngozi'*. In Zimbabwe, a law which forbids sexual intercourse with a girl until she reaches the age of sixteen has been put in place. If the girl is less than twelve years, the association is called

statutory rape. 'Speak Out/Taurai/Khulumani Volume 9' explains that this law has been made to protect girls because at that age, even if they agree, they are not yet old enough to fully realise what it means in their lives to have a sexual relationship. Another reason is that such girls are still too immature in their bodies, mental state and emotional development to properly take the responsibility of bearing and rearing children.

There are cases where a wife encourages her husband to sleep with her young sister. This is because she would have heard rumours that her husband would be considering taking another wife and she would prefer her sister to a woman unrelated to her to be the second wife. Reports made to Musasa Project and Child Line have shown that sexual abuse of girl children by male relatives is a significant problem in all the contemporary Zimbabwean cultures.

Moreover, CSA is viewed as something that is extremely unAfrican, unnatural and atypical. The presence of CSA would be an attack on the masculinity of the African male (MaCrann, 2017). However, Muridzo (2018), Magwa (2016), Gwirayi (2013), and Masiwa (2019) report that studies conducted in Zimbabwe established that half of reported cases involve girls less than 15 years of age and that girls are more vulnerable to sexual abuse by male relatives, neighbours and school teachers.

There are some *'n'angas'* or traditional healers who perpetrate child sexual abuse through the prescriptions they make. They may encourage incest and sex with minors due to the belief that the perpetrator will be cured of HIV/AIDS. Some traditional healers claim that having sex with a child is a charm to ward off evil (Meel, 2020; Mpofu, Chiremba & Kent, 2003; Chingwaru & Vidmar, 2018). Chavhunduka (Speak Out/Taurai/ Khulumani, Volume 11) confirms that some traditional healers prescribe that a man sleeps with his own daughter or sister so as to be successful. This usually happens with businessmen and farmers.

Speaking at a conference on the issue of child sexual abuse, Zimbabwe's then Attorney General, Chinamasa, is quoted in SAPA-DPA 20 March 1997 as saying:

Take a hard re-look at our culture and you will realise as I have done, that our culture has not only turned a blind eye to case of child sexual abuse but has indeed glorified and given respectability to certain of the child sexual abuses.

Taylor and Stewart (2014), is of the same view when he says that certain aspects of traditional culture definitely promote the incidents and increase the prevalence of child sexual abuse. Much of it has to do with the male-dominated society that regards women as possessions, hence the need by the researcher to take a close look at the causes of child sexual abuse and suggest protective measures which can be offered by educationists. The struggle, therefore, is not merely to remove a repressive system, it is also to get rid of retrogressive cultures and attitudes that weigh heavily upon society's progress.

This CSA, consequently, led to emotional meltdown, psychological problems as well as social insecurity among the victims (Sanjeevi, Houlihan, Bergstrom, Langley & Judkins, 2018; Holmes, 2011; Daray, Rojas, Bridges, Badour, Grendas, Rodante & Rebok, 2016). This is affirmed by Worku *et al.* (2006:137) who point out that child sexual abuse often goes unnoticed and undocumented, partly due to taboo and its highly sensitive nature, and because it particularly affects the less powerful individuals in society, for example, children, adolescents, and women. According to Yoder and Khan (2008), an estimate of ten million women over the age of 10 are reportedly living with the trauma of sexual abuse once experienced in their lives. The culture of silence in reporting child sexual abuse causes further abuse of the victim.

2.7 Consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child

Child sexual abuse is widely regarded as having a negative impact on the social and interpersonal functioning of primary and secondary school learners (Hlupo and Tsikira, 2013). Children and adolescents who have been sexually abused suffer from psychological trauma and display behavioural problems ranging from mild to severe disorders in both the short and long term (Chinyoka & Ganga, 2018; Sanjeevi, Houlihan, Bergstrom, Langley & Judkins, 2018; Mii,McCoy, Coffey, Meidlinger, Sonnen, Huit & Hansen, 2020). As a result of such abuse, many victims live through feelings of confusion, guilt, anger, mistrust, sadness, and emotional

deprivation. Research has established that child sexual abuse is insidious, hideous and a persistent, serious problem which has a devastating, grave life-long effect on the victims because it generates anguish and disruption in the lives of the children (Mugabe, Chingombe & Chinyoka, 2016). It is believed that most sexual abuse cases are not reported, detected or prosecuted due to, *inter alia*, cultural and religious factors (Fontes & Plummer, 2010; Chinyoka, 2013; Muridzo, 2020; Many, 2018).

Girl children are not a homogeneous group. As a result, the nature and extent of the consequences of CSA can differ significantly between groups of girl children. Knowledge of the consequences of child sexual abuse is important for the formulation of appropriate preventative strategies and intervention measures to be undertaken by various stakeholders, ranging from family to policy makers.

Research has shown that girl CSA has been linked to a wide range of adverse outcomes such as psychological, emotional and social trauma. These extend into adulthood. Research shows consequences including mental health problems and suicide (Tang, Qu, Li & Tan, 2018; Ding, Wen, Guo, Luo, Song & Zheng, 2018; Demir, Surucu, Koroglu & Akbas, 2018), poor reproductive health and substance abuse (Masiwa, 2019; Young, Cénat, Blais, Lavoie & Guerrier, 2016) neglect of medical care (Bair-Merritt, Blackstone & Feudtner, 2006), anti-social behaviours (Diaz, Shankar, Nucci-Sack, Linares, Salandy, Strickler & Schlecht, 2020; Fisher, Goldsmith, Hurcombe & Soares, 2017); low academic performance (Mugabe et al., 2016; Muridzo, 2020; Masiwa, 2019; Magwa, 2016; Gwirayi, 2013; Boden, Horwood & Fergusson, 2007; Many, 2018), as well as perpetration of violence against future generations (Amato, 2000; Fulu *et al.*, 2017; Holt *et al.*, 2008). In the same line of thinking are Landsberg *et al.* (2007:12); Louw and Kail (2007:27-28); Roth and Lee (2007:186-232), who agree that girl child sexual abuse interacts with a child's progressive stages of development (Young, Deardorff, Ozer & Lahiff, 2011), hence the need by this researcher to examine the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child.

Some forms of child sexual abuse, such as rape, can lead to the spread of sexually transmitted infections such as HIV and AIDS. Furthermore, girl child holistic development can suffer since child sexual abuse is associated with an increased risk of lifetime diagnoses of several psychiatric disorders, including depression, anxiety disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder, and personality disorders (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Cutajar *et al.*, 2010; Fergusson *et al.*, 2013; Godbout, Briere, Sabourin & Lussier, 2014; Elizabeth, 2019; Karatos, 2020). This concurs with Kamiya,Timonen and Kenny (2016), Fisher, Goldsmith, Hurcombe and Soares (2017), Chiremba and Kent (2003:115), who posit that child sexual abuse victims can suffer from nausea, disrupted eating habits, urinary tract infections, genital warts, sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Girls may get pregnant and feelings of pain in the genital parts are common. Due to lack of intervention programmes, the abused girls are also more likely to engage in sexual risk taking, causing them to be 25% more likely to experience teen pregnancy and placing them at greater risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases (Dovran *et al.*, 2016; Hahm, Simons & Simons, 2016; Houck, Nugent, Lescano, Peters & Brown, 2010; Senn, Carey & Vanable, 2008; Gavril *et al*., 2012; Russell, Higgins and Posso, 2020; Mathew, 2017; Gwirayi, 2013).

There is a heightened risk of HIV transmission as a result of the vaginal, hymeneal or cervical lacerations and worse still, some of the girls lose their virginity to, or are sexually abused by, HIV-infected men. This is supported by researchers who indicate that STIs such as herpes simplex virus type 2 infections, gonorrhoea, or chlamydia enhance girls' vulnerability to HIV (Saul, Bachman, Allen, Toiv, Cooney & Beamon, 2018; Buye *etal.*, 2001; Hossain, Sultana & Mazumder, 2018; Nour, 2006; Mujeri, 2020; Karim, Baxter & Birx, 2017). Furthermore, a study conducted in Kenya and Zambia in 2004 found that married girls aged 15-19 years were 75 percent more likely to contract HIV than sexually active, unmarried girls of the same age (Clark, 2004). Similar figures have been found in 29 countries across Africa and Latin America (Clark *et al*., 2006). The victims may require increased healthcare facilities and the family is expected to meet the expenses.

Experiencing CSA has been associated with a wide range of adverse physical health outcomes. Acute physical injuries to the genital area can result from penetrative abuse, as can sexually transmitted infections (Gwirayi, 2013; Chinyoka, 2013; Mujeri, 2020). Research suggests that people with a history of CSA have a greater number of doctor and hospital contacts, 20 per cent higher than those who have not experienced CSA (Becker, 2010), which can be an indicator of poor physical health. Some girl children report 'medically unexplained' symptoms, which can include non-epileptic seizures and chronic pain (UNICEF, 2013).

In support of the above, Becker (2010) outlined some of the specific health conditions that have been linked with CSA as outlined below in Table 2:1.

[1]**Table 2:1 Mental health conditions associated with CSA**

Depression	**Persistent low mood that affects a person's daily life.**
Anxiety	**Feelings of unease worry and fear.**
Post-traumatic stress disorder	**A form of anxiety that can emerge after experiencing or witnessing traumatic events.**
Dissociation	**Feeling disconnected in some way from the world around you. Can include memory loss and an altered sense of identity.**
Self-harm	**Causing direct and deliberate harm to oneself, such as by cutting or hitting oneself.**
Suicide attempts or suicidal ideation	**Intentionally killing oneself, attempting to do so, or having thoughts of doing so.**
Eating disorders	**Issues with eating and a problematic relationship with food.**

Personality disorders	Particular groups of attitudes, beliefs and behaviours that cause long-standing problems.
Perinatal problems	Emotional and psychological problems associated with pregnancy and childbirth. Includes postnatal depression and postnatal psychosis.
Psychosis	A loss of connection with reality. Can include hallucinations and delusions.
Schizophrenia	Changes in behaviour, thoughts and functioning which can include psychotic episodes (hallucinations, delusions, etc.) and disorganised thinking and speech.
Bipolar disorder	Episodic mood states including feeling high (manic) or low (depressed).

Becker (2010)

Alexander (2011) calls sexual abuse a "chronic neurologic disease" and discusses how the effects create decades of negative consequences for victims. As has been highlighted by Table 3:1, the consequences of CSA can include depression, eating disorders, post-traumatic stress and an impaired ability to cope with stress or emotions (Allnock *et al*., 2009). Shrivastava, Karia, Sonavane and De Sousa (2017), Adams, Mrug and Knight (2018); McCarthy-Jones (2018), found the long-term effects of maltreatment to include poor self-esteem, difficulty in trusting others, anxiety, feelings of isolation and stigma, depression, self-destructive tendencies, sexual maladjustment, and substance abuse.

Children who have been sexually abused may display unusual behaviour. If abuse is not disclosed or discovered, or when children do not receive the right kind of help and support following a disclosure, the damage can last a lifetime (Goodyear-Brown, 2012; Mugabe and Beyers, 2020). Numerous studies provide empirical support for the presence of some type of behavioural disturbances, for example aggression, delinquency and hyperactivity. There is an overwhelming amount of empirical evidence to indicate that child sexual abuse has a profound impact on the lives of the victims as a result of their experiences and memories of these experiences (Spies, 2006:62; Muridzo, 2020; Musiwa, 2019; Richardson, 2005:2; Dominquez, Nelke & Perry, 2001: 3; Gwirayi, 2013; Mathews, 2019; Matlin, 2000:485; Retief, 2000:16-17; Gray & Rarick, 2018; McCarthy-Jones, 2018; Fergusson & Mullen, 1999; Many, 2018; Krahé & Berger, 2017; Zatti, Rosa, Barros, Valdivia, Calegaro, Freitas & Schuch, 2017; Hébert, Cénat, Blais, Lavoie & Guerrier, 2016). Although not all the victims demonstrate these problems, research suggests that some behavioural response is more common in males than in female victims, with parents more likely to react to behaviours that are extremely disruptive. Psychological research also shows that boys tend to express distress through externalization and girls through internalization (Becker, 2010). Using standardised measures of symptoms, researchers have found out that children who are sexually abused, whether or not they seek out mental health services, may suffer from a wide range of physiological conditions which include anxiety, depression, dissociation, hostility and anger, impaired relationships, low self-esteem, sexual dysfunction, sleep disturbances and being suicidal (Liasak, 2014). Ritchie (2009) and Bakar and Rabiu (2019) state that rape causes trauma in a minor's life. This might end up causing the individual to fail to adapt well in society, if proper measures are not taken.

A study on the use of standardised measures in examining sexually abused boys and girls conducted by the Tufts New England Medical Centre reported that nearly half of the children in the age-group of seven to thirteen showed substantially elevated levels of hostility on scales of aggression and antisocial behaviour (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 2014; Muridzo, 2018). Other studies showed that more than half of the CSA victims showed behavioural disturbances such as defiance, disruptive behaviour within the family, and fighting with siblings (Many, 2018; DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 2014; Muridzo, 2018). There have also been clinical reports of

aggressive behaviour including delinquency, verbal explosiveness and argumentativeness (Becker, 2010). CSA can have a more fundamental effect on brain functioning, where a child's brain becomes damaged by the abuse they have suffered (Mizenberg, Poole & Vinogradov, 2008). According to Jewkes *et al.*, (2010), Sanderson, (2013), Young, Riggs & Robinson, (2011); Mathews etal, (2012) depression, suicidal thoughts and/ or attempts, as well as alcohol and drug abuse have also been associated with emotional, physical and sexual abuse. Messman-Moore and Long (2000) and Muridzo (2020) aver that childhood sexual abuse was associated with increased likelihood of drug dependence, alcohol dependence, and psychiatric disorders. The effects of sexual abuse can include dissociation, memory impairment and reduced social functioning (Whitehead, 2011). According to Chinyoka (2013), CSA causes psychological distress due to early marriages, premarital sex, and sexual abuse, which in turn, lead to poor interaction among peers, teachers and parents, an inferiority complex, a low self-esteem among the girl children, and poor social, emotional, moral, cognitive and psychological adjustments.

These findings affirm what other researchers have found: a clear link between a history of CSA and higher rates in adult life of depression, anxiety, substance abuse, eating disorders, and post-traumatic stress disorder (Mullen & Fleming, 2008). On the other hand, there are some children who are raised in child abuse but manage to do unexpectedly well later in life regarding the preconditions. Such children have been termed *dandelion children*, as inspired from the way that dandelions seem to prosper irrespective of soil, sun, drought, or rain (Finkelman, 2015). Such children (or currently grown-ups) are of high interest in finding factors that mitigate the effects of child abuse.

Studies have found that 51% to 79% of sexually abused children exhibit psychological symptoms (Pereda *et al*., 2009). According to Bonomi *et al*. (2008), the risk of harm is greater if the abuser is a relative, if the abuse involves intercourse or attempted intercourse, or if threats of force are used. The level of harm may also be affected by various factors such as penetration, duration and frequency of abuse, and use of force (Bonomi, 2008). The social stigma of CSA may compound the psychological harm to children, but adverse outcomes are less likely for abused children who have supportive family environments (Pereda, 2009). Research

(DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 2014; Muridzo, 2018) suggests that CSA is associated with an increased risk of externalising behaviours, including substance misuse, inappropriate or 'risky' sexual behaviours, anti-social behaviour, and offending.

A consistent finding in research describing consequences of CSA is the increase in sexualised behaviour (Liask, 2014). Studies using standardised measures of assessment have indicated that sexually abused children tend to be more involved with sexual ideation and behaviour. Mugabe and Beyers (2020) describe premature sexualisation as a process in which a child's sexuality (including sexual feelings, attitudes and behaviour) is shaped in a developmentally inappropriate and interpersonally dysfunctional fashion as a result of sexual abuse. The child may become pre-occupied with sexual activities and display bizarre, sophisticated sexual behaviour which is excessive or inappropriate for her age. She may also masturbate with an object, act out adult sexual behaviour with another child, or talk about sex too much and include vulgar language in the speech. Some children may act out their sexual victimisation by molesting younger children or trying to touch their private parts. The child may not be aware of how her behaviour appears to other people and may feel hurt or confused when adults accost her sexually (Cohen, 2002; Peterson, Janssen, Goodrich, Forte-Berry, Hensel & Heiman, 2018).

Children who have been sexually abused may also develop somatic or psycho-physiological problems that may be related to the abuse (Whitehead, 2011). The Tufts' New England Medical Centre reported such problems as somatic complaints, including sleep disturbance, nightmares and phobias in the children they assessed. According to Bottoms and Epstein (2009), anxiety, fear and suicidal ideas are associated with a history of CSA as supported by Freud's psychoanalysis, and Erikson's theory, which state that early life experiences may shape later life personalities (Ganga, 2013).

Most children feel that the world is a safe place and they do not have to be constantly watching out for danger. A child who has been sexually abused may, thus, feel betrayed by the adult world, especially if the abuse is intra-familial. The parent or sibling would have abused his

power, the child's natural trust and affection, as well as her general obedience. The betrayal may also be on the part of the non-abusive parent, for failing to provide adequate protection. The closer the relationship between the perpetrator and the child, the deeper the sense of betrayal and loss of trust within the abused child.

Children who have been sexually abused often isolate themselves from friends or family because of their feelings of being 'bad', 'dully or 'different' (Sanderson, 2013). They may feel unable to protect themselves, are vulnerable to invasion from others and may develop a sense of low esteem. According Muridzo (2018), the isolation may be actively encouraged by the perpetrator as a means of continuing the abuse. The silence which surrounds incest makes it difficult for children to speak out. When they do so, they may not be believed and may actually feel rejected by parents, siblings and other family members. CSA, particularly incest, sets up a volatile triangle of conflict and rivalry between family members, which is disorienting for the child. This is because the child is often torn between feelings of love and hate for the perpetrator, which she cannot comprehend. She wants the abuse to end but not the relationship with the family.

Sexually abused children are often threatened, both physically and mentally, 'not to tell'. In the Researcher's observation sexually abused girls live in a continuous state of fear and anxiety not only during the period of the abuse, but for many years after it has stopped. This fear is often extended from the perpetrator to fear of any adult who attempts to get close to the child, for fear of retaliation, own safety and recurrence. Protection must be provided for the child.

A sexually abused child has a very difficult time placing responsibility for the abuse where it belongs - with the perpetrator (Mugabe, 2016). It is a constant struggle for her to determine who is responsible for the abuse, who the victim is and who the aggressor is. It is more likely that the child will internalise responsibility and blame herself for the perpetrator's abusive behaviour. A child may blame herself for the following reasons. The perpetrator may have said words to make the child feel responsible for the abusive behaviour. The perpetrator may have cultivated a special relationship with the child and offered special rewards or privileges for the child's co-

operation or silence. The child may feel guilty and blame herself for enjoying the special treatment, especially if it interfered with seeking help quickly. The abused child may experience some covert power and will feel guilty about using the secret to manipulate the perpetrator or other family members. The child may think her behaviour provoked the abusive behaviour.

The child may feel guilty about what happened after the abuse was disclosed, especially if the family has financial problem or is experiencing shame, sadness anger or loss from the removal of the perpetrator.

Many problems within the realm of social functioning and interpersonal relationships have been noted in victims of CSA. Some of these problems include illegal use of drugs and alcohol, having difficulty in school and running away from home. Such problems are often associated with attempts to avoid an abusive home environment. Through identification with the aggressor, the child has learnt inappropriate ways to satisfy the need for intimacy, control and power. She has learned that intrusive and controlling behaviours are the norm and will use these behaviours for management of stress and anxiety, problem solving and social and intimate interactions. All these issues can, however, be dealt with, with the aim of improving the child's personality so that he/she develops behaviour that is acceptable in the society.

2.8 Effects of CSA on academic performance

Mafumbate (2011) refers to academic performance as the degree to which a learner performs in all areas of learning after undergoing assessment in an area of content covered within a specific time/period. It should be noted that this covers both main and co-curricular activities. All this can be negatively affected when a child has been sexually abused. Within many classrooms, there are one or more learners who are being sexually abused. The effects thereof could hamper their adequate academic progress (Woolfolk, 2010). Studies of classroom interaction and the assumptions that underlie it indicate that classrooms are settings in which certain pupils are 'sponsored' for success, while others are nudged towards failure (Haralambos & Holborn, 2010). CSA has an effect on the way a child learns and performs at school. CSA is widely regarded as

having a negative impact on social and interpersonal functioning of primary school learners (Hlupo and Tsikira, 2013). Brodsky and Giannetta (2001) posit that experiencing sexual abuse may impact children's school performance in multiple ways, including lower grades, increased absences, increased disciplinary problems, and higher rate of school dropout. Finkelhor and Browne (2015), for example, argue that sexual abuse had four primary effects. These include traumatic sexualisation, stigmatization, that is, low self-esteem and self-destructive behaviour, betrayal, and powerlessness. An abused child significantly withdraws from normal social activities. From the context of school-based abuse prevention programmes, it appeared that most programmes assumed that perpetrators were strangers, whereas the bulk of evidence suggested that most sexual abuse was committed by a known abuser (Mugabe etal. 2016; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams Hoeve, 2019; Mugabe and Beyers, 2020).

There is an overwhelming amount of empirical evidence to indicate that CSA has a profound impact on the lives of the victims as a result of their experiences and their memories of these experiences (Mathew, 2018; Call, 2018; King, 2019; Muridzo, 2020; Spies, 2006).

Child sexual abuse is associated with intellectual deficit and other academic problems such as a delay in acquiring language and problems in Mathematics and reading tests (Berliner and Elliott, 2002). Child sexual abuse can negatively influence the child's potential to develop skills and abilities and master core concepts and important aspects of the curriculum, thereby affecting their growth and development. The development of concentration problems at school, anxiety, poor school attendance (Kearney, 2006) and fluctuation in school performance and school learning problems. Girls who are maltreated are less attentive and engaged in school, have higher absenteeism, lower grades, lower test scores, and are more likely to drop out of school than girls who are not maltreated (Shonk and Cicchetti, 2001; Vig and Kaminer, 2002; Leiter, 2007; Langsford, Miller-Johnson, Berlin, Dodge, Bates and Pettit, 2007).

Sexually abused girls drop out of school. A research by Szierler *et al.* (1991) indicated that people who reported childhood rape, compared with people who did not, were four times more

likely to be working as prostitutes. Abused women were nearly three times more likely to become pregnant before the age of 18, yet at their age they must be in school, laying a solid foundation for their future. For those who remain at school, research has shown that most perform poorly and are not motivated in school activities. This notion is supported by various researchers who concur that when a child is being abused, his/her education is disrupted and this has a profound impact on the ability of the child to concentrate at school (Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2013; De Witt, 2009:248; Barker and Hodes, 2007:39; Kapoor, 2007:2; AACAP, 2004:2 [fact sheet No. 9]; Louw, 2000: 24; ZEllis, 2019:173; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Muridzo, 2018; Hall and Lloyd, 1993:89; Mugabe *et al.*, 2016; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams & Hoeve, 2019). An affected country is not only robbed of the opportunity to develop its citizens' full potential academically through sexual abuse but also of benefiting from its citizens' talent and manpower development, for the growth of the economy.

Feelings of guilt and a build-up of depression (Ramaswamy 2019; Spies, 2012; Mathew *et al.*, 2012; Brain, 2006), disturbances such as panic attacks, sleeping problems (insomnia, nightmares), eating disorders (Whitehead, 2010) are associated with sexual abuse. Sexual abuse that involves penetration can result in severe, immediate injuries, such as genital pain and pregnancy among pubertal females (Child Line, 2009). Ongoing effects may include genital abnormalities, sexually transmitted diseases, and abdominal pain. Gastrointestinal disorders are common amongst women who were sexually abused as children, contracting sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS or gonorrhoea creates serious health risks for the victims of sexual abuse. It can also have physical consequences for children, from sexually transmitted diseases to pregnancy. These physical effects add to the significant emotional and psychological damage inflicted by the abuse (Whitehead, 2010).

The state of health that an abused child is in will either enhance her ability to learn, or become a barrier to learning. A child's health is dependent on many factors, such as well-balanced, nutritious meals on a regular basis, regular exercise, and sufficient fresh air and sunlight (Kibel & Guthrie, 2001:10). The home is the primary source of learning for any child and, therefore, the circumstances in the home have a profound effect on the education of a child (Louw & Louw,

2007; Tutty, Aubry & Velásquez, 2020). A child whose general health is poor already has a barrier to learning in that she is generally unable to establish and maintain an acceptable level of academic performance (Prinsloo, 2007). A student who is not in good health suffers from detrimental effects on her attention span, energy levels, school attendance, and conscientiousness. If pregnant, this may result in dropping out of school and the thought of being HIV positive may result in one being suicidal. According to Kufakunesu (2014), Friedrich (2011) and Danielle (2010), for a learner to perform optimally at school, the holistic environment needs to be conducive to effective learning. This shows that there is a relationship between conditions at home and those at school. There should be authentic pedagogic relationships and an atmosphere of trust, caring, support and guidance (King, 2016; Call, 2018; Freyd, DePrince & Zurbriggen, 2001; Chinyoka, 2012; Mathew, 2018). Therefore, it cannot be disputed that there is correlation between good psychological health and good academic performance.

While CSA effects are related to poor academic performance, it will be myopic and an underestimation of a rather complex issue to say that sexual abuse alone affects the academic performance of abused children. There are also other moderating variables such as level ofcommitment of the teachers, cultural practices, teacher pupil ratio, learning facilities and infrastructure, the influence of the media social networks (especially, Facebook, internet and whatsApp) on the children and genetic factors of the learners (Chinyoka 2013; Omundi, 2013). Bernard (2012) concurs with this notion that some sexually abused children become high academic achievers because they channel all their energies towards focusing on their schoolwork as a coping and compensating mechanism. Bernard (2012), Ellis (2019), and Yule, Houston & Grych (2019) concluded that resilient children have high expectations, a meaning for life, goals, personal urgency, and inter-personal problem-solving skills. Some abused children become motivated by their plight and work hard, disputing the irrationality associated with sexual abuse. CSA has been associated with an overall reduction in educational engagement and attainment at school and at higher/further education (DiGiuseppe and Bernard, 2014; Muridzo, 2018).

Sexually abused children suffer from irrational beliefs which make them feel that there is something awful about them and that they are in some way deserving of the abuse. This affects their self-concept and self-esteem and once these two are not in place, the child may not realise self-actualisation. Therefore, the child loses hope (lack of purpose), becomes demotivated, and lacks confidence and assertiveness. This observation is in line with research by Chinyoka and Ganga (2011), Berber Çelik & Odacı (2020) and Gewirtz-Meydan (2020), who found out that children who are sexually abused develop a negative self-concept experience and some form of distress, causing them to perform poorly at school.

In a study by Omundi (2013), it was found out that performance on subjects was related to a positive self-concept. A poor or negative self-concept and low self-esteem hinder academic achievement. When a child is being abused, his/ education is disrupted and this has a profound impact on the ability of the child to concentrate at school (De Witt, 2009:248; Barker & Hodes, 2007:39; Muridzo, 2018; Mathew *et al.*, 2012; Mathew, 2016; Mathew, 2019; Kapoor, 2007: 2; Magwa, 2014; AACAP, 2004:2 [fact sheet No. 9]; Louw, 2000:24; Gwirayi, 2013; Kiesel, Piescher & Edleson, 2016; Masiiwa, 2019; Mugabe, Chimombe, Chinyoka, 2016; O'Neill, McLafferty, Ennis, Lapsley, Bjourson, Armour & Murray, 2018; Supol, Satyen, Ghayour-Minaie & Toumbourou, 2020).

There is overwhelming empirical evidence to indicate that child sexual abuse has a profound impact on the lives of the survivors as a result of their experiences and their memories of these experiences (Mugabe, Chimombe, Chinyoka, 2016; Muridzo, 2018; Muridzo, 2020; Musiwa, 2018; Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2013; Spies, 2006). Much of what children learn comes from their environment and the life experiences they face have a bearing on their future adult life and personal actions. The child takes in and processes external experiences. As believed by Sigmund Freud, the unconscious mind houses all the unpleasant experiences and they can be retrieved into the conscious mind. The process of suppressing what is in the unconscious from being conscious causes disequilibrium and the sexually abused child is at war with her thoughts. This affects their mental stability, concentration in class, the way the child interacts with the world and the child loses her self-worth. Spies (2006), Musiwa (2018), Elizabeth (2020) and Call (2018) state that

the information taken in, processed and internalised (made his own) by an abused child, has an enormous effect on the child's life, specifically impacting on his behavioural patterns. Freyd (2002), Bordoh, Eshun, Osman, Kwarteng, Bassaw, Andoh and Prah (2020) and Rothschild (2017) support this by mentioning the reality of a child remembering other external stimuli that he may have heard, felt or smelt while the abuse was happening. This is often a means of focusing attention onto something other than what is actually taking place, that is, the sexual abuse.

Theorists, who have considered the impact of abuse from a developmental perspective (Mathews, 2017; Mathews, 2019; Harden, Buhler & Parra, 2016; Muridzo, 2018; Wilmshurst, 2017), have argued that incestuous abuse tends to compromise on-going development in the related areas of social functioning and self-functioning. These developmental problems are associated with several types of symptomatology, to which adults molested as children appear to be at elevated risk (i.e., PTSD). These include borderline personality, dissociative identity disorder, somatization disorder, eating disorder, and substance use (Afifi, Henriksen, Asmundson, and Sareen, 2012; Santrock 2010). As abused girls are more prone to developing psychological disorders, they become less capable of developing and managing healthy relationships with others. This lack of healthy relationships has a positive correlation with more persistent and substantial psychological problems such as depression (Seshadri & Ramaswamy, 2019; Chapman, Whitfield, Felitti, Dube, Edwards & Anda, 2004; Rothschild, 2017).

Studies using standardised measures of assessment have indicated that sexually abused girls tend to be more involved with sexual behaviour (Assabu, Tefera, Abebe & Busse, 2019; Mugabe, 2016; Bower, 2010). Browne and Finkelhor (2006) describe premature sexualisation as a process in which a child's sexuality (including sexual feelings, attitudes and behaviour) is shaped in a developmentally inappropriate and interpersonally dysfunctional fashion as a result of sexual abuse. The child may become pre-occupied with sexual activities and display bizarre, sophisticated sexual behaviour which is excessive or inappropriate for her age (Zainudin & Ashari, 2018; Clarfelt, 2010). She may also masturbate with an object, act out adult sexual behaviour with another child, or talk about sex too much and include vulgar language in the

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speech. Some children may act out their sexual victimisation by molesting younger children or trying to touch their private parts.

Sexually abused girls often live in a continuous state of fear and anxiety not only during the period of the abuse, but for many years after it has stopped. This fear is often extended from the perpetrator to any adult who attempts to get close to the child. The child suffers from fear of retaliation, fear for own safety and fear of recurrence. Protection must be provided for the child. Albert Ellis' theory must be applied to survivors of child sexual abuse as they need to regain their trust through flushing away irrational beliefs and move successfully through the stages of life, as advocated by Erik Erikson's theory.

Though girls and boys can be victims of CSA, girls have been seen to be more vulnerable and the primary victims because of their subordinate status of gender and age in the society. The society is seen as unfair towards girl children because of the violent encounters that they face each and every day because of age and gender (Muridzo, 2018). Boys, however, experience the same feelings of anger, sadness, poor self-esteem, confusion and loss of power as sexually abused girls.

Incest victims often feel different from other children (Mantula and Haroon Saloojee, 2016). They must usually be secretive. This even isolates them from non-offending parents, brothers and sisters. Laccino (2014) notes that the abused child significantly withdraws from normal social activities. Girls who have been sexually abused often feel that they have no control over their own lives. They also often isolate themselves from friends or family. This is because they may feel unable to protect themselves that they are vulnerable to invasion from others, and may develop a sense of low-esteem. The isolation may be actively encouraged by the perpetrator as a means of continuing the abuse. The silence which surrounds incest makes it difficult for children to speak out. When they do so, they may not be believed and may actually feel rejected by parents, siblings and other family members. Child sexual abuse, particularly incest, sets up a volatile triangle of conflict and rivalry between family members. This is disorienting for the

child because the child is often torn between feelings of love and hate for the perpetrator, which she cannot comprehend. She wants the abuse to end but not the relationship with the family.

2.9 Helping sexually abused children

CSA is outlawed nearly everywhere in the world. Criminal penalties in some countries include life sentence or many years in prison. The United Nations, Children's Rights Convention (CRC) is an international treaty that is legally recognized and obliges states to protect children's rights. Articles 34 and 35 of the CRC require states to protect children from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. This includes outlawing the coercion of a child to perform sexual activity, prostitution of children, and exploitation of children in creating pornography. States are also required to prevent the abduction, sale, or trafficking of children (Stoltenborgh *et al.*, 2011).

There is probably no adult who can be trusted by children who would have been abused, other than a beloved and caring teacher, (Muridzo, 2020). The teachers being in contact with abused children afford them a rare opportunity which few adults get, that of identifying abused children andstarting a process that will restore safety in the children's world. According to Magwa, (2014), this is the starting point of a healing process. However, many teachers lack the expertise, competence and counselling skills. Such teachers are, therefore, not adequately prepared to deal with the complexity of social issues that have so strongly affected abused children. Teachers need the knowledge base about child abuse so that they can support children who obviously lack the necessary experience nor maturity to confront head on the unwelcome and severe challenges that come with sexual abuse. Once equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills, it becomes easy to intervene, communicate and understand the emotional aspect of the phenomenon.

Gwirayi (2010) advocates that the classes on life skills, sexual abuse and HIV/AIDS education be included for students in most schools. Indeed, these lessons will go a milestone in creating interest. Through participation, students will become empowered, thereby reducing sexual abuse. Healthy sex education is critical in helping preventing sexual abuse and increasing the chances of reporting if abuse occurs. With such a healthy attitude toward sex, children can learn to make decisions about what is truly right and wrong. They can develop the vocabulary with which to

talk to responsible adults. They will feel less ashamed if they have been abused. To accomplish this, there is need to educate teachers, health care professionals and parents.

The academic environment is structured for learning and the academic achievement of the learner is dependent on interaction between the teacher and the pupil. The teacher should have eyes that see beyond classroom interaction with the child so as to know the socio-economic background of each child. This will enable the teacher to pick abnormal behavioural tendencies in children or identify children from poor backgrounds, then show empathy. The health of abused children would have been violated and these children might miss lessons. The onus is on the teacher to be non-judgemental and assist these learners to go through the missed lessons when they are back at school. Meeting the child's physiological needs as well as those for safety, belonging, trust, and love, maximizes the child's development as a learner (Chinyoka, 2013). The classroom teacher has the opportunity to provide an environment where abused children can rebuild their self-esteem so that they can begin to succeed and recognize that they are capable and valued, when they show these children unconditional, positive regard. According to Kim, Park and Park (2017), Kazooba, Andihaihi and Kenkuyo (2019) and Wurdeman (2015), abused children have little self-esteem. Teachers can help them learn that they are valued, accepted, and capable, by fostering an environment that honours each child's uniqueness. Valuing their differences will enable children to begin to see themselves as having something to contribute that others appreciate. With each successful completion of a classroom task, the child's sense of competency will be fostered.

It is the duty of the teacher to provide a safe classroom by portraying the right attitude towards the student. This includes being non-judgemental, showing unconditional positive regard, acceptance, love, empathy and helping the child discard guilt. A negative attitude from the teacher will prolong the healing process; if an abused child is stigmatised and labelled they will perform badly and withdraw. A positive label will yield positive results as it is believed that the labels teachers place on individuals have a self-fulfilling prophesy. This observation is supported by Metzger and Hamilton (2020), Arishi, Boyle and Lauchlan (2017), Haralambos and Holborn (2010) and Zajda (2019) who claim that a proponent of the labelling and self-fulfilling prophecy

argues that by perceiving certain learners in this way, the teachers experience problems in working with them, if a teacher applies a negative label on the child on the basis of his perception and evaluation of child's conduct at school. Where a pupil is evaluated favourably, a positive label is applied and the pupil is regarded as conforming to the teacher's expectations.

On the other hand, where the evaluation is unfavourable (where a negative label is applied), the pupil is regarded as a deviant (Haralambos & Holborn, 2010; Barbara, Collini, Cattaneo, Facchin, Vercellini, Chiappa & Kustermann, 2017). A girl child who is perceived by teachers and fellow learners to have caused her own abuse may lack confidence and may feel ridiculed, despised and inferior. An accepting, caring attitude by the teacher will allow the child to trust enough to make the first steps towards development, self-acceptance and a positive view of life. A classroom climate that fosters caring, appreciation for differences, consistent rules and boundaries, and recognition for small successes will nurture a child who has been discounted at home (Allen, Livingston & Nickerson, 2019 and Winkle, Horning, Young, Rooney & Smith, 2020).

Many abused children have had to transfer from certain schools because their right to confidentiality has been violated. Teachers and other staff members must adhere to ethical considerations, especially that of confidentiality. The information confided by the abused child must be handled with great care in order to protect the vulnerability of the child. At times the disclosure of information about the abuse may be through slip of the tongue. Some of the ways the secret may accidentally be disclosed are observations by the teacher. Others include physical injuries or conditions discovered in a doctor's examination, and/or inappropriate sexual behaviours by the child (Reid, 2019; Ah Hing 2010; Fisher, Goldsmith, Hurcombe & Soares, 2017).

To offer support, the teacher must first be approachable in order for the abused child to feel free to open up. A conducive environment must be sought, positive body language will encourage the child to continue and the teacher must exercise communication skills such as nodding of head to

show full attention for those children who may lack the verbal language to share their ordeal. The teacher may also use other forms of communication, like drawing. Teachers may get children to do drama related to sexual abuse. Educators can use Bronfenbrenner's ecological model to assess problems in a girl child's life and aid her with rebalancing with her environment (Khoury-Kassabri, 2019; Cole *et al.*, 2009; Tat & Ozturk, 2019; Martinello, 2020; Engle & Black, 2008).

Teachers and parents should be able to detect when a child is being sexually abused, from the sudden behaviour change in the child, and be able to help in the best way possible. Family Support trust - CSA Manual (2002), Magwa (2014) and Muridzo (2018) suggest ways in which one can assist a child who reports that she has been sexually abused. It is very important to show the child that one believes her. The child should be assured that she is not the one who is wrong and that the perpetrator is the one who has committed a crime and should be punished. This may be a major issue in incestuous abuse, for example, if a girl feels responsible for getting her father into trouble, splitting up family or causing the family serious financial problems.

Police intervention should be sought so that the law takes its course. In some cases, it may be necessary to take steps to protect the child from further abuse. Many educators are unaware that it is a criminal offence not to disclose information regarding a suspected or definite case of child abuse (Rule, 2017; Márquez-Flores, Márquez-Hernández & Granados-Gámez, 2016; Van & Naidoo, 2006). It is, therefore, important for teachers to help sexually abused children by reporting relevant cases of abuse to authorities. It is, however, unfortunate, as alluded to by Magwa (2014) that some teachers, despite being role models, have penetrated the world of schools and betrayed both parents and students. There is rampant sexual abuse of students by educationists. The rise in incidents of reported crimes of a sexual nature by teachers is a matter of serious concern.

The school is a major social institution, outside the family, with which nearly all children have consistent, ongoing contact and because of this, it is particularly well-suited for identifying

endangered children, including those who are being sexually abused. A sexually abused child may manifest the abuse at school in terms of behavioural problems and/or inadequate academic achievement (Allen, Livingston & Nickerson, 2019; Antoinette, 2010; Márquez-Flores, Márquez-Hernández & Granados-Gámez, 2016). Teachers have an advantage in that they are in an excellent position, in the classroom or on the sports field, to be able to notice children who are being sexually abused (Van As & Naidoo, 2006:73; Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2013; Muridzo, 2018). Many schools, just like other various stakeholders, are striving to become more effective participants in coming up with prevention and intervention measures designed to reduce the complex problem of child abuse.

Schools can, and many do, play a part in the prevention of child abuse through the curriculum, by providing positive role models and opportunities for participation. Communication is vital and effective communication with children is the key to child safety, while life skills programmes can give children skills for coping with problems as they arise. There is need to extend prevention and health programmes to the whole educational setting, including students, teachers and other school staff, parents and the community around the school. School-based prevention programmes that teach avoidance skills to youth show evidence that youth empowerment and safety can be increased and can also help reduce stigma and self-blame to sexually abused youth (Finkelhor, 2009; Hudson, 2018).

Successful intervention in the lives of sexually abused children and their families requires the involvement of many different systems, including the family, care-givers and educationists. Sandier and Sepel, in Taylor and Stewart (2014), identify three levels of prevention of CSA. These include primary, secondary and tertiary prevention. Primary prevention involves teaching children how to recognise situations where they are at risk of being sexually abused and how to stand up against the abuse. In Western countries like Britain, this is done through nationwide schools' education programmes which start from nursery school up to tertiary level. More schools are participating in community child protection teams, which many view as a key to effective management of child abuse (Haase and Kempe). Teams consist of relevant specialists

such as educators, social workers, doctors, lawyers, police, and mental health professionals who work together in the areas of coordination.

Parents and guardians of children are strongly reminded to entrust children to them ONLY. After school, children should be accompanied by an adult. Parents' committees can meet and organize parents who can take turns (like the case in other schools) to take children to, and from, school. Zimbabwe'sMinistry of Education in 1998 had a circular on child abuse and its management in schools. This is an excellent document that should be evoked and get schools to implement it. Management of young girls during menstruation should be added to this policy, to help curb child abuse.

School heads can also play an important role in teaching children at their schools how to recognise and avoid unsafe situations. However, most adults in Zimbabwe find it difficult to talk about sexual matters. There is also the added problem of the gap left by the breakdown of the traditional role of aunts and uncles. Many Zimbabweans seem to be in a situation where they still feel the inhibiting influence of the taboo forbidding parents from discussing sexual matters with their children. Aunts and uncles have since withdrawn from this role. This gap may have serious consequences for children in our country because they are at risk of being abused. The children are not only inadequately prepared for the risk, if sexual abuse does take place, it may be particularly difficult for them to disclose it.

There is need to enhance awareness programmes which usually involve teaching children about 'good touches' and 'bad touches', 'good secrets' and 'bad secrets', and how to say 'No' to older people who abuse their power and authority. Unfortunately, there are risks attached to this kind of awareness education. Mehr (2005) and Praharaj (2018) argue that it is difficult to strike a balance between equipping children to protect themselves against abuse while not making them over-sensitive, fearful, suspicious and critical of adults in general.

Secondary prevention involves identifying families or situations where there is a high risk of sexual abuse. This, however, is very difficult in practice. A parent or other adult may feel that she is in danger of sexually abusing a child. Another possibility is when a mother feels that her husband is likely to abuse the children sexually. She might seek help for the man or for the whole family. In such cases counselling and support groups have a role to play (Taylor and Stewart, 2011).

Teachers need to have training in sexual abuse issues, such as knowing effects on survivors, consequences of abusing learners and how to report cases of sexual abuse. This concurs with a study by Matthews (2011), who found low levels of pre-service teacher training, with 76.6% of tertiary teacher education programmes not addressing child protection. A 2000 World Health Organization Geneva report, World Report on Violence and Health, states that, "Action in schools is vital for reducing sexual and other forms of violence." Mathew (2019) states that school social dances expose kids to intoxicating drinks and they end up being sexually abused.

In tertiary prevention, the case of sexual abuse would have been discovered and needs to be stopped. This may involve removing the abuser from the family. In spite of the serious consequences like divorce or financial problems, it is generally better to remove the offender from the family rather than to send the child away. One way or the other, it is necessary to separate the child from the abuser until the abuser has been successfully rehabilitated. Although schools have a key role to play in the fight against abuse, we should not forget that the problem must be confronted at many levels. Ultimately, the greatest challenge may lie in attempting to alter social attitudes and conditions that foster or tolerate the sexual abuse of children. Therefore, Lalor (2004) and Sanjeevi, Houlihan, Bergstrom, Langley and Judkins (2018) highlight that understanding the social context which increases children's vulnerability and provides the environment for such acts to occur is of importance if we hope to reduce its occurrence. Schools should be safe. Teachers and all school staff must respect the rights of the children.

2.10 Prevention strategies taken in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe has incorporated child sexual abuse into the school curriculum, with the subject covered under Guidance and Counselling (Gwirayi, 2013; Mapfumo and Nkoma, 2013; Zimbabwe Judicial Service Commission, 2012). This is not enough, according to Mapfumo and Nkoma (2013) who note that despite being mandated through national policy, universal implementation of the guidance and counselling programme is constrained by lack of knowledge and the requisite skills to teach child sexual abuse awareness. It should be noted that in the African society, open discussion of sex is widely considered taboo and a topic reserved for adults in many contexts (Anarfi, 2003; Guneand Manuel, 2011; Tamale, 2011). As a result, many adults struggle with the open discussion of sex with children (Pattman & Chege, 2003; Muridzo, 2018), and so do teachers in some instances. Teachers often feel uncomfortable when teaching various aspects of sexuality due to personal moral values (Dzifa, 2016; De Haas & Hutter, 2019; Beyers, 2011; Fisher & Cummings, 2016).

Zimbabwean authorities have proposed to tighten laws on sexual violence. The jail sentence for raping a minor and the disabled should be pegged at 60 years, while the rest of cases of rape should attract a 40-year sentence.

2.11 Summary

This chapter has discussed the global overview of child sexual abuse, religious perspective, and general overview of CSA in Zimbabwe, as well as different forms and types of CSA. Girls have been found to be in danger of being sexually abused, particularly by adults in and outside their homes. Risk factors associated with CSA have been found to be historical, religious and cultural factors, factors in the family, and factors within the child. The chapter has also outlined reasons why cases of CSA are not readily reported. Effects of CSA were discussed in detail and prevention strategies given. The final part of the chapter suggested ways to help a child who reports having been sexually abused and also ways in which the school can help minimise cases of CSA. The next chapter will proceed to discuss the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER THREE

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The study is grounded on Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Perspective, Erikson's Psychosocial Theory, and the Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) by Albert Ellis. All three perspectives are discussed to help explore the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe. The theories help us understand girl child's environment, which has family, friends, community and school activities which altogether play a part in her being susceptible to being abused. Understanding the role of each system and its influence on the development of the girl child will assist in coming up with measures that can curb the problem and provide therapy to the victims.

3.2 The Ecological Theory

The Ecological Theory was propounded by Urie Bronfenbrenner. According to Tudge and Rosa, (2019), Diab, Palosaari and Punamäki (2018) and Chinyoka (2013), this theory tries to explain how a child's development is affected by social relationships and the world around them. Ferguson and Evans (2019), and Tudge, Merçon-Vargas, Liang and Payir (2017) postulate that Bronfenbrenner divided the environment into five nested levels, namely, the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, the macrosystem and the chronosystem. Martinello (2020), Tejada, and Linder (2018), and Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010) further elaborate that these levels are interdependent. The diagram below summarises Bronfenbrenner's System Theory.
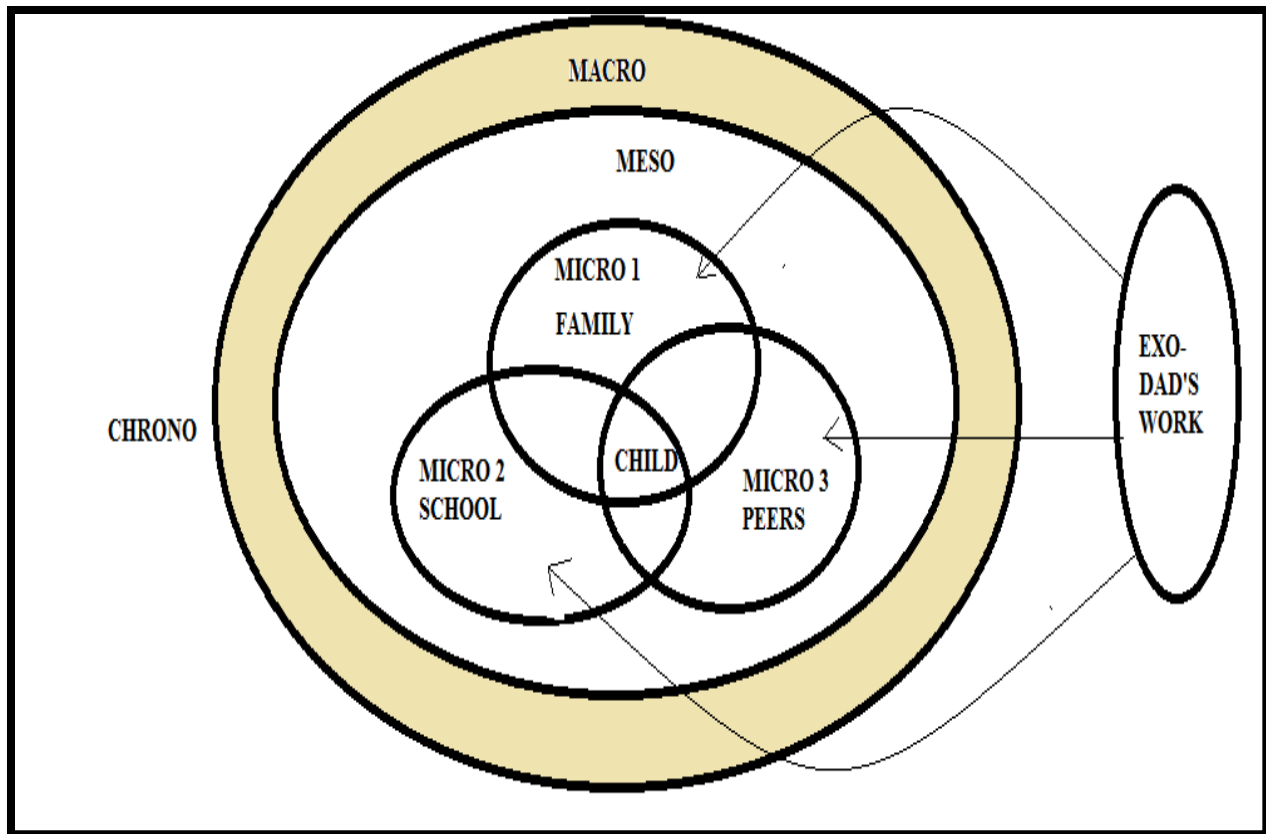
Figure 3.1. The Ecological System (Adapted from Chinyoka, 2013)

As shown in the diagram above, the microsystem can be described as the direct environment one has in life, such as family, friends, classmates, teachers, neighbours and other people whom the child has direct contact with. Merçon-Vargas, Lima, Rosa and Tudge (2020) and Donald *et al.* (2010) describe this as proximal interaction. This level is the most influential in the development of a child (Kilanowski, 2017; Ferguson & Evans, 2019; Culpepper & Killion, 2016). Bronfenbrenner's theory shows that interaction that occurs face to face and long-term relationships are the most important in shaping lasting aspects of development, for example, interaction between mother and her child, a teacher and a learner, and a child and close friend. They add that these interactions are affected by what Bronfenbrenner termed person factors and social contexts within which they occur. Paquette and Ryan (2015) posit that, microsystems involve roles, relationships and patterns of daily activities that shape many aspects of cognitive, social, emotional, and spiritual development. In the case of this study, most of the child sexual abuses that take place among girl learners are perpetrated, to some extent, by members of the

immediate family (in the microsystem), hence, this study finds this theory very useful in explaining the plight of sexually abused children.

Tat and Ozturk (2019) and Martinello (2020) explain that the second level which is the mesosystem, is a set of microsystems that continuously interact with one another. For example, what happens in the family or peer group can influence how children respond at school, and vice versa. If a child is sexually abused by a family member or teacher, this may have a negative impact on the child's behaviour. Haristi (2018), Paquette and Ryan (2015), andTejada and Linder (2018) concur and add that the mesosystem provides the connection between the structures of the child's microsystem, such as connection influenced by her experiences at home and at school. Some delinquent behaviour like sexual abuse is a result of the child's experiences at home or what she experiences in her proximal interaction. If the relationship in the proximal interaction breaks down, the child will not have the tools to explore other parts of the environment. This hinders the child's holistic development. The researchers further explain that children looking for affirmation that should be present in the child/parent relationship or child and other important adult relationships look for attention in inappropriate places. These deficiencies manifest themselves in adolescence as anti-social behaviour, lack of self-discipline, and inability to provide self-direction. In connection with this, Elizabeth (2020), Muridzo, (2018), Berg, Hobkirk, Joska and Meade (2017); Hannan, Orcutt, Miron and Thompson (2017) and Rhew, Stappenbeck, Bedard-Gilligan, Hughes and Kaysen (2017) assert that a history of sexual abuse increases the likelihood that females will abuse alcohol and drugs.

Paquette and Ryan (2015), Christensen (2016), and Hayes, O'Toole and Halpenny (2017) suggest that this theory has implications for teachers as it assists them to know about the breakdown occurring within the children's home. It is possible for our educational system to make up for the deficiencies faced by the child at home. It seems that it is necessary for schools and teachers to provide stable long-term relationships, as this will encourage breaking the silence in child sexual abuse. Bronfenbrenner believes that the primary relationship needs to be with someone who can provide a sense of caring for it to last a lifetime (Muridzo, 2020). This suggests that schools and teachers should provide an important secondary role but cannot provide complexity of interaction that can be provided by primary adults. Bronfenbrenner agrees that we should foster societal attitudes that put value to parents, teachers, extended family,

mentors, work supervisors and legislators. Thus, the purpose of this research study is to try and understand girl learners in their social environment and come up with strategies for mitigating CSA among girl learners. There is a need to understand learners' behaviour in relationship to their environment, as this has an effect on their development.

Soyer (2019) explains that the third level, which is the exosystem, includes other systems in which a child is not directly involved but may influence the people who have proximal relationship with her in her microsystems, for example, parents' workplace, brother's peer group or teacher's involvement in a local community organisation. If, for example, the family financial situation is underprivileged, this may affect the self-esteem of the girl child and her studies may be affected by lack of school fees, leading to dropping out of school. The girl child may suffer from a negative self-identity and confidence. As a result, this may affect performance at school. The economic situation may also affect the girl child's accesses to crisis intervention centres that could help with the healing process of the child. Given that the context of this study is a rural environment, it will be important to note how parents' work place and location of schools may influence girls' behaviour.

The macrosystem is the fourth level and according to Martinello (2020), Muridzo (2018) and Oswalt (2015), this level involves dominant social and economic structures as well as the values, beliefs and practices that influence all other social systems. School and family values have influence on the child's behaviour. The cultural beliefs may include the roles of girls and expectations of how girls should be treated. If the society puts blame on the girl child for the sexual abuse, this may affect their feelings, leading to anxiety, depression, and suicidal tendencies. The norms and beliefs that overlook gender-based violence can affect the trust, healing and recovery of the girl child survivor. The behaviour displayed by society influences girls to be silent about the sexual abuse and this results in them being denied access to clinical help and counselling. When a society promotes silence and secrecy about sexual abuse of children, this could influence sexual abuse to go on. Upon reporting sexual abuse, the cultural beliefs may affect how the child is supported. If she is blamed for it, this may result in feelings of guilt and shame and, hence, prolonging healing.

The chronosystem, according to Kilanowski (2017, Soyer (2019) and Oswalt (2015), affects the interaction between systems and their influences on individual development, for example, families and all the systems which developing children are involved continuously change and develop themselves. Martinello (2020) concluded that this theory sees different levels and groups of people as interactive systems, where the function of the whole is dependent on the interaction between all parts. Quin, Heerde and Toumbourou (2018) assert that this theory has implications in that, the school is a system with different parts such as its staff, its students, its curriculum and its administration, and these parts are interdependent. Girl learners' behaviour should be understood in this context. The Ecological Theory is, therefore, relevant for the present study, because of its basic tenet, that is, the interaction within the systems at all levels influences the child's behaviour. Those learners negatively affected by the nested systems may eventually seek refuge in delinquent behaviour such as early sexual activities, smoking, and heavy drinking. This theory will, thus, help unpack the psychosocial impact of child sexual abuse (CSA) on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe.

An ecological systems model provides an appropriate framework to guide research and selection of appropriate intervention strategies for families and children experiencing psychosocial problems. Understanding the interactions of these systems is the key to understanding how a child develops and what factors may lead to failure. The ecological model incorporates all areas of influence on the development of the child in order to assess the causes and also come up with the solutions to increasing CSA cases, academic failure, behavioural, and emotional problems being witnessed.

3.2.2 Albert Ellis' Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT)
Different theorists have propounded various theories and fascinating ideas in the quest to establish the extent to which behavioural and neurotic disturbances hinder a person's individual thoughts and behaviours. When thoughts and behaviours are not in agreement with the norms and values of the society, the society interprets such as disturbance (Beck, 2018). This theory takes into cognisance emotional disturbances such as guilt, stress and mild to severe depression that cause irrational beliefs within humans. In this instance, these may be triggered by CSA.

Assumptions of the study

❖ REBT is based on the assumption that human beings are self-actualizing in nature and have a strong biological tendency to think irrationally. Dryden (2019) posits that REBT is based on the limitless ability of girl children to agitate themselves over the sexual abuse and all other unpleasant environment life conditions.

❖ The child sexual abuse survivors have rational and irrational beliefs.

❖ Abnormality emanates from abused girls' faulty cognitions about themselves.

❖ This faulty thinking may be through cognitive deficiencies (lack of planning) or cognitive distortions (inaccurate information processing) and perceptions (for example, CSA).

❖ These cognitions cause distortions in the way the sexually abused girl begins to see things, leading to irrational thinking.

❖ Buschmann, Horn, Blankenship, Garcia and Bohan (2018) and Ellis (2004) further postulate that naturally, people are hedonistic, that is, the sexually abused girl child is fundamentally striving for survival, happiness and freedom from pain.

Kramer and Block (2011) and Vernon (2019) postulate that beliefs have a bearing on the way individuals behave. The manner in which people interpret situations and express their emotions results in the perceptions they have on events happening around them. The beliefs held by people are mostly congruent with their behaviour and the attitudes they display in their everyday life. Petty (2009), Khan (2018) and Waltman (2020) emphasise that beliefs are self-fulfilling and are a critical aspect of human function. According to the REBT model, people experience undesirable activating events, for example, CSA. These activating events may trigger either rational or irrational beliefs in people. These beliefs then lead to emotional, behavioural and cognitive consequences. Rational beliefs lead to functional consequences, as they are helpful and effective. People who hold rational beliefs behave positively. This study is more concerned with irrational beliefs harboured by girl children who would have been sexually abused. This theory is, therefore, ideal and relevant to this study. Irrational beliefs lead to dysfunctional consequences because these beliefs are unhelpful and negative, for example, being anxious,

stressed, depressed and having mental, social and psychological disorders (Igbeneghu & Ademokoya, 2020; Beck, 2018).

Ellis, in his REBT, encourages people to actively dispute their irrational beliefs. In this study, the girl learners are encouraged to assimilate more efficient, adaptive and rational beliefs with a positive impact on their emotional, cognitive and behavioural responses. This would necessitate the development of healthy behaviour (Matweychuk & Dryden, 2017; Miloseva, Miloseva & Vukosavljevic-Gvozden, 2019; Ellis, 1994). Thus, REBT is a cognitive psychological theory and a treatment technique consisting of a combination of three different types of techniques, that is, cognitive, behavioural and emotive. These can be used to assist individuals to feel better physically and emotionally and to engage in healthier behaviours even after being raped, sexually abused and impregnated. An irrational belief is rigid or extreme. An example given by Ellis (2014), of an irrational belief that is rigid is, "*My colleague has to like me,*" thus, "*I want my colleague to like me, therefore he or she has to do so.*" It is clear that irrational thinking does not work for us. It does not help us obtain our medium and long-term goals. In assimilating these irrational beliefs, Slavin (2012) and Dryden (2017) believe that people become emotionally disturbed and feel anger, anxiety, depression, worthlessness, self-pity and other negative feelings of self-destructive behaviour simply because of thinking irrationally. Ellis (2014), DiGiuseppe and Bernard (2014) and Dryden (2018) concur and describe irrational thinking as happening in a circular process, leading to self-hate which leads to self-destructive behaviour and, eventually, hatred towards others. This, in turn, causes others to act irrationally towards the individual, thus the beginning of the cycle again. Irrational thinking is represented in the figure below:

A sexually abused girl engages in irrational thinking

She hates herself/ She blames herself

She engages in self destructive behaviour...she thinks she was sexually abused because she is morally weak

She hates others

Others react irrationally towards her
*stigmatisation and labelling
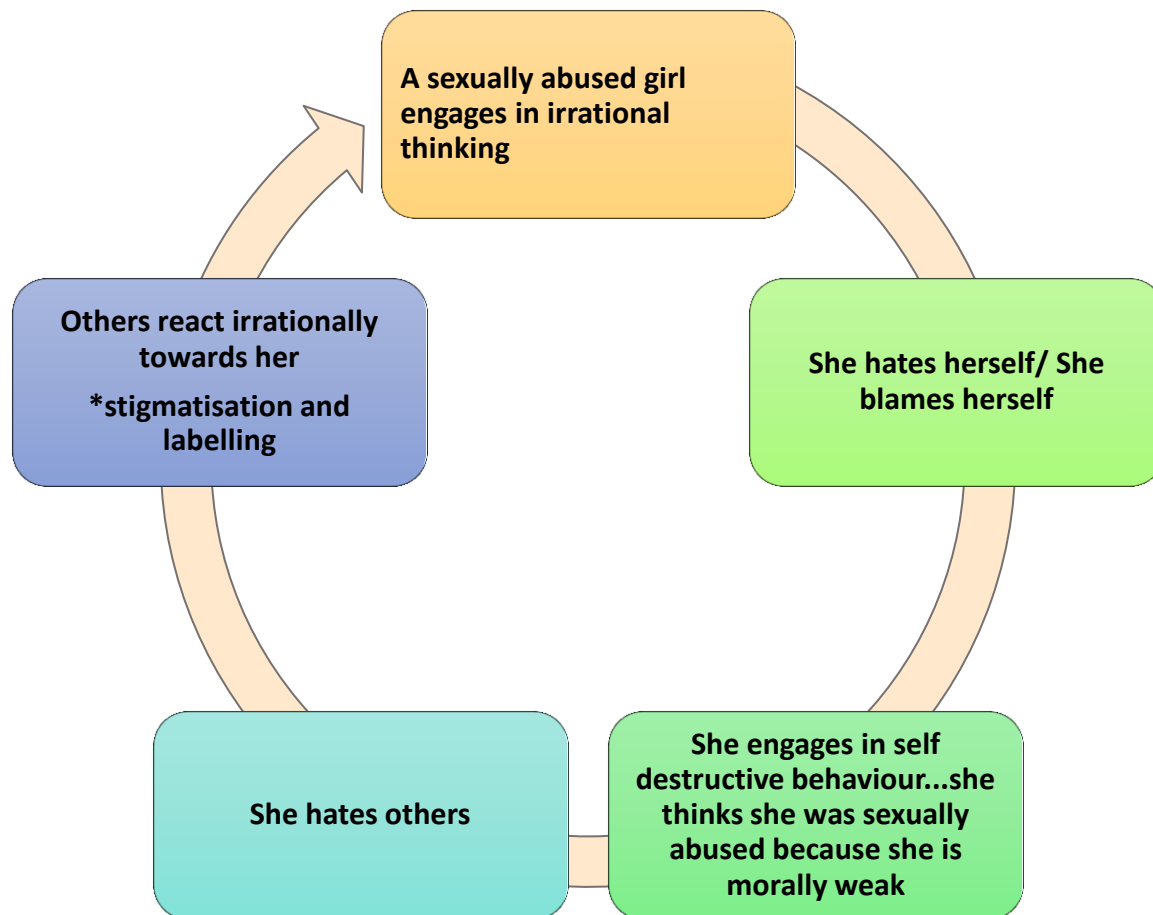
[4]Figure 3.2: Irrational thinking happening in a circular process (Chinyoka, 2013)

Given the scenario above, by using different cognitive, emotive and behavioural methods and activities, the sexually abused girls can gain a more rational, self-helping and constructive way of thinking and behaving. The abused girl is then assisted to work through her fears, beliefs and thoughts, before behaviour modification techniques are implemented. Thus, this theory is relevant to this study because it helps in identifying all the negative, irrational consequences of CSA. It also, therefore, helps in detailing the emotions and behaviours developed as a result of CSA.

Irrational thinking due to CSA leads to unhealthy and faulty cognitions. The REBT model of emotion states that the emotions that we experience are based largely on the beliefs that we hold

about ourselves, others and the world. More specifically, it states our unhealthy negative emotions about life's adversities, as shown in Figure 3.3
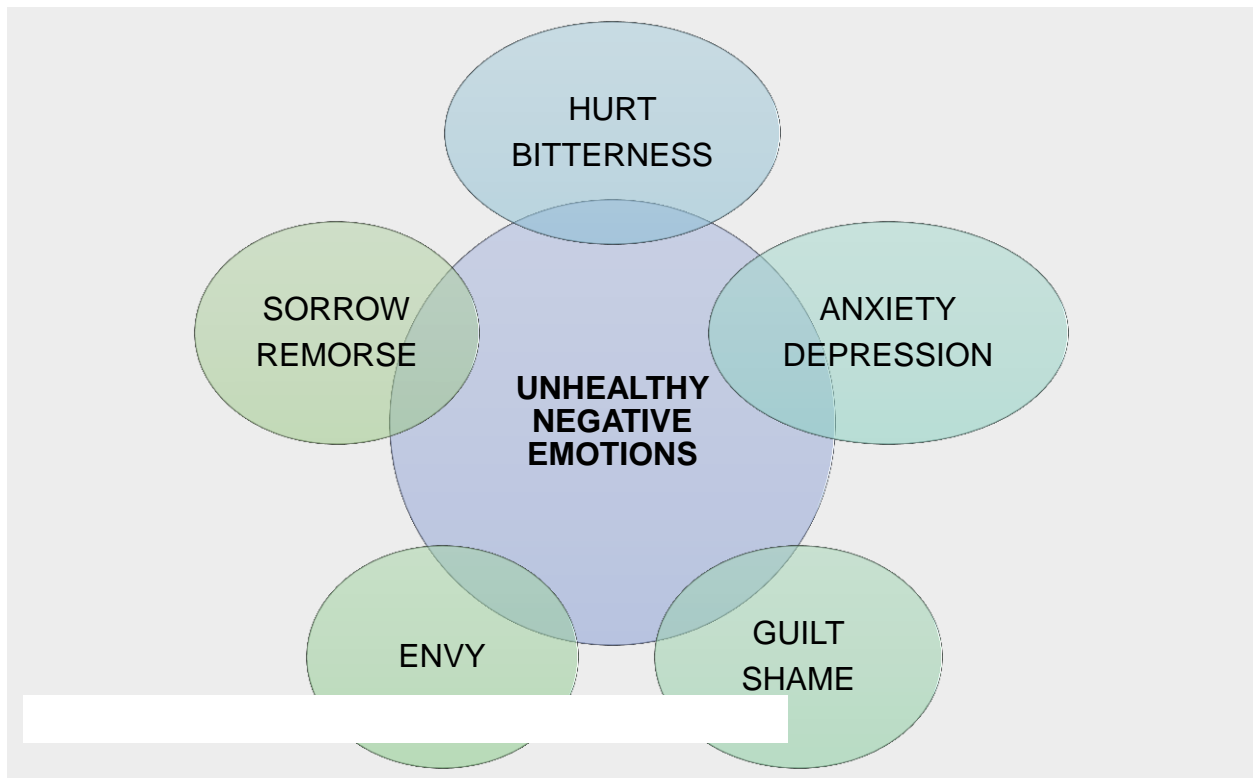
[5]Figure 3.3: Some of the effects of unhealthy negative emotions (Mugabe and Beyers, 2020)

Some sexually abused girls understand that their emotions are affected by the sexual abuse which happened to them and they think about the events.

3.6.2.2 The REBT model
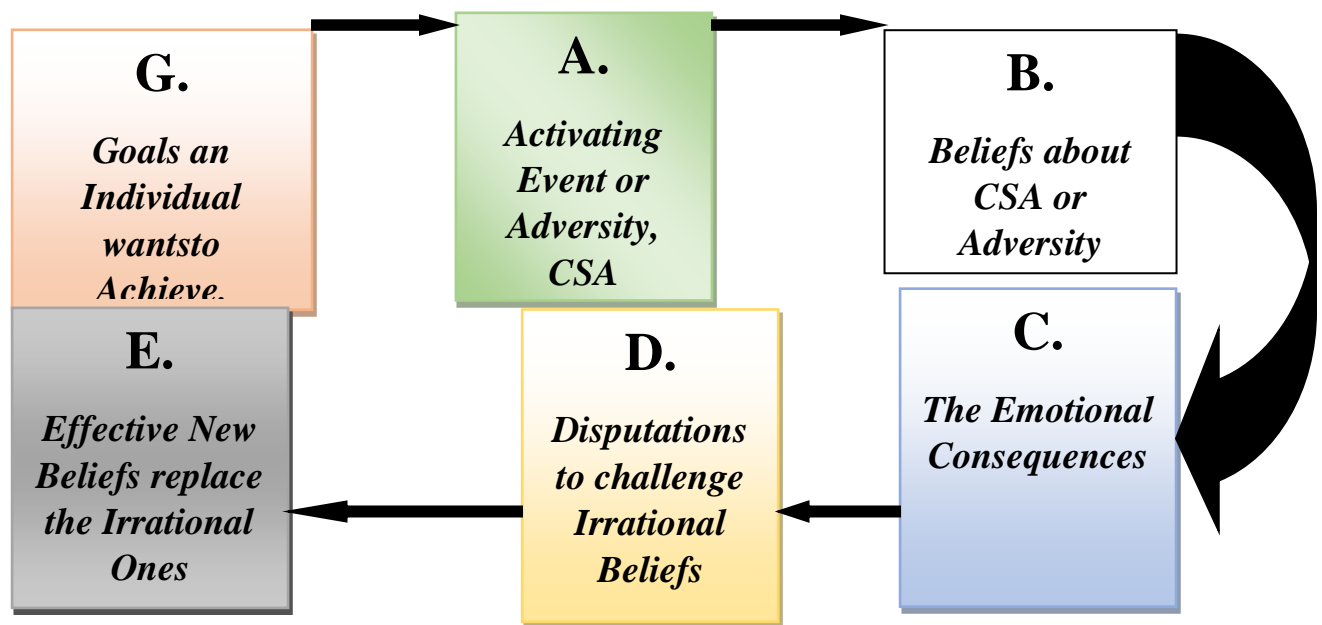
Figure 3:4 The GABCDE rational and irrational emotive therapy model

Adapted from http://education-portal.com/academy/course/index.html/

'A' represents activating experiences, events or activity events. These activating experiences could be trouble in the family, CSA, early childhood traumas, unsatisfying work and all other things which are sources of our unhappiness (Feldman 2009; Ellis, 2000; Chrysalis, Turner & Wood, 2020). In the case of girls, the experience of CSA may trigger feelings of depression and anxiety which may lead to truancy. The affected children tend to exaggerate what would have happened, to the extent of judging themselves harshly. They tend to absorb all the blame for their failures and end up developing low self-esteem, getting depressed or developing some other maladaptive behaviour due to the beliefs that they assimilate as a result of the event.

'B' stands for beliefs which determine girl children's interpretation of the activity or events. Such beliefs may be a result of one's choice or socialisation. These beliefs, especially those that are irrational and self-defeating, are the actual source of the depressed person's lack of happiness. Spencer and Rathus (2007:489) listed some of the common irrational beliefs as follows:

There is nothing I can do.

It's all my fault.

In these irrational beliefs, the individual is exaggerating and catastrophising the events, resulting in a negative personality. These beliefs are unreasonable, unrealistic and rigid. They are characterised by 'ought to', 'should' and 'must', and are not supported by evidence. According to DiGiuseppe, Gorman and Raptis (2020), Kocturk and Bilge (2017) and Rieckert and Möller (2000), irrational beliefs are sources of neurotic type of behaviour. Thus, neurotic behaviour is moulded by disruptive experiences in our past, which affect, our future behaviour. For example, a learner who has been previously raped by a male figure may fear male teachers leading to low academic attainment and absconding lessons.

'C' stands for consequences. The irrational beliefs highlighted above may result in neurotic symptoms in some individuals and negative emotions such as depression, panic, rage, anger and withdrawal behaviour. Although the activating events may be quite real and have potential to cause real pain, it is the person's irrational beliefs that create long-term disabling problems. In the classroom situation, there are students who are not willing to take responsibilities, for fear of failing. Their self-efficacy is so low that they have to be pushed for them to take part in some learning activities. They tend to exaggerate their failures, to the extent of fearing to make known what they think, and may end up withdrawing from peers and learning situations.

'D' represents disputation. The sexually abused children, for example, must dispute the irrational beliefs in order for them to ultimately enjoy the positive psychological effects (E) of rational beliefs. The goal of REBT is to remove these irrational beliefs.

'E' represents the effect of successful disputation. This encompasses the new and effective, logical attitudes as well as positive behavioural and emotional changes. In order for the girl child survior to have a successful disputation, she should use REBT counselling techniques which include emotive disputation, using humour, metaphors, stories and homework.

Sexually abused children must, therefore, learn to stop blaming themselves. One has to accept one's imperfections and come out of the trap of irrationality, self-blame and self-condemnation. All these irrational views are related with the self, others or the world. Figure 3.5 below shows that when a negative event happens, one is presented with a choice of being rational or irrational about it.
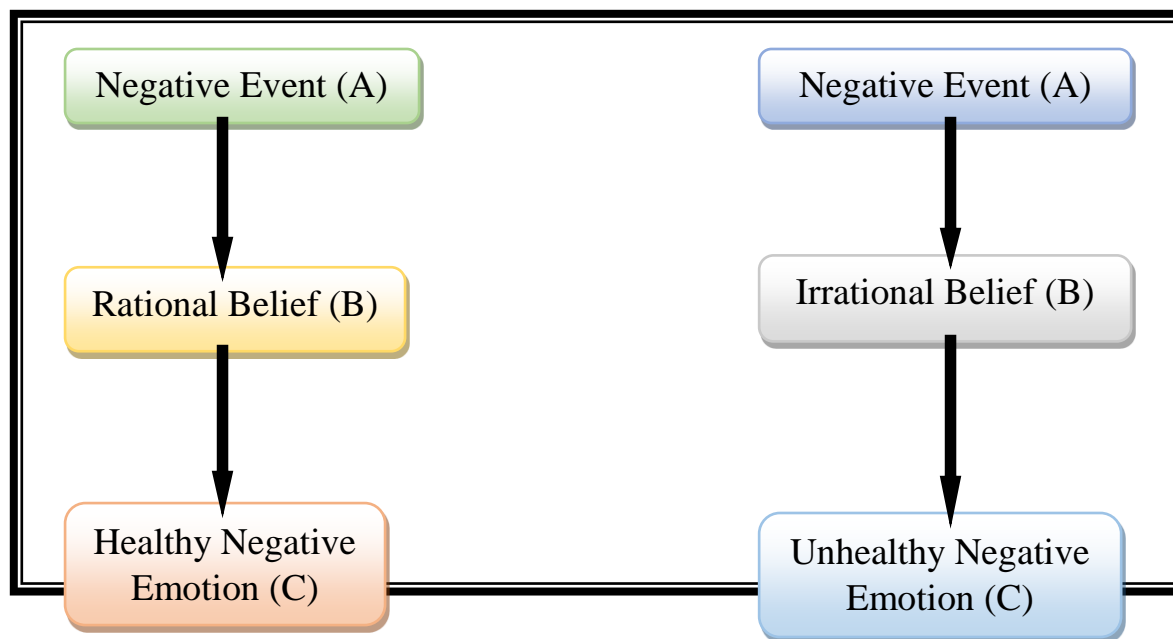
[7]Fig. 3.5 Demonstrating that Human beings have the potential for rational or irrational thinking
Adapted from Walsh (2013).

From Fig. 3.5, when one is sexually abused (negative event) they may not suffer from self-blame and view themselves as damaged goods, though the situation is painful. One may accept that it has occurred and it was not their fault. They do not find reason to be anti-social (rationale thinking) because they see themselves with a whole life ahead of them. They focus ahead to achieve their goals (healthy negative emotion), while the irrational thinker feels that they are to blame, deserved the abuse or there is something wrong with themselves and may suffer from impaired vision of the future (unhealthy negative emotion). REBT comes in handy to get rid of irrationality through the process of disputation.

This discussion has shown that Albert Ellis developed REBT because he believed that people's thoughts and negative events, like CSA, control their emotions. REBT entails various aspects for human development, which explain the interaction of cognition, emotions and behaviour, hence making it holistic and relevant to this study which aims to examine the psychosocial impact of child sexual abuse (CSA) on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe. This is in line with a number of studies that have established the effectiveness of therapies for treatment of

long-term effects of child sexual abuse (Muridzo, 2018; Lalor & McElvaney, 2010; Igbeneghu & Ademokoya, 2020; Kreidler, 2005; Averdijk, 2019; Salter, 1995; Eseadi, Anyanwu, Ogbuabor & Ikechukwu-Ilomuanya, 2016; Seigfried-Spellar & Soldino, 2020; Wolfsdorf & Zlotnick, 2001; Cohen, Deblinger & Mannarino, 2018). The goal of using this theory as treatment to child sexual abuse survivors is to help them identify irrational beliefs and negative thought patterns that they may have as a result of the sexual abuse which may lead them to emotional or behavioural problems. After they have acknowledged these patterns, they will be assisted to develop strategies to replace them with more rational thought patterns. This leads them to living healthy and fulfilling lives.

3.2.3 Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory

The study of examining the psychosocial impact of child sexual abuse (CSA) on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe was also informed by Erikson's Psychosocial Theory. Human development experts assert that CSA interferes with the physical, social, psychological and emotional processes of children's development. According to Erikson's Psychosocial Theory, people go through eight psychosocial stages of development and each stage consists of a unique developmental task that individuals need to accomplish in order to develop normally. Failure to resolve a crisis results in problems, or pathology (Wurdernman, 2015). The failure to resolve conflict will influence the way the individual will go through the stages. As people grow up, they move with the stages despite the fact that there is unresolved conflict, as shown by the diagram below which summaries Erikson's Psychosocial Theory.

Stages of Psychosocial Development

Integrity vs Despair

Generativity vs Stagnation

Intimacy vs Isolation

Identity vs Role Confusion

Industry vs Inferiority

Initiative vs Guilt

Autonomy vs Shame & Doubt

Trust vs Mistrust

Increases in Complexity

- ■ Infant
- ■ Toddler
- ■ Pre-schooler
- ■ Grade-schooler
- ■ Teenager
- ■ Young Adult
- ■ Middle-age Adult
- ■ Older Adult

Proposed by Erik Erikson
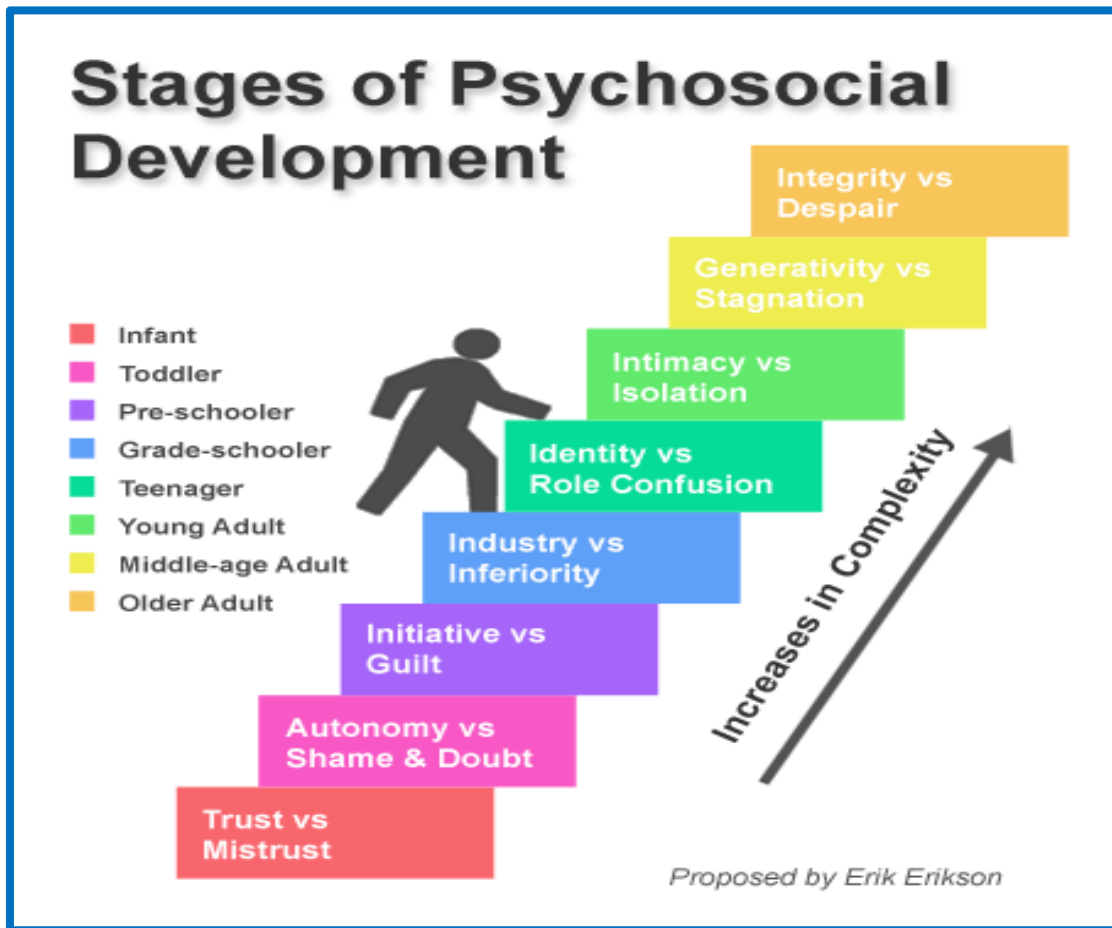
[8]Fig 3.6: Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

Adapted from Magwa (2014)

According to Erikson's (1963) Psychosocial Theory, people go through eight psychosocial stages of development. These are: trust versus mistrust (0-1 year) (infancy), autonomy versus shame and doubt (2-3 years) (childhood), initiative versus guilt (4-5 years) (childhood), industry versus inferiority (6-11 years) (childhood), identity versus confusion (12-18 years) (adolescence), intimacy versus isolation (18-35) (adulthood), generativity versus stagnation (35-65 years) (middle age), and integrity versus despair (65+) (old age). Each stage consists of a unique developmental task that the girl child needs to accomplish in order to develop normally. Failure to resolve a crisis, in this case due to CSA, results in problems, or pathology. Like Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexual development, Erikson's developmental stages are closely tied to ages in which people are expected to experience crises. Girls will experience conflicts as they

progress through these stages, but it is how they handle these conflicts that will directly and indirectly impact on their lives (Wurdenman, 2015). Failure to resolve conflict by the sexually abused girl learner will influence how she will go through the stages. As she grows up, she moves with the stages despite the fact that there is unresolved conflict of CSA. This theory is relevant to this study because it helps in explaining the emotions and behaviours developed as a result of CSA.

The stages in Fig. 3.6 build upon one another and the manner in which each task is resolved impacts the rest of development (Jones & Waite-Stupiansky, 2017; Dunkel & Sefcek, 2009; Syed & McLean, 2017; Erikson, 2017). The above development in stages has a positive and negative impact on the growth of sexually abused children. According to Drunkel and Sefcek (2009), improperly coping with a crisis formed in a stage has been proven to be detrimental to subsequent stages, as they are built upon one another. It is important, therefore, for one to go through the stages successfully so as to avoid fixation in a certain stage as one progress.

Children who experience abuse often develop coping mechanisms to implement throughout their lives as they progress through Erikson's stages of development (Rũgendo, 2019; Davis & Petretic, 2000; Orenstein & Lewis, 2020). These coping mechanisms are sometimes maladaptive, and often affect the way the individual will interact with others in their community. At times, such coping mechanisms lead to poor interpersonal boundaries which often become more apparent as children progress into adulthood and begin searching for an intimate partner (Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2013; Wurdeman, 2015). Without proper boundaries, people who have been abused are more susceptible to poor relationships, which may result in re-victimization (Muridzo, 2018; Elizabeth, 2020; Davis & Jackson, 2000). Given the above scenario, Erik Erikson's Psychosocial Theory is quite relevant in exploring the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe.

During the hope versus shame stage, the recovering person moves from a dependent to a more independent posture in relationships both inside and outside of therapy by building a repertoire of adaptive coping skills and abandoning maladaptive ones (Rũgendo, 2019; Degges-White, 2017; Wurdeman, 2015). When one is recovering from abuse, it is vital that they are shown unconditional, positive regard. Being around people who show them warmth, love and

acceptance restores hope in sexually abused children. As a result, they let go feelings of shame and avoid isolating themselves from the world.

The children who have gone through sexual abuse each have a unique history they carry along with them and behaviours that they portray. Some may exhibit behaviour which is not in line with their age, as an indication that they are still stuck to the previous stage. As Erikson stated, clients who have had difficulty in successfully navigating through the stages will often become stuck at the stage in which the abuse took place (Qanita, Thoyibi & Fatimah, 2016; Sowell, Leon & van Liew, 2019; Charles, Reynolds & Gatz 2001). Given the above situation, psychotherapeutic intervention is an important consideration.

3. 3 Summary

This chapter focused on the theoretical framework. The study is grounded on Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological, Erikson's Psychosocial Theory and the Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) by Albert Ellis. The theories helped to explain the psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe. The next chapter discusses the research methodology and design

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the research methodology. Under the research methodology section, particular attention was given to research paradigms, approaches, research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, data gathering instruments (interviews and focus group discussions), ethical considerations, trustworthiness and credibility of data, triangulation, data collection procedures (using interviews and focus group discussions), data presentation and analysis procedures as well as a summary of the chapter. To examine the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe, four research questions guided the researcher as follows:

Primary research question
- What are the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child?

Secondary research questions
- What are the main causes of sexual abuse among girl children in Zimbabwe?
- What are the consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child?
- How does child sexual abuse affect academic performance of girl learners?
- How can children who have been sexually abused be assisted in the schools?

4.2 Research paradigm

Creswell (2018) posits that every research is governed by some underlying philosophical assumptions which lead to the selection of research methods that are appropriate for the development of knowledge in a given study. Thomas (2010) defines a paradigm as a culture with a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research. It is also regarded as a model that symbolises a real

worldview that describes what the researchers embrace (Bertram and Christiansen, 2014). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) elaborate and say that a research paradigm is an approach or research model that is used to conduct research, which has been verified by a research community. Thus, paradigm refers to the researcher's worldview of the nature of reality and knowledge or shared understanding of reality. Therefore, the paradigm influences the researcher's choice of design and methodology to use in gathering and analysing data (Creswell, 2009).

Dawson (2009) identifies three main types of paradigms which are: interpretivism, positivism, and post-positivism. Positivism is associated with quantitative research and is objective, whilst interpretivism engages with qualitative methodologies and is used to obtain an understanding of the world from individuals' point of view, thus it takes a subjective stance in collecting and analysing data. It believes that individuals have more knowledge about their experiences and the researcher is an active participant in the study. Post-positivism uses a mixed approach, that is, it employs qualitative and quantitative approaches (Rossman and Rollis, 2015).

This study was rooted in the interpretive paradigm, which is qualitative and, thus, descriptive in nature. It sought to explore the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of girls in Gokwe, Zimbabwe. Creswell and Creswell (2018) posit that every research is governed by some underlying philosophical assumptions which lead to the selection of research methods that are appropriate for the development of knowledge in a given study.

Interpretivism was relevant for this particular study because it endeavoured to derive constructs from the field of an in-depth examination of the phenomena of interest. Thanh & Thanh (2015), Potrac, Jones and Nelson (2014), Alharahsheh & Pius (2020), Ryan (2018), and Pham (2018) argue that interpretivists assume that knowledge is an act of interpretation, hence there is no objective knowledge which is independent of human thinking and reasoning. In support of the above, Creswell (2015), Brown (2019), and Siddiqui (2019), add that the premise of interpretive researchers is that access to reality is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meaning. Thus, in this study, the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe were explored.

There is not only one reality in the social world but researchers understand issues differently (Kekeya, 2019). By adopting an interpretivist paradigm, the researcher entered the social world

of teachers, sexually abused girl learners, school heads and a police officer. Thus, Willis (2007) says that interpretivism is premised on the belief that there is need to promote a participatory and holistic approach to come up with what the participants in the study have to say about their experiences. Interpretivism was, thus, relevant for the current study because it endeavours to derive constructs from the field of an in-depth examination of the phenomenon of interest.

4.3 Qualitative approach

To establish the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of learners, the qualitative/descriptive research approach was adopted. According to Holloway and Wheeler (2016), qualitative research is an inquiry process based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) add that qualitative research lends itself to a view of social reality. Thorne (2016) points out that qualitative research provides thick descriptions of phenomena from both the insider and the outsider's perspectives. This, in turn, makes the research reports quite descriptive. As such, the study was descriptive and exploratory. Silverman (2020) says that qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

According to Ndabezihle (in Tichapondwa, 2013), the qualitative approach is relevant to a study with research questions that call for inductive reasoning, where specific objects will be observed in their natural setting. Bricki and Green (2017) state that the qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based on multiple meanings, socially and historically, to develop a pattern. Therefore, this approach is relevant for this study because the researcher managed to have in-depth and detailed information concerning the holistic development of sexually abused girl learners.

Qualitative research, therefore, focuses on the experiences of people and also stresses the uniqueness of the individual. In support, Holloway and Wheeler (2012:30), Aspers and Corte (2019) and Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2020) are of the opinion that qualitative research is a form of social inquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their

experience and the world in which they live. In this research, the researcher used the qualitative approach to explore the behaviour, perspectives, experiences and feelings of teachers, headmasters, police officer, and sexually abused girls. The researcher emphasised understanding of these elements to explore the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of form two learners in Gokwe. The qualitative approach was found to be the most appropriate for this research because it concerns itself with providing rich descriptions of phenomena that can occur without the intervention of an experiment or an artificially contrived treatment (Darlington & Scott, 2020; Howitt, 2019; Chinyoka, 2013). The nature and underlying goals of this study required the use of the qualitative design, hence its use.

4.4 Research design

A research design is the plan that shows how a researcher intends to explore a research problem (Sileyew, 2019; Thomas, 2009; Englander, 2019; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2020; Skarbek, 2020; Stenfors, Kajamaa & Bennett, 2020). The aim of the research design is to make sure that the data gathered play a role in answering the research question(s) as accurately as possible. This is in agreement with Rukwaru (2015:52), who posits that a research design is a systematic plan to study a scientific problem. Thus, a research design will require careful planning and execution (Chinyoka, 2013). The research design also provides a framework that allows decisions to be made about the research process (Mc Millan, Schu, Aspers & Corte, 2019; Macher, 2013:157). These processes included how data was collected, what instruments were used, how they were used as well as the intended means of analysing the data. In this study, the phenomenological design was adopted. The phenomenological design offers an important shift from a positivist cause-effect focus to one of human subjectivity and discovering the meaning of actions (Creswell, 2015; Giorgi, 2005; Rosenberger, 2020; Sundler, Lindberg, Nilsson & Palmér, 2019).

The qualitative phenomenological design was used in this study to establish the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of learners. Phenomenology, according to Brundrett and Rhodes (2014:17), places a strong emphasis on interpreting the meaning of phenomena and focuses on human action and its interpretation. The goal of qualitative phenomenological research is to describe a 'lived experience' of a phenomenon (Chinyoka, 2013). Consequently, Leedy and Ormrod (2005), Qutoshi (2018), Cypress (2018), Cresswell (2008), McMillan and

Schumacher (2010), Heotis (2020), Conrad and Serlin (2012) and Rosenberger (2020) posit that the purpose of phenomenological study is to understand experiences from participants' point of view in their natural settings. Bryman (2010) says qualitative researchers focus on interpreting the perceptions and views of the people involved in the research and their meanings and interpretations. In line with the above, Heotis (2020) and Carpenter (2017) indicate that the purpose of phenomenology is to describe particular phenomena, or the appearance of things as lived experiences. Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) and Peoples (2020) aver that phenomenology seeks to transform the lived experiences into a description of essence and allows for reflection and analysis.

Researchers state that the focus of the phenomenological approach is on what humans experience and how they express their experiences, as accurately as possible, by means of language (Muridzo, 2018; Mugabe, Chimombe and Chinyoka, 2016). Darlington and Scott (2020) observe that this approach places emphasis on description, interpretation and subjectivity. They also state that it concerns the way people perceive things: their attitudes, feelings, belief patterns and emotions. Thus, phenomenology is "the study of lived experiences, human phenomena within the everyday social contexts in which the phenomena occur from the perspective of those who experience them" (Titchen and Hobson, 2005:121). It, therefore, means that people's experience of social reality provides a basis to understand the meaning of that reality. Hence, the researcher would work towards having new meanings and increasing her understanding of the phenomena from the social world (Cypress, 2018; Gray, 2004). The phenomenological approach focuses on exploring how human beings experience the phenomenon, that is, how they perceive it, describe it and make sense of it. To reach such understanding, the researcher had to conduct in-depth interviews and focus group discussions and gather data from people who live with, or have directly experienced, CSA (Patton, 2012).

The major aim of the researcher is, therefore, to describe in as much detail and as accurately as possible, the psychosocial effects of CSA on the development of sexually abused girl learners in secondary schools in Zimbabwe, basing on the argument by Kruger (2010) that, phenomenologists are concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspectives of people involved

4.5 Population

Population is a collective term used to describe the total quantity of cases of the type that are the subject of your study (Walliman, 2014). The population comprised Form Two learners from two secondary schools in Gokwe, their teachers, school heads and a police officer. Form Two learners were targeted because they are considered to be cognitively mature enough to verbalise their experiences in cases where they have been sexually abused. The target population comprised one hundred and sixty (160) girls doing Form 2, two school heads, one police officer and fifteen (15) qualified teachers teaching Form Two girl learners at the two secondary schools. The total target population was, therefore, one hundred and eighty-two (182).

4.6 Sample

Boddy (2016), Babbie (2016), and Gentles and Vilches (2017) posit that a sample is a group of elements or a single element, from which data are obtained, while Taherdoost (2017) and Walliman (2014) say a sample is a fraction of the population of the group that you want to study. A sample is a small proportion or subset of the whole population which the researcher actually investigates and whose characteristics are generalised to the entire population (Majid, 2018; Jones, Baird & Lunin, 2018; Best & Khan, 2003; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2010). Qualitative researchers do not normally know the number of people in the research beforehand; the sample may change in size and type during research. Sampling goes on until saturation has been achieved, that is, when no new information is generated (Nicholls, 2017; Holloway, 2007:142; Jones, Baird & Lunin, 2018). From the target population of one hundred and eighty-two (182), a sample of fifteen (15) was purposively selected for use in the study, comprising two (2) teachers, ten (10) sexually abused learners who were obtained through snowballing, two (2) school heads, and one (1) police officer. Considering the sensitivity of CSA, snowballing was used to identify sexually abused learners. This is a sampling technique often used for hidden populations which are difficult for researchers to access (Heckathorn, 2015).The researcher being a counsellor in the area was introduced to one form two girl learner who had been sexually abused and the girl learner refered the next girl . The chain continued until the number required for the sample was reached. The teachers were chosen because they keep a record of children's background information, behaviour and perform

=-0987nce in class. For the sake of comparison of data, the researcher collected information from a police officer via an interview. School heads were included because the researcher wanted to find out how often cases of child sexual abuse were reported to the schools, and what measures were taken by the schools.

According to Shaheen and Pradhan (2019) and Naderifar, Goli and Ghaljaie (2017), choosing the correct size of sample is not a matter of preference, it is a crucial element of the research process without which you may as well be spending months trying to investigate a problem with a tool which is either completely useless, or over-expensive in terms of time and other resources. The purpose of selecting a sample was to enable the researcher to make conclusions about the effects of child sexual abuse among Form Two learners in Gokwe secondary schools, and its effects on academic performance. With regard to the sample size, Punch (2011) says from two to ten participants are sufficient to reach saturation, while Creswell and Creswell (2018) argue that ten participants are adequate in a phenomenological research study. In this study, a sample of fifteen (15) was drawn from the population.

4.6.1 Sampling procedures

There are several sampling procedures used to draw a representative or unbiased sample from a population. Qualitative research is based on non-probability and purposive sampling rather than probability or random approaches. Purposive sampling was used to come up with the required number of participants. Purposive sampling is also called judgemental sampling, as informants are chosen deliberately by the researcher because of the qualities that they possess (Chinyoka, 2013). Patton (2015:264) points out that purposive sampling entails "selecting information-rich cases to study, cases that by their nature and substance, will illuminate the inquiry question being investigated." Brundrett and Rhodes (2014) also aver that purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which the researcher purposefully selects individuals to include in the sample because they are important within the proposed research.

Lewis and Sheppard (2016) concur with Bernard (2012) and Creswell (2018) that the purposive sampling technique is a non-probability sampling technique that is most effective when one needs to study a certain cultural domain with knowledgeable experts within. Hence, Oppong (2013) and Ames, Glenton, and Lewin (2019) and Gall, Borg and Gall (2006) argue that

purposive sampling is based on the researcher's knowledge of the population and judgement is made about which cases should be selected to provide the best information to address the purpose of the research.

Mujere (2016), and Campbell, Greenwood, Prior, Shearer, Walkem, Young and Walker (2020) assert that determining an adequate sample size in qualitative research is ultimately a matter of using one's own judgement and experience in evaluating the quality of the information collected against the use to which it is to be put, the particular research method, the purposeful sampling strategy employed, and the research product intended. Van Rijnsoever (2017), Bernard (2012) and Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) studied different sample sizes of informants selected purposively, and found that at least five informants were needed for the data to be reliable.

Purposive sampling is flexible to use (Campbell, Greenwood, Prior, Shearer, Walkem, Young & Walker, 2020; Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016; Seidler, 2014; Bernard, 2012) and is more realistic than other sampling methods in terms of time, effort and cost needed in finding informants (Sibona, Walczak & Baker, 2020; Etikan & Bala, 2017; Lewis & Sheppard, 2006; Bernard, 2012). As purposive sampling is based on known qualities of the informants, reliability and competence of the informants were assured.

In purposive sampling, generalisation is possible to similar subjects and adds credibility (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016; Sharma, 2017; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This adds credibility (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Bernard (2012), Schreier (2018), Dudovskiy (2017), Seidler (2004) and Mugera (2013) concur that purposive sampling is flexible in terms of the number of informants to be used, the sampling techniques the researcher will use and the phases to be considered. The underlining guideline is that the information needed should be obtained when required. Furthermore, Campbell (2006) argues that the method is useful when there are limited funds and materials.

Despite advantages given above, purposive samples, irrespective of the type of purposive sampling used, can be highly prone to researcher bias (Mugera, 2013; Neuman, 2010). The idea that a purposive sample has been created based on the judgement of the researcher is not a good defence when it comes to alleviating possible researcher biases. However, this judgmental,

subjective component of purposive sampling is only a major disadvantage when such judgements are ill-conceived or poorly considered (Mugera, 2013; Ayres, 2018). The subjectivity and non-probability- based nature of selecting participants in purposive sampling means that it can be difficult to convince the reader that the judgement used to select units to study was appropriate. For this reason, it can also be difficult to convince the reader that research using purposive sampling achieved theoretical/analytic/logical generalisation (Mugera, 2013). All the same, purposive sampling was used as the researcher believed that such a sample would achieve the intended goal, given that the nature of the study which is sensitive.

4.7 Data collection procedures

Selecting a method of data collection depends on factors such as the phenomenon being investigated, the objectives of the research and the philosophical and theoretical perspectives (Barrett & Twycross, 2018; Jones, 2012; Sutton & Austin, 2015). The collection of data is one major task a researcher goes through when conducting any kind of research. Consequently, Creswell (2018) observes that collecting credible data is a tough task and no method of data collection is inherently better than the other. The choice of method to use, therefore, depends on the intended goals of the researcher, the strategy to be used, as well as the merits and demerits of each method (O'Leary, 2012). Creswell (2013) states that the main instrument for the collection of data in qualitative research is the researcher. Qualitative findings grow out of the kinds of data collection methods used, namely in-depth, open-ended interviews, focus group discussions, direct observation and written documents.

4.7.1 Semi-structured interview

The researcher used in-depth face-to-face interviews with two (2) teachers, two (2) school heads, and one (1) policeman. In-depth interviews were carried out until the researcher was satisfied that no other responses would come from the interviewees. According to Merriam (2009), an interview is a discussion between two people, one asking questions about a specific topic and the other one responding. It can be regarded as an interchange of opinions by two or more people to get the knowledge that can be used to answer research questions (Cohen *et al*., 2011). According to Mason (2017), interviewing is a method of soliciting information and at the same time getting knowledge from individuals. Lafrance (2018) states that interviews are an interchange of views

between or among people on a topic. Merriam (2009) identifies three types of interviews, namely; structured interviews, semi-structured interviews and open-ended interviews. For this research, a semi-structured interview was selected.

In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer does not follow a formalised list of questions. Instead, questions that are more open-ended were asked to allow discussion with the interviewee. Cohen and Manion (2007), Flick (2014) and van Ryzin (2011) explain that in semi-structured interviews, interviewers use interview guides that have a set of questions. Semi-structured interviews combine both structured and unstructured questions. In the current study, the researcher prepared interview guides. Prepared guidelines were necessary because the researcher wanted to come up with psychosocial effects of CSA on girl learners, hence there was need to guide the interview. Van Ryzin (2014) opines that the researcher should have a structured section of the interview while allowing the interview to be guided by open ended set of questions. This assisted the current researcher to collect the information needed.

When using the semi-structured interview, the researcher should be consistent. All the participants should be treated the same and should be asked the same questions (Merriam, 2009). In the current research, the researcher was cognisant of this fact, so the participants were asked the same questions, although there was some form of flexibility.

It was advantageous for the researcher to use this type of interview in the current study because it enabled the researcher to get first-hand information from the participants. According to Merriam (2009), interviews help the researcher to be sensitive to participants' language; both linguistic and non-linguistic features will be observed. The researcher attached meaning to those features. In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer makes a followup on specific issues, thus providing more detailed information about the feelings and perceptions of participants on the topic. In the current study, the researcher was able to elicit more information through probing, whenever that was necessary. According to Creswell (2018) interviews have advantages in that, the research questions may change and be refined as the researcher learns what to ask and to whom it should be asked. The semi-structured interview used in this study was administered personally by the researcher. The researcher took time to establish rapport with the respondents and to explain the purpose of the study to them, as well as to clarify some areas that were not

very clear to some of them. The researcher also took down some notes during the interviews, to ensure that all the relevant information was captured.

Since interviews involve face-to-face interaction, they seemed quite ideal because questions can be rephrased to a level that can be understood. On the same note, interviews allowed the researcher to note other non-verbal cues by subjects involved (Forrester & Sullivan, 2018; Chilisa & Preece, 2005). Moreover, interviews are motivational in that the interviewee is more likely to take questions seriously since it is a new experience, a break in the daily routine. This is so because most people would rather talk than write. In addition, interviews are flexible. They allow greater flexibility in wording, sequence and direction. Furthermore, interviews help to ease the explanation of highly complex or abstract topics on CSA (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017; Rahman, 2020). In this study, the interviews allowed for the monitoring or evaluation of interpersonal skills, non-verbal and paralinguistic behaviour, emotional tone, behaviour under stress and consistency of the interviewee's answer. In addition, they allowed technicalities to take place in the interview. The interviewer did not want the interviewee to return to previous questions.

In addition, interviews were useful in obtaining detailed information about personal feelings, perceptions and opinions and simultaneously, record the respondent's own words on effects of CSA on academic performance of Form Two learners. Moreover, interviews allowed more detailed questions to be asked and they achieved a high response rate. Furthermore, ambiguities could be clarified and incomplete answers followed up. In addition, interviewees are not influenced by others in the group and may be less self-conscious in a one-to-one situation (Gray, Grove and Sutherland, 2016). However, this data elicitation method has its disadvantages. The interview may be biased. For example, the learners may not disclose all they know about CSA, for fear of victimisation and stigmatisation. School heads may also lie to protect the image of their schools. However, to curb these biases, the researcher made a comparison of the data collected from different sources.

Also, the interview has a disadvantage in that it requires a lot of time to carry out. A lot of time is needed to conduct interviews, to transcribe the data, analyse them, give feedback and write a comprehensive report. Interviews are very expensive to administer and the researcher may incur heavy travelling expenses. This is so because for interviews to be administered, the researcher used money for transport to and from the respondents` residents.

Nevertheless, all the precautions were taken to ensure bias-free interviews by accepting the information given as it is. Enough time was also scheduled to visit the schools.

4.7.2 Focus group discussions

According to Parahoo (2014:296) and Hancock, Amankwaa, Revell and Mueller (2016), a focus group discussion is an interaction between one or more researchers and more than one participant for the purpose of collecting data. Holloway and Wheeler (2012:110) state that in a focus group discussion, researchers interview participants with common characteristics or experiences for the purpose of eliciting ideas, thoughts and perceptions about specific topics or certain issues linked to an area of interest. Nyumba (2018) defines a focus group as a gathering of people coming from similar backgrounds or experiences, to discuss a specific topic of interest. It is a form of qualitative research where questions are asked about perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, opinions or ideas. A normal focus group discussion gathering should have 5 to 12 participants and all these participants are expected to freely participate (Kumari, Ranjan, Chopra, Kaur, Kaur, Kalanidhi & Vikram, 2021, Scheelbeek, Hamza, Schellenberg & Hill, 2020).

In this study, ten (10) sexually abused girl learners participated in two focus groups (FGD 1 and FGD2), each consisting of five learners from each school that were used to gather data from the research participants with the aim of eliciting their opinions on the psychosocial effects of CSA on holistic development of girl learners. Focus group experts Krueger and Casey (2008), Guest, Namey and McKenna (2017) and Yates and Leggett (2016) explain that a focus group interview should be carefully planned to create a permissive, non-threatening environment, a setting that encourages participants to share perceptions and points of view without pressuring participants to vote or reach consensus. Creating such an environment will make participants behave naturally. To make this kind of arrangement more effective, the pupils were also be required to talk to each other, ask their own questions and comment on each other's experiences. Barbour (2008:59) argues that "… a little bit of argument can go a long way towards teasing out what lies beneath 'opinions' and can allow both focus group facilitators and participants to clarify their own and others' perspectives." By so doing, learners shared and explore their experiences on the effects of CSA.

Focus group discussions have the following features, as outlined by Nyumba (2018):

- They are organised discussions with a selected group of individuals to gain information about their views and experiences of a topic.
- The group discussion should be carefully planned to create a non-intimidating environment.
- The interviewer's role is very significant and should have good interpersonal skills for moderating a group successfully.
- A focus group discussion is not static. The interviewer can bring changes in order to improve facilitation of the group discussion.

According to Robinson (2020), focus group discussions are particularly useful because participants are allowed to enter into conversation with each other in a safe setting. It has provision for free and open discussions among respondents, resulting in the generation of new ideas. Bergold and Thomas (2012) posit that open dialogue will become the central point for the entire case study. This atmosphere enables taboo topics to be discussed freely. Focus group discussions were valid for this research because participants were given the chance to participate in a relaxed manner and articulated their views freely and they were able to address some of the questions raised in this study. The researcher was able to record non-linguistic features as well.

According to Parahoo (2014:298), a focus group discussion has the following advantages:

It is a cheaper and quicker way of obtaining valuable data. Colleagues and friends are more comfortable in voicing opinions in each other's company than on their own, with the researcher. Participants are provided an opportunity to reflect or react to the opinion of others with which they may disagree or of which they are unaware.

The interview as a research instrument is unique in that it involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals (Borg and Gall, 2012). It also provides immediate feedback and permits follow-up of leads, thus enabling the researcher to get more data and

greater clarity from the respondents. Holloway and Wheeler (2012:117) also proffer the following strengths of focus group discussions:

The dynamic interaction among participants stimulates their thoughts and reminds them of their own feelings about the research topic. All participants, including the researcher, have an opportunity to ask questions, and these will produce more information than individual interviews. Informants can build on the answers of others. The researcher can clarify conflict between participants and ask about these different views.

During a discussion, individuals may shift due to the influence of comments given by others. FGIs tap into human tendencies where attitudes and perceptions are developed through interaction with other people. Another advantage, according to Hancock, Amankwaa Revell and Mueller (2016) and Kreuger (2008), is that it allows more respondents to contribute more ideas within a short space of time and, therefore enables, the harnessing of a wide range of opinions in a given time.

According to Patton (2015:475) "… in a focus group, participants get to hear each other's responses and to make additional comments beyond their original responses as they hear what other people have to say." When conducting FGDs with sexually abused girls in this study, the researcher requested the class teacher who was already familiar with the children, to act as a moderator. The researcher considered the presence of someone the children were already familiar with as a factor that would encourage children to talk about their experiences freely, without withholding any information pertaining to child sexual abuse. The free responses made by the children gave a wide information range that the researcher needed as useful and informative data. Creswell (2018), however, suggests that care must be taken to encourage all participants to talk during a FGI and there is need to monitor that certain individuals do not dominate the conversation. The moderators were made aware of this, in preparation for the interviews. A counsellor was present for support.

Questions for the FGI were carefully selected and phrased in advance, to elicit maximum responses by participants. The questions were of the funnel approach type in order to engage the interest of the interviewees. This is in line with what Barbour (2014), Robinson (2020) Stewart and Shamdasani (2000) suggest, that questions for the FGI should be ordered from the general to

the specific, and that questions of greater importance should be placed early near the top of the guide, while those of lesser significance should be placed near the end. The researcher was fully convinced that the FGI technique applied in this research would result in the supply of meaningful and valuable data that would be both reliable and valid.

However, the focus group discussion has its disadvantages. Nyumba (2018) notes that focus group discussions may have problems in controlling participants who dominate in discussions if the researcher is inexperienced. Some respondents may be reluctant to share sensitive ideas and concerns publicly, and the groups are too small to make a generalisation. Holloway and Wheeler (2012:118) highlighted the following limitations of focus group discussions:

The researcher has difficulty managing debate and controlling the process than in individual interview. Some participants may be introverts, while others dominate the discussion and influence the outcome, or perhaps even introduce bias. The group climate can inhibit or fail to stimulate the individual, or it can be livelier and generate more data. Recording data can present problems; it is not feasible to take notes when many people are talking at the same time. In addition, tape recorders may record only those that are nearer. Data analysis can be daunting. Focus group discussions are not replicable. The validity and reliability of the findings are difficult to ascertain on their own.

The fact that the researcher had knowledge about CSA helped her to guard against bias. The researcher ensured that all members participated by using the language well known by all learners. With the assistants of the teachers from the schools under study the researcher was able to identify the required participants for the discussion. Interview guides were developed and the responses were recorded.

4.8 Data analysis
Once all the fieldwork had been completed, the raw data needed to be analysed and interpreted (Akinyode & Khan, 2018). Mihas (2019), Lilian (2013) and Jackson and Bazeley (2019)

describe data analysis as a process in which the researcher sorts and sifts data, searching for types, classes, sequences, processes, patterns or wholes. The aim of this process is to assemble or reconstruct the data in a meaningful or comprehensible fashion. In this study, the researcher adopted this definition as a guide to the study's data analysis. Data analysis means organising, providing structure and eliciting meaning. Analysis of qualitative data is an active and interactive process (Mihas, 2019; Ruggiano & Perry, 2019). Data analysis commenced after conducting the first interview. An inductive approach to analysing the responses to interviews and focus groups was undertaken to allow patterns, themes, and categories to emerge, rather than being imposed prior to data collection and analysis (Leedy and Ormrod, 2012; Patton, 2015; Elliott, 2018; Williams & Moser, 2019). Thematic analysis of data using Tesch's open coding method was used and participants' responses were recorded verbatim. The most illustrative quotations were used to buttress important points that emerged from the data gathered from respondents. Data analysis occurs simultaneously with data collection as shown by the diagram by Creswell (2018) below:

Read through all the responses

Establish categories from the responses

Refine the categories – merge similar ones, delete redundant ones

Final categories emerge

Can every response be assigned to a category?

Yes

No

Cross-Category Analysis - Concentrate upon the relationship between the categories

The Big Picture – explain the contents of each category in relation to the others

Present your (time and context-bound) theory

A qualitative analysis process

[9]**Fig 4.1 Tesch Qualitative Analysis Process (Tesch, 1998).**

From the above diagram, the process of data analysis involves the following: Reading the data and looking for themes, emotions, elements that may have been overlooked and surprises, taking in the overall picture; reflective and in-depth reading of the data to find supporting evidence for these themes and re-reading to search for possible alternative meanings; attempting to link discrepancies together, the researcher wants to learn about what is going on. When comprehension is achieved, the researcher is able to prepare a detailed description of the phenomenon under study. Saturation is achieved when new data cannot be added then synthesising of data follows. This involves sifting data and putting the pieces together. This enables the researcher to make sense of what is typical regarding the phenomenon. The

researcher makes general statements regarding the phenomenon and participants. Alternative explanations of the phenomenon are developed by the researcher to determine their correlation with the data.

In this study, meanings were formulated from extracted statements and then clustered into themes, to provide full meaning of the experience. The participants were consulted to ensure or confirm the credibility of the description. Information collected through the focus group discussions was used to prepare a statement regarding the collected data. The researcher transcribed the entire interview so as to provide a complete record of the discussions and facilitate the analysis of the data. An analysis of the words used in the answers was made, to establish trends and patterns in respondents' thoughts and views. The researcher also considered the emphasis or intensity of the respondents' comments, the consistency of the comments and the specificity of responses in follow-up probes. The next step was to analyse the content of the discussion, with the aim of rioting down trends and patterns that emerged and resurfaced within either a single focus group or among different focus groups.

To avoid influencing the research findings, descriptive phenomenology requires the researcher to make full use of bracketing (that is, to suspend their past experiences, knowledge or prediction of phenomena). Creswell (2018) states that when the researcher brackets her personal experiences, she is better able to understand the experiences conveyed during the interview with the participant. This implies that the researcher must set aside all prejudgments in an attempt to gain accurate information (Crossman, 2020; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Azungah, 2018; Guest, Macqueen & Namey, 2012).

It should be noted that the process of data analysis is a complex, time-consuming activity. For this reason, the researcher allocated sufficient time for the work to be completed. Elliot (2018), Linneberg and Korsgaard (2019) and Seidel (2008) note that codes serve to summarize, synthesize, and sort many observations made of the data and that this becomes the fundamental means of developing the analysis. He further notes that researchers use codes to pull together and categorize a series of otherwise discrete events, statements, and observations which they identify in the data.

4.9 Data Credibility and trustworthiness

According to Lincolin and Guba (2016) and Hayes (2020), trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of the qualitative research results which involve multiple methods in data collection. Trustworthiness is a key element in qualitative research. According to Gunawan (2015), Daniel (2018), Bryman (2012), and Loh (2013), it is achieved through credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability

In this study, credibility was established through prolonged engagement, persistent observation, use of the triangulation technique, peer briefing, as well as referential and member checking. The researcher used prolonged engagement where she engaged the sexually abused girls for group discussions assessing consistency. Lincolin and Guba (2016) assert that prolonged engagement involves extended participation, which gives the researcher adequate time to learn the culture, test for false information, building trust and usually repeating the procedure central to the case study. Member checking was also used to ensure credibility. This is when the researcher gives participants the compiled report of the findings so that they check and confirm if the responses were correctly captured.

Data triangulation was another method which was used to ensure credibility in the current research. This was achieved through the use of interviews with teachers, school heads and police officer, and through focus group discussions with sexually abused girl learners. Data from various schools were compared, thus cross-case site was done using views from individuals' experiences. The researcher compared data collected from the school heads, teachers, police officer and Form Two learners.

Trustworthness was established through referential. The researcher used established research methods derived from those that have been successfully applied to previous comparable projects (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Another criterion that was used by the researcher to ensure trustworthiness is transferability. This refers to the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations. To achieve transferability, according to Marshall and Rossman (2011) and Yin (2014), the researcher must carefully define the research background and the expectations that are important to the study. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) give the importance of an accurate boundary of study so that transferability is enabled. In the current research, the researcher made transferability easier by establishing the following measures

accurately: location of the study and total number of schools involved was stated, number of participants who were interviewed and participated in focus discussions was given, and data collection methods used were clearly explained.

Dependability is another element of establishing trustworthiness. Korstjensand Moser (2018), Simon and Goes (2016) and Merriam (2009) posit that credibility and dependability are correlated. When one tries to ensure credibility, dependability may also be established. However, in dependability, the researcher should be able to account for the changes in the study design if there are any (Bertram and Christiansen, 2014). In dependability, the researcher also conforms to the laid down procedures of conducting a study (Connelly, 2016; Nassaji, 2020; Cohen *et al*., 2007; Ahmed & Muhammad, 2017). This may be done by documenting the techniques used to examine and re-examine data during the study. The researcher in the current study coded and re-coded data findings in data analysis, for conformity. The researcher was also in constant conduct with her supervisor so as to conform to laid down procedures in carrying out a research study. The researcher's supervisor, Prof. Beyers, assisted in validating the instruments and if modifications were needed, these would have be effected by the researcher, to make the instruments authentic. Furthermore, content validity and other kinds of internal validity were checked through pilot-testing of the instruments at another school in Gokwe.

Member checking allowed participants to read through the data. Their analysis and provision of feedback on the researcher's interpretations of their responses provides researchers with a method of checking for inconsistencies and challenges to the researchers' assumptions. It also provides them with an opportunity to re-analyse their data (Anderson, 2010; Muridzo, 2018). In this research, apart from allowing respondents, especially teachers, to get feedback on the data that had been collected and conclusions made by the researcher, the interviews and focus group discussions with learners were carried out and the results compared, to enable the researcher to identify emerging and unanticipated themes. In so doing, credibility and trustworthiness of the study was guaranteed.

4.10 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are standards imposed by members to safe-guard themselves, their profession and pride. Ethical considerations include informed consent, confidentiality, deception and debriefing, de-

hoaxing, non-maleficence, beneficence as well as justice and fairness (Muridzo, 2018; Makore-Chikuni, 2001; Johnson, 2020; Fisher, 2003; Thakhathi, Shepherd & Nosizo, 2018; Abrar & Sidik, 2019; Pettifor, 2004; Pietilä, Nurmi, Halkoaho & Kyngäs, 2020). Psychologists take very serious ethical considerations so as to minimise any immediate discomfort or risk to research participants (Bernstein, 2011; Conlin & Boness, 2019; Newins, 2019). There is also need to protect participants from long-term harm. Cox (2020) says that descriptive ethics are used in research and give the researcher guidelines on how to conduct research. Descriptive ethics emphasise rules that are rational, objective, universal and impartial. Ethical responsibilities entail protecting the rights of participants and reporting results fairly and accurately. Thus. When conducting human research, especially research like this one on effects of child sexual abuse, the researcher has the responsibility to conform to morally acceptable code of conduct, as determined by the scientific community

Before the commencement of the study, the researcher complied with the code of ethics proposed by the University Of Free State (UFS). The researcher obtained a clearance certificate from the UFS Research Department, UFS-HSD2017/0770. Permission was also sought from the participants' parents, school heads, teachers who participated in this study, and also the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture (Appendix 3).

All participants were made aware of the research aims and the researcher ensured that the participants understood the research aims. Participants signed a letter of informed consent that allows the researcher to use the information gathered for research purposes. The researcher sought informed consent before carrying out the study by informing the participants about the purpose and methods to be used in the study. The parents and caregivers of the participants were asked to sign the consent forms giving permission for their children to participate in the study (Appendices 5 and 8). The girl learners also completed the assent forms (Appendix 8). Participants were assured that the data collected in this study was to be used for the purpose of this study. The participants were allowed to volunteer to participate in the study and if they wished to withdraw from the study at any stage of the research process, they were at liberty to do so. The participants were assured of their safety, both physically and psychologically (Bertram and Christiansen, 2014). Surmiak (2018) and Cohen *et al*. (2014) affirm that in conducting

research, ethical issues should be considered to avoid problems that may arise during the process of generating data and also to protect the rights of the participants.

According to Myers and Blausey (2020), confidentiality refers to the handling of information that a participant has divulged in a relationship of trust, with the hope that it will not be disclosed to others without consent. The researcher respected the participants' right to privacy. The identity or any identity particulars of the participants remained anonymous throughout the study. Data obtained from the participants was strictly confidential and the reporting of data was done anonymously and participants were not be required to give their names during interviews and group discussions. The participants and their settings were assigned pseudonyms to protect their identities.

A brief description of the results of the study was also given to the participants. Beneficence and non-maleficence were upheld during, and after, the research study.

4.11 Summary

This chapter discussed the research paradigm that underpins the study. The study used the interpretivist paradigm and the qualitative approach. These were discussed in detail, citing their relevance in the study. The phenomenological design which was adopted was discussed, highlighting its advantages and disadvantages in the current study. The research also discussed the relevant data collection tools which were used. These included semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions. Evidence was given that these research instruments were in line with the objectives of the study. Sample and sampling procedures were outlined giving the necessary detail. A comprehensive explanation of data analysis, interpretation, measures to establish trustworthiness and ethical issues of the study were discussed. The next chapter deals with data presentation, analysis and discussion, answering all the research questions stated in Chapter One.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The main thrust of this chapter is to present, analyse and discuss the data that were collected by means of interviews and focus group discussions. The main informants are fifteen (15), comprising two (2) teachers, ten (10) sexually abused girl learners (five from each of the two schools studied) who participated in two focus group discussions (FGDs) and who were obtained through snowballing, two (2) school heads and one (1) police officer. The participants were purposively drawn from the population. Five (5) participants participated in the face-to-face interviews and ten (10) in focus group discussions. Background information of the respondents is given before analysing the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe. In order to make sense of the collected data, the researcher applied Tesch's open coding method of data-analysis so as to identify the themes and categories. The data analysis, presentation, and discussion are in the form of detailed descriptions, using narrative vignettes and direct quotes from interviews and focus group discussions. English was used as the medium of communication with the teachers and school heads during the interviews, while both Shona and English were used with the girl learners and the police officer during the interviews and focus group discussions. The responses were translated into English by the researcher and the translations were validated by two colleagues (lecturers at the Zimbabwe Open University).

The data codes and significant ideas were singled out systematically and arranged in themes and categories, for thematic discussion. The discussion of the findings is separately done in line with the research questions, themes and sub-themes derived from the study at the end of the chapter. The themes and sub-themes are evaluated and measured against Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory, Erikson's Psychosocial Theory, and the Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) by Albert Ellis, and the literature review (see Chapters 2 and 3).

The first part of the chapter deals with data presentation, interpretation and analysis, while the second part discusses the findings.

5.2 Biographical details of partcipants

[2]**Table 5.1 Codes of individual interviews: teachers, school headms and police officer**

Code	Explanation
TFSA	Teacher, female, School A
TMSB	Teacher, male, School B
HMSA	Head, male, School A
HMSB	Head, female, School B
POL	Police officer

Key

TFSA   - Teacher, Female, School A
HMSA - Headmaster, Male, School A
Source field data 2019

[3]**Table 5.2 Codes of focus group discussions with Form Two girl learners**

Code	Explanation
FGDSA	Focus group discussion, School A
FGDSB	Focus group discussion, School B

Key

FGDSA -Focus Group Discussion, School A.

Source: field data, 2019

[4]**Table 5.3 Codes of the ten sexually abused girls during focus group discussions**

Code	Explanation
G1A	Girl child 1, School A
G2A	Girl child 2, School A
G3A	Girl child 3, School A
G4A	Girl child 4, School A
G5A	Girl child 5, School A
G6B	Girl child 6, School B
G7B	Girl child 7, School B
G8B	Girl child 8, School B
G9B	Girl child 9, School B
G10B	Girl child 10, School B

Key

G1A - Girl child 1, School A

G6B- Girl child 6, School B

[5]**Table 5.4 Showing working experience of teachers, headmasters and the policeman**

Code	Explanation	Work experience
TFSA	Teacher, female, School A	Twelve years (12)
TMSB	Teacher, fale, School B	Nineteen years (19)
HMSA	Headmaster, male, School A	Twenty years (20)
HMSB	Headmaster male, School B	Fifteen years (15)
POL	Police officer	Ten years (10)

(Source: Field data, 2019)

From Table 5.4 showing working experience of teachers, heads and one police officer, the working experience for teachers ranges from twelve to nineteen years. As shown in the table, TFSA has been at the school for 12 years and TMSB has been teaching for 19 years, to date. One can conclude that the teachers are experienced enough to explain the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of girl learners. The two heads have been in their positions for 15 and 20 years, respectively. POL has been in the Gokwe community for 10 years. Given the above, both heads and police officer are well versed in the areas of study, hence are of great value to this study. The deduction that can be made from the above findings is that the respondents have been in their respective schools and communities for a reasonably long period of time to know and experience the effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl learners. This suggests that the respondents are well informed on the topic.

n=15
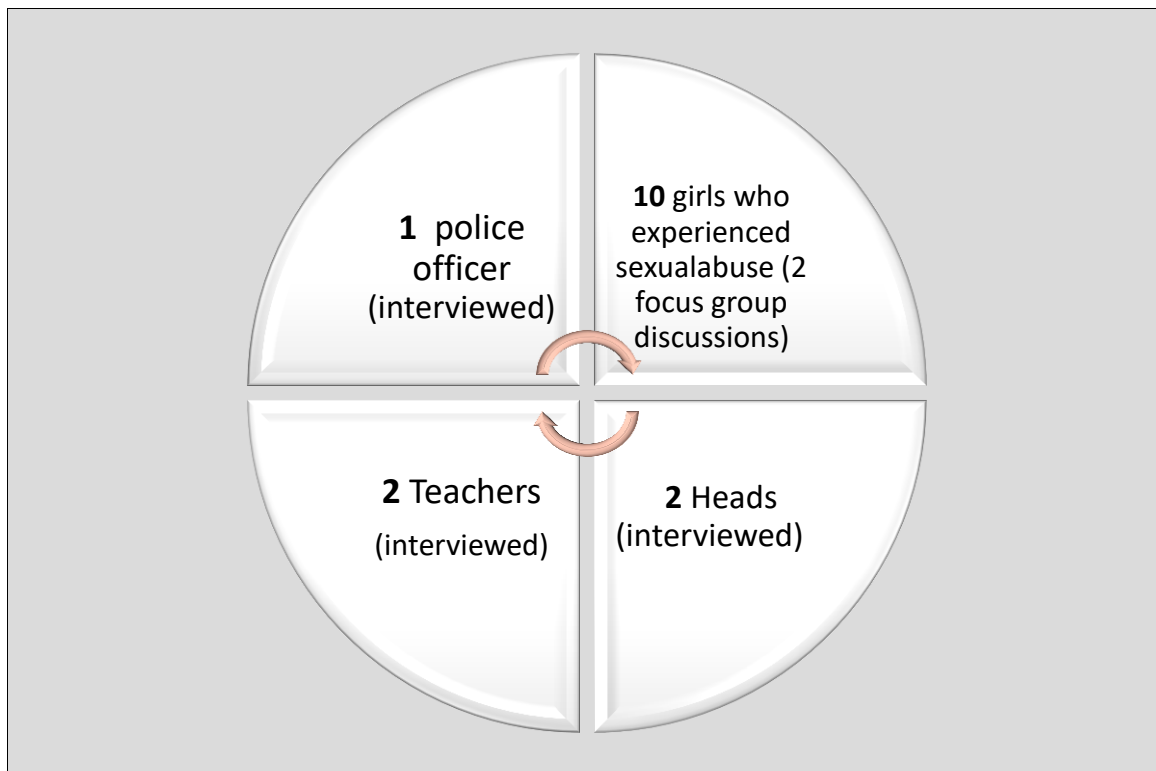
[10]Fig: 5.1 Demographic data as extracted from the interviews and focus group discussions

(Source: Field data, 2019)

The majority of the participants, namely ten (10) Form Two girls in this study (as illustrated by Fig. 5.1), were From Two (2) secondary schools (pseudo-named School A and B). The ten girls participated in focus group discussions only. As shown in Fig. 5.1 and Table 5.3 above, out of the two (2) teachers who participated in the study, one is a female, TFSA, while TMSB is male. Both teachers were interviewed to give rich information on the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe. The two headmasters were both males, HMSA and HMSB. The police officer, POL, was female as shown in Table 5.4. The ten Form 2 learners from the two schools (A and B) were put in groups comprising five learners from each school, to make up the two (2) focus groups, FGDSA and FGDSB. These were chosen to give comprehensive detail about psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of learners.

Fig. 5.2 below summarises the age groups of the respondents.
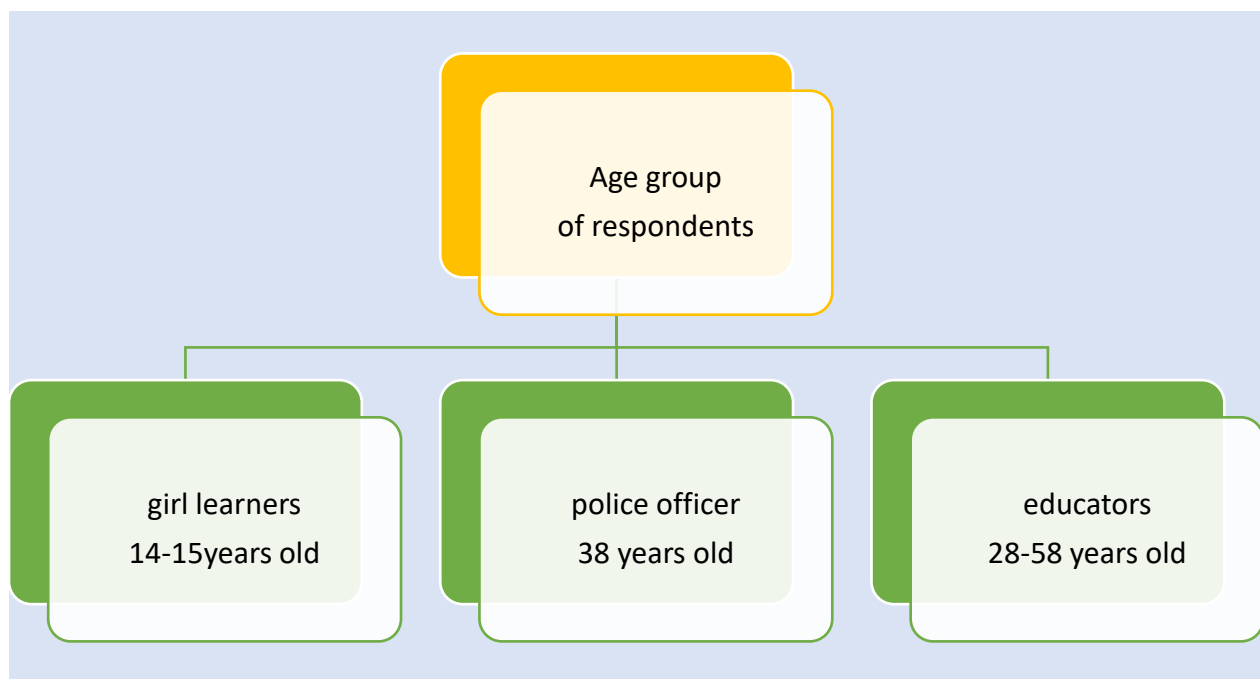
[11]Fig. 5.2: The age groups of the respondents

(Field data, 2019)

Figure 5.2 reveals that ten (10) girl respondents were between the ages of fourteen (14) and fifteen (15) years, all being Form 2 learners who participated in the FGIs. The police officer was aged thirty-eight (38) years, while the two (2) teachers and two (2) heads were aged between

twenty-eight years (28) and fifty-eight years (58). The findings seem to suggest that the respondents were mature enough to be of essential help in the study. All the respondents were literate and could, therefore, decipher valid and reliable information. They were, therefore, able to present meaningful responses to the questions given in this study.

5.3 The psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe

This section analyses, interprets and discusses the primary data collected by means of the interviews and focus group discussions, in relation to the questions for the research. This section attempts to answer the following critical questions, and interpret the data produced:

- What are the main causes of sexual abuse among girl children in Zimbabwe?
- What are the consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child?
- How does sexual abuse affect academic performance of girl learners?
- How can children who have been sexually abused be assisted in the schools?

5. 4 Findings and Discussion

The analysis of the empirical data yielded four themes, as indicated in Figure 5.3 below. The sub-headings represent the themes/categories that emerged, as the main or repetitive themes are also used to facilitate the presentation and discussion of the findings.
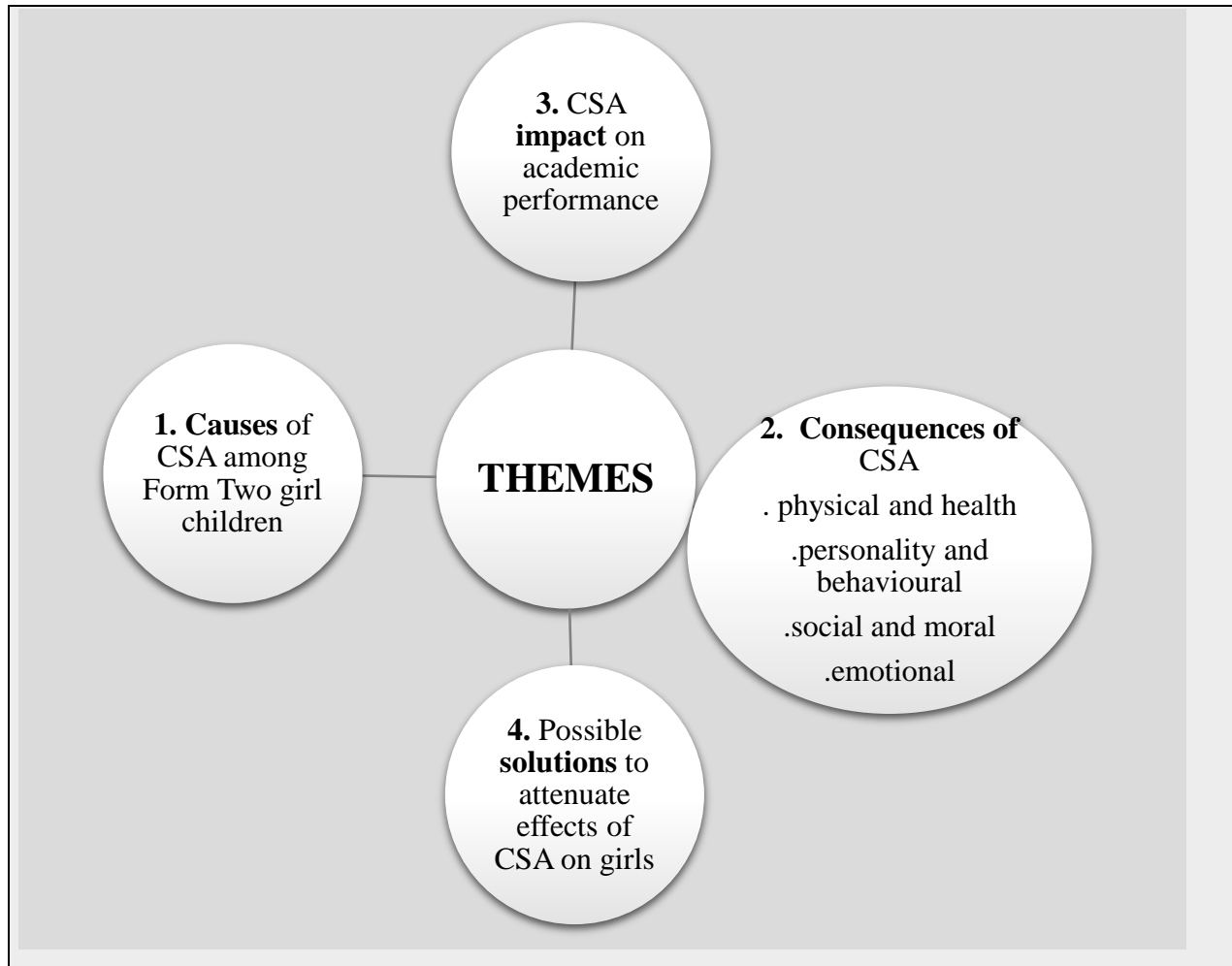
Source: Field data (2019).

The study established the following themes, as shown in Figure 5.3, the causes of CSA on girl learners, impact of CSA on cognitive or academic performance of girl learners, consequences of CSA and the possible solutions to attenuate effects of CSA on girls.

Theme 1: The causes of CSA among girl children

This study established that the phenomenon of CSA remains topical in Zimbabwe. Both teachers and heads who participated in this study posited that the sexual abuse of children crosses cultural and economic divides. The purpose of the focus group discussions was to establish if children knew the causes of child sexual abuse. The interviews with teachers, one police officer and the

heads were meant to establish their knowledge on CSA, its causes within the school and home setting. The focus group interview with learners who experienced sexual abuse (ten girls) was meant to hear their lived experiences in relation to CSA.

The police officer revealed that:

> *Some of the causes of CSA were as a result of myths that surrounded HIV and AIDS cure that if one sleeps with a virgin they will be completely cured. Children were also vulnerable in broken, polygamous, poorly parented homes and when they lived in the custody of relatives, neighbours and friends.*

The police officer further noted that:

> *...vamwe vana vanotono zviroodza varivadiki (gave themselves away in marriage) because of economic hardships. Teachers as well are culprits too in this issue because some of them abuse alcohol and drugs, divorced and single tend to turn on their pupils for sex.*

The POL also highlighted that:

> *... most people in our communities, live in overcrowded populations. The housing facilities are poor. Some children sleep in the same room with their parents. These children are exposed to adult sexual act as they grow and it raises curiosity among them. When the adults are away they begin to experiment. Television programmes have also caused curiosity among the children, they want to try out what they have seen.*

In the same vein, Tyler and Schmitz (2018), Olsen (2010:12) and Pergamit, Cunningham and Hanson (2017) affirm that poor or insufficient sleeping provisions lead to overcrowding and sharing of beds, factors which could lead to inappropriate sexual behaviour. In some of these set-ups, that is where brother to sister incest occurs. In support, G7B revealed that during play, children assign each other roles for example, child, wife and husband. The ones who would have taken roles of husband and wife get involved in adult play where they touch and kiss and sometimes attempted penetration or penetration takes place. Usually, the one who becomes husband is an older boy and the wife a young girl. Sexual abuse then happens in the name of play.

G1A revealed that classrooms were no longer safe as some male teachers, during extra lessons, get the opportunity to touch girl learners. These touches develop into sexual activity. Townsend

and Dawes (2004), Gushwa, Bernier and Robinson (2019), and Christensen and Darling (2020) posit that teachers, in their position of authority, also hold significant power over school children. Therefore, sexual abuse by teachers has been found to be a significant problem being caused by their abuse of authority over their learners in South African schools. According to Pulido (2019) and Gelles (2009), teachers should realise that they are called into the profession to safeguard and protect the young ones under their care and as such, should create an environment devoid of any hindrance to learners' active participation in school. Though so many cases of rape surface now from the schools, there are many living examples of children whose lives were destroyed by rape within the school system.

It was established, through FGDSA and FGDSB, that some cases of CSA were as a result of parental neglect, involving leaving of children in the custody of friends and neighbours and trusting strangers. In some families, parenting styles have had a hand in child sexual abuse. Santrock (2010), Szkody, Steele and McKinney (2020) and Seifi (2016) perceive parenting as a psychological construct representing standard strategies that parents use in their child rearing. The personality styles of girls from neglectful parents are characterised by social incompetence, poor self-control, and failure to handle independence well (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Kuppens & Ceulemans, 2019; Talib & Mamat, 2011). Due to the negligent parental style, neglected girls become vulnerable to sexual abuse. Families of today generally can no longer provide the same support, rules and guidelines in the way their predecessors used to. Family values and authority are continually weakening and this sometimes means that girls have to make important decisions on their own. This creates a potentially dangerous situation which worsens the plight of girls (Oertwig, Riquelme & Halberstadt, 2019) and exposes them to child sexual abuse. Howe (2005), Shehzadi, Bajwa, Batool and Shah (2018) posit that due to dictatorial parenting, children often exhibit attachment patterns of insecurity and anxiety. According to Guma and Henda (2004) and Oertwig, Riquelme and Halberstadt (2019), children are socialised to respect, and be obedient, to their elders, with harsh methods of discipline still being used to enforce parental control. This unquestionable authority of adults allows sexual violence to occur without much resistance from children (Townsend & Dawes, 2004). The girl child is, thus, drilled into submission and this blind obedience leaves room for sexual abuse to take place as the elders abuse their authority and respect.

During FGDs, girl learners remarked that there are some churches that encourage CSA through child marriages. A learner from School B, G10B, said that some families are child-headed and as a result, some people take advantage of these children. She further remarked that:

> *...vamwe vanhu vanouya sevanoda kubatsira ivo vakaronga kukanganisa vana ava (some people get to these children as if they want to help them while they have a hidden agenda to sexually harm them).*

> *...zvimwe zvinokonzera ibarika. (Some of the abuse was because of polygamous families). Vana varipa barika vamwe vanotorwa nevakadzi vababa vavo vachivaita varume. (Some male children were sexually abused by their fathers' other wives). Children from different mothers also get intimate. A lot of evil happens in such families, to the extent that grandchildren are being born and bred within the family.*

TMSB spoke of the case of a father in the community under study who sexually abused his two daughters and they both fell pregnant. One daughter had a child and the other was heavily pregnant. Perpetrators are mainly male adults and youth who are known to the girl, in particular, relatives and acquaintances (Benedet, 2020; Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi 2013; Makoae *et al.*, 2009). According to Macrann (2017), African traditions and cultures have subjected girls to sexual abuse and through many factors, sexual abuse has been institutionalised within the society. Young girls are tacitly prepared for marriage to older men. This is worse in situations where churches do not allow children to go to school. This is very common in the Johanne Marange Apostolic Sect in Zimbabwe. CSA is extensively spread among religious groupings (Sibanda, 2011; Pinheiro, 2006; Muchacha, 2015).The question on causes of CSA raised a lot of issues from the learners. Learner from School B, G5A said,

> *...vamwe kumakereke akaita sepositori vanoti varotswa vachiroora umwe mukadzi vachitendeka kamwana mudiki. (In some churches like the Apostolic sector they say that they have dreamt marrying another wife, pointing to an underage girl). Vaberekihavarambinekutivanengevachitendakutimweyamutsvenewataura. (The parents don't refute as they believe that it's an act of the Holy Spirit).*

G9B revealed that:

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...some of these things are not normal l think it's the work of the devil and indeed we are living in the last days. Some of these abusers are happily married and sometimes unotonzwa kuti baba vepa next door vakabuda mavanovata vakabhinya musikana webasa iye mukadzi wavo arimo mumba avete. (You hear that your neighbour sneaked out of his bedroom and raped his maid yet his wife is in the same house sleeping)

Another learner, pseudo-named G1A, said that she thought it was as a result of substance and drug abuse for one to sexually abuse a child. G9B reminded the other participants of Pastor Gumbura (now serving a jail term) who, despite having many wives, still went on to abuse his followers. FGDSB learner pseudo-named G10B said,

I think those people who would have been sexually abused also become abusers themselves... an example is my late brother who was abused by our cousin who had also been abused by his father.

G3A from School A gave an example of her aunt who was barren and caused her husband to get intimate with her brother's daughter who was thirteen years old, with the intention of getting her pregnant. FGD with Form Two participants also brought home the point that some children offer themselves into prostitution as a result of peer pressure or economic hardships.

Theme 2: Consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child

The consequences of CSA on holistic development are summarised by Fig. 5.4 below:
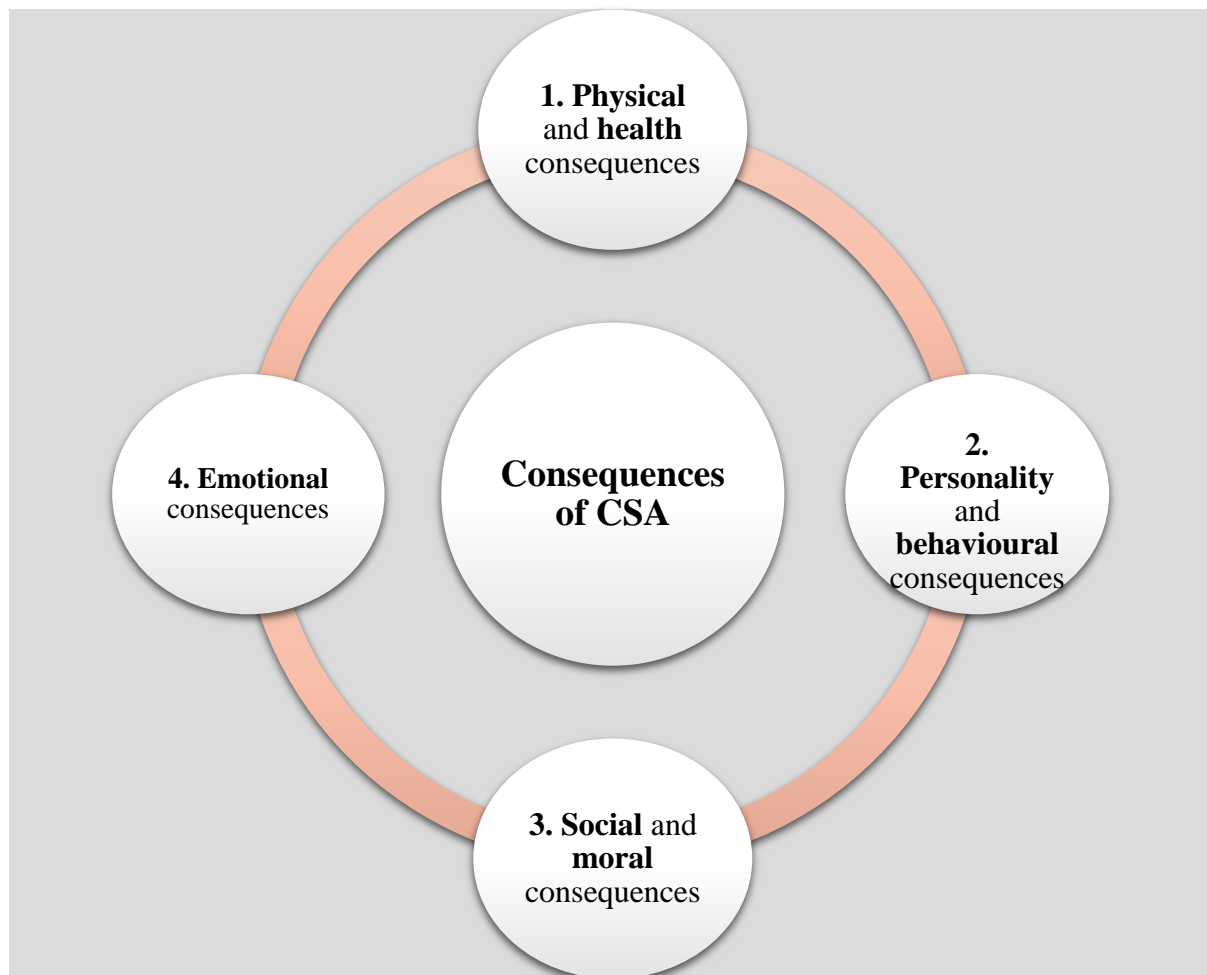
[13]Fig. 5.4: Sub-themes derived from Theme 2

Source: Fieldwork (2019)

Sub-themes derived from Theme 2 on the consequences of CSA are health and physical, personality and behavioural, social, moral and emotional consequences.

Theme 2:1 Physical and health consequences of CSA

This study noted that physical and health consequences range from minor injuries to severe brain damage and even death. Through interviews and focus group discussions, this study noted the following physical and health consequences of CSA, as summarised in Table 5.5:

[6]Table 5:5 Physical health consequences associated with CSA

Depression	Persistent low mood that affects a person's daily life
	Personality disorders, psychotic disorders, panic disorder
	Psychological distress /Dissociation/ loss of self esteem / Can include memory loss and an altered sense of identity
	Drug and alcohol abuse
Gynaecological and pre-natal complications	Sexual problems (e.g. painful intercourse)
	Greater risk of contracting HIV and STIs
Post-traumatic stress disorder	A form of anxiety that can emerge after experiencing or witnessing traumatic events.
Suicide attempts/ personality disorders	Intentionally killing oneself, attempting to do so, or having thoughts of doing so.
Prenatal problems	Emotional and psychological problems associated with pregnancy and childbirth. Includes postnatal depression and postnatal psychosis.
Schizophrenia	Changes in behaviour, thoughts and functioning which can include psychotic episodes and disorganised thinking and speech.

Source: Field study (2019)

Findings from both interviews and focus discussions, as revealed in Table 5.5, showed that children who have been sexually abused have shown heightened sexuality and signs of depression, psychological distress /dissociation, drug and alcohol abuse, gynaecological and prenatal complications, greater risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases, including human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), gonorrhoea, and syphilis.

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During focus group discussions with FGDSA and FGDSB, the following health effects of CSA among girls were noted in Gokwe:

- Sprains or broken bones
- Difficulty in walking or sitting
- Torn, stained, or bloody clothing
- Pain or itching in the genital area
- Bruises or bleeding in and around the genital area
- Sexually transmitted diseases.

During interviews, one teacher, TMSB, highlighted the following:

> *Physical health outcomes include heart problems and issues surrounding childbirth. People with a history of CSA have a greater number of doctor and hospital contacts than those who have not experienced CSA. Some victims and survivors report 'medically unexplained' symptoms, which can include non-epileptic seizures and chronic pain.*

The head of School A (HMSA) also aired the following sentiments:

> *Some types of sexual abuse such as exhibitionism, voyeurism, viewing or creating pornography, touching and licking may not result in physical findings. Reddening of the skin caused by rubbing will resolve in minutes to hours unless the skin is excoriated. Minor scratches may be detectable...*

During interviews, a teacher (TMSB) highlighted the following:

> *...Some forms of CSA such as rape can lead to the spread of sexually transmitted infections such as HIV and AIDS among others. CSA is associated with an increased risk of lifetime diagnoses of several psychiatric disorders including depression, anxiety and posttraumatic stress.*

The police officer (POL) also made the following remarks:

...there is a heightened risk for HIV transmission as a result of the vaginal, hymeneal or cervical lacerations. Worse still some of the girls lose their virginity or are sexually abused by HIV-infected men.

(POL) also made the following remarks:

...CSA leads to mental health problems such as anxiety, depression, substance misuse, eating disorders, self-injurious behaviour, anger and aggression, sexual symptoms and inappropriate sexual behaviour.

There is a heightened risk of HIV transmission as a result of the vaginal, hymeneal or cervical lacerations. Worse still, some of the girls lose their virginity or are sexually abused by HIV-infected men. This view is supported by researchers who indicate that STIs such as herpes simplex virus type 2 infections, gonorrhoea, or chlamydia enhance girls' vulnerability to HIV (Elizabeth, 2020; Muridzo, 2018; Buye *et al.*, 2001; Nour, 2006). Furthermore, a Study conducted in Kenya and Zambia in 2004 found that married girls aged 15-19 were 75 percent more likely to contract HIV than sexually active, unmarried girls of the same age (Clark, 2004). Similar figures have been found in 29 countries across Africa and Latin America (Clark *et al*., 2006). The victims may require increased healthcare facilities for which the family is expected to meet the expenses.

This concurs with Chiremba and Kent (2013:115) who posit that CSA victims can suffer from nausea, disrupted eating habits, urinary tract infections, genital warts, and sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Girls will get pregnant and experience feelings of pain in the genital parts. Due to lack of intervention programmes, the abused girls are also more likely to engage inrisk taking behaviour, causing them to be 25% more likely to experience teen pregnancy, and placing them at greater risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases (Dovran *et al.*, 2016; Hahm, Simons & Simons, 2016; Houck, Nugent, Lescano, Peters, Brown, 2010; Senn, Carey & Vanable, 2008; Gavril *et al.*, 2012; Russell, Higgins & Posso, 2020; Mathew, 2017; Myhre *et al.*, 2013).

This is supported by researchers who indicate that, STIs such as herpes simplex virus type 2 infections, gonorrhoea, or chlamydia enhance girls' vulnerability to HIV (Thornton & Veenema,

2015; Lalor, 2008; Scheidell, Kumar, Campion, Quinn, Beharie, McGorray & Khan, 2017; Peterson, Janssen, Goodrich, Fortenberry, Hensel & Heiman, 2018; McTavish, Sverdlichenko, MacMillan & Wekerle, 2019; Buye *etal.*, 2001; Nour, 2006).

The study noted that some forms of CSA such as rape can lead to the spread of sexually transmitted infections such as HIV and AIDS. Furthermore, girl child holistic development can suffer since CSA is associated with an increased risk of lifetime diagnoses of several psychiatric disorders, including depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress, and personality disorders (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Cutajar *et al.*, 2010; Fergusson *et al.*, 2013; Godbout, Briere, Sabourin & Lussier, 2014; Elizabeth, 2019; Karatos, 2020). This concurs with Kamiya, Timonen and Kenny (2016), Fisher, Goldsmith, Hurcombe and Soares (2017), and Chiremba and Kent (2003:115), who posit that CSA victims can suffer from nausea, disrupted eating habits, urinary tract infections, genital warts and sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Girls will get pregnant and experience feelings of pain in the genital parts. Due to lack of intervention programmes, the abused girls are also likely to engage in risk-taking sexual behaviour, causing them to be 25% more likely to experience teen pregnancy and placing them at greater risk for sexually transmitted diseases (Dovran *et al.*, 2016; Hahm, Simons & Simons, 2016; Houck, Nugent, Lescano, Peters & Brown, 2010; Senn, Carey & Vanable, 2008; Gavril *et al.*, 2012; Russell, Higgins & Posso, 2020; Mathew, 2017; Gwirayi, 2013).

In this study, post-traumatic stress disorder, suicide attempts or suicidal ideation, eating disorders, personality disorders and schizophrenia were also noted to affect the sexually abused girls. The study also established that CSA leads to unwanted pregnancies and, rarely, genital injuries. Almost all teachers, heads and the police officer agreed that the health effects of CSA include mental health disorders such as depression, severe anxiety, panic attacks and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The literature reviewed suggests that between 30 and 50 per cent of sexually abused children meet the full criteria for a PTSD diagnosis (Widom, 2009; Darves-Bornoz *et al*., 2008) and up to 80 per cent experience at least some 'post-traumatic' symptoms (McLeer *et al*., 2012; Cuffe *et al.*, 2018). These symptoms include hyper-vigilance, intrusive thoughts, and sudden intrusive flashbacks of the abuse experience. High-risk behaviour, in turn, can lead to long-term physical health problems such as sexually transmitted diseases, drug and alcohol addiction, cancer and obesity (Mugabe *et al.*, 2016).

Many health problems, including panic or post-traumatic stress disorder, chronic fatigue syndrome, fibromyalgia, depression, some auto-immune disorders, suicidal tendencies, abnormal fear responses, preterm labour, chronic pain syndromes, and ovarian dysfunction, can be understood, in some cases, as manifestations of CSA (Kendall-Tackett, 2010; De Bellis, 2015). Evidence shows that CSA may inhibit the appropriate development of certain regions of the brain (Teicher, Samson, Anderson & Ohashi, 2016; Glaser, 2010). In support of the findings of this study, adolescents who have experienced sexual abuse are more likely to experience ongoing health problems such as chronic pelvic pain and other gynaecologic problems, gastrointestinal problems, headaches, and increased obesity (Springer *et al.*, 2017). CSA is associated with a doubling of the risk of attempted suicide for young people by the time they reach their late twenties (Kim, Kim & Park, 2020; Islam, Rashid, Islam, Rahman, Bashar, Alam & Uddin, 2020). The link between CSA and many of these adverse consequences may be stress and depression, which can negatively affect the immune system and may lead to higher risk-taking behaviour such as smoking, abuse of alcohol, taking illegal drugs, and overeating (Widom & Maxfield, 2011).

Many studies have recognised links between a child's exposure to CSA with negative mental health outcomes, including low self-esteem and depression (Heim & Nemeroff, 2011), severe anxiety (Kendler *et al.*, 2008), addictions, drug and alcohol abuse (Bremner *et al.*, 2010), post-traumatic stress disorder (McCauley *et al.*, 2017), self-harming and suicidality (Oates, 2013), and being bullied (Muridzo, 2018). Other psychological and emotional disorders include panic, dissociative behaviour, attention deficit/hyperactivity, and reactive attachment disorder (Teicher, 2010; De Bellis & Thomas, 2013; Springer *et al.*, 2007). Sudbrack *et al.* (2015) found that people with trauma history have a higher frequency of anger, anxiety and depression. People with more childhood adversity and who experience severe early life stress have poorer cellular immune function and are at great risk of experiencing immune system deregulations, which can lead to greater stress sensitivity (Fagundes *et al.*, 2013).

The POL narrated the ordeal of some sexually abused girls after taking some of them to the hospital saying that:

...they have chlamydia many times and repeated abdominal infections. Also in their ovaries, fallopian tubes and kidneys, they feel that their whole system had broken down. They have repeated urinary tract infections after sex and inflamed fallopian tubes. After the birth, they have repeated urinary tract infections and chronic ovarian cyst infection since they first became sexually active.

The consequences of CSA for girls are serious for their health and affected their whole life and well-being. Their suffering was deep and almost unbearable and some felt they had not received adequate support and understanding from healthcare professionals. The girls' experiences of the consequences of CSA were characterised by anger, fear, physical and psychological disconnection. The results of my study are consistent with other studies which show that CSA can have serious consequences throughout life. Even though many different therapies are available for people suffering from CSA, especially psychological therapies, these have been limited to addressing only a part of the CSA survivor´s needs. There is growing awareness of the need for holistic therapy, focusing especially on CSA as the main reason for seeking help not only for the physical and psychological effects, but also for physical health assistance. Experiencing CSA has been associated with a wide range of adverse physical health challenges. Acute physical injuries to the genital area can result from penetrative abuse, as can sexually transmitted infections (Gwirayi, 2013; Chinyoka, 2013). While CSA affects the girl child, it is important to note that it also poses serious mental health risks to non-offending family members. According to Tavkar and Hansen (2011) the aftermath of CSA is that families often face multiple challenges (for example, loss of income, loss of a caregiver, change of residence, and limited community support).

Studies using standardised measures of assessment have indicated that sexually abused girls tend to be more involved in sexual behaviour (Bower, 2010). Browne and Finkelhor (2006) describe premature sexualisation as a process in which a child's sexuality (including sexual feelings, attitudes and behaviour) is shaped in a developmentally inappropriate and interpersonally dysfunctional fashion as a result of sexual abuse. The child may become pre-occupied with sexual activities and display bizarre, sophisticated sexual behaviour which is excessive or inappropriate for her age (Clarfelt, 2010). She may also masturbate with an object, act out adult sexual behaviour with another child, or talk about sex too much and include vulgar language in

the speech. Some children may act out their sexual victimisation by molesting younger children or trying to touch their private parts. The girl may not be aware of how her behaviour appears to other people and may feel hurt or confused when adults accost her sexually (Kennedy & Prock, 2018; Guggisberg, 2018; Etherington, 2000).

Experiencing CSA has been associated with a wide range of adverse physical health outcomes. Acute physical injuries to the genital area can result from penetrative abuse, as can sexually transmitted infections (Gwirayi, 2013; Chinyoka, 2013). Research suggests that people with a history of CSA have a greater number of doctor and hospital contacts, 20 per cent higher than those who have not experienced CSA (Becker, 2010), which can be an indicator of poor physical health. Some girl children report 'medically unexplained' symptoms, which can include non-epileptic seizures and chronic pain (UNICEF, 2013).

Theme 2:2 psychosocial effects of CSA on the personality development of the girl child

Below is a diagram, Figure, 5.5, illustrating the effects of CSA on personality.
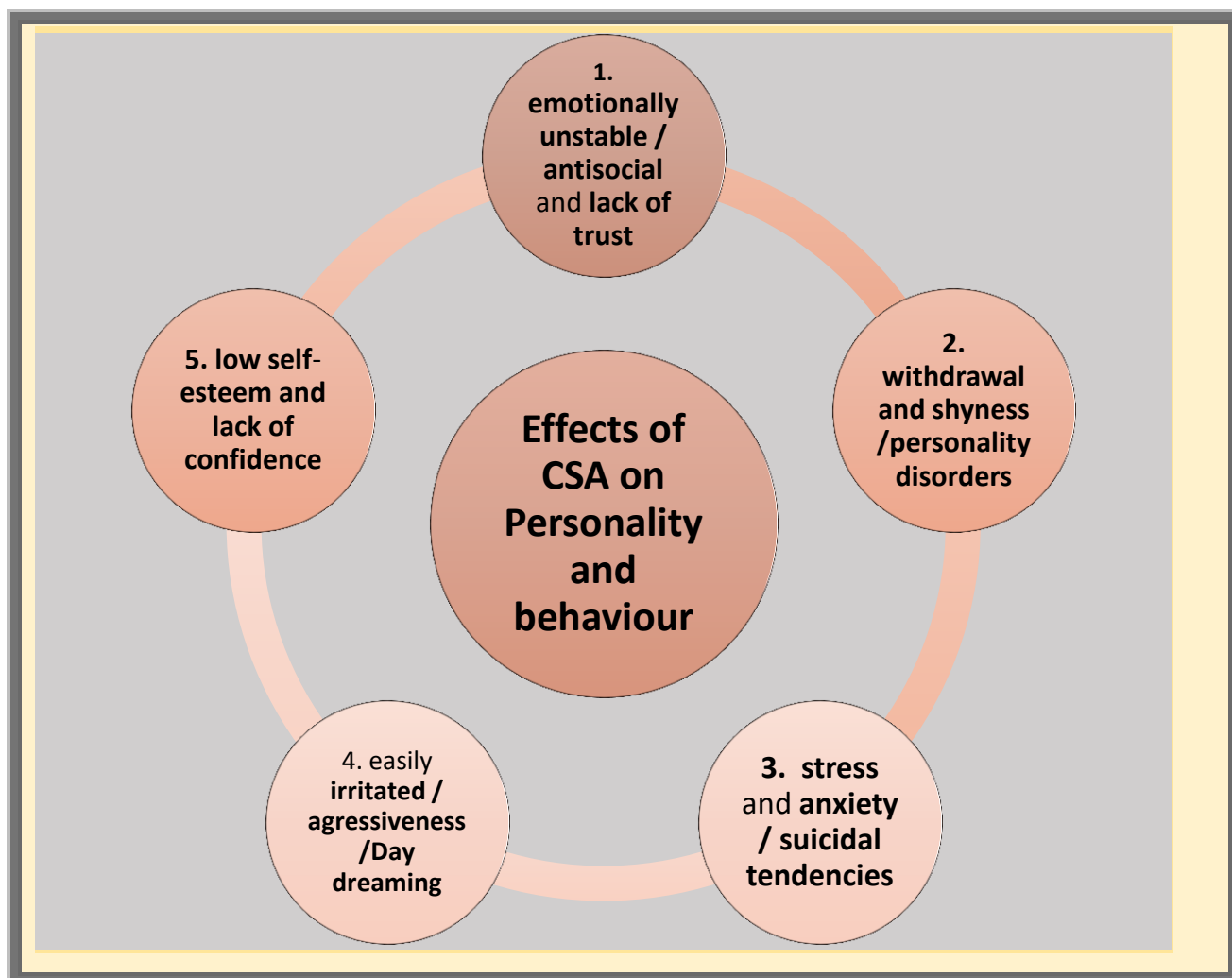
As shown in Fig. 5.5, the following behaviour and personality traits were observed among the sexually abused learners: lack of trust, emotionally unstable, withdrawal and shyness, day dreaming, stress and anxiety, suicidal tendencies, easily irritated, low self-esteem and lack of confidence.

The two (2) teachers, (TFSA and TMSB) from Schools A and B, indicated that children who had been sexually abused had behaviour problems. Asked to specify the behaviour problems, there was a general consensus among the teachers that the following were some of the behaviour problems exhibited by abused girls as narrated by the participants during interviews. TFSA posited that:

Some girls are withdrawn and shy. They do not want to open up to the teachers, parents or even to their peers. Some lose their temper easily when playing with others or during group work in class. Some are nervous and emotionally unstable. Some day dream and seem to operate in their own world.

The other teacher, TMSB highlighted that:

Some sexually abused girls lack confidence and are very passive. Some have inferiority complex, look down upon themselves and are stigmatised by teachers and their peers. Some use vulgar language and often talk to other children about sex.

Others have anxiety disorders and depression and end up being involved in substance abuse. Sexual abuse can lead to promiscuity.

During interviews, one headmaster, HMSA, highlighted the following:

...sexual abuse was associated with elevated borderline personality disorder symptoms; with elevated symptoms of antisocial, avoidant, borderline, narcissistic, and passive-aggressive personality disorders...

A person who is stigmatised ends up having feelings of un-belonging, low self-esteem and concept, uncertainty and decreased self-worth, among other negative psycho-social consequences which usually result from labels attached to her (Hackett, Masson, Balfe & Phillips, 2015; Barnes, Mercer & Shakespeare, 2009; Barry, Bresscall & Schlesinger, 2009). Most of those affected by child sexual abuse are at times called names and are labelled in such a way that most fail to fit in the school environment and the wider societies they live in (Dahinten, 2003; Espelage & Holt, 2007; Chiodo *et al.,* 2009). Social stigma usually serves to inhibit these girls who will be turning into women from getting their full place in society as women. This, then, alienates them and tends to prevent them from fully participating in the activities of societies they live in. One can, therefore, argue that some abused girls are affected for the rest of their lives and may fail to lead a better and free life since they might not be able to emancipate themselves from CSA and other problems which are a consequence of CSA.

After the researcher had further probed on anxiety disorders and depression, one teacher, TFSA, was able to explain the behaviour of a girl in her class who was reported to have been repeatedly

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sexually abused by her stepfather. The girl was being picked up every now and then by the police for questioning and she no longer behaved like a normal child. She would disturb other learners in class by staring and making fun of them.

> *During my lessons the girl does not participate and sometimes she goes to the toilet and comes back when the lesson is about to end (TFSA, during interviews).*

TMSA, during interviews, further revealed that some of the abused girls ended up going in search of people who would have abused them in order to get food stuffs and money. TMSA said that in his experience as a teacher, he had dealt with many sexually abused children. He further brought the following observation to light:

> *... these children appeared depressed, stressed, anxious, worried and confused. Some of the children sleep during lessons and on one incident one girl urinated while she was asleep in class. I have reprimanded many of these children on the sexual language they speak and the way they present themselves. It is usually in a sexual manner which makes them prone to further abuse.*

A consistent finding in research describing consequences of CSA is an increase in sexualised behaviour (Abajobir, Kisely, Maravilla, Williams & Najman, 2017; Liask, 2014). Studies using standardised measures of assessment have indicated that sexually abused children tend to be more involved with sexual ideation and behaviour. The child may become pre-occupied with sexual activities and display bizarre, sophisticated sexual behaviour which is excessive or inappropriate for her age. The child may not be aware of how her behaviour appears to other people and may feel hurt or confused when adults accost her sexually (Walsh, Zwi, Woolfenden & Shlonsky, 2015; Cohen, 2002).

In addition, children who have been sexually abused may display unusual behaviour. If abuse is not disclosed or discovered, or when children do not receive the right kind of help and support following a disclosure, the damage can last a lifetime (Goodyear-Brown, 2012). Numerous studies provide empirical support for the presence of some type of behavioural disturbance, for example, aggression, delinquency and hyperactivity. There is an overwhelming amount of empirical evidence to indicate that CSA has a profound impact on the lives of the victims as a

result of their experiences and their memories of these experiences (Bigras, Godbout & Briere, 2015; Spies, 2006:62; Richardson, 2005).

Both teachers indicated that an analysis of their record books, where they enter background information on each child, was proof enough that CSA affects behaviour and children's personality. The comments reflected behaviour problems which included aggressiveness, disruption, withdrawal, use of vulgar language, and acting out.

During FGDA and FGDB, the majority of girls indicated that CSA caused change in behaviour. The participants pointed out that it causes them to distrust adults. FGDSA and FGDSB children indicated that their abused counterparts became shy and withdrew from social activities which they previously took part in. A learner pseudo-named G8A from School B, said that there was change in dress code. Some girls started wearing shorts underneath their school uniforms. During FGDA, G4A, said a peer had committed suicide as a result of having been sexually abused by her brother. During FGDA, G1A, said,

Some children became rebellious and did not listen to their teachers and parents.

FGDB learner, G10B said,

Some sexually abused children become bullies and abuse substance. An example is my young sister who was abused by our tenant.

Anorova vamwe chero asina kutadzirwa (she beats up peers for no apparent reason) uye akupota achisvuta fodya nevamwe vakomana vefomu 4 vanogara pedo nesu (she now smokes cigarettes with some form4 boys from the neighbourhood). My parents have been called to school twice on allegations that she was passing sexual comments to other learners and even holding boy's private parts. She was lucky to be punished by the Headmaster without involvement of the police."

Nine (9) of the participants (from FGDA and FGDB) indicated having observed CSA victims as suffering from lack of confidence. A girl from School B mentioned that her friend was no longer finding it easy to read in front of the class. G6B narrated that:

...ava kungonyara. Haachadi kuva pane vanhu vakawanda. Akatorega masports uye haachatani kutsamwa chero ukataura zvinosetsa (she is shy and withdraw. She quit sports and she easily gets irritated and moody even when one cracks a joke.

HMSA supported the above sentiments but also added that it is not all negative behaviour that is experienced. Positive behaviour can be experienced as well. Some children become responsible and guard their younger ones against abusers. They begin to work harder in class and most of their time is spent studying. Those negative events become their motivators to self-actualise, become better and help the future generation against CSA.

The consequences of CSA are diverse and numerous. Being sexually abused impacts upon the life of a child and educational, psychological, economical and physical health level (Muridzo, 2018; Mullen & Fleming, 2005). Many people deny the dangers of sexual abuse and the consequences thereof. They accept common myths, such as children being quick to recover and being able to adapt and continue with life when they have experienced trauma of some nature. Salter (2003) contradicts this by stating that children do not bounce back. They adjust, conceal, repress and sometimes accept and move on, but they do not bounce back. There are indescribable and devastating consequences of CSA in all spheres of their development, namely, educational, personality, psychological and physical. Children who have faced sexual abuse develop psychological trauma associated with the assault and are in many cases unable to cope with their studies.

HMSB indicated that he, at one time, observed teachers' comments in reports of survivors of CSA and noticed a change in behaviour. This proved that CSA was also negatively affecting academic performance.

POL indicated that CSA caused behavioural change as they have received many children who have been referred for counselling by their parents. POL said,

I noticed that some sexually abused girls negatively change their behaviour and withdraw from activities that put them on the spot light. If you select them intentionally, they are quick to give an excuse as to why they will not be able to carry it out. We have witnessed suicidal deaths of many girls in our community due to CSA. They leave a

suicidal letter which is very detailed about all the sexual abuse they would have encountered.

In support of the above, POL also affirmed that the survivors of abuse changed in behaviour and most of them negatively. It looks like those who are abused by family members change the more. You can easily see their stressed faces, confusion, lack of trust, and how they lack confidence even when they walk. When you talk to them, you hear and see how they feel guilty and are full of self-blame, as they think that they are the reason for breakdown of their families. They feel as if they have let the family down and without counselling, they end up dating multiple partners in search of love, belonging and peer acceptance. If they do not take this route, they become suicidal.

There is an overwhelming amount of empirical evidence to indicate that CSA has a profound impact on the lives of the victims as a result of their experiences and their memories of these experiences (Spies, 2006; Richardson, 2005; Dominquez, Nelke & Perry, 2001; Matlin, 2000:485; Lewis, McElroy, Harlaar & Runyan, 2016; Batool & Abtahi, 2017; Guggisberg, 2018). In support of this view are researches done that also indicated that the trauma of CSA has demonstrated behavioural problems such as anxiety, depression, drug abuse, eating disorders, suicidal ideation, and attempted suicide (Elizabeth, 2019; Roeger & Allison, 2004; Wells & Moss, 2004; Hyman, Gold & Cott, 2003; Katerndahl, Burge & Hardner, Wolf & Rinfrette, 2018; Young and Widom, 2014). The findings from FGDs with learners agreed with the findings from the interviews with the teachers, police officer and heads, that CSA affects behaviour.

Theme 2:3 Impact of CSA on social and moral development of the child.

Based on the second objective of the study, the researcher sought to find out from teachers, heads, girl learners and police officer, the impact of CSA on the social and moral development of the sexually abused girls, if such children get along well with their peers. TFSA told the researcher that victims of CSA have problems in making friendships. They tend to isolate themselves, especially when the wounds are still fresh. TFSA stated that:,

> *...experience has shown that CSA is the leading cause of truancy and absenteeism in secondary schools, owing to the fact that such learners may be afraid to mix and mingle with other learners.*

TMSA echoed almost similar sentiments with TFSA but also added that victims of girl CSA have challenges in interacting with male teachers, let alone going for one-on-one extra tutorials with the educators, even in staff rooms. She went on to say that such learners are just shy and afraid to interact leading to self-discrimination. TFSA told the researcher that some victims of CSA went on to become hardened beings. TFSA, thus, went on to suggest that some of the victims were associated with juvenile delinquent behaviour. TFSA also highlighted that:

> ...*muzvikoro zvese kondari mune dambudziko remutauro wakatsveruka unotaurwa nevana zvikuru sei nguva dzemitambo. Imwe yacho mitauro inotanga nevakambo batwa chibharo* (there is a challenge of use of vulgar language in secondary schools especially during field excursions and on sporting days. Such vulgar conversation is initiated by those who have sexually abused).

Experience has shown that victims of CSA also have a hand in crafting such vulgar language. TMSB concurred with TFSA by highlighting that victims of CSA absent themselves from most school social gatherings, owing to lack of confidence. Hildyard and Wolf (2012) assert that children affected by CSA tend to be more isolated at school compared to other groups of children and have difficulty making friends. About 20% of girls experience sexual abuse (International Congress on Child Abuse and Neglect, 2012).

The researcher also had focus group discussions with secondary school learners on the impact of CSA on social and moral development. G1A from School A, in Focus Group Discussion A, had this to say:

> ...*ndinoshaiwa shamwari yokutamba nayo. Ndinonyara kutamba navo nokuda kwekuti ndinotya kusekwa uye ndendichingova nepfungwa dzokuti vamwe vanofunga kuti ndini ndakazvidira kuti ndibatwe chibharo* (making friendships is a problem since I feel embarrassed to play with my colleagues. I just think they laugh at me whenever cases of sexual relationships find their way into our debates. In addition, it is my feeling that people may think that I might have seduced the person who sexually abused me).

G3A in FGDS A also added,

Zvinongobhowa kutamba nevanhu vanokutaura usipo vachiti uri hure. Ndosaka wakabatwa chibharo (Sometimes making friendships is affected by the fact that victims of sexual abuse think that people talk behind their backs. Such people are the ones who label them as prostitutes and say, "no wonder why you had been a victim of sexual abuse").

G7B in FGDSB had a different view altogether. She argued that

kuva neshamwari yepamoyo ndiyo nzira yakareruka yekupodza maronda ekubatwa chibharo. Chinongodiwa ndeche kuti shamwari dzacho dzivimbike uye dzisakutarisira pasi (having a friends or true friends can be ideal especially to victims of CSA like us owing to the sense that friends can make you heal scars and wounds associated with sexual abuse. What is just needed is for the friends to avoid looking down upon you and label you).

Other studies showed that more than half of the CSA victims showed behavioural, social and emotional disturbances such as defiance, disruptive behaviour within the family and fighting with siblings (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 2014; Muridzo, 2018). There have also been clinical reports of aggressive behaviour, including delinquency, verbal explosiveness and argumentativeness (Becker, 2010). CSA can have a more fundamental effect on brain functioning, where a child's brain becomes damaged by the abuse they have suffered (Mizenberg, Poole & Vinogradov, 2008). According to Jewkes *et al.* (2010), depression, suicidal thoughts and/or attempts, as well as alcohol and drug abuse, have also been associated with emotional, physical and sexual abuse. Messman-Moore and Long (2000) aver that childhood sexual abuse is associated with increased likelihood of drug dependence, alcohol dependence, and psychiatric disorders. The effects of sexual abuse can include dissociation, memory impairment and reduced social functioning (Whitehead, 2011). According to Chinyoka (2013), CSA causes psychological distress due to early marriages, premarital sex, and sexual abuse which in turn, lead to poor interaction among peers, teachers and parents. It also results in an inferiority complex, a low self-esteem among the girl children, and poor social, emotional, moral, cognitive and psychological adjustments.

This is in agreement with the cognitive behavioural theory in Neukrug (2011), who found that many of his clients had streams of private thoughts that commented on their experience while

others, who were not aware of their private thoughts, quickly became aware of them once Beck began to probe with them the possibility that such thoughts were present. Hildyard and Wolf (2012) also state that children affected by abuse tend to be more isolated at school compared to other groups of children and have difficulty making friends.

The researcher went on to interview POL, who revealed that

> ...*vanasikana vakabatwa chibharovanonetseka kuumba hushamwari nevamwe vana uyene vakuru. Vana vakadaro vanongo funga kuti vakaregererwa pakubatwa chibharo uye havachina chivimbo nevakuru* (Victims of CSA have difficulties in making relationships with adults as well as with peers owing to their lack of trust in adults as well as their fervent beliefs that their colleagues did nothing to remove them from the murky waters).

POL further highlighted that:

> ...*vana vazhinji vatino sangana navo vakabatwa chibharo vane dambudziko mukuumba hushamwari nekuti wavo mushoma* (Experience in dealing with cases of CSA has shown that victims of CSA have low morale and self-esteem. This scenario tends to haunt them when they try to create friendship).

Given that CSA is a social experience which undermines the ability to trust in caregivers, either because caregivers are frightening or because they fail to protect and provide care (as in cases of neglect), it only explains why children who experience abuse are at risk of interpersonal problems. At the proximal level, problems are seen in children's inability to form trusting attachments to their parents. Not surprisingly, the effects also are seen in such areas as children's processing of emotion (for example, overly vigilant and/or faces), their attributions of others' intent (for example, assuming that intentions are malevolent when they are ambiguous) and having difficulties with peers (for example, being the victims or perpetrator of bullying or violence). Problems also are seen in internalizing symptoms, such as anxiety and depression and externalizing symptoms such as conduct disorder and substance use.

The above scenario is in tandem with Bronfenbrenner's theory, as outlined by Feldman (2008). According to the theory, the environment is seen as comprising layers which are interrelated and divided into four categories, namely the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and the

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macrosystem. Changes in any of the environmental layers (family, community, and society) will thus have a rippling effect on other layers. This implies that the sudden shift from parental love to CSA has negative connotations on the psychosocial well-being of the young girls who are abused by close family members. REBT is based on the assumption that human beings are self-actualizing in nature and have a strong biological tendency to think rationally (especially the sexually abused learners in this case). People have rational and irrational beliefs. Abnormality emanates from faulty cognitions about others, our world and us. This faulty thinking may be through cognitive deficiencies (lack of planning) or cognitive distortions (inaccurate information processing) and perceptions. Ellis (2004) further postulates that naturally, people are hedonistic in nature. That is why they fundamentally strive for survival, happiness and freedom from pain.

An irrational belief is rigid or extreme. For instance, "l was sexually abused because l am loose." lf abused learners harbour irrational beliefs, they become emotionally disturbed and feel angry, stressed, anxious, depressed, and worthless, are filled with self-pity and other negative feelings of self-destructive behaviour, simply because of thinking irrationally. Ellis (2014), DiGiuseppe and Bernard (2014), and Muridzo (2018) concur and describe irrational thinking as happening in a circular process, leading to self-hated, which leads to self-destructive behaviour and eventually to hatred towards others. This, in turn, causes others to act irrationally toward the individual.

School heads were also interviewed on the impact of CSA on the social and moral development of children. HMSA told the researcher that owing to the fact that CSA occurs within the family which has the sole responsibility of laying the psychological, moral, and spiritual foundation in the overall development of the child, such abnormal conditions of the home are likely to have a detrimental effect on socialisation of learners, thereby affecting their socio-moral development. HMSA went on to highlight that:

> *... Sexually abused children have difficulties in understanding and respecting someone else's point of view.*

HMSB concurred with HMSA but added:

> *...vana vazhinji vanosangana nekubatwa chibharo vanotaura kuti vanoshandiswa zvakanyanya nevanhu vavano gara navo mudzimba, zvikuru sei madzikoma vana baba nedzimwe hama dzepedyo. Izvi zvinoita kuti vakanganisike pahunhu hwavo nokuti hapana anovadzora kumba* (Many children are abused by people who are very close to

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them especially guardians. This on its own has negative connotations on the moral development of sexually abused children).

HMSB went on to highlight that:

... most of the learners who are sexually abused go on to become hardened beings and leaders of delinquent behaviours. Quite significant is the fact that such learners lead the way in sharing pornographic materials via social media platforms with other learners, despite the fact that use of phones is prohibited in schools.

Thus, the consequences of CSA affect the victims themselves and the society in which they live. Children who have been sexually abused often isolate themselves from friends or family because of their feelings of being 'bad', 'duly or 'different'. They may feel unable to protect themselves, are vulnerable to invasion from others, and may develop a sense of low esteem. The isolation may be actively encouraged by the perpetrator as a means of continuing the abuse. Many problems within the realm of social functioning and interpersonal relationships have been noted in victims of CSA (Mugabe *et al.*, 2016). Some of these problems include illegal use of drugs and alcohol, having difficulty in school, and running away from home. Such problems are often associated with attempts to avoid an abusive home environment.

Theme 2:4 Sexual abuse impacts on girl child's emotional development

The following are the most common emotional reactions that result from CSA, as highlighted by the researcher and participants during interviews and focus group discussions, as summarised by Figure 5.6 below:
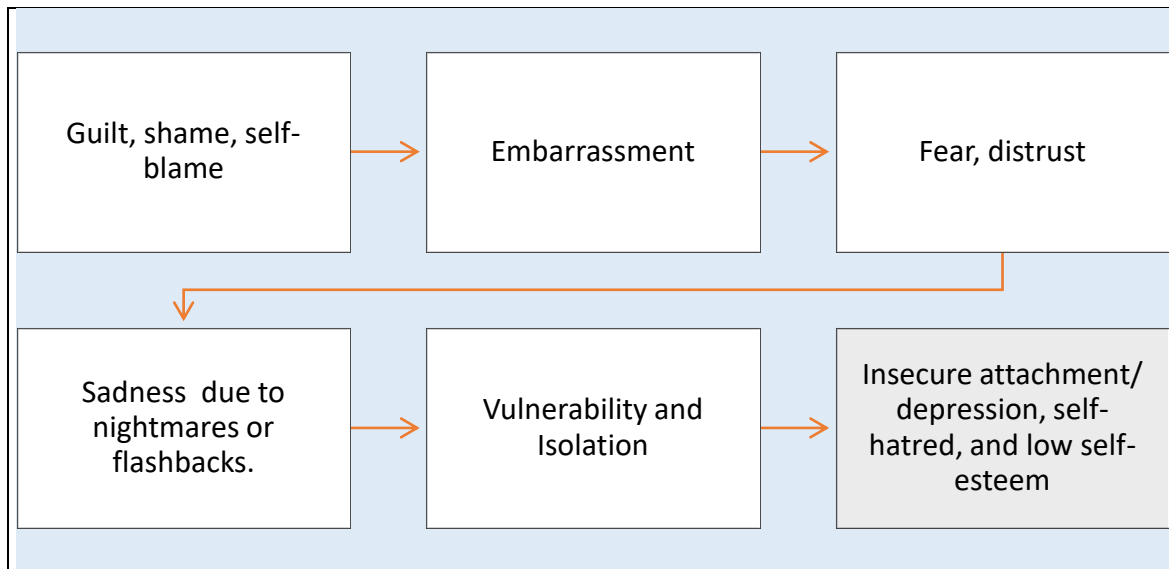
[15]Fig 5.6: Emotional reactions noted as a result of CSA

Field source (2019)

As shown in Fig. 5.6, the following emotional reactions were observed among the sexually abused learners: guilt, shame, self-blame, embarrassment, fear, distrust, sadness, vulnerability, isolation, insecure attachment, depression, self-hatred and low self-esteem. Emotional distress resulting from CSA might be directed inwardly and result in depression, self-hatred, and low self-esteem. The study noted that depression, anxiety, and anger are the most commonly reported emotional responses to childhood sexual abuse. Emotions such as fear, shame, humiliation, guilt, and self-blame are common and lead to depression and anxiety. Survivors may experience intrusive or recurring thoughts of the abuse, as well as nightmares or flashbacks.

During interviews, one head noted that the sexually abused girls tend to have a distorted self-perception about themselves. HMSB pointed out that:

> *Survivors often develop a belief that they caused the sexual abuse and that they deserved it. These beliefs may result in self-destructive relationships, depression and anxiety...Children who are sexually abused, shamed and humiliated suffer at least as much, if not more than those who are physically assaulted.*

A teacher, TFSA, opined that:

Abused children can grow up experiencing insecurities, low self-esteem, and lack of development. Child abuse distorts a child's perceptions and coping abilities. Many abused children experience ongoing difficulties with trust, social withdrawal, trouble in school, and forming relationships.

TFSA also highlighted that:

...emotional abuse and its subsequent impact can be difficult to measure, as there are often no outward physical signs. However, one has to understand the consequences of it by having general knowledge of some common signs of emotional abuse which are apathy, stealing, being withdrawn and lonely and always being late for school. The other indication is that emotionally abused children can be forced into prostitution at a tender age.

TMSB told the researcher that:

... Learners who have been sexual abused are not emotionally stable, whether in the four walls, outside the classroom or in the playgrounds... learners who have been victims of sexual abuse tend to misinterpret other peoples' intentions as hostility. Therefore, their defence heightens and can result in aggressive behaviour. ...learners who are victims of CSA display behaviour concern which on its own severely affects their emotional development.

During FGDs with the learners, G8B, G4A, G9B, G5B (FGDA and FGDB) the findings established that sexually abused girls are affected differently by abuse. Girls who are sexually abused lack confidence or become anxious, appear not to have a close relationship with their parent, exhibit aggressive behaviour, or act nasty towards other children and animals. Older children may use foul language or act in a markedly different way from other children of the same age, struggle to control strong emotions, seem isolated from their parents, lack social skills and have few, if any, friends.

During focus group discussions, G6B in FGDSA remarked that:

… kubatwa chibharo kunoita kuti mwana asazvivimba zvachose, izvo zvinokonzera kuti pfungwa dzikanganisike (CSA undermines young children's confidence thereby causing damage to their mental health and well-being).

G2A in FGDSA concurred with the above view when she said:

Kubatwa chibharo kwemwanasikana kwakaipa zvisingaitinekuti kunokanganisa mafungiro nemaitiro emwana anenge abatwa (CSA have adverse effects on the emotional health and psychologicaldevelopment of a child).

G10B in FGDSB highlighted that:

...Kubatwa chibharo kwevana kunokonzeresa kuva nepfungwa dzisakarura mamuvana vechidiki zvichikonzera kumwa zvinodhaka senzira yekuzorodza pfungwa (CSA impacts negatively on the emotional development of abused children which culminates in negative thoughts, drug and alcohol abuse as a way of drowning sorrow).

G9B from FGDSB stated that:

...nyaya yechibharo iyi ndoimwe yehonzeri yekupererwa nepfungwa kwevana uye kazhinji kacho vanopedzisira vachizvisungirira nekumwa mishonga kuti vafe (CSA impacts negatively on the emotional development of children, leading to depression which may result in thoughts of suicide and/or suicide attempts).

In line with the above, Sikes and Hays (2010) conducted a literature review to unveil the emotional, physical, and mental health impact of child abuse. Based on their findings, they recommended that when working with clients who have experienced CSA, practitioners should assess the client's current social, physical, and mental health well-being. The authors gave examples of social symptoms that they found in their research, including substance abuse and unsafe sexual behaviour. Police officer were also interviewed on the impact of CSA on the emotional development of children. POL noted with concern,

...nyaya yekubatwa chibharo kwevana yakurumbira muZimbabwe. Ndiyo imwe yenyaya dziri mudariro mumapepa nhau mazuvano. Semaonere angu, nyaya iyi ndiyo inokonzera kuti vana vagare vachitya uye kuzoita maitiro asinga nzwisisiki (Child abuse is now prevalent in Zimbabwe, as evidenced by continuous appearance of cases of child abuse in

Zimbabwean Newspapers. In my opinion victims of CSA don't have a stable mind. They live in fear, leading to very low self-esteem and in some case, they develop antisocial behaviour).

POL also had this to say:

...vana vanenge vabatwa chibharo vachimanikidzwa kuita zvepabonde vanongo taridza kuneta pose pose pavari, hazvinei nekuti kumba here, kuchikoro chero kwavano tamba nevamwe (CSA has severe effects on the emotional development of victims. Experience in dealing with such cases in the community has shown that sexually abused learners lack concentration. They usually show signs of mental fatigue resulting in them sleeping even when engaged in playing sessions at home, play centres or at school).

According to Erikson's (1963) Psychosocial Theory, people go through eight psychosocial stages of development. Failure to resolve a crisis, in this case due to CSA, results in problems, or pathology. Girls will experience conflicts as they progress through these stages, but it is how they handle these conflicts that will directly and indirectly impact on their lives (Wurdenman, 2015). The failure to resolve conflict by the sexually abused girl learners will influence how she will go through the stages as she grows up.

During interviews, HMSB posited that:

...sexually abused learners have a mentality of looking down upon themselves. They also have a feeling of being looked down upon by other people. As a result victims of sexual abuse have very little or no confidence in whatever they do. Such a scenario is not good in as far as their emotional development is concerned.

This study also established that the police officer, POL, agreed that CSA causes abused girl learners to experience severe attachment disorders. In tandem with the above, girls and adolescents exposed to abuse and neglect are likely to experience insecure or disorganised attachment problems with their primary caregiver (Van Ijzendoorn, 2010; Jordan & Sketchley, 2009). Patterns of child-caregiver attachment are extremely important for a child's early emotional and social development. For children with an insecure attachment, the parent/caregiver who should be the primary source of safety, protection and comfort, becomes a

source of danger or harm (Cyr *et al.*, 2010; Hildyard & Wolf, 2002). Without the security and support from a primary caregiver, girls may find it difficult to trust others when in distress, which may lead to persistent experiences of anxiety or anger (Mugabe *et al.*, 2016). Insecure attachments alter the normal development process for children. This can severely affect a child's ability to communicate and interact with others in order to form healthy relationships throughout their life.

Abused children exhibited a myriad of immediate psychological consequences like emotional disturbance in the form of fear, anxiety, depression, anger, hostility and low self-esteem (Browne & Finkelhor, 2016). These children can also show various anxiety disorder (fearfulness, nightmares, phobias, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), hysterical reactions, depression, suicidal behaviour and substance abuse). Research reports have shown that 20-70% of abused children suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder (Wolfe *et al.*, 1991; McLeer *et al.*, 1992). However, it has also been estimated that one third of the abused children show no psychological symptoms or might show non-specific symptoms. This allows the abuse to go undetected over prolonged periods (Kendall-Tackett *et al.*, 2013). Browne and Finkelhor (2016) did an extensive review of earlier research on the impact of sexual abuse. Initial effects of abuse that were noted included fear, anger, hostility, guilt, shame, sleep disturbances, eating disorders and an array of sexualised behaviour, from genital manipulation to pregnancy. Sexually inappropriate behaviour is related to early onset of sexual abuse (McClellan *et al.*, 2016). Later effects include depression, anxiety, negative self-concept, interpersonal problems, a tendency towards re-victimization and self-destructive behaviour.

The symptoms that were significantly different between the girls who were definitely sexually abused and those who were allegedly abused were difficulty getting to sleep, noticeable changes in behaviour, fear of being left with a particular person, fear of males, becoming withdrawn, unusual interest or curiosity about sexual matters. The researcher concluded that a parent report could be useful as part of the assessment, regarding the likelihood of sexual abuse. The effects of CSA can persist into adulthood as well. Even in adults, varied emotional and psychological reactions occur. Low self-esteem, a sense of helplessness self-hatred, disturbed interpersonal relationship in the form of marital discord and divorce are seen (Chinyoka, 2013).

TFSA noted, with concern, that victims of CSA have a low emotional regulation and internalising behaviour concerns which can affect children well into their adulthood. The researcher went on to interview TMSB and she unearthed the fact that children who were sexually abused demonstrated less control over their behaviour and attention, both of which can impact negatively on the emotional development. There are a number of conclusions that can be drawn from the utterances made by educators. For instance, sexually abused learners have difficulties in controlling their own behaviour, which may end up having negative impact on their emotional development. In line with the above, Aron Beck designed an inventory to measure the depth of a person's depression called the Beck Depression Inventory. It is made up of twenty-one questions measuring levels of sadness, feelings of guilt or failure, disappointment, self-criticism, suicidal feelings and low self-esteem. Beck highlighted that the way an individual negatively views oneself, one's experiences and one's future leads to distorted thinking (Neukrug, 2011; Santrock, 2014; Feldman; 2009). The abovementioned facts, when put together, imply that negative thinking brought about by CSA may lead to emotional problems which trigger unhelpful or dysfunctional forms of behaviour. Sexual abuse can lead to long-lasting, even life-long, consequences and is a serious problem to individuals, families and societies.

There are a number of conclusions that can be drawn from the above-mentioned facts. For instance, learners who are victims of CSA lack confidence in themselves, culminating in development of low self-esteem. Similarly, a study by Teisl and Cicchetti (2010) found out that learners who had been sexually abused are more likely to have lower emotional regulation skills than their peers. Moreover, Larkin (2009) believes that when there are behavioural problems as a result of sexual abuse and neglect, they will most likely be revealed through difficulty in following rules, being respectful, staying in their seats and keeping on-task. The behavioural problems will also be revealed through temper tantrums and difficult peer relationships. It can, therefore, be concluded that CSA, in most cases, affects the development of prosocial skills.

Sexually abused children were often more symptomatic than their unabused counterparts in terms of displaying fear, nightmares, general post-traumatic stress disorder, withdrawn behaviour, neurotic mental illness, cruelty, delinquency, sexually inappropriate behaviour, regressive behaviour, running away, general problem behaviour, and self-injurious behaviour (Mwamwenda, 2010). Sexually abused children, particularly those abused by a family member,

may show high levels of dissociation, a process that produces a disturbance in the normally integrative functions of memory and identity. Many abused children are able to self-hypnotize themselves, space out, and dissociate themselves from abusive experiences (Kluft, 2005).

From the narratives of the participants, it was evident that they experienced some deep emotions arising from the incident of CSA. When feelings are not well managed, thinking can also be impaired. They expressed anger, deep sadness, anxiety, helplessness, frustrations, functional impairment and sometimes shame. In some cases, many of these emotions were expressed in the same breath by the same participant. The study noted that some girls resorted to drug abuse as defence mechanism. Drug use or abuse in adolescence has sometimes been viewed as a form of psychological escape or as a form of self-medication to control negative sensations. Illicit drug use may also result from the need for self-enhancement and improved self-esteem (Mwamwenda, 2010). Drugs may be used to reduce feelings of isolation and loneliness, by providing the adolescent with a peer group as she becomes part of the drug culture (Singer *et al*., 2009).

Theme 3: Effects of CSA on the academic performance of the girl child

The findings of this study established that the cognitive effects of abuse range from attentional problems, learning disorders and school dropouts. Most participants of this study emphatically expressed experiencing trauma and seeing a negative change to their school performance and other areas of their lives as a result of being sexually abused. One of the participants, G4A, said:

> *I have been sexually abused by my uncle (mother's brother) on more than one occasion. He groomed me into having sex after lying to me that he loves me and would want to marry me. He started off by showing me pornographic images on his mobile phone and then he would fondle my private parts, breasts and buttocks. (Mapictures iwayo achiri mumusoro mangu...)I still have a mental picture of those pictures) I could not refuse because I feared for the worst. He ended up having sexual intercourse with me whenever he deemed necessary. It was very traumatic because it was my first time to do it. I felt very cheap in front of my peers and I felt as if I was naked walking in front of them. (Zvaityisa veduwe) It was very traumatic. My grades fell and I was not just myself, even at home...*

G2A highlighted that:

> *...I was raped by my mother's brother who is now late. I did not disclose the sexual abuse till he died. He was the one who was taking care of me after my mother divorced. My second encounter was with my step-father and you can just imagine how hard it has been for me. He is someone I had trusted after leaving my uncle's house to join my mother. It seemed my own mother was in support of it. I tried telling her that dad was making sexual advances whenever she was out of sight but she never seemed to bother. He forced himself on me. I could not even scream because he threatened to kill me or throw us away from his house if we dare talk. It is very traumatic. I am sure you can just imagine... I cannot focus on anything I do because of the abuse. The future is just bleak and I do not even know why I am still living...*

In support of the sentiments raised by the two girls in the focus group discussion, both teachers from Schools A and B cited a deteriorating or inconsistency in the performance of girls after the abuse. They cited absent-mindedness and lack of confidence, difficulty in grasping concepts, low participation during oral lessons and unwillingness to take part in co-curricular activities. CSA has an effect on the way a child learns and performs at school. Both teachers, agreed that sexually abused children's performance in school is very poor. TMSB stated that:

> *Most of the sexually abused children lose focus due to trauma, fear and confusion of what the future holds for them. Sometimes the abuser is the classroom practitioner. The child becomes afraid and remains silent in class.*

During focus group discussions, learner pseudo-named G7B narrated a story of a girl who was sexually abused by her father and later dropped out of school:

> *...after her father sexually abused her, she was sent to her rural home to stay with her grandmother assisting her with work. Some of the children don't pay attention in class and sometimes other pupils write tests while they are absent. These children who miss school, lose out since teachers don't repeat lessons.*

The majority of the Form Two learners who participated in FGDs also highlighted that some children fell pregnant and dropped out of school. Girl learners reported that some victims got infected by the deadly disease, HIV and AIDS and, thus, negatively changed their attitude

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towards school work. Their energy was no longer charged towards school activities. In line with the above, some studies have found lowered intellectual functioning and reduced cognitive functioning in abused children (Fry, Fang, Elliott, Casey, Zheng, Li & McCluskey, 2018; Tran,van Berkel, van IJzendoorn & Alink, 2017; Magwa, 2014; de Witt, 2009; Choudhry, Dayal,Pillai, Kalokhe, Beier & Patel, 2018). However, others have not found differences in intellectual and cognitive functioning, language skills, or verbal ability (Matthews, Coghill & Rhodes 2008; Barker & Hodes; 2007; Mugabe *et al.,* 2016). Sexually abused children suffer from irrational beliefs which make them feel that there is something awful about them and that they are in some way deserving of the abuse. This affects their self-concept and self-esteem and once these two are not in place, the child may not realise self-actualisation. Therefore, the child loses hope (lack of purpose), becomes demotivated, lacks confidence, and lacks assertiveness. This observation is in line with a research by Chinyoka and Ganga (2011), who found that children who develop a negative self-concept experience some form of distress, causing them to perform poorly at school.

In studies by Omundi (2013) and Kufakunesu (2016), it was found out that performance in subjects was related to a positive self-concept, an indication that a poor or negative self-concept and low self-esteem hinders academic achievement. When a child is being abused, his/her education is disrupted and it has a profound impact on the ability of the child to concentrate at school (de Witt, 2009; Barker & Hodes, 2007; Kapoor, 2007).

TMSB said that some children dropped out of school as a result of CSA. He further noted that once the girls become intimate, the next stage is to get married. In support of the above, TFSA indicated that sexually abused children show a negative attitude towards school work, causing them to perform poorly. She further highlighted that most of their time is spent thinking about whether the abuse is going to be repeated or not. Problematic school performance (e.g., low grades, poor standardised test scores, and frequent retention in grade) is a fairly consistent finding in studies of physically abused and neglected children (Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2013; de Witt, 2009), with neglected children appearing the most adversely affected. They explain possible cognitive deficits in abused and neglected children by suggesting that sexual abuse affects the development of social-information-processing patterns which, in turn, lead to chronic aggressive behaviour.

HMSA highlighted that:

> ... *Reports of victims of CSA had come to the office when the victims were no longer doing their homework or as a result of missing school for many days without clear explanation giving reasons for me to invite parents to school. Our teachers are highly packed with teaching activities as some teach 5 classes so it becomes difficult to give help of lost time to the learner who has been missing school for 2weeks. There was one child we almost thought had dropped out of school who had gone away for a month and later resurfaced.*

HMSB concurred with HMSA. Sometimes he takes a keen interest to look at the mark schedule for the victims. He has noticed a decline in academic performance because of high absenteeism and early pregnancy from among the victims of CSA. CSA is widely regarded as having a negative effect on social and interpersonal functioning of school learners (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2013). Muridzo, (2018), Brodsky and Giannetta (2001), and Hing and Danielle (2010), posit that experiencing sexual abuse may impact children's school performance in multiple ways, including lower grades, increased absences, increased disciplinary problems, and higher rates of school dropout. According to Finkelhor and Browne (2015), sexual abuse has four primary effects. These are traumatic sexualisation, stigmatisation, that is, low esteem and self-destructive behaviour, betrayal, and powerlessness. An abused child significantly withdraws from normal social activities. From the context of school-based abuse prevention programmes, it appeared that most programmes assumed the perpetrators were strangers, whereas the weight of evidence suggested that most sexual abuse was committed by a known abuser (Mugabe *et al.*, 2016).

Much of what a child learns comes from her life experiences and personal actions. During the journey to adulthood, most of what the child learns contributes to how she develops self-sufficiency. If the process goes on undisturbed, the child will develop into an independent adult. The child takes in and processes external experiences and then internalises them. This, then, forms the basis on which the child interacts with the world. This too translates into how the abused child will perform in his or academic pursuit, since the child will suffer psychologically from trauma which causes stigmatization and loss of self worth. Spies (2016) states that the information taken in, processed and internalised (made his own) by an abused child, has an enormous effect on the child's life, specifically impacting on his behavioural patterns. Freyd (2002) supports this by mentioning the

reality that a child remembers other external stimuli that she may have heard, felt or smelt, while the abuse was happening. This is often a means of focusing attention onto something other than what is actually taking place that is, focusing on the sexual violation instead of the learning process.

CSA is associated with intellectual deficits and other academic problems, such as a delay in acquiring language and problems in Mathematics and reading tests (Berliner & Elliott, 2002). Sexual abuse has a profound effect on a child's ability to develop skills and abilities and the abuse influences every aspect of the child's growth and development. CSA results in the development of concentration problems at school, anxiety regarding school attendance (Zainudin & Ashari, 2018), fluctuation in school performance, and school learning problems (Resaland, Moe, Aadland Steene-Johannessen, Glosvik, Andersen & Anderssen, 2015). It also results in low self-esteem and negative self-image, increased fear, self-blame and feelings of guilt, higher rates of mental health disorders among abused children, including depression, anxiety and nightmares or flashbacks (Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams & Hoeve, 2019; Berliner & Elliott, 2002). Girls who are sexually abused are less attentive in school, have higher absenteeism, lower grades, lower test scores, and are more likely to drop out of school than girls who are not sexually abused (Fry, Fang, Elliott,Casey, Zheng, Li & McCluskey, 2018; Ainscough & Toon, 2018; Muridzo, 2018; Magwa, 2014; Shonk & Cicchetti, 2001; Vig & Kaminer, 2002; Leiter, 2007; Langsford, Miller-Johnson, Berlin, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 2007).

It is clear, from the FGDs and interviews conducted with participants that most survivors of CSA suffer from poor academic performance. This is in line with various researchers who found out that that girls who are sexually abused are less attentive and engaged in school. They have higher absenteeism, lower grades, lower test scores, and are more likely to drop out of school than girls who are not sexually abused (Shonk & Cicchetti, 2001; Vig & Kaminer, 2002; Leiter, 2007; Langsford, Miller-Johnson, Berlin, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 2007; Hardner, Wolf & Rinfrette, 2018; Young & Widom, 2014)**. This notion is supported by various researchers who concur that when a child is being abused, his/her education is disrupted and it has a profound impact on the ability of the child to concentrate at school (Magwa, 2014; Hing & Danielle, 2010; Gwirayi, 2013; de Witt, 2009; Barker & Hodes; 2007; Mugabe *et al.,* 2016).

During focus group discussions, the majority of girls agreed that sexually abused girls' performance in school is very poor. Most of the sexually abused girls lose focus due to trauma and fear of exposure to other children. This is in line with Romano, Babchishin, Marquis and Fréchette (2015), Arslan (2016), Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams and Hoeve (2019), who postulate that victims may withdraw from school and social activities, and exhibit various learning and behavioural problems. In its study, WHO (2012) found out that sometimes sexually abused children come to school late, sleep through the class period or pay no attention in the classroom, leading to low grades or failure. When interviewed further, the respondents (G1A, G2A, G8B, G9B and G5B) indicated that if the abuser is the classroom practitioner, the child is afraid that the same thing can be repeated, thus remains silent in class and at times falls asleep. According to Alaggia, Collin-Vézina and Lateef, (2019), Mathews and Collin-Vézina (2019), Kamiya, Timonen and Kenny (2016) and Matthews (2009), for some children this trauma is internalised and they suffer from severe psychosomatic responses, like headaches, stomach aches, and loss of appetite before disclosure. Lack of intervention causes the victim to remain suffering due to memories. Thus, there is need for early intervention.

The notion that CSA negatively affects performance at school is supported by various researchers who concur that when a child is being abused, her education is disrupted and it has a profound impact on the ability of the child to concentrate at school (Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2013; Muridzo, 2018; Romano, Babchishin, Marquis & Fréchette, 2015; Saleh, Potter, McQuoid, Boyd, Turner, MacFall & Taylor, 2017; de Witt, 2009; Barker & Hodes; 2007; Kapoor, 2007; Mugabe *et al*., 2016). The country is not only robbed of the opportunity to develop its citizens' full potential academically, but also loses the chance to foster its citizens' talent for the development of the economy.

Sexually abused children develop feelings of guilt and a build-up of depression (Amado, Arce & Herraiz, 2015; Deblinger, Mannarino, Cohen, Runyon & Heflin, 2015; Brain, 2006). Disturbances, such as panic attacks, sleeping problems (insomnia, nightmares) and eating disorders, are also a result of CSA (Whitehead, 2010). Sexual abuse that involves penetration can result in severe, immediate injuries such as genital pain and pregnancy among pubertal females (Child Line, 2009). Ongoing effects may include genital abnormalities and sexually transmitted diseases. Abdominal pain and gastrointestinal disorders are common amongst women who were

sexually abused as children. Contracting sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS or gonorrhoea creates serious health risks for the victims of sexual abuse. CSA can also have physical consequences for children, from sexually transmitted diseases to pregnancy. These physical effects add to the significant emotional and psychological damage inflicted by the abuse (Matthew, 2019; Afifi, MacMillan, Boyle, Cheung, Taillieu Turner & Sareen, 2016).

The state of health that an abused child is in will either enhance her ability to learn or will become a barrier. A child's health is dependent on many factors, such as well-balanced, nutritious meals on a regular basis, regular exercise, and sufficient fresh air and sunlight (Zajacova & Lawrence, 2018; Chinyoka, 2013; Kibel & Guthrie, 2001:10). The home is the primary source of learning for any child and, therefore, the circumstances in the home have a profound effect on the education of a child (Jacob & Ryan, 2018; Levine & Munsch, 2018; Chinyoka, 2013; Muridzo, 2018; Louw & Louw, 2007). A child whose general health is poor already has a barrier to learning, in that he is generally unable to establish and maintain an acceptable level of academic performance (Zimmerman, Woolf & Haley, 2015; Magwa, 2014; Prinsloo, 2007). A learner who is not in good health suffers from detrimental effects on her attention span, her energy levels, school attendance and conscientiousness. If pregnant, this may result in dropping out of school. The thought of being HIV positive may result in one being suicidal in thought. According to Kufakunesu (2014), Arcaya, Arcaya & Subramanian (2015), Friedrich (2001) and Danielle (2010), for a learner to achieve optimally at school, the holistic environment needs to be conducive to effective learning. This shows that there is a relationship between conditions at home and those at school. There should be authentic pedagogic relationships within an atmosphere of trust, caring, support and guidance (Ciosek & Whiteson, 2017; Freyd, de Prince & Zurbriggen, 2001). Therefore, it cannot be disputed that there is correlation between good psychological health and good academic performance.

Out of the ten girls who participated in focus group discussions, only two, G4A and G8B, denied that rape and other forms of sexual abuse leads to failure. They contrarily hinted that a sexually abused child can even pass and pursue her dreams, all things being equal. They opined that what is crucial is for the victim to receive professional counselling. Studies done by Levitan, Rector,

Sheldon and Goering (2003) highlighted that, children who received supportive responses following disclosure had less traumatic symptoms and were abused for a shorter period of time than children who did not receive support. Bernard (2012), Domhardt, Münzer, Fegert and Goldbeck (2015), Phasha (2010) and Marriott, Giachritsis and Harrop (2014), concur with this notion that some sexually abused children become high academic achievers because they channel all their energies towards focusing on their schoolwork as a coping and compensating mechanism. Bernard (2012) concluded that resilient children have high expectations, a meaning for life, goals, personal agency, and inter-personal problem-solving skills. Some abused children become motivated by their plight to work hard so as to dispute the irrationality associated with sexual abuse. CSA has been associated with an overall reduction in educational engagement and attainment at school and in higher/further education (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 2014; Glasser, 2015).

One teacher, TMSB, indicated that mark schedules before discovery of abuse and after discovery of abuse for affected learners in four subject areas, History, Maths, English, and Shona, which he had scrutinised, showed a drop in academic performance. Both Schools A and school B teachers suggested that almost all of the sexually abused learners had made significant changes in performance at school after cases of CSA were discovered. TFSA said that she had taught a girl who had been sexually abused but her academic performance had never been affected. She remained one of her best learners even after the discovery of the abuse. She went on to say:

> *But generally most of the abused learners I have taught have displayed a negative academic performance...however,* it depended on the nature and extent of the abuse. (*...mwana akangotaurwa naye akavane pekugara pakanaka haatani kukangamwa) if a child is counselled and given a safe place to stay she will forget about the abuse. I personally believe that time heals everything.*

She further showed her mixed feelings when she said at the same time she thought it all depended on who had abused the child. If it was someone like a parent or another sibling, it could prove to be difficult for the child and, hence, academic performance could be affected, as these were the same people she would be with for the rest of her life. TMSB said,

... When a person's mind/emotional state is affected, it also affects his concentration span during lessons, which in turn affects the academic results.

In support of the above, TFSA indicated that:

CSA had a negative effect on academic performance and many a time children who would have been sexually abused don't focus his thoughts on school activities but rather on activities of the abuse she is going through.

In some studies, adolescent girls suffering from CSA demonstrated poor school performance (Hooper & Warwick, 2006; Martin *et al.*, 2004). Their self-esteem was low. They could not work or study and their lack of well-being significantly impacted their families and their own quality of life.

The general consensus among the two (2) teachers who were interviewed was that academic performance is negatively affected after sexual abuse. Some children were said to be absent from school many times. Others began to have health problems such that they missed school or if they attend, they spend most of their time sleeping in class. TMSA also highlighted that some learners failed to cope with their studies and remained at the same grade. During the interview with the teachers, it was highlighted that there was a plethora of variables that also affected academic performance despite CSA. They indicated that factors from within (intrinsic) and from outside (extrinsic) had influence on learning. Both teachers identified other factors, including home factors, school factors, health of child and disability. TMSB argued that CSA is only one of the factors:

How can one pass when the teacher is demotivated?, We no longer have incentives and this affects our performance as teachers as we lack the motivation to teach.

TFSA said,

…poverty can reflect badly on one's academic performance. Some children don't even have school uniforms or the required stationery and worse still, few schools nowadays have text books.

This corroborates findings by Chinyoka (2013), who posited that poverty has, and will continue to, precipitate enormous suffering among learners at school.

POL, upon being asked if they had witnessed victims of CSA dropout of school, said,

> *I tell you CSA disturbs children at school because when they are going to court they lose lessons. If they have health problems as a result, they also miss school. Sometimes it will be feigned illness in order to stay home and not face the world. Remember some of these children are labelled and stigmatised.*

POL added that:

> *...some victims die or lose the opportunity to learn. They commit suicide or die as a result of abortion. It's sad because some parents do assist their children to have an abortion using their own herbs.*

POL also highlighted that some parents would bring in their children for counselling upon seeing dropping academic grades and this is a clear confirmation that academic performance is affected. It is clear from the FGDs and interviews conducted with participants, that most survivors of CSA exhibit poor academic performance. This is in line with various researchers' finding that girls who are sexually abused are less attentive in school. They have higher absenteeism, lower grades, lower test scores, and are more likely to drop out of school than girls who are not sexually abused (Shonk & Cicchetti, 2001; Vig & Kaminer, 2002; Leiter, 2007; Langsford, Miller-Johnson, Berlin, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 2007; Hardner, Wolf & Rinfrette 2018; Young & Widom, 2014)**.**

Theme 4: Support for survivors of CSA in schools

During the interviews, both teachers suggested the following ways of attenuating problems as a result of CSA, as shown in Figure 5.7:

Parents' Role	Teacher's Role	School's Role
provide continued support	Being non judgemental and empathetic	estabilish counselling unit
be role models	re building trust	report all cases of CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE to police
report all Sexual abuse case	flushing out irrational beliefs	establish peer groups
shun religious, cultural practices that promote early marriages	building confidence and self esteem	teach self protection
open dialogue with children		

Psychosocial support for victims of CSA

[16]Fig: 5.7   Supporting CSA Learners

(Source: Field 2019)

> Sexually abused children should get counselling services from qualified counsellors. They should be referred to the police and the Social Welfare for assistance.
> The school should encourage the children to join peer education clubs.
> The police should be informed of cases that come through the school.
> The school should teach all children to protect themselves from abuse.
> The school should provide opportunities in the classroom for the children to disclose their experiences by means of creative writing.

The teachers emphasised that the school should remind teachers and learners not to label such learners and to give them attention in class. TMSA said that schools should have committees of *mbuya* (grandmother), *sekuru* (grandfather) *nemzukuru* and (grandchild) so that children can consult them whenever they have problems. This will encourage speaking out.

TMSB said that the school should have regulations that look at the welfare of the children as they knock off from school. He further stated that sometimes one sees learners roaming around

the township in school uniforms at night. TMSB recommended that there must be reduction of class size so that there will be improved interaction between teacher and learner. The current teacher pupil ratio at most schools is 1:60. He pointed out that as teachers, they went through assessment and were expected to produce best grades, so it was difficult to concentrate on one individual learner at the expense of the other learners.

I think establishing a Counselling Unit housed at the school will help (TFSB).

During the FGDA and FGDB with the learners, there was general consensus that the school should come up with educational material on issues of CSA and cameras that show the day-to-day activities within the school. G7B from school B posited that the teachers were supposed to believe the child victim when they reported their experiences and the school was supposed to invite more drama groups to teach about CSA. Two (2) of the FGD participants said that teachers were supposed to be role models in the fight against CSA. G9B from School B observed that:

Mamwe maticha ndiwo anobata vana saka dai chikoro chikawedzera matanho ekuchengetedza vana (Some teachers are the abusers. The school should come up with more ways of protecting children).

Further probing revealed that the school was supposed to ban male teachers from being alone with female learners. Children in the focus groups were further asked what they thought parents could do to reduce CSA. Remarks from FGDSA and FGDSB respondents showed that they expected on-going support from parents and protection. FGDSA girl named G2A said,

...vamwe vabereki vanongosiya vana nevashandi kana vadzoka havambo tarisi kuti vana vasara varisei (some parents leave children in the custody of maids and when they return, they don't check on the children's welfare).

Eleven out of ten FGDB participants cited the need for parents to spend time with their children and have open dialogue so that it would easy to talk about almost anything with the parents. One girl, G3A from the school, lamented that:

...sometimes we feel afraid to discuss certain issues with our parents because they become judgemental or they are not approachable.

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The girl pseudo named G4A agreed and added that parents should not entrust their children to strangers. They were also supposed to shun religious practices that promote CSA through child marriages. The girl pseudo named G1A also cheaped in and said,

> *...parents must be role models and desist from sexual gratification from children.*

Parents must let go of cultural practices that encourage CSA. One (1) pupil from School B, G6B, expressed the view that parents should seek accommodation which does not compromise the safety of the children. An example was given of some families who lived in a two-roomed house together with their two (2) children of mixed sex and two (2) other male relatives.

During an interview with the police officer, POL had the following to say:

> *...parents are encouraged not to leave children in compromising environments where children are liable to abuse, courts are supposed to hand down severe deterrent sentences so as to discourage potential sexual abusers from committing the offence. There is need to increase awareness programmes in order to conscientise the public on the psychological and physical dangers of CSA.*

POL suggested that society needs to take a protective role in ensuring the safety of children, who are its delicate members today but its leaders tomorrow. POL also suggested that all cases of CSA should be brought to the attention of the police and not swept under the carpet. He further encouraged families to desist from the phenomenon of settling CSA cases out of court. She said that there is need for the government to come up with user-friendly policies to support the welfare of children.

There is an untold number of instances in which teachers have positively influenced the lives of the children in their classes. A sexually abused child may manifest the abuse at school, in terms of behavioural problems and/or inadequate academic achievement (Magwa, 2014; Gwirayi, 2014). Teachers have an advantage in that they are in an excellent position in the classroom or on the sports field, to be able to notice children who are being sexually abused (Márquez-Flores, Márquez-Hernández & Granados-Gámez, 2016; Rudolph, Zimmer-Gembeck, Shanley & Hawkins, 2018; Goldman & Grimbeek, 2015; van As & Naidoo, 2006). The onus is, therefore, upon the teachers to decide how they can assist children who are suffering from sexual abuse.

Both teachers interviewed indicated that they treat victims of CSA just like any other children, to avoid stigmatisation. While this is one way of protecting the child from being labelled by other children, it can also work against the betterment of the situation. The child may not feel encouraged to confide in the teacher, hence may be more withdrawn and isolated. According to Erikson's theory, the children who have gone through sexual abuse each have unique history they carry and behaviours that they portray. Some may exhibit behaviour which is not in line with their age, as an indication that they are still stuck at the previous stage. As Erikson stated, clients who have had difficulty navigating through the stages will often become stuck in the stage in which the abuse took place (Lewis, McElroy, Harlaar & Runyan, 2016; Noll, Trickett, Long, Negriff, Susman, Shalev & Putnam, 2017; Charles, Reynolds & Gatz, 2001). Teachers are, therefore, encouraged to treat each child differently. Cohen (2000) posits that in order to best treat these clients, it is important to assess their respective developmental stage, and meet them there in the creation of treatment goals and interventions.

Tsao (2006), Capella, Lama, Rodríguez, Águila, Beiza, Dussert & Gutierrez, 2016; Wood (2009), Wilson, Vidal, Wilson and Salyer (2012), Deblinger, Lippmann and Steer (1996), suggest that the child should be encouraged to talk as much as she can, as this helps her recover. The teacher, therefore, should take time with the child and allow her to disclose her experiences, after which the teacher should decide whether or not the child can be helped in a classroom situation. The teacher must assist the learner to flush out irrational beliefs and replace them with rational ones, for self-actualisation to take place. REBT places a good deal of its focus on the present: currently-held attitudes, painful emotions and maladaptive behaviours that can sabotage a fuller experience of life. REBT also provides people with an individualised set of proven techniques to help solve problems. REBT practitioners work closely with people, seeking to help uncover their individual set of beliefs (attitudes, expectations and personal rules) that frequently lead to emotional distress. REBT then provides a variety of methods to help people reformulate their dysfunctional beliefs into more sensible, realistic and helpful ones by employing the powerful REBT technique called 'disputing.' In cases where counselling is needed, arrangements should be made by the teacher to help the child get it. It should be noted that teachers lack counselling ethics, techniques, skills and the theoretical framework, unlike professional counsellors. There is, therefore, need to refer sexually abused children to a

counsellor. Teachers should love, show acceptance and unconditional positive regard to sexually abused children, as advocated by Carl Rogers.

Taylor and Stewart (2012) suggest that successful intervention should be sought in the lives of abused children and involvement of their families is important. Parental involvement at school is also beneficial because families and schools establish appropriate behaviour that is reiterated to children at home and at school (Benner, Boyle & Sadler, 2016; Boonk, Gijselaers, Ritzen & Brand-Gruwel, 2018; Juma, Simatwa & Ayodo, 2012; Hill & Taylor, 2004:161; Bonga, 2010)**.** From the teachers' responses, the researcher noted that none indicated that they would consult parents of the child and work closely with them to help the child. This suggests that teachers and parents sometimes do not communicate on sensitive matters concerning the child. Maybe this is because of fear of direct confrontation. In the end, it is the child who continues to suffer in silence. Teachers, therefore, must take an active role and display a positive attitude that will help them to understand sexually abused children's past history/background in order to find out how the past is affecting the present. Psychotherapeutic intervention is an important consideration when CSA has occurred. Even so, for treatment to be appropriate and effective, an individualized approach is necessary (Wurdeman, 2015). Treatment interventions must address each sexually abused child's developmental history within a family, community, and cultural context (Koocher, 2013). Risk factors that are associated with heightened vulnerability for children to be sexually victimized, such as family chaos, alcoholism, and domestic violence, can also independently cause trauma and must be addressed in treatment plans (Cook, Alexandra, Joseph Spinazzola, Julian Ford, Cheryl Lanktree, Margaret Blaustein, Marylene Cloitre & Ruth DeRosa, 2017 ; Blaustein & Kinniburgh, 2018; Koocher, 2013).

Building of trust is important because it is difficult for the child to understand why the person who is supposed to protect and care for her is the one who is the source of the victim's confusion and fear (De Witt, 2009). Teachers were said to also abuse children. This coincides with what Muridzo (2018), Magwa (2016) and Gwirayi (2013) observed that children are no longer safe at school because those who are supposed to act in loco-parentis are the ones who are at the helm of perpetrating abuse. This leaves children with nowhere to turn to, at home and away from home.

Upon discovery of abuse, the victims, teachers, parents and community members must believe and support. Reporting channels must be clear. Teachers must be taught identification of behaviour signs and symptoms. Children may not disclose the information verbally or in a direct manner but there may be other subtle clues as to what is happening. Bronfenbrenner's theory is, therefore, an eye-opener for teachers, parents, members of the community, and the children themselves, since they are encouraged to make use of the interwoven relationships between them and the immediate environment. Davis (2018:54) indicates that *empathy* means "…trying to understand the thoughts, feelings, behaviours and personal meanings from the other's internal frame of reference". O'Neil (2011:128) asserts that to be in a position to help the child, "…one must find a way to stand in the persons' shoes, not for judgement or diagnostic purposes but merely to facilitate the learners' endeavours to gain congruence". Unlike sympathy, which further paralyses the child, empathy is meant to strengthen the child by enabling him or her to recognise the intrinsic resources at his or her disposal.

Bezuidenhout (2008) discusses how difficult it is for a victim to cope after being violated if there is lack of support from society. Acknowledgement of the incident(s), emotional and practical support and confirmation that it was not the victim's fault are essential factors that need to be enforced after the rape/abuse (Domhardt, Münzer, Fegert & Goldbeck, 2015; Alix, Cossette, Hébert, Cyr & Frappier, 2017; Gomes-Schwartz *et al.*, 1990:68).

TMSB indicated that they had set up a group comprising senior teachers, which they named *mbuya nemuzukuru (grandmother and grandchild).* Unfortunately, responses from children did not indicate knowledge of such a group during the FGIs. The implication is that the group only dealt with learners who would already have been sexually abused and with reported cases. If all children in the school could be made aware of the existence of such a helpful group, they would consult on any matters related to sex.

There is need for reduction of class size so that there is improved interaction between teacher and learner. The current teacher pupil ratio at the school is 1:60. This is supported by Mupa & Chinooneka (2015), Marais (2016), and van Greunen (1994:97), who posit that learner-teacher ratio in large classes contributes to the teacher not having enough time to pay attention to the needs of each learner. This often results in gap in the knowledge of weaker learners becoming

larger as they lag further behind. It also contributes to a higher level of early school-leavers (Wadesango, Hove & Kurebwa, 2016; Race, 2005: 151).

According to data obtained from all participants, there was consensus that a holistic approach should be used as far as prevention of CSA is concerned. POL indicated that it is time we joined hands with various stakeholders in coming up with prevention strategies and programmes so as to avoid resistance. This is in line with Mathews & Collin-Vézina (2019), Ainscough & Toon, (2018), Wurtele (2009) and Finkelhor (2009), who argue that it is time for adults to contribute in the protection of children and creation of a safe environment by employing multi-component, synchronised, preventive interventions that include educators, parents, and practitioners as interdisciplinary approaches offer the greatest potential for keeping children safe from sexual abuse.

REBT can assist sexually abused children to regain their self-image, thereby building their self-esteem and confidence. Since teachers lack the expertise, techniques and skills needed to counsel sexually abused children, the school should house a qualified counsellor to assist children who suffer from all forms of abuse. During FGD with FGDSA and FGDSB, there was general consensus that the school should come up with educational material on issues of CSA and cameras that show the day-to-day activities within the school. One girl from FGDSA posited that the teachers should believe the child victims when they report their experiences and the school was supposed to invite more drama groups which teach about CSA. It is, therefore, imperative for the school to hold workshops that teach teachers and pupils about CSA. There were supposed to be debates with other schools in order to share ideas. The children also pointed out that believing victims and taking their issues seriously is the highway to more disclosure.

POL indicated challenges in lack of sponsorship to enable them to reach schools and communities which are far from where they live, yet the places fall under their jurisdiction. Also, they faced cultural related challenges as communities coming from different socio-economic backgrounds held different beliefs and practices, some of which promoted or supported CSA. POL also indicated that some parents married off their children to older men. She further added that they threaten police officers whenever they want to intervene. Some and Popović (2018),

Szwarcberg (2001), Sawrikar & Katz (2017), Johnson (2004) and Sanderson (2004) supported the view that some common practices and stereotypes can assist perpetrators of CSA.

Teachers from School A and B, as well as the heads, shared the same sentiments with the POL, that most cases of child sexual are under-reported, making it difficult to assist the girl child to access therapy. Counselling provides emotional and psychological stability for the child, promotes a positive self-image and increases confidence of the child. Guidance and counselling improve individual relations of the child with others and create a platform for educating communities about breaking silence and terminating the abusive behaviour cycle.

Zimbabwe has incorporated CSA into the curriculum, with the subject being covered under Guidance and Counselling (Gwirayi, 2013; Mapfumo & Nkoma, 2013; Zimbabwe Judicial Service Commission, 2012). This is not enough, according to Mapfumo & Nkoma (2013), who note that despite being mandated through national policy, universal implementation of the guidance and counselling programme is constrained by lack of knowledge and the requisite skills to teach CSA awareness. Mathews (2011) supports the above view and indicates that professional development in the area of CSA prevention is seriously lacking and evidence suggests a critical need for training. To this end, teachers need in-depth knowledge to empower them to carry out their responsibilities in the protection of children. In agreement are some researchers who recommend professional development, pre-service and in-service training for teachers (Arnold & Maio-Taddeo, 2007; Mathews, 2011; Mathews, Walsh, Rassafiani, Butler & Farrell, 2009; Walsh, Laskey, McInnes, Farrell & Mathews, 2011). Child sexual abuse education is imperative and loaded with the following benefits cited by Beyers (2013), UNESCO (2009), Baker (2019), Seiler-Ramadas, Mosor, Omara, Grabovac, Schindler, Niederkrotenthaler & Dorner (2021), Kirby, Laris and Rolleri (2006) and Kirby, Laris and Rolleri (2005): learners become aware of CSA and are empowered to, not only prevent negative outcomes, such as falling blindly into risky sexual behaviour, which include unwanted pregnancy, Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and Human Immune Deficiency Virus (HIV), but also have ability to make informed choices.

5.5 Summary

The chapter has highlighted findings made in this study. It is evident that CSA is a reality. The researcher unveiled its psychosocial effects among Form Two learners' holistic development in Gokwe rural. It is also evident that sexually abused children have personality problems as shown by the antisocial behaviour that they display. This, in turn, adversely affects their classroom performance. Teachers expressed sentiments that they try to help victims of CSA to adjust socially and to maximise their classroom performance. There is also need to take effective measures to assist victims of CSA, through the police and the Social Welfare Department.

The next chapter will deal with the summary of research findings, make research conclusions and also give recommendations on how victims of CSA can be assisted. Ways of minimising CSA in Gokwe rural and in Zimbabwe as a whole will also be suggested.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises Chapters One to five and makes conclusions from findings made. This concluding chapter will establish whether the data collected has shed light on the research problem and answered the sub-questions indicated in Chapter One. A summary of findings on the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child in Gokwe, Zimbabwe, will also be highlighted. It is confirmed, in this chapter, that the research problem has been addressed and the research aims achieved. The chapter also focuses on the conclusions drawn from the theoretical framework, the literature reviewed, the methodology and the qualitative data presented and discussed in chapter five. Thereafter, the recommendations which emanated from these findings will be made for future studies on CSA and the holistic development of girl learners. The recommendations will assist the government, NGOs, teachers, parents, girl children, religious and cultural leaders, and all interested parties to make informed decisions when dealing with sexually abused girl children. Matters requiring further research are also included.

6.1.1 Chapter One
The chapter endeavoured to expose the psychosocial impact of child sexual abuse (CSA) on the holistic development of girl learners in Zimbabwe. Child sexual abuse has precipitated, and will continue to precipitate, enormous suffering of countless girl learners in developing and developed countries. It has devastating, life-long effects on the victims, generating great anguish and disruption of the lives of these children. Researches have established that child sexual abuse is a problem which pervades all societies in both developed and developing countries (Lalor, 2008; Kenny, Wurtele & Alonso, 2012; Laccino, 2014; Browne & Finkelhor, 1986; Higgins, Russell & Posso, 2020; Gold, Sinclair & Balge, 1999; Liotta, 2015).The chapter unpacks the problem and its setting, focusing on the background to the study. The theoretical framework upon which the study is hinged, statement of the problem, the research questions, objectives and the significance of the study were discussed. Limitations and delimitations of the study were also

documented. The researcher detailed the research methodologies, research designs and research instruments used to carry out the study. The key terms were defined and an outline of the chapters was given.

6.1.2 Chapter Two

This chapter reviewed existing related literature, focusing on study objectives, zeroing in on the global, regional and national picture of child sexual abuse. The aim was to enrich the study with insights from research work, as well as to establish gaps in which to launch the thesis argument. The chapter highlighted the global overview of child sexual abuse, religious perspective, and general overview of CSA in Zimbabwe, as well as different forms and types of child sexual abuse. Girls were found to be in danger of being sexually abused, particularly by adults in and outside their homes. The phenomenon of CSA in Zimbabwe has become an issue of national concern that has attracted the attention of stakeholders from various backgrounds.

In Zimbabwe, CSA is caused by cultural factors, religion, economic hardships, parenting styles, and child marriages. The belief that having sexual intercourse with a virgin cures HIV and AIDS, and the myth that virgins make businesses thrive, make men sexually abuse children. This is supported by Hunter (2006), who argues that HIV leads men to coerce young girls into sexual relations. These men think that they are less likely to be infected if they have sex with young women. Risk factors associated with CSA have been found to be historical, religious and cultural factors, factors in the family, and factors within the child. The chapter also outlined the causes of CSA and reasons why cases are not readily reported. Effects of CSA were discussed in detail and prevention strategies given. The final part of the chapter suggested ways to help a child who reports having been sexually abused and also ways in which the school can help minimise cases of child sexual abuse.

6.1.3 Chapter Three

This chapter examined the concept of CSA and also discussed theories that guide this study. It is hoped that the clarification of child sexual abuse will lead to a delineation of a framework on which the study hinges. The first section offered an attempt to review literature on the

conceptualisation of the term child sexual abuse. The same section also offered an analysis of the coordinates of the consequences of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child. The second section discussed the theoretical framework. The study is grounded in Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Perspective, Erikson's Psychosocial Theory, and the Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) by Albert Ellis. Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model consists of the following five nested structures: microsystems, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem (Rathus 2006:26; Berk, 2007:23; Donald *et al.,* 2010:36). This theory was used to examine the development of sexually abused girls within the context of a system of relationships that form her environment. This theory explains how the inherent qualities of the girl child and the environment interact to influence the way a sexually abused girl child grows and develops. The child is studied in the context of multiple environments (ecological systems), in an attempt to understand his/ her development. In this study, the rural environment is considered.

Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) is applied to assist sexually abused girls to identify their irrational beliefs that are unrealistic, destructive and self-defeating, in order to replace them with rational ones. REBT is based on the assumption that human beings are self-actualizing in nature and have a strong biological tendency to think irrationally (especially the sexually abused learners in this case). Ellis (2004) further postulates that naturally, people are hedonistic in nature. That is why they fundamentally strive for survival, happiness and freedom from pain.

This study was also informed by Erikson's Psychosocial Theory. Human development experts assert that child sexual abuse interferes with the physical, social, psychological and emotional processes of children's development. According to Erikson's (1963) Psychosocial Theory, people go through eight psychosocial stages of development and each stage consists of a unique developmental task that the girl child needs to accomplish in order to develop normally. Failure to resolve a crisis, in this case due to CSA, results in problems or pathology.

6.1.4 Chapter Four

This chapter discussed the research approach, the research design, the population, the sample, sampling techniques, the instruments used to collect the data in this research, and the data analysis procedures. The qualitative phenomenological design was adopted for use in this study because of its flexibility; it is good at surfacing deep issues, and making voices heard (Maxwell, 2020) and was, thus, found suitable to explore the psychosocial effects of CSA on the holistic development of girl children in Zimbabwe.

The researcher used in-depth face-to-face interviews with two (2) teachers, two (2) school headmasters and one (1) police officer. Two focus groups (FGDSA and FGDSB), each consisting of five learners from each school, were used to gather data from the research participants. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were carried out until the researcher was satisfied that no other responses came from the interviewees. The researcher made use of semi structured, in-depth phenomenological interviews with two Form Two teachers, two school heads and one police officer. Interviews and focus group discussions were conducted until the topic reached saturation. An inductive approach to analysing the responses to interviews and focus groups was undertaken to allow patterns, themes, and categories to emerge rather than being imposed prior to data collection and analysis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2012; Patton, 2015). Thematic analysis using Tesch's open coding method was used; participants' responses were recorded verbatim. The most illustrative quotations were used to buttress important points that emerged from the data gathered from respondents. Ethical issues were adhered to.

6.1.5 Chapter Five

This chapter analysed, interpreted and discussed the primary data collected by means of the interviews and focus group discussions, in relation to the questions for the research (see Chapter One). The first part of the chapter dealt with data presentation, interpretation and analysis, while the second part discussed the findings. Analysis of the empirical data yielded four major themes, as indicated in Figure 5.3 (see Chapter Five). The study established the following themes, as shown by Figure 5.3: the causes of CSA on girl learners, impact of CSA on academic performance of girl learners, consequences of CSA (physical and health consequences of CSA,

effects of CSA on personality development and behaviour, social and moral development of the girl learners, psychological consequences of CSA) and the possible solutions to attenuate effects of CSA on girls.

6.2 Summary

The purpose of this study was to find out the psychosocial effects of CSA among Form Two children in Gokwe rural and the effects on the child's holistic development, in relation to Erik Erikson's Psychosocial Theory, behavioural-cognitive theories and the ecological/systems theory, all of which hold that early childhood experiences shape the destiny of an individual's personality in later life.

Literature related to the definitions of child sexual abuse, the different forms of sexual abuse, and its effects among western cultures and in Zimbabwe was studied. A high prevalence of CSA in Zimbabwe was noted, together with a wide range of effects on the child's emotional, cognitive, moral and social development as well as behaviour. The effects include anxiety, depression, sleep disturbances and acting out, especially in the case of prolonged and incestuous abuse. It was also evident from literature reviewed that because of the feelings of low self-esteem and lack of confidence, learning in class was negatively affected.

The school and the teachers were found to be of assistance in contributing towards assisting the child to recover from the trauma of being sexually abused and helping girls develop into fully functional adults.

Information from this study was gathered from two primary schools in Gokwe rural Ten (10) Form Two learners, two (2) teachers, two (2) school heads and one (1) Police officer were interviewed. The qualitative research design was employed and the instruments which were used were focus group discussions and interviews. These were triangulated to achieve trustworthiness, reliability and validity of data. The following conclusions were drawn from the findings:

6.3 Summary of Conclusions

The study revealed that the effects and prevalence of CSA among the group in question was very high. Information collected from the schools did not reflect the real situation because of under-reporting. Instead, it showed lack of open communication between the parents and school administration and between learners and teachers, hence the schools only had a few cases that they largely came to know about from the police. It can, therefore, be concluded that the numbers of sexually abused children in schools are much higher than those acknowledged and many more go unreported.

The study also showed that CSA has an effect on the personality development of the child, as evidenced by the numerous behavioural problems cited by the teachers. These included withdrawal, emotional instability, mood changes, anxiety, day dreaming, depression, use of vulgar language and acting out. These findings were consistent with theories which suggest that unpleasant childhood experiences can result in a defective personality. Literature indicates that children who are sexually abused may develop certain personality traits as a result of the possible behavioural changes that occur after abuse (Killian & Brakarsh, 2007:368; Louw *et al.*, 2007: 364; Fouché &Yssel, 2006:241; Assink, van der Put, Meeuwsen, de Jong, Oort, Stams & Hoeve, 2019). It can, therefore, be concluded that children who have been sexually abused do have defective personalities which are displayed by their behaviour.

A deterioration or inconsistency in classroom performance that was noted from the study was evidence of the effects of CSA on the child's academic performance. It has been widely documented that the academic performance of child sexual abuse victims generally deteriorates as time passes and as the abuse continues. The conclusion that can be drawn from this study is that child sexual abuse has a negative effect on the way a child learns and performs in class. This can be because of low participation, low self-esteem, and poor self-image and absent mindedness, reportedly often shown by the affected children during lessons. However, it was noted that there are some children who are resilient and will still make it to the top despite having been sexually abused.

Results from this study showed that teachers treat children who have been sexually abused just like any other children in their classes, to avoid stigmatisation. This led to the conclusion that

sexually abused children are not receiving the help that they so badly need. They are left to continue suffering in silence, hence their behaviour and performance in class continue to be affected.

All respondents indicated that schools can do a lot to assist children who have been sexually abused, leading to the conclusion that schools are at present not doing enough to address the plight of sexually abused children.

6.4 Recommendations

Research on the consequences of sexual abuse can offer significant insights in the development of interventions. In particular, research on consequences can help improve our understanding of the nature, magnitude, and significance of abusive experiences among girls. Such experiences appear to result in tragic and costly outcomes for children, their families, and society as a whole. Knowing more about the nature of the consequences of child sexual abuse will help justify preventive interventions. Such knowledge will also help improve treatment programmes designed to expand the role of protective factors that may mitigate destructive consequences of CSA experiences.
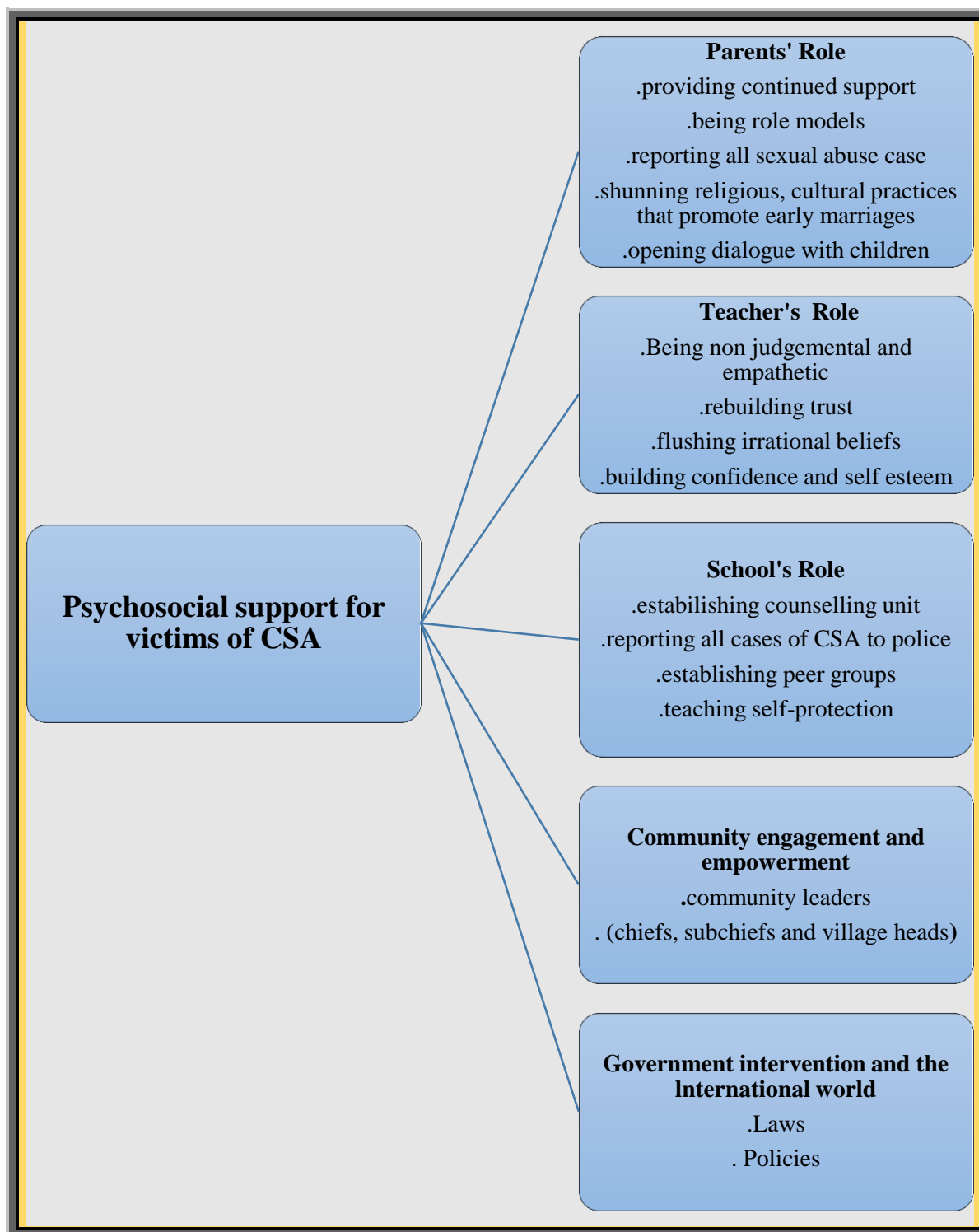
Psychosocial support for Victims of CSA

[17]**Fig 6.1** (field source 2019)

Fig 6.1 shows only a holistic approach bringing together parents, teachers, learners, education officials, law enforcement agents and the civil society, can make communities safe environments for children. There is need to be open in communication so that cases of child sexual abuse are promptly reported and appropriate steps taken to bring the perpetrators to book. Above all, children should be taught to report to any adult who can assist once they have been sexually abused.

The teacher must assist the learner to flush out irrational beliefs and replace them with rational ones, for self-actualisation to take place. REBT places a good deal of its focus on the present: on currently-held attitudes, painful emotions and maladaptive behaviours that can sabotage a fuller experience of life. REBT also provides people with an individualised set of proven techniques for helping them to solve problems. REBT practitioners work closely with people, seeking to help them uncover their individual set of beliefs (attitudes, expectations and personal rules) that frequently lead to emotional distress. REBT then provides a variety of methods to help people reformulate their dysfunctional beliefs into more sensible, realistic and helpful ones by employing the powerful REBT technique called 'disputing.' In cases where counselling is needed, arrangements should be made by the teacher to help the child get it. It should be noted that teachers lack counselling ethics, techniques, skills and the theoretical framework, unlike professional counsellors. There is, therefore, need to refer sexually abused children to a counsellor. Teachers should love, show acceptance and unconditional positive regard, as advocated by Carl Rogers.

Taylor and Stewart (2012) suggest that successful intervention should be sought in the lives of abused children, and involvement of their families is important. Parental involvement at school is also beneficial because the families and the schools establish appropriate behaviour that is reiterated to children at home and at school (Juma, Simatwa & Ayodo, 2012; Hill & Taylor, 2004:161; Bonga, 2010). From teachers' responses, none indicated that they would consult parents of the child and work closely with them to help the child. This suggests that teachers and parents sometimes do not communicate on sensitive matters concerning the child, maybe because of fear of a direct confrontation. In the end it is the child who continues to suffer in silence. Teachers, therefore, must play an active role and display a positive attitude which will

help them to understand sexually abused children's past history/background. This will help them to understand how the past is affecting the present. Psychotherapeutic intervention is an important consideration when CSA has occurred. Even so, for treatment to be appropriate and effective, an individualized approach is necessary (Wurdeman 2015). Treatment interventions must address each sexually abused child's developmental history within a family, community, and cultural context (Kenny & Abreu, 2015; Koocher, 2013). Risk factors that are associated with heightened vulnerability for children to be sexually victimized, such as family chaos, alcoholism and domestic violence, can also independently cause trauma and must be addressed in treatment plans (Koocher, 2013).

Fig 6.2 summaries what needs to be done in order to control and reduce child sexual abuse.
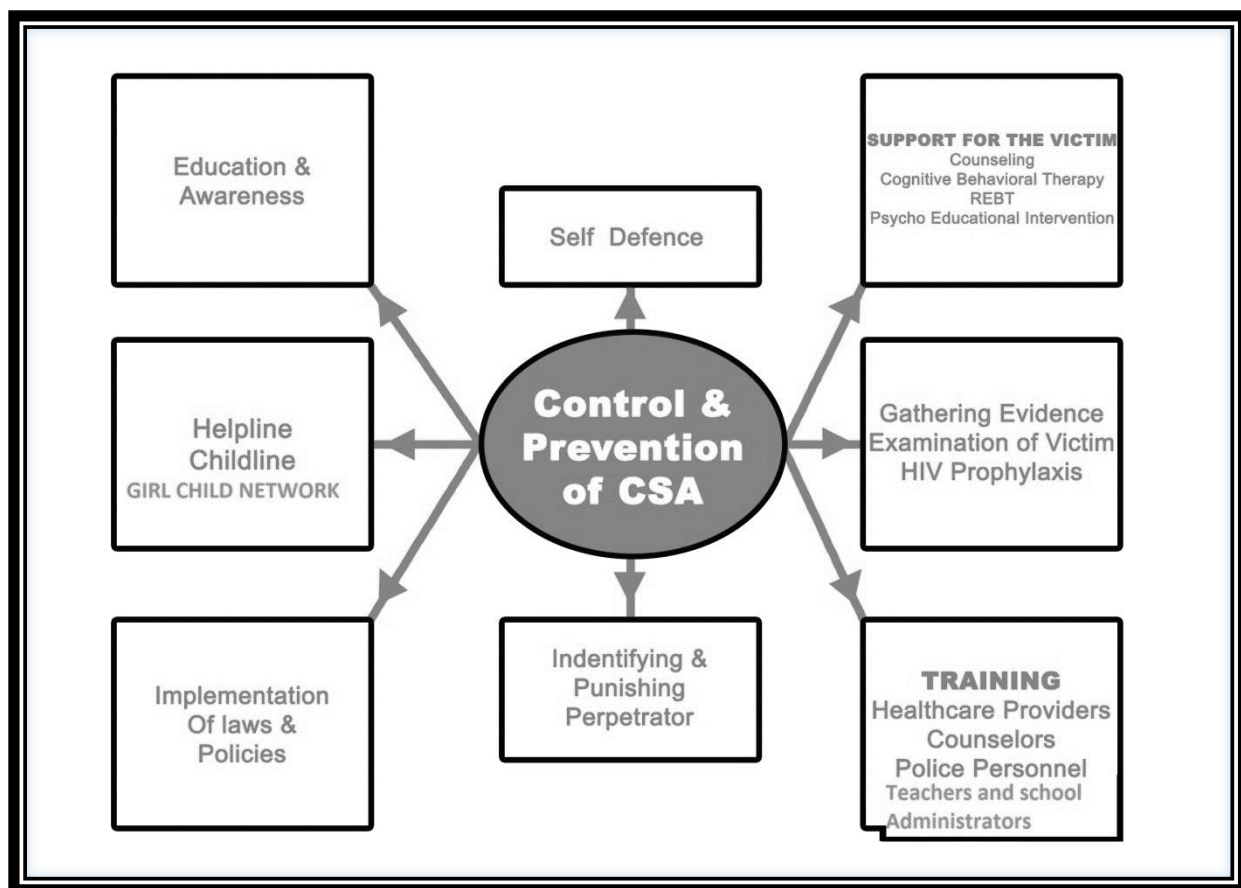
[18]Fig. 6.2: Control and prevention of child sexual abuse **(Field source, 2019)**

Since the study has shown that girls are vulnerable to CSA, there is need to take particular care of the girl child and offer programmes aimed at educating them about CSA and how they can

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take care of themselves. There is need to teach girls, though drama, debates, and education for living lessons, about preventive measures that they can take to avoid falling blindly into situations where they can easily be abused, so as to reduce their risk of being sexually abused.

Teachers who notice a child who has behavioural problems that are suggestive of sexual abuse should make an effort to find out about the child's home background and establish the real cause of the problem. There is need to refer the child for counselling as therapy helps in understanding the situation. Informed decisions can then be made. Teachers should also carefully offer more support and encouragement to the sexually abused children and give them remedial lessons without unnecessarily drawing attention to them. Independence and confidence can also be inculcated in the children, through giving them responsibilities in the classroom. They can be made group leaders or class monitors so that they experience the success of being able to lead others.

There is probably no adult more trusted by children who have been abused than a beloved and caring teacher. Teachers being in contact with abused children afford them a rare opportunity few adults get, which is of identifying abused children and starting a process that will restore safety in the children's world. This becomes the starting point of a healing process. However, many teachers lack the expertise, competence and counselling skills which render them inadequately prepared to deal with the complexity of social issues that have so strongly affected abused children. Teachers need the knowledge base about child abuse so that they can support children who obviously lack the necessary experience and maturity to confront head-on, the unwelcome and severe challenges that come with sexual abuse. Once equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills, it becomes easy for them to intervene, communicate and understand the emotional aspect of the phenomenon.

In classroom situations, teachers need to strike a balance between protecting the child from stigmatisation and offering meaningful help to ease the child's plight. There is need to encourage the affected child to confide in the teacher and the latter to listen patiently so that through discussion, a way of assisting the child can be found without unnecessarily labelling her.

Government should provide funding so that the goals and inspirations set out in Children's Rights Charter and the Constitution can be met – eradication of child sexual abuse.

Schools should offer an open, proactive and supportive environment and include programmes that are aimed at educating children about child sexual abuse. Such programmes should start from nursery school. Since counselling is one of the solutions to problems of CSA, there is need to find out, as a follow-up to this study, whether schools offer such facilities, and if they have qualified personnel. There is also need to find out if the counselling department is functional and effective.

This study only focused on the psychosocial effects of CSA among Form Two children in Gokwe rural and its effects on the holistic development of the girl child. It did not closely examine the background of the affected children to find out if there are any factors that are contributory to child sexual abuse. Further studies on this could be taken up. There is also need to study the mind-set of a child abuser. The central question should be: Why target children?

Introduction of conscientisation programmes in schools is imperative and all stakeholders, including teachers, police, court officials, counsellors, health workers and parents should participate. Churches and traditional leaders should be taken on board in the fight against child sexual abuse.

Dialogue at family level must be encouraged so that child sexual abuse can be detected early, since charity begins at home. There is need to come up with means and ways to support families to break the silence in familial abuse cases. There is also need for family therapy where the entire family is involved in order to assist them process what transpired as well as to set up new boundaries to stop further damage.

Setting up of school committees that focus on CSA within the school system should be initiated and sustained. Initiating rights clubs at school so as to provide a platform on which CSA and its effects can be discussed should be encouraged. This will promote interactive learning outside the mainstream academic curriculum.

Last by no means the least, a subsequent research study could come up with a model aimed at assisting educators in their task of working with the sexually abused and other traumatised learners in classrooms. This model could be used for in-service training of educators already in the profession, teachers undergoing training at colleges and universities as well as educators at tertiary institutions.

By way of conclusion, it remains the researcher's fervent hope that the CSA phenomenon will be completely eradicated. Children will be the leaders of tomorrow. This can only happen if today, they are given an opportunity to develop to adulthood in an abuse free environment. Our nation does not need a future that is abused and tattered. Posterity will judge us harshly for omitting to fight for the future. From the hearts and minds of well-groomed children will come out answers to our social, political and economic woes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: UFS Ethics clearance Letter

Appendix 2: Letter seeking permission tocarry out research study in Midlands

Appendix 3: Letter granting permission to carry out research in Midlands from the

Ministry of PrimaryandSecondary Education -Harare

Appendix 4: Letter granting permission to do research in Midlands from the Provincial

Education Director- Gweru

Appendix 5: Consent form for parents/guardians of learner participants (English)

Appendix 6: Consent form for parents/guardians of learner participants (Shona)

Appendix 7: Learner participants' assent form

Appendix 8: Consent form for Headmasters and teachers.

Appendix 9: Consent formfor CommunityHealth workers

Appendix 10: Interview schedule for learners

Appendix 11: Interview schedule for teachers

Appendix 12: Interview schedule for Communityhealth Workers.

Appendix 13: Interview schedule for Headmaster

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Appendix 1: UFS Ethics clearance Letter

Faculty of Education

20-Dec-2017

Dear **Ms Miriam Mugabe**

Ethics Clearance: **Psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.**

Principal Investigator: **Ms Miriam Mugabe**

Department: **School of Education Studies (Bloemfontein Campus)**

APPLICATION APPROVED

With reference to you application for ethical clearance with the Faculty of Education, I am pleased to inform you on behalf of the Ethics Board of the faculty that you have been granted ethical clearance for your research.

Your ethical clearance number, to be used in all correspondence is: **UFS-HSD2017/0770**

This ethical clearance number is valid for research conducted for one year from issuance. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension.

We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure we are kept up to date with your progress and any ethical implications that may arise.

Thank you for submitting this proposal for ethical clearance and we wish you every success with your research.

Yours faithfully

Prof. MM Mokhele
Chairperson: Ethics Committee

Education Ethics Committee
Office of the Dean: Education
T: +27 (0)51 401 9683| F: +27 (0)86 546 1113 | E: NkoaneMM@ufs.ac.za
Winkie Direko Building | P.O. Box/Posbus 339 | Bloemfontein 9300 | South Africa
www.ufs.ac.za

Appendix 2: Letter seeking permission tocarry out research study in Midlands
Box 878
Gweru

22 May 2017

The Director
Policy, Planning and Research
Ministry of Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
Harare

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE ON THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD IN ZIMBABWE.

I am a PHD student at the University of FreeState in South Africa. I am seeking permission to carry out a research on the above topic at the following Secondary schools in Gokwe, Nyamaroro kubatana high and Nembudziya government.

Information gathered will be strictly confidential and is intended to influence society to respect children's Rights since a society that succeeds in fighting Child sexual abuse will also be making great strides in fighting HIV /AIDS.

Yours faithfully

M Mugabe
Miriam Mugabe

UFS student number: 2016423234

-

Appendix 3: Letter granting permission to carry out research in Midlands from the Ministry of PrimaryandSecondary Education -Harare

All communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Primary and Secondary
Education
Telephone: 732005
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax794505

Reference: C/426/3 Midlands
Ministry of Primary and
Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
HARARE

Miriam Mugabe
1 Gilbert road
Athlone
Gweru

16 June 2017

Re: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MIDLANDS PROVINCE:
GOKWE DISTRICT: NYAMARORO AND NEMBUDZIYA HIGH SCHOOLS:

Reference is made to your application to carry out research at the above mentioned schools in Midlands Province on the research title:

"PSYCHO-SOCIAL EFFECTS OF CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE ON THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD IN ZIMBABWE"

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director, Midlands Province, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the school.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.

Dr S.J Utete-Masango
SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
cc: PED – Midlands Province

MIN. OF PRY. & SEC. EDUCATION
HUMAN RESOURCES (DISCIPLINE)
MIDLANDS
0 5 JUL 2017
P.O. BOX 737, GWERU
ZIMBABWE

Appendix 4: Letter granting permission to do research in Midlands from the Provincial Education Director- Gweru

All communications should be
addressed to "The Provincial
Education Director"
Telephone:054- 222460

Fax: 054- 226482

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P.O Box 737
GWERU

05 JULY 2017

Mr/Mrs/Miss: MUGABE MIRIAM

1 GILBERT ROAD

ATHLONE

Dear Sir/Madam

**APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH IN SELECTED SCHOOLS IN MIDLANDS PROVINCE**

Permission to carry out a Research on:-

"PSYCHO – SOCIAL EFFECTS OF CHILD SEXUAL
ABUSE ON THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE
GIRL CHILD IN ZIMBABWE"

In the Midlands Province has been granted on these conditions.

1. That in carrying out this you do not disturb the learning and teaching programmes in schools.
2. That you avail the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education with a copy of your research findings.
3. That this permission can be withdrawn at anytime by the Provincial Education Director or by any higher officer.

The Education Director wishes you success in your research work and in your University College studies.

MATSVERU V.
**HUMAN RESOURCES OFFICER - (DISCIPLINE)
FOR: PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR: MIDLANDS**

05 JUL 2017

Appendix 5: Consent form for parents /guardians of girl participants (English)
For Focus Group Discussions

This consent form is directed to parents or guardians. Read this consent form carefully before you decide to fill it in (Complete it).

## Research topic:	Psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.
## Name of Researcher:	Miriam Mugabe (PHD –student In Psychology of Education)
## Student number:	2016423234. University of Free State (UFS)

E-mail:<u>mimigm30@gmail.com</u> . **Cell:** +263 772401721

My name is Miriam Mugabe a PHD student at the University of FreeState (UFS). I hereby ask for permission to include your child in my research by allowing her to participate in a focus group discussion related to the above topic. I will ask your child for her agreement as well before I can start with the research.

The study aims to gain insight into the psycho social effects of child sexual abuse of girls in Zimbabwe. The findings will enable to suggest sound preventive and protective measures that can be used to mitigate the problems of child sexual abuse among girls in Zimbabwe. Participation of your child in the study will involve a focus group discussion with an estimated length of two hours per week, outside school hours for the next two months. The focus group discussion will be tape recorded for later analysis. There will be no immediate and direct benefits for your child or you, but your child's participation is likely to help me to get to know psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child so that mitigation measures can be proposed. The study poses no risk to its participants. Any risk or

discomfort, including any limits to confidentiality, will lead to the psycho social counselling of the learners. If your child happens to reveal being sexually abused the case will be reported to the school head and no harm will happen to your child for reporting

The information that I will collect from this research will be kept confidential. Any information about your child will have a code in place of her name and school. Participation remains voluntary. Your child has the right to withdraw from the study at any time she or you wishes, without any harm to either of you.

At the end of my study I intend to share my findings with the participants, parents and school heads at an arranged meeting. A written report will also be given to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary schools. I will also publish the results in order that other interested people may learn from my research.

I have been asked to give consent for my child to participate in this research study which will involve her in participating in a Focus group discussion. I have carefully read the foregoing information, asked for necessary clarifications and I am satisfied that my child can choose to participate. **I give consent for my child to participate in this study.**

Name of parent or guardian   ---

Relationship to child/Designation   ---

Signature of parent or guardian   ---

Cell/Phone number   ---

Appendix 6: Consent form for parents /guardians of learner participants (Shona)

Gwaro rechibvumirano chokuita tsvakurudzo rinobata vabereki. Verengai gwaro rino rose musati mapindura.

Zita romutsvakurudzi: **Miriam Mugabe: Counsellor, Women Health Trust** uye **part time lecturer Zimbabwe Open University.** E-mail: **mimigm30@gmail.com** Nhamba yerunharembozha: **+263 772401721** Nhamba yomudzidzi: **2016423234**. **University of Freestate (UFS)** Musoro wetsvakurudzo: Matambudziko anosanganiwa nawo kana mwanasikana abatwa chibharo munyika yedu ye Zimbabwe.

Zita rangu ndiMiriam Mugabe (Mrs Garikayi) Ndinoshanda sa Counsellor ku Women Health Trust uye somudzidzisi Zimbabwe Open University.Ndiri mudzidzi paUniversity ye FreeState (UFS). Ndinokumbira nenzira yakatsanranguka bvumo yokuti ndishandise mwana wenyu ape mhinduro panhaurirano dzenyaya iri pamusoro kwekubatwa chibharo chevanasikana .Tsvakurudzo iyi ndinoitungamiriwa na DR C Beyers uye nemitemo yokuita tsvakurudzo muvanhu yeUniversity of Freestate. Chinangwa chetsvakurudzo ino yakananga kutsvaga matambudziko anoenderana nekubatwa chibharo kwevanasikana munyika yedu ye Zimbabwe. Mhinduro dzichapiwa dzichabatsira kuti nzira dzekuderedza dambudziko iri dziwanikwe. Mutsvakurudzo iyi pachava nenhaurirano nomwana wenyu inokwana awa rimwe uye ndichataura naye pasiri panguva yaanofanira kunge achidzidza. Nhaurirano iyi ichatorwa netepurekodha.Hapana chinobatika kana mari yandinovimbisa kwamuri kana kumwana wenyu.Ruzivo rwuchawanikwa ndirwo rwuchabatsira kuderedza dambudziko rokubatwa chibharo kwenasikana. Hapana njodzi inotarisirwa pakuitwa kwetsvakurudzo iyi. Kana mwana wenyu akabudisa kuti ari kubatwa chibharo kana kuti mumwe mudzidzi ari kubatwa chibharo, mukuru wechikoro achaudzwa uye hapana chinoitika kumwana wenyu pakubudisa nyaya yokubatwa chibaro uku. Ndinovimbisa tsindidzo yeumboo ichapiwa mutsvakurudzo ino. Ndinovimbisa kubudisa zvandinenge ndawana nemazita asiri chaiwo. Mwana wenyu ane kodzero yokusapindura imwe mibvunzo kana kubuda mutsvakurudzo iyi pasina zvaangaitwa.

Kutaurirana zvinenge zvabuda, mushure metsvakurudzo vese vakapinda munhaurirano dziri maringe netsvakurudzo iyi, vabereki nevatungamiriri vezvikoro vanozoudzwa zvakabuda mutsvakurudzo iyi pamusangano uchaitwa.Ve Ministry of primary and Secondary Education

vachanyorerwa bepa rezvinenge zvabuda. Ndichabudisa zvinenge zvabuda publish…muthesis articles nemajournals.

Kuzvipira Mushure mokutsanangurirwa zvose zviri maerarano netsvakurudzo iyi ndinobvumira mwana wangu kuti apinde munhaurirano yetsvakurudzo iyi kana achinge akachengetedzwa nokudzivirirwa pane zvichaitwa zvose.

Zita romubereki/muchengeti anomirira mwana: --

 Ukama nomwana: ---

Nhamba yerunharembozha: --

 Chisainwa: --

Appendix 7: Girl Learner participants' assent form

For Focus Group Discussions

This consent form is directed to girl learner participants. Read this consent form carefully before you decide to fill it in (Complete it). Feel free to ask any questions.

Research topic:	Psycho social effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.
Name of Researcher:	Miriam Mugabe (PHD –student In Psychology of Education)
Student number:	2016423234. University of Free State (UFS)

E-mail:mimigm30@gmail.com . **Cell:** +263 772401721

My name is Miriam Mugabe a PHD student at the University of FreeState (UFS). I hereby ask for your permission to include you in my research, to participate in a focus group discussion related to the above topic. The purpose of the group is to try and understand the psycho social effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child. The information learned in the focus group is aimed at coming up with sound protective and preventative measures on CSA issues.

You can choose whether or not to participate in the focus group and stop at any time. Although the focus group will be tape recorded, your responses will remain anonymous and no names will be mentioned in the report and the tape will be destroyed after the study. No risks or discomforts are anticipated in the study. If you happen to reveal being sexually abused the case will be reported to the school head and no harm will happen to you for reporting the sexual abuse.

There is no right or wrong answers to the focus group questions. We want to hear many different viewpoints and would like to hear from everyone. We hope you can be honest even when your responses may not be in agreement with the rest of the group. In respect for each

other, we ask that only one individual speak at a time in the group and that responses made by all participants be kept confidential. There are no immediate direct benefits and monetary incentives. Your participation in this study will help me to discover more about the psycho social effects of CSA. Results of the study will be published in order that interested people may learn from this study, will be availed to the Ministry of Primary and secondary schools, other significant stakeholders and the local community.

It is very important that you first talk to your parents or guardians of your intention to participate in this study so that you may be granted permission, only then can you sign the form. We will meet twice a week, each session will last about an hour for the next two months outside your school times. I have read and understood this consent form, and l volunteer to participate in this research study. **I voluntarily choose to participate,** but l understand that my consent does not take away any legal rights in the case of negligence or other legal fault of anyone who is involved in this study. You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep for future reference. If you do not wish to participate, please hand in the form unsigned.

I understand this information and agree to participate fully under the conditions stated above:

Girl Learner's name   : --
Signature of learner   : --
 Date   : --
 Details of Guardian/Person giving consent Name   :   ------------------------------------
 Relationship to Child   : ------------------------------------ Cell/Phone number: -------------------

NB: 3 signed copies to researcher, learner and guardian.

Appendix 8: Consent form for teachers and Headmasters

You have been asked to participate in an interview, read carefully and ask questions as you like before you decide to participate in this research Study. Questions can be asked before, during or even after participating in this research study.

Research topic: Psychosocial effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.

Name of Researcher: Miriam Mugabe (PHD –student In Psychology of Education)

Student number: 2016423234. University of Free State (UFS)

E-mail:mimigm30@gmail.com . Cell: +263 772401721

My name is Miriam Mugabe a PHD student at the University of Free State (UFS). I am carrying out a study on child sexual abuse of form two girl learners in fulfilment of the requirements of a doctoral degree in Psychology of Education. The purpose of this research is to get to know the psycho social effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child. You can help fight this scourge by telling what you know about it, as this will hopefully lead to its prevention. Targeting teachers and Headmasters was because of their experience as educationist, to provide collaborative data about the academic performance, behaviour, welfare and the impact of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child. This is hoped to help me get rich data to augment that given by learners.

I hereby ask for your permission to include you in my research. The interview will take about an hour of your time once a week for the next two months. Your answers will remain strictly

confidential and they will be used only for research purposes on aggregate. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time without denial.

There will be no one else present except for the interviewer. The interview will be tape recorded with your permission and the recorded information will be kept confidential. No one will be identified by name on the tape and they will be destroyed after the study, (any information about you will have a number or code instead of your name). No risks or discomforts are anticipated including any limits to confidentiality, is anticipated. You will not be paid to participate in this research. There will be no immediate and direct benefit to you, but your participation is likely to give insight on the psycho social effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child so that mitigation measures may be proposed. Sharing of results at the end of my study I intend to share my findings with the participants, parents and school heads at an arranged meeting. A written report will also be given to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary schools. I will also publish the results in order that other interested people may learn about girl child sexual abuse from my research.

I have read and understand this consent form, and I volunteer to participate in this research study. I voluntarily choose to participate, but I understand that my consent does not take away any legal rights in the case of negligence or other legal fault of anyone who is involved in this study.

Name of Teacher/Headmaster : _____

Signature of Teacher/Headmaster: _____
Date: _____

Appendix 9: Consent form for Police officer

You have been asked to participate in an interview, read carefully and ask questions as you like before you decide to participate in this research Study. Questions can be asked before, during or even after participating in this research study.

## Research topic:	Psycho social effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.
## Name of Researcher:	Miriam Mugabe (PHD –student In Psychology of Education)
## Student number:	2016423234. University of Free State (UFS)

E-mail:<u>mimigm30@gmail.com</u> . **Cell:** +263 772401721

My name is Miriam Mugabe a PHD student at the University of FreeState (UFS). I am carrying out a study on child sexual abuse in fulfilment of the requirements of a doctoral degree in Psychology of Education. The purpose of this research is to get to know the psycho social effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child. Including you in the research was meant to get an insight on the rate of CSA from secondary schools being reported, the common forms, causes and the role of police in CSA issues. This is hoped to help me get data to augment that given by learners and educationists.

I hereby ask for your permission to include you in my research. The interview will take about an hour of your time once a week for the next two months. Your answers will remain strictly confidential and they will be used only for research purposes on aggregate. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time without denial.

There will be no one else present except for the interviewer. The interview will be tape recorded with your permission and the recorded information will be kept confidential. No one will be

identified by name on the tape and they will be destroyed after the study, (any information about you will have a number or code instead of your name). No risks or discomforts are anticipated including any limits to confidentiality, is anticipated. You will not be paid to participate in this research. There will be no immediate and direct benefit to you, but your participation is likely to give insight on the psycho social effects of CSA on the holistic development of the girl child so that mitigation measures may be proposed. Sharing of results at the end of my study, I intend to share my findings with the participants, parents and school heads at an arranged meeting. A written report will also be given to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary schools. I will also publish the results in order that other interested people may learn about girl child sexual abuse from my research.

I have read and understand this consent form, and I volunteer to participate in this research study. **I voluntarily choose to participate**, but I understand that my consent does not take away any legal rights in the case of negligence or other legal fault of anyone who is involved in this study.

Name of Police Officer : _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 10: Focus group discussion interview guide with learners

TOPIC: *Psycho social effects of child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe.*

Welcome remarks

Good morning/afternoon?

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the focus group. I appreciate your willingness to participate. Your attendance shows how much you care about your issues as children. I am Miriam Mugabe, a PHD learner at Free State University, l am conducting an academic survey on the effects of child sexual abuse onthe holistic development of the girl child in Zimbabwe. You have been randomly selected to participate in this survey. I would like to ask you some questions on child sexual abuse issues. The focus group discussions will take about 90 minutes. Your answers will remain strictly confidential and they will be used only for research purposes on aggregate. I need your input and want you to share your honest and open thoughts with me.

Do I have your consent to continue with the Discussion?

<u>Ground Rules</u>

- ✓ The ground rules will be explained to the group before questioning and discussions Participation consent forms will be reviewed.
- ✓ Listen actively -- respect others when they are talking.
- ✓ Speak from your own experience instead of generalizing ("I" instead of "they," "we," and "you").
- ✓ Do not be afraid to respectfully challenge one another by asking questions, but refrain from personal attacks -- focus on ideas.
- ✓ Participate to the fullest of your ability -- community growth depends on the inclusion of every individual voice.

- ✓ Instead of invalidating somebody else's story with your own spin on her or his experience, share your own story and experience.
- ✓ The goal is not to agree, it is to gain a deeper understanding.
- ✓ Be conscious of body language and nonverbal responses -- they can be as disrespectful as words.
- ✓ The researcher will act as the facilitator.
- ✓ Participants are free to choose a language of their choice.
- ✓ Responses will be recorded and the facilitator may take notes.
- ✓ Maximum duration: for focus group-- 90 minutes.
- ✓ Only first names will be used and participants may use an alias if they prefer.
- ✓ Focus group facilitators and interviewers will be sensitive to any signs of distress on the part of the victim participant.
- ✓ A teacher will be available on standby at the time of the focus group or interview for needed victim support. Victims will also be offered the 24-hour hotline number.
- ✓ When necessary, the focus group or interview will be halted to allow participants to take breaks.
- ✓ Participants will be instructed to respect each other's' privacy and not repeat what they hear during the group.
- ✓ Focus groups and interviews will follow a specific question format and adopt neutral and non-directive methods to elicit responses from the participants
- ✓ Facilitators and interviewers will make any reasonable accommodations a participant may need in order to participate comfortably in the focus group or interview.
- ✓ If a participant is accompanied by an aide, whenever possible said aide will not be included in the focus group or interview, but shall be on the premises should an emergency arise.
- ✓ Only those participating in the focus group will be allowed to contribute.

Theme 1: *What are the causes of child sexual abuse among girls?*

- • Do you know the causes of CSA among secondary school children?

Theme 2: *What are the* consequences of sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child?

- Do children who have been sexually abused have some problems with their behaviour?

Theme 3: How does sexual abuse affect academic performance of girl learners?

- Do children who have been sexually abused have some problems with their academic performance?

Theme 4: *Possible solutions to assist sexually abused children.*

- Are parents playing their role in trying to reduce CSA?
- How do teachers respond to those children who have been sexually abused?
- Do you think economic status, religion and culture contribute to child sexual abuse in families?
- What do you think should be done by teachers in order to assist children who have been sexually abused?
- What role should parents play?
- What do you think can be done to reduce CSA and assist children who have been sexually abused at your school in general?

I thank you and God bless you

Appendix 11: Interview guide with teachers
INRODUCTION

Good morning/afternoon? I am Miriam Mugabe a PHD learner with University of the Free State. I am conducting an academic survey on the psychosocial effects of Child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child. You have been randomly selected to participate in this survey. I would like to ask you some questions on child sexual abuse issues. The interview will take about 45 minutes. Your answers will remain strictly confidential and they will be used only for research purposes on aggregate.

Do I have your consent to continue with the interview?

Section 1

Bio data 1.

Name of respondent …………………………………………………………

2. School……………………………………………………………

3. Gender…………………………………………………………………...

Questions

1. How long have you worked with learners as a classroom practitioner?
2. What do you know about CSA?
3. What forms of CSA are reported to the school?
4. What is done upon discovery of CSA in the school?
5. In your own view what are the causes of csa?
6. Does CSA affect i)emotional development

    ii) Cognitive development?

    iii) Personality development?

    iv) Social and moral?
7. What Psychosocial support can be given to survivors of child sexual abuse in schools
8. What are the challenges that are being faced in assisting children who have been sexually abused?

Appendix 12: Interview guide with Headmasters
INRODUCTION

Good morning/afternoon? I am Miriam Mugabe a PHD learner with University of the Free State. I am conducting an academic survey on the psychosocial effects of Child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child. You have been randomly selected to participate in this survey. I would like to ask you some questions on child sexual abuse issues. The interview will take about 45 minutes. Your answers will remain strictly confidential and they will be used only for research purposes on aggregate.

Do I have your consent to continue with the interview?

Section 1

Bio data 1.

Name of respondent …………………………………………………………

2. School………………………………………………………

3. Gender…………………………………………………………………...

Questions

1. How long have you worked with learners?
2. What forms of CSA are reported to the school?
3. What is done upon discovery of CSA in the school?
4. In your own view what are the causes of csa?
5. Does CSA affect i)emotional development

     ii) Cognitive development?

     Iii) Personality development

     iv) Social and moral?

6. What Psychosocial support can be given to survivors of child sexual abuse in schools

7. What are the challenges that are being faced in assisting children who have been sexually abused?

Appendix 13: Interview guide with Police Officer
INRODUCTION

Good morning/afternoon? I am Miriam Mugabe a PHD learner with University of the Free State. I am conducting an academic survey on the psychosocial effects of Child sexual abuse on the holistic development of the girl child. You have been randomly selected to participate in this survey. I would like to ask you some questions on child sexual abuse issues. The interview will take about 45 minutes. Your answers will remain strictly confidential and they will be used only for research purposes on aggregate.

Do I have your consent to continue with the interview?

Bio data 1.

1. Name of respondent ………………………………………………………………
2. Gender…………………………………………………………………………...

Questions

1. How long have you been working as a Police officer?
2. What are the common forms and causes of these abuses?
3. Comment on the rate of reporting CSA?
4. What role are you playing in assisting children who have been sexually abused?
5. What do you suggest should be done in order to reduce incidences of CSA?
6. What challenges do you encounter in trying to fight the scourge of csa?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION