CONCEPTUALISATION OF A PRIMARY SCHOOL-BASED CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE AWARENESS PROGRAM FOR NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Library and Information Studies

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college or university for an academic credit.

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DEDICATION

I am dedicating this work to all children. They are not safe in and out of the home. They have no clue that potential perpetrators of child sexual abuse include authoritative figures such as teachers, religious leaders, fathers, stepfathers, grandfathers, grandmothers, uncles, family friends, and other 'respectable' relatives. Apparently these are the same people entrusted with the safety of these children.

It was the desire of this candidate to research on the information needs of children on child sexual abuse. Subsequently, the researcher conceptualized and designed a school-based awareness program model on child sexual abuse. The aim is to equip children with knowledge and life skills to be able to identify and resist potentially abusive situations.

In this way, children will be empowered to discriminate safe from unsafe situations. This will help promote their own safety, and also understand the importance of protecting others from perpetrators of the vice.

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Note: I take the full responsibility for any weaknesses, shortcomings, errors, omissions and misinterpretations in this study.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APA	American Psychological Association
BST	Body Safety Training
CAPP	Child Abuse Prevention Program
CARE	Challenge Abuse through Respect Education
CEED	Center for Early Education and Development
CSA	Child Sexual Abuse
CSAP	Child Sexual Abuse Preventative Programs
GBV	Gender Based Violence
HBM	Health Belief Model
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education (See also KICD)
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (formerly the Kenya Institute of Education)
PMT	Protection Motivation Theory
SBM	Safety Belief Model
TSC	Teachers' Service Commission
WHO	World Health Organisation

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ABSTRACT

Child sexual abuse is a concern that haunts many parents, educators and the society at large. Discussing the subject is regarded a taboo. Research shows that victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to become victims of rape, or to be involved in physically abusive relationships as adults. This scenario makes a case for creating awareness among children, and empowering them with knowledge and skills that they can employ to resist abuse from potential perpetrators, including authoritative figures such as teachers, parents and relatives. The aim of this study was to assess the information needs of children in upper primary in Nairobi County on the subject of child sexual abuse, with a view to conceptualising and designing an awareness and preventative information-provision model. The objectives of the study were: to establish the extent to which school children in upper primary have access to information on prevention of child sexual abuse; to determine the knowledge and skills that children require in order to prevent the occurrence of sexual abuse; to establish the problems experienced by school children in accessing information on child sexual abuse; and to conceptualise and design a suitable preventative child sexual abuse information-provision model targeting school children in upper primary. A survey research was conducted to collect data on the information needs of children on the subject of sexual abuse. The population of this study comprised children drawn from mixed private and public primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. A sample of 576 children in upper primary was drawn from 16 purposively selected schools in Nairobi County; eight (8) of the schools were private and eight (8) were public. The 576 children in classes 6, 7 and 8 were selected using a combination of stratified, random and systematic sampling methods. This sample population consisted of 288 girls and 288 boys. The data gathered during the survey was analysed using Microsoft Excel. The findings indicated that children knew that they are vulnerable to sexual abuse. However, about 16.9% did not think that boys could be sexually abused. About 93% of the children pointed out that they would want to be sensitised about child sexual abuse so that they are able to distinguish between safe and unsafe situations. Since child sexual abuse has been a great challenge to societies all over the world, one of the recommendations of this study is for the government, through the Ministry of Education, to incorporate a school-based child sexual abuse awareness program in the school curriculum. The program would be instrumental in imparting knowledge and skills to children on how they can discriminate safe from unsafe situations. The study is also recommending that policy makers, non-government and international institutions involved in child welfare issues, policy makers in the education sector, as well as other relevant bodies, for example, publishers, and child rights activists, partner with the government to establish platforms through which children's safety skills and knowledge about child sexual abuse can be developed.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1:   Background Information

In modern times, what is the worst tragedy that could happen to a child? There are many answers to this question. The one that relates to this study is partially provided by a report from Binghamton University (2005). The report indicates that the worst tragedy that could befell a child is to be sexually abused or raped, an attack that is regarded a physical assault, as well as an emotionally devastating experience.

Extensive research affirms that child sexual abuse is much more frequent than previously assumed (Bagley, 1990; Faulkner, 1996). If the cases that are reported by both the print and electronic media represent the situation on the ground, the frequent television viewer or newspaper reader would conclude that the world is no longer a safe place for the child, as George Gerbner put it when he explained his cultivation theory. Very often incidences of child sexual abuse get reported. Indeed, sexual assault of children has been declared a silent violent epidemic (The American Medical Association, 1995). Literature suggests that the rates of child sexual abuse could be high, and the cases that get reported represent only a fraction of the offences that occur on the ground. Studies indicate that one out of every four female children, and one out of every ten male children will experience inappropriate sexual contact before they attain the age of 18, usually by an adult who is well known to them (Center for Early Education and Development (CEED), 2004; Finkelhor, 2009).

No parent can dispute that child sexual abuse is a sensitive and scary subject to discuss with children or even adults. It is treated with shame and secrecy (Ratlhagane, 2002). It becomes even more worrying when it is reported that most cases of child sexual abuse are committed by people known to the child, including teachers, parents, step-parents, siblings, step-siblings, babysitters, and other relatives (American Psychological Association [APA, 2001]). As the APA report explains, sexual abuse by strangers is not nearly as common as sexual abuse by family members. The report further notes that research shows that men are the most common perpetrators of child sexual abuse, though there are cases in which women are the offenders.

In Kenya, a government study report done in 2009 revealed shocking details of sexual abuse in schools. The report carried in the *Daily Nation* of November 2, 2009 indicated that up to 12,660 girls had been sexually abused by teachers over a five-year period. On computation, this figure translates to about 2,532 cases in a year, or about seven cases everyday, or a single case happening every three hours. The survey had captured data between 2003 and 2007. A significant 53% of the respondents viewed sexual abuse of the girls by teachers very high. The report further indicated that 90% of sexual abuse cases committed by teachers are never reported to the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC). This suggests that the above figure of 12,660 cases represents only 10% of the cases that occurred during the five-year period (Siringi, 2009).

In discussing the problem of child sexual abuse, Ngesa (2008) quotes Jean Ward, a gender-based violence (GBV) consultant, who observes that collecting statistics on

sexual violence against both children and adults is difficult because the vice is so sensitive and stigmatised. As she puts it, many victims suffer in silence.

Empirical study on the disclosure of child sexual abuse indicates that a high percentage of the victims who report their abuse to authorities delay disclosure of their abuse. A significant number of children do not disclose the abuse at all. The delay between the initial occurrence and the subsequent disclosure of the abuse varies, depending on a number of factors. The factors cited in literature include the victim's age at the time of the abuse, the relationship between the perpetrator and the abused, the gender of the abused child, the severity of the abuse, the developmental and cognitive skills of the abused, and the likely consequences of the disclosure (Terry and Tallon, 2004).

A major worldwide concern is that child sexual abuse is significantly underreported and that the subject is rarely discussed. Terry and Tallon (2004) report that most researchers on this subject acknowledge that the cases that are reported represent only a fraction of the offenses that are committed. This view corroborates the findings of the Teacher Service Commission in Kenya that indicated that the 12 660 cases that had been reported to the Commission during the period between 2003 and 2007 represented only 10%. As Terry and Tallon (2004) put it, sexual crimes have the lowest rates of reporting for all crimes.

In the recent years, Kenyans have become increasingly aware of the problem of child sexual abuse. The media both print and electronic have given the problem attention, therefore raising the public's level of awareness. In November 2009, the problem

received public notoriety when the *Daily Nation* of November 2, 2009 ran the leading headline, "*Shocking Details of Child Sexual Abuse in Schools*." As earlier mentioned, the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) had done the report. Up to now it has not been reported whether any of the teachers implicated have been convicted in court for sexually abusing their students.

Cases of child sexual abuse get reported all the time. A random check on a pile of newspapers reveals headlines such as: "*Fathers threaten to kill daughters [over abortions] yet they are responsible in some instances*," (Gathura, 2010, p. 3); "*Pope meets Irish Bishops on [child] sex abuse scandal*," (Reuters, 2010, p. 21); "*Girl Hospitalised after man defiles, stabs her thrice*," (Standard Reporter, 2010); "*Principal who raped student still in service*," (Nation Correspondent, 2010, p. 9); "*Rape bid on 12-year-old girl lands man in jail*," (Nation Reporter, 2010, p. 32); *Family outings go awry [as] children get exposed to x-rated stuff*," (Muiruri, 2010, pp. 6–7); "Irish Bishop quits over [paedophilia] sex scandal," (Reuters, *Daily Nation*, 25 March 2010, p. 23); "*Girl stabbed after failed rape attempt*," (Nation Correspondent, 2010, p. 35); "*Sexual abuse blamed on fathers*," (Standard Reporter, 2010, p. 6).

The statistics from literature (Ratlhagane, 2002) and those of the cited TSC report suggest the magnitude and severity of the problem. Wurtele (1987) highlights the observation that in the past, parents have often worried about the effects of peer group on their children. In modern times, they worry about the safety of the child in and out of the home; they worry about perpetrators of child sexual abuse; they also worry about the consequences of sexual abuse on a child, if it were to happen.

The significance of Wurtele's concerns can be found in the words of Faulkner (1996), who indicates that research reveals that the physical and emotional effects of sexual abuse can be devastating. Drawing on research findings, Faulkner observes that victims of sexual abuse suffer shame, guilt, isolation, powerlessness, embarrassment and inadequacy. Quoting Johnson (1987), Faulkner (1996) further observes that the victims of this vice may suffer self-blame; that is, they may accept responsibility for the abuse, yet it is not their fault that they have been abused. As a result of self-blame, they may experience the feeling that "something is wrong with me," or that the abuse is their fault. Self-blame has been identified as among the most common of both short- and long-term effects of sexual abuse (Wurtele, 1987). Giving credibility to Wurtele's observation, Finkelhor (2009) takes the stance that it is important that children be taught to recognise that it is not their fault that they have been sexually abused.

1.2: Statement of the Problem

It is certain that the thought of child sexual abuse is a concern that haunts many parents, educators and the society at large. Yet, the scene is all too familiar: in most homes, discussing the subject is a taboo (Ratlhagane, 2002). This being the case, parents, guardians and society at large have a reason to get concerned; because the consequences of child sexual abuse can be disastrous. Research shows that victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to become victims of rape, or to get involved in physically abusive relationships as adults (American Psychological Association [APA], 2001). The concern that parents and the society must have is: Who should create awareness among children regarding this problem? Who should sensitize children to recognise and resist an

inappropriate touch? Who should enlighten children on how to protect themselves and others from perpetrators of child sexual abuse?

Faulkner (1996) observes that school children are often surveyed on alcohol abuse, drug use, suicidal tendencies, depression, physical abuse and other social problems. However, the question about sexual victimisation is rarely or never asked. The questions Faulkner asks are: Why is this? Is society afraid to open the Pandora's box?

In trying to give partial answers to the above questions, Ratlhagane (2002) argues that the high rate of child sexual abuse, and the exploitation of their ignorance and innocence by people who are supposed to be caring for them makes a case for imparting children with skills and knowledge that they can apply to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse. Putting the Kenyan case mentioned earlier into context, it could be argued that this view is right. In the report, the teachers, who are supposedly expected to be sensitising children regarding the problem and imparting preventative skills are the culprits. Consequently, they cannot be entrusted with the safety of children under their care. This scenario makes a case for creating awareness among children, and empowering them with knowledge and skills that they can employ to resist abuse from potential perpetrators, including authoritative figures such as teachers.

1.2.1: School-based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Programs

For the above-discussed reasons, every government has the responsibility to include child sexual abuse awareness programs within the school system (Evans, 1995). Towards this end, most governments in the developed world have established child sexual abuse

information provision programs (Finkelhor and Dziuba-Leatherman, 1993; University of Calgary, 2002). Wurtele (1987) observes that in response to the alarmingly high incidence and negative consequences of child sexual abuse, an increasingly number of school-based awareness programs have been implemented in schools in the developed world. In Kenya, however, such programs do not exist.

Kohl (1993) observes that early prevention and creation of awareness have been advocated by scholars and practitioners as appropriate interventions in cases where children have been, or are being sexually abused. The intervention has also been found to prevent sexual abuse from occurring to a certain degree.

The significance of creating awareness and developing children's preventative skills can be found in Orme and Salmon's (2002) words. Identifying the school as a significant agency in the prevention of child sexual abuse, the authors stress that awareness programs can support the development of practical assertiveness skills in children. In these programs, the authors add, children can learn strategies that can help them act in risky situations. The same point is emphasised by Barron and Topping (2003) who indicate that children benefit from awareness and prevention programs through concepts learned, increased knowledge and acquired self-protection skills.

This study was intended to assess the information needs of upper primary children drawn from 16 purposively selected primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya, on the subject of child sexual abuse. The study assumed that children in upper primary have no access

to information materials on this subject, and they, therefore, lack skills and knowledge about child sexual abuse.

The researcher speculated that the reason behind the lack of information resource materials in child sex education was because the subject is not provided for in the Kenya's 8–4–4 system of education (KIE, 2003a–f). The main book publishing firms in Kenya, for example, Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB), Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (JKF), East African Educational Publishers (EAEP), Macmillan, Oxford University Press (OUP), Longman and Longhorn, engage in developing educational course books for schools (Kenya Publishers Association [KPA], 2009). The content for the course books is developed to conform to the 8–4–4 system of education.

1.2.2: *Information Provision on Child Sexual Abuse: A Knowledge Gap in Kenya*

Despite the seriousness of the problem of child sexual abuse, there exists a knowledge gap in Kenya on the subject. A preliminary assessment of stocks in some main Kenyan bookshops reveals that there are no children's books, guides or life skills manuals discussing the subject. The two main bookshops surveyed were BookPoint and the TextBook Center (TBC) in Nairobi's Central Business District. Neither are there other publications or other forms of information media that would essentially give guidelines to children who may want to discover knowledge on child sexual abuse by themselves. An informal conversation with an information professional at the Kenya National Library Services (KNLS) also revealed that the KNLS does not have in its collection such information materials.

Additionally, a cursory appraisal of catalogues from various Kenyan publishers reveals that there are no information materials that teach children about this important subject of sexual abuse. A further telephone enquiry about the availability of such materials from various publishers confirmed that they have not published in the area of child sex abuse. The question is: Who is sensitising children about sexual abuse? Is it the parents? Is it the teachers? Is it the religious leaders? Is it their siblings? Or does the society simply consider child sexual abuse a scary subject, and the fact is that no one is telling children about it?

Royse (2007) speculates that no one could be teaching children about child sexual abuse; because the subject is regarded a taboo, and it is a scary topic for parents, educators and children. Royse's observation applies to the case of developing world, and not the developed world. As it will be discussed later in chapter two on literature review, information materials in both electronic and print media on the subject exist in the developed world. Existing literature reveals that school- and community-based awareness and preventative programs exist to sensitise children about their safety. In the absence of such information-provision programs or information materials in Kenya, research is imperative to liberate children from the pain and secrecy associated with the vice of child sexual abuse (Faulkner, 1996; Ratlhagane, 2002).

In view of the foregoing, the proposition of this doctorate research, therefore, was that exploration on child sexual abuse prevention, with a view to creating awareness among children on the subject in Kenya is generally scarce, if not lacking. In this regard there is need to make child sexual abuse awareness a high priority area of inquiry.

1.3:   The Aim of the Study

The aim of this study was to assess the information needs of school children in upper primary in Nairobi County, regarding the subject of child sexual abuse with a view to conceptualising a Child Sexual Abuse Information Provision model for the target population.

1.4:   Objectives of the Study

The following objectives were pursued:

1.   To establish the extent to which school children in upper primary have access to information on prevention of child sexual abuse.

2.   To determine the information, knowledge and skills that children require in order to prevent the occurrence of sexual abuse.

3.   To establish the challenges experienced by school children in accessing information on child sexual abuse.

4.   To conceptualise a suitable preventative child sexual abuse information-provision model for school children in upper primary.

1.5:   Research Questions

While exploring the subject of child sexual abuse, this study sought to specifically address the following research questions:

RQ1.   What knowledge and abilities do primary school children have that would enable them identify a potential perpetrator of child sexual abuse?

RQ2.   What information provision efforts on prevention of child sexual abuse exist in primary schools in Nairobi County?

RQ3.   What knowledge do children require in order to resist, prevent and/or cope with a sexual abuse ordeal?

RQ4.   What are the basic elements of a school-based child sexual abuse preventative information-provision program?

RQ5.   What knowledge and skills should be imparted to children in a preventative school-based child sexual abuse information provision program?

RQ6.   What obstacles exist in the provision of information on child sexual abuse to primary school children?

RQ7.   How can the identified obstacles be overcome?

RQ8.   What informational concepts on child abuse should be availed to school children in upper primary?

1.6:   Assumptions of the Study

This study assumed the following:

1.   Although all children in primary schools are at risk of being sexually abused, children who have access to preventative information on child sexual abuse will demonstrate greater knowledge about child sexual abuse. They will also demonstrate higher levels of personal safety skills compared to those who have no access to information.

2. To enhance their safety skills and avoid potentially abusive situations, children require information and knowledge on how to identify a would-be perpetrator of child sexual abuse.

3. An information-empowered child is likely to relate with any adult, including relatives and parents with a skeptical mind.

4. An information-empowered or "sexliterate" child is less vulnerable to child molesters. A child who understands the motivations of a would-be perpetrator of sexual abuse is less likely to fall victim.

1.7:   Significance of the Study

The findings of this research could benefit members of the society to understand the importance of implementing a school-based child sexual abuse information provision program. Specifically, the findings of this research could benefit the following groups of people and institutions:

1. **Lawmakers and policy makers**. The findings of this study could be used in the formulation of policies regarding provision of information on child sexual abuse to children in primary schools.

2. **Librarians and other information professionals** could use the findings to source for and acquire information materials on the subject for their library collection.

3. **Educators and curriculum developers** could use the findings to develop a Child Sexual Abuse Prevention Information and Education syllabus intended for the school system in Kenya.

4. **Information Professionals' Regulatory bodies**, for example, the Kenya Library Association (KLA), the Communication Commission of Kenya (CCK), Media Owners Association (MOA), the Kenya Union of Journalists (KUJ), the Kenya Publishers Association (KPA), the Editors' Guild, and the Kenya Film Censorship Board could use the findings to give guidelines to libraries, information resource centres and media houses concerning producing Child Sexual Abuse Prevention Education and Communication information programs and resource materials for children.

5. **Publishers** could use the findings to develop information, education and communication materials in the subject of child sexual abuse that target the child.

6. **Booksellers, book stockists** and **vendors** could use the findings to source for and stock their outlets with information materials on child sexual abuse.

7. **Teachers** could use the findings to develop children's knowledge on sexual abuse. The information could then be integrated as an emerging issue when teaching other core subjects.

8. **Parents, guardians and other community workers** play a crucial role in the life of a child, especially at the formative stages. The findings of this study could help them nurture, guide and counsel children, as well as instill in them personal safety skills.

9. **Children's rights activists** could use the findings to advocate for the integration of child sexual abuse information-provision programs in primary schools.

10. **International organisations** such as the United Nations International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF) and Non-Governmental Organisations could use the findings to set up and fund the development of information provision projects targeting primary school children.

11. Last but not the least, **children** will be the greatest beneficiaries of this study. Once their information needs are established, an information-provision program will be conceptualized. Upon development and implementation, children will then have access to knowledge that will help them develop life skills; in this way, they will be able to protect themselves and other children from perpetrators of child sexual abuse. The knowledge will also empower them to report any abusive experiences to trusted adults or other relevant authorities.

1.8:   Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.8.1: The Scope

Pupils in Kenya's primary school education system fall into three categories. Classes one (1) to three (3) fall under lower primary; classes four (4) and five (5) fall under mid-primary level; and classes six (6) to eight (8) fall under upper primary level. The scope of this study covered children in upper primary. The children were drawn from 16 purposively selected schools in Nairobi County, Kenya.

The primary population of this research comprised the number of schools and the pupils in upper primary. With a large population for schools in the county, as well as their distribution, purposive sampling was deemed appropriate for this study (Baxter &

Babbie, 2004). The total number of pupils that enroll in primary schools every year is also high. This, therefore, explains the reason this study sampled the 576 children who participated in the survey.

According to the 2014 *Taskforce Report for the Education Sector of Nairobi City County*, the primary school-going population was estimated to be 493,586 in 2012. Out of this number only about 193, 053 children are enrolled in the 205 public primary schools in Nairobi County. The estimated number of pupils in private primary schools in Nairobi, therefore, translates to about 300,533 (Nairobi City County, 2014).

It is, however, important to mention that a social and growth development implication was factored in choosing the target group for this study. It is to be noted that all children are vulnerable to sexual abuse. Indeed, studies reveal that perpetrators of this vice target even infants. It would, therefore, have been ideal to target children of all ages. However, for the important reason that infants and children aged five and below may not have fully developed language and writing skills that were required to respond to the questions in the research instrument, this study did not target them. This fact is derived from Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development of 1929 (Bower, n.d.). Again those aged between five and eight would have required that this research develop a separate simpler research tool for them. To avoid the complexity of developing several separate tools, children aged eight and below were excluded from the sample. The implication of Jean Piaget's theory in conducting survey among children is discussed in chapter three section 3.9.

Last but not the least, given the logistics and the limited resources in terms of finances, the accessibility of schools, as well as the time frame for this research program, the choice of a few selected urban schools to comprise the target population of the study was deemed realistic. It was expected that with this population, the objectives of this study would be realised within the given time frame, that the research questions would be answered adequately, and that the study findings would be generalisable.

1.8.2   *Limitations of the Study*

The current primary school education system does not provide for a Child Sexual Abuse Prevention Information Program. A study of earlier editions of the primary school curricula revealed that such programs have never existed in Kenyan schools (KIE, 2002a–f). The shortcoming that was experienced in the study, therefore, was the lack of any form of documentation on curriculum guidelines on the subject of child sexual abuse. For this reason, this research borrowed heavily from library works and online sources that were consulted during the research, which have been done for the developed world. The challenge was, therefore, to put the content into local context, and to adapt it to suit this study.

It is also important to acknowledge that infants and children aged below eight years are also vulnerable to sexual abuse as mentioned earlier. Indeed, studies reveal that perpetrators of this vice target even infants aged below one year. However, for the simple reason that infants and children aged eight and below may not have fully developed language and writing skills that were required to answer the questions in the research instrument, this study did not target them.

Another reason that made this study not target young children is explicitly offered in a report from the Center for Early Education and Development, CEED, University of Minnesota, (1989). It says that expecting pre-school children to protect themselves from sexual abuse is rather unrealistic. This is because their limited cognitive, emotional, physical and social abilities have not developed fully to recognise or even understand prevention concepts.

1.9   Conclusion

In order to address the identified knowledge gap existing in this area in Kenya, this research was modelled as an applied or action-oriented type of research in the hope of contributing to the subject of child sexual abuse, and using the findings to benefit children and society. Walliman (2005, p. 121) defines an action type of research as an intervention or a practical form of research that is "principally designed to deal with a specific problem evident in a particular situation." Kubr (2002) shares this view when he states that an action-oriented type of research aims at solving a significant practical problem and also yield new knowledge about the problem. It is hoped that other researchers, trainers, government bodies, agencies in Kenya's Ministry of Education and other relevant bodies could use the findings of this study to develop information materials on child sexual abuse that can help develop children's knowledge and life skills. When children are information-empowered, they are able to discriminate safe from unsafe situations, thereby protecting themselves and others from the perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

Although the target population for this study comprised school children in upper primary, the findings of this study and the research outcome will also benefit children with reading skills, who may not be attending school for one reason or another, but fall within the age group of the target population. The main reason for targeting school children as the study's population was to enable the researcher to collect data with ease, and within the stipulated period.

1.10   Definition of Terms Used in the Study

Child sexual abuse: An interaction between a child and an adult (or another child) in which the child is used for the sexual stimulation of the perpetrator or vice versa. The vice can include touching behaviours such as touching of the sex organs, as well as non-touching behaviours such as exposing the child to pornography (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, NCTSN, 2005; Gilgun & Sharma, 2008).

Child sexual abuse preventative information provision model: This refers to a set of imparted knowledge, information and skills that are intended to help the recipient understand the issue of child sexual abuse. The aim is to enable a child to discern the behaviours of a would-be perpetrator of child sexual abuse. The model that was conceptualized in this study consists of a set of knowledge concepts and skills that were considered necessary for a child to operate in today's risky age, where incidences of child sexual abuse are increasingly reported.

Child sexual abuse information materials: Information that has been packaged into a guidebook or a life skills manual intended to give instructions on how to discriminate safe from unsafe situations, and prevent oneself from being sexually abused. It is also

intended to help the child reader disclose any traumatic experiences related to a sexual abuse ordeal.

Children: In this research, the term 'children' was used to refer to young people attending primary school, and were in upper primary at the time of the study; that is, classes six to eight. The targeted children were aged between nine and 13 plus years.

Conceptualisation: Originating or initiating an idea or explanation and formulating it mentally.

Dependent Variable: This is the element or factor in a research that depends on other factors (Sekaran, 2006). In this research, the dependent variables that were identified were the knowledge levels of primary school children on child sexual abuse; and the safety of children; that is, their ability to discriminate safe and unsafe situations, and thereby avoid risky situations (see also variable).

Grooming: The process of deliberately using a tactic to manipulate the thinking process of the targeted child victim in order to engage them in sexual abuse without much resistance (Finkelhor, 2009).

Independent Variable: This is a variable that stands alone. It is not changed by other variables that the researcher is trying to measure (Sekaran, 2006). The independent variable that was identified in this research was access to protective information on sexual abuse to primary school children (see also variable).

Primary prevention: Child sexual abuse prevention efforts that target the potential victim, in this case the child, rather than the perpetrator (Daro and Donnely, 2002).

Secondary Prevention: Child sexual abuse prevention efforts that target a child who has already fallen victim of abuse. It includes immediate efforts and responses after the abuse has occurred. The aim is to help the child cope with the ordeal, as well as address the short-term consequences of abuse and prevent additional harm (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004).

Tertiary prevention: This intervention involves long-term responses after the abuse has occurred. The aim is to address lasting consequences of sexual abuse (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004).

Theoretical Framework: The foundation on which the research project is based. The relationship between the literature review and the theoretical framework is that the former provides concrete information for developing the latter. The theoretical framework enables the researcher to develop logical connections as conceptualised in the study (Sekaran, 2006).

Variable: An element, feature, or factor in research that is liable to vary or change. It also refers to an object, event, idea, feeling, time period, or any other element or aspect in a study that the researcher is trying to measure. There are two types of variables, namely independent and dependent (Sekaran, 2006; Zikmund, 2003). The variables that were identified in this research were: (1) access to protective information on sexual abuse to primary school children; (2) the knowledge levels of primary school children on child sexual abuse; and (3) the safety of children; that is, their ability to discriminate safe and unsafe situations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1:   Introduction

Literature review involves studying works that have been written, as well as previous studies that have been conducted in the area of one's study (Walliman, 2005; Cooper and Schindler, 2003; Baxter and Babbie, 2004). Literature review is part and parcel of research, because the production of new knowledge is fundamentally dependent on past knowledge. Doing literature review is instrumental in the process of developing the research design in that the researcher is able to generate ideas, and form significant questions (O'Leary, 2004).

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework, which forms the conceptual context upon which this study was based. This chapter also reviews past studies in the area of child sexual abuse. The chapter has also evaluated various school-based information-provision models that exist in various countries, particularly in the Western world. The aim was to search for other researchers' contribution in this area. The review of other studies that have been conducted in the area also enabled the researcher to identify the knowledge gaps that may be exist. A thematic approach is applied in discussing the literature reviewed.

2.2:   Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is the foundation on which an entire research project is based. The relationship between the literature review and the theoretical framework is that the former provides concrete information for developing the latter. The researcher must develop logical connections that can be conceptualised as the basis for the theoretical model. The researcher then uses the theoretical model to elaborate the relationships among the variables in the research, as well as describe the nature and direction of the relationships. There are certain five basic features that should be incorporated in any theoretical framework. They include the dependent, independent and intervening variables; the relationships between the identified variables; the nature and direction of the variables; a clear explanation of why the relationships exist; and a schematic diagram of the relationships (Sekaran, 2006).

Regarding the variables considered relevant to the study, the discussion will clearly define them and also clearly label them as dependent, independent, intervening, or moderating variable. In this study, the variables identified were: (1) access to protective information on sexual abuse to primary school children; (2) knowledge levels of primary school children on child sexual abuse; and (3) the safety of children; that is, their ability to discriminate safe and unsafe situations, and thereby avoid risky situations. The dependent variable in this case is the safety of children and the independent variable is the access to protective information. The relationship between the two variables is that access to information will raise the knowledge levels of children on child sexual abuse and, therefore, enable them to recognise unsafe situations.

Concerning the nature and direction of the relationships of the variables, Sekaran (2006) is of the opinion that these can be theorised on the basis of the previous research. The findings of similar studies should be able to indicate whether the relationships would be positive or negative. In this study, it was expected that availing information to children would raise their knowledge levels. From previous studies, children who have been sensitised on child sexual abuse are reported to have been able to resist advances from potential molesters (Finkelhor 2009). This, therefore, indicates a positive relationship between the independent and dependent variables. A clear explanation of why this positive relationship is expected to exist will be dealt with under literature review later in this chapter. The arguments to support this will be drawn from previous studies in this area. A schematic diagram for the above-discussed theoretical framework for this current study is shown in Figure 2.1.
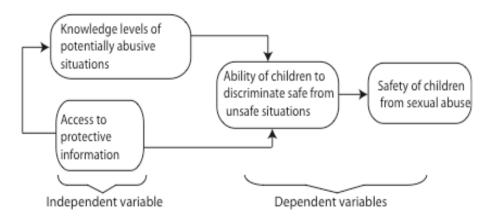
Figure 2.1: Theoretical framework: The independent and dependent variables (Source: Author, 2014)

From literature, it can be argued that lack of information and knowledge on how to handle potentially unsafe situations exposes children to more risk. It may make them

timid, nervous and even unassertive; they may, for example, not know that they can say "no" to an authoritative figure such as a father or a teacher. Their lack of empowerment could result in lack of self-confidence. This scenario would subsequently lead to the inability of children to handle risky situations thus raise the insecurity of children. In this case, children's lack of confidence can be interpreted as an intervening variable as schematically illustrated in figure 2.2.
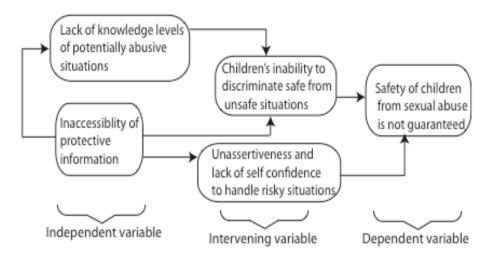
Figure 2.2: Theoretical framework: The independent, dependent and the intervening variables (Source: Author, 2014)

From literature it can also be theorised that providing children with information is likely to result in empowered children who are able to discriminate risky situations, thereby avoiding potentially abusive circumstances. In other words, children who may have received adequate information and knowledge would not be handicapped by lack of confidence or unassertiveness in a situation that calls upon them to say "no," for example, to an authoritative figure. In this scenario, the provision of safety information could be interpreted as a moderating variable as schematically illustrated in Figure 2.3.
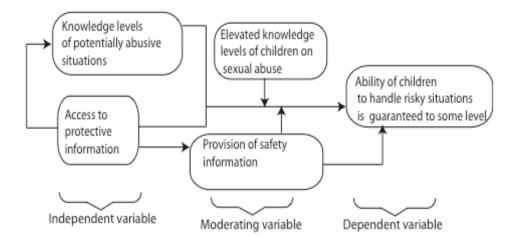
Figure 2.3: Theoretical Framework: The independent, dependent and the moderating variables (Source: Author, 2014)

The above discussion and figures 2.1 to 2.3 illustrate that in research, a variable could emerge as independent, intervening or moderating depending on how the theoretical model is conceptualised (Sekaran, 2006).

2.3:   Theories that informed this study

The idea of this study was about sensitising and empowering children with information that would help to promote their safety and well-being. Daro and Donnely (2002) seem to be expanding on this idea when they observe that awareness efforts can accomplish a variety of goals including creating awareness of an identified problem; improving knowledge about the problem among the affected; changing people's perception regarding their problem; and changing the behaviour of those directly affected by the problem.

In trying to identify the theories that informed this study, the issues being addressed by the study were carefully considered. Several theories were identified that come close to addressing the concepts of this research, which include creating awareness on child sexual abuse, availing information to children on the vice, developing safety skills, promoting and adapting socially valuable information; believing in preventative messages availed, and using the information availed in order to be safe. These were the issues that informed the conceptual framework for this study.

There were hundreds of theories that could inform this study, especially learning theories. Discussing all of them in this research would be impracticable. For this reason, only five theories were chosen for discussion. These theories are independent. Each one of them, however, fits into an element within the study. These theories include the agenda-setting theory (creating awareness), the social learning theory (acquiring and adapting information on social safety), the social marketing theory (promotion of socially valuable information), the protection motivation theory (adoption of promoted preventative messages) and the Health Belief Model – HBM (believing that safety messages promote one's health and well-being).

The first three theories namely the agenda-setting theory, the social learning theory, and the social marketing theory were more relevant to this study in that the intention was geared towards creating awareness about a social vice, imparting knowledge and skills, as well as promoting valuable information that children could adapt in order to be safe. These theories have, therefore, been given emphasis in this discussion. The review of the Health Belief Model (HBM) and the Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) is intended to

draw parallels between the core assumptions and statements in the two theories and how these assumptions apply to the current study.

The five theories that apply to this study are illustrated in Figure 2.4. The discussion about them then follows.
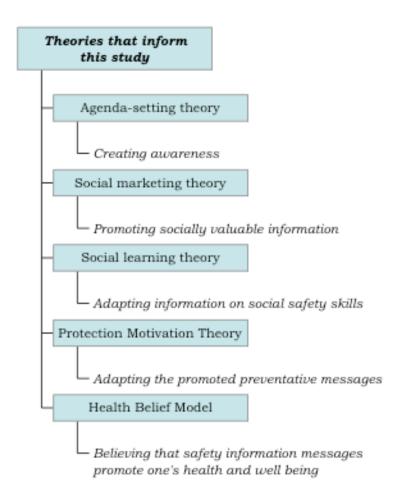
Figure 2.4: Theories that informed this study (Source: Author, 2014)

The illustrated theories provided significant insights to the current study on how children acquire, process and apply information. They were not the only theories that could fit into the conceptual framework of this study. Others, for example, the information processing

theory, as well as other learning-centred theories fit into the study. However, this study purposefully settled on the above.

2.3.1: The Agenda-Setting Theory

Sensitising an audience or creating awareness among them on an issue involves increasing the visibility of the issue by availing information about it to the audience. The issue then gains salience and in this way the audience gives it priority. For example, what responses is one likely to elicit by asking any Kenyan the question: What are the crucial issues in our country today?

Some possible answers would be: the economy is recovering; the Hague process; the Alshaabab war; and the devolution process. These, among others, are the issues that are currently in the minds of Kenyans. Kenyans currently rate them as the most important issues. Why is this so? It is because information professionals working in the mainstream media have given them emphasis. The theory used to explain issues that have been given prominence is the agenda-setting theory of 1973 that was put forward by McCombs and Shaw (Davis & Baran, 2006).

The agenda-setting theory is about the power of information professionals to set an agenda and focus the attention of a target audience of information users or a population on an issue (McCombs, 2002). As McCombs puts it, not only do the targeted populations acquire factual information about an issue from what is availed by information professionals, they also learn how much importance to attach to the issue brought to their attention.

This research is informed by the agenda-setting theory. The concept in the current study that fits into this theory is the creation of awareness on the issue of child sexual abuse among children in upper primary. The researcher is setting the agenda of child sexual abuse so that children in upper primary get to think about it. Citing Walter Lippman (1992), Davis and Baran (2006) argue that people respond to "pictures" created in their minds through the provision of information. By creating "pictures" of unsafe situations and how to escape from the same in the minds of children, the researcher will get children to think about this safety issue.

Davis and Baran (2006) note that information professionals are significantly more than purveyors of information and opinions to their audiences of information users. As the authors put it (p. 316) information professionals "may not be successful in telling users of information *what to think* but they are stunningly successful in telling them *what to think about.*" Applying this idea to the current study, the conceptualised and designed information-provision model may not be successful in telling children what to think, but the model is expected to be stunningly successful in telling children in upper primary what to think about the subject of child sexual abuse, and what to do if faced with an unsafe situation.

Davis and Baran's (2006) idea refers to how information professionals in the mainstream media are able to set "agenda" for their audiences. The idea is applicable to the current study in that the research idea is intended to draw a map for children regarding how they can protect themselves from predators of child sexual abuse.

The interpretation of the agenda-setting theory is that information professionals play an important role in getting people to think about issues. The targeted information users not only get to learn about a given issue; they also get to learn how much importance to attach to that issue from the amount of information they are given. Information professionals, therefore, set the agenda by determining the "important issues."

Davis and Baran (2006) point out that a weakness leveled against the agenda-setting theory is that it is too specific to the news and political campaigns. This accusation may not be fair. The position this research takes is that probably researchers have in the past shied away from applying the theory to other research issues outside politics and campaigns.

Going by the dictionary meaning of "agenda," the word refers to a list of items to be considered and discussed at a meeting or any other forum. It also refers to a list of problems to be addressed (Apple Computer, 2005). Going by this definition, the agenda-setting theory is, therefore, applicable to issues of various nature, including the problem under this study. It was the intention of this study to get children to think about child sexual abuse and how they can protect themselves from the perpetrators of the vice. Coffman (2002) seems to be for this argument. She indicates that the theory is applicable in creating saliency for social issues.

An important concept in the agenda-setting theory is priming. This is the idea that information professionals can draw attention to some aspects of an issue and in this way set the intended users of information to render the particular issue very important. The

priming effect is also applicable to this study. As mentioned earlier, children may, for example, have difficulty in accepting the idea that people they trust and respect can sexually abuse them. This idea can be primed to have the desired effect on children. By choosing to, for example, highlight the fact that more than 90% of child sexual abuse cases are perpetrated by people known to the child rather than strangers contrary to the common belief (Finkelhor, 2009), the study will be priming this research finding, and enlightening children on the same.

Davis and Baran (2006) explain that another important concept in agenda-setting theory is agenda-building, in which information professionals, the government, and a targeted population can reciprocally influence one another. The authors further explain that agenda-building presumes cognitive effects; that is, it increases knowledge in the targeted information users. The basic assumption is that information professionals can greatly affect how information users determine what are the important concerns and, therefore, take action towards meeting those concerns. In this way, information professionals have the power to increase the level of importance assigned to an issue, thus increasing the salience of the issue.

As earlier explained in chapter one, this present study was an advocacy type of research. The intention was to contribute towards providing children with information, knowledge and skills on how they can distinguish safe from unsafe situations. In doing so, the study was intended to tell children "*what to think about*," and thus increase the salience of this subject among children in upper primary.

2.3.2: The Social Learning Theory

Albert Bandura is considered the leading proponent of the social learning theory (Ormrod 1999; Severin and Tankard, 2001, Infante, Rancer and Womack, 2003). This theory offers that learning takes place within a social context. The theory is also referred to as the social cognitive theory (Davis and Baran, 2006). Ormrod (1999) explains that this theory considers that people learn from one another through observation, imitation, and modelling. The author also mentions that awareness and expectations of future reinforcements or punishments as a result of availed information can have a major effect on the behaviors that people exhibit.

The principles of *observation, imitation*, and *modelling* in social theory apply to information acquisition and application. This theory, therefore, fits into and informs this current study that was intended to assess the children's cognitive abilities to distinguish safe from unsafe situations. If children are informed about what constitutes an inappropriate touch, and then observe this improper behaviour being exhibited by an adult on either themselves or on another child, they will be able to interpret the situation as unsafe. They could then resist the inappropriate touch or even reach out and tell a trusted adult about it. Their ability to use the observation principle in the social learning theory will have helped them avoid an unsafe situation.

Imitation is another important principle in the social learning theory and is also applicable to this study. If children, for example, are shown an animated cartoon clip of a

child who is resisting being touched inappropriately, these children are likely to imitate the skill if they fall into a similar unsafe situation.

The social learning theory also postulates that learning can also take place through modelling. In an information-provision model, the use of narratives of children who manage to resist, say, a bad touch could be included. If children read about a child who acted bravely by resisting a bad touch from an authoritative figure such as a teacher, they may apply the same skill in an unsafe situation successfully. In this way they will have acquired the skill of being assertive through modelling.

Ormrod (1999) also explains that in social learning, reinforcement influences the extent to which an individual applies the information that has been acquired. In this study, including devices intended to strengthen the information acquisition process in the designed information-provision model, for example, use of narratives to present the message effectively reinforces the children's ability to acquire and apply the information.

Ormrod (1999) further states that as a result of being reinforced, information users form expectations about the consequences that a future information application is likely to bring. They expect certain behaviors to bring reinforcements and others to bring punishment. Applying this principle to the current study, the designed information-provision model should sensitize children that an inappropriate touch, if not resisted, can lead to rape, which is "a punishment." And that the rape could lead to an unplanned pregnancy, a sexually transmitted infection (STI), or an incurable infection such as the HIV/Aids. This would help to increase the child's knowledge if he or she is aware of that

connection, and he or she is likely to resist the inappropriate touch right from the outset.

The narrative in Table 2.1 illustrates how the principles of observation, imitation and modelling are applicable to this study.

Table 2.1: Information provision through the use of narratives is known to be effective with children (Source: Author, 2014)

Baraka is a primary 6 pupil. She is about 12 years old. She a little older than her classmates. She transferred to her current school and did not get a place in class 7. She had to repeat class 6. Baraka has tiny breasts developing from her chest. She has also begun receiving her monthly periods.

One afternoon after Baraka's class had their PE lesson, Mr Maumizi their PE teacher asked Baraka to remain behind. He said he had an important assignment for her. The other pupils left. Mr Maumizi hugged Baraka telling her that she was his 'special' pupil in their class. He then touched her small breasts.

Baraka had been attending the SAFE-for-Child program at their school. SAFE stands for Sexual Abuse Facts Education. She had learnt about safe and unsafe touches. Baraka had learnt that however nice such a touch of a private part felt, it was an inappropriate touch. They had been shown a video of a child in a similar situation. The child in the video had managed to escape an inappropriate touch from her teacher.

Baraka excused herself quickly and ran off to the direction of her classmates. When she got home, she told her parents about the inappropriate touch. Her parents reported to the headteacher about the incident the following day. The headteacher called police officers who arrested Mr Maumizi. He was found guilty and jailed for 20 years for sexually abusing Baraka.

Answer these questions:

✓ *What is the problem in the story?*
✓ *Did Baraka do the right thing?*
✓ *What would you do if they found yourself in a similar situation?*
✓ *What lessons have you learnt from the story?*
✓ *In pairs, act out the story. Show how Baraka resisted and escaped from the unsafe situation.*

In the narrative illustrated in Table 2.1, Baraka is seen to apply the three principles in the social learning theory. She *observes* that the teacher is inappropriately touching her; she then excuses herself and runs off. By doing this she *imitates* and *models* the child depicted in the animated video cartoon that she watched in the SAFE-for-Child Program at her school.

In Bandura's social learning theory, four conditions are necessary before an individual can successfully apply the information acquired (Ormrod, 1999). The first one is attention. The explanation is that the learner must first pay attention to the information being provided. For the child to pay attention, he or she must be alerted about the issue and its importance. As discussed earlier under the agenda-setting theory, this will have been accomplished by sensitising the child about the issue.

The second condition is retention. The learner must be able to remember the information acquired. The agenda-setting theory has also explained how this can be accomplished through priming and agenda-building. Another way that has been suggested by the social learning theory of increasing this is using the technique of rehearsal. In the current study, this can been incorporated in the information-provision model by asking the learners questions related to the stories that have been narrated. In this case the learner is asked to put himself or herself in the situation of the character in the story and figure out what they would do if it happened to them.

The third condition is motor reproduction, which refers to the ability to imitate the behavior that has been taught. This should be applied when developing and implementing

the information-provision model. The learners should be sensitized to resist overtures from potential perpetrators of sexual abuse. They should be asked to replicate the action of, say being assertive, through role-playing. As it will be discussed later in this chapter, role-playing is one of the formats in which information on child sexual abuse programs is availed to children.

Last but not the least is motivation, which Ormrod (1999) insists that it is the final necessary ingredient for sensitization and internalization to occur. In the case of this study, the model is intended to demonstrate that children must want to practise what they have learnt in order to protect themselves and others. Again this can be reinforced through role-playing. For example, using Baraka's story narrated earlier, children could be asked to get into groups and discuss the questions that follow the story. The educator could compose other similar questions or learning activities. In answering such questions, children will be demonstrating the four conditions discussed above namely attention, retention, motor replication and motivation.

Ormrod (1999) states that the social learning theory has numerous informational implications. An important one that is applicable to this study is that learners must believe that they are capable of acquiring and applying the information and the skills they have acquired. Thus, it is very important to develop the concept of "information-is-power" in the children. Indeed, literature reveals that one way of helping children to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse is to promote the idea that information is a powerful tool and that the preventative messages being purveyed can help them escape from unsafe situations.

2.3.3:   The Social Marketing Theory

This theory is concerned with promoting socially valuable information. It assumes the existence of information that is deemed useful and beneficial, and likely to bring social change (Davis and Baran, 2006). The theory provides a framework for conceptualising, designing, and disseminating valuable information messages targeting information users. The theory gives attention to the target population, as well as the need to reach the audiences with the information that is deemed important for them. The target audiences are identified according to their information needs. This was also intended in this study.

Davis and Baran (2006) also note that the social marketing theory seeks to package and distribute information so that the target audience finds it easy to access it and use it. There are some key features of social marketing theory that are applicable to this study. The first feature is the concept of "inducing audience awareness" on the issue under study (Davis & Baran, 2006, p. 308). This concept is about promoting socially valuable ideas. The intention is to make the target audience aware of the existence of an issue. By conducting the study and asking children to respond to the concerns raised in the research tool, the research was inducing their awareness of the issue under study.

The second feature is the concept of "targeting messages" at specific audiences or populations that are at risk of the problem being addressed. The audience or population for this research had already been identified. It consisted of school children in upper primary aged between nine and 13 plus years. Children in upper primary are preadolescents and young adolescents. They form a group that is at a high risk of being

sexually abused. They are maturing and experiencing confusing bodily changes. The uninformed children may not understand what is going on with their bodies. They may be tempted to engage in risky sexual behaviours with older persons, their age mates, or even younger children due to peer pressure.

During the study, children's information needs were sought regarding the subject to determine the knowledge, and skills that they required in order to be able to distinguish safe from unsafe situations. In the conceptualised model, it has been proposed that the identified information needs should be packaged into simple preventative messages that should be availed to children.

The third feature applicable to this study is the concept of reinforcing messages within the targeted population and encouraging members of the population to influence others with the received information. The intention of this study was to assess the information needs of children, as well as propose a model that could avail preventative information to children. The study also conceptualised and designed an information-provision model that is intended to encourage them to share the knowledge they acquire with their friends and siblings.

The social marketing theory is associated with awareness campaigns that target audiences or identified populations. The theory has effectively been applied in creating awareness on issues such as family planning, HIV prevention, as well as promoting behavioral change (Bryant, 2007).

At the Florida Prevention Research Centre (2000), the social marketing theory has been applied in "community-based prevention marketing" programs that are intended to create preventative awareness approaches on various issues such as avoiding smoking and drug and substance abuse. This concept applied to the current study in that the conceptualised model for this study aims to create awareness and also provide preventative information on child sexual abuse.

The Florida Prevention Research Center Community-based prevention program models borrow from the process of knowledge and information acquisition, which was key to this current study. The conceptualised model applies this process, which proposes that people seeking or using valuable information move through a variety of intermediate steps (Piotrow et. al, 1997). This is illustrated in figure 2.5.
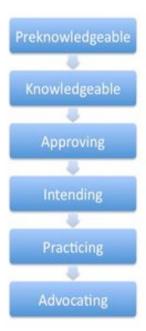
Figure 2.5: The framework for seeking and acquiring useful information (Source: Piotrow et. al., 2007)

The stages illustrated in Figure 2.5 apply to the current study as follows:

- ✓ **Pre-knowledgeable** stage: At this phase, children are unaware of the issue of child sexual abuse or their personal risk. They may not even know that the people they trust the most could sexually abuse them. In this study, it was assumed that the targeted children were at this stage at the time.

- ✓ **Knowledgeable** stage: At this phase, children are now aware of the problem. They have acquired useful information, knowledge and skills on the subject. They understand the desired behaviors are, for example, being assertive, which can help them resist an inappropriate touch from an authoritative figure such as a teacher, s religious leader, or a step-parent.

- ✓ **Approving** stage: At this phase, children are in favour of and are approving the authenticity of the acquired information. They are endorsing the benefits of acquiring knowledge, skills and abilities that will help them avoid risky situations. They can relate the knowledge to incidences that have happened to them, to their friends, or to their siblings.

- ✓ **Intending** phase: At this phase, children have internalised the acquired information and have purposed to apply it if a situation arises.

- ✓ **Practising** phase: At this phase, children will actively employ the knowledge and skills acquired if a situation arises.

- ✓ **Advocating** phase: At this phase, sensitized children not only put into practice the knowledge and skills acquired; they also advocate them to others. The children also become effective change agents among their peers.

2.3.4:   The Health Belief Model (HBM)

Another model that informed this study is the Health Belief Model (HBM). This is a psychological model that attempts to explain and predict health behaviors (University of Twente, n.d.). This model was also adapted to apply to this study as follows. In trying to draw parallels between the conceptual framework of the current study and the HBM, the information assessment study was dubbed the "Safety Belief Model" (SBM).

Core Assumptions and Statements in the HBM as Applicable to the Designed Model

The HBM is based on the understanding that a person will take a health-related action; for example, use condoms, to protect him/herself from getting infected, or reduce the amount of food portions to control his or her weight. Adapting this concept to the current study, the preventative information model was dubbed the SBM. The adopted idea was that a child will listen to preventative messages and adapt them to promote his/her own safety. The parallels between the HBM and the conceptualised SBM are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Core assumptions and Statements in the HBM applicable to this study

	Core Assumptions and Statements in the HBM	*Core Assumptions and Statements in the conceptualised SBM*
1	One is sensitised that engaging in sexually risky behavior can lead to contracting an incurable condition.	The child is sensitised that all children are at risk of getting sexually abused. They are also informed that an inappropriate touch can lead to rape, an unplanned pregnancy or contracting an incurable condition, e.g., the HIV/Aids.
2.	One is informed that a negative health condition (e.g., HIV) can be avoided.	The child is informed that the occurrence of sexual abuse can be avoided.

	Core Assumptions and Statements in the HBM	*Core Assumptions and Statements in the conceptualised SBM*
3.	One has a positive expectation that by taking the recommended action, he/she will avoid a negative health condition, e.g., using condoms will be effective to some degree at preventing the spread of HIV.	The informed child has positive expectation that by acquiring the knowledge and skills required, he or she will be able to prevent the occurrence of sexual abuse, or be able to discriminate safe from unsafe situations.
4.	Believes that he/she can successfully take a recommended health action (i.e., he/she can use condoms comfortably and with confidence).	The informed child should believe that he or she can successfully be assertive, say an emphatic **NO** to potential perpetrators of child sexual abuse, including authoritative figures such as teachers and parents.

2.3.5   The Protection Motivation Theory (PMT)

The PMT was developed to explain how people respond to fear-arousing messages. Use of fear within limits is said to have shock value, and can be a motivator for the recipient to take precautionary measures. It has its place in sex education (Tate and Longo, 2006). It is regarded as a danger-control model, or a safety-enhancing model in that when a fear-inducing message is used to evoke a life-threatening situation in the receiver, he or she is motivated to take action to reduce the level of that threat (Boer and Seydel, 1994).

The PMT theory is regarded an adaptation of the HBM. The PMT spells out concepts such as the perceived threats (risks) and net benefits, and presents them as the perceived susceptibility, perceived severity, perceived benefits, and perceived barriers. In PMT,

people's readiness to act or apply the acquired knowledge is attributed to these concepts. An added concept referred to as cues to action (action plan) initiates the application of the acquired information. A recent addition to the PMT is the concept of self-efficacy, or one's confidence in the ability to successfully utilise the acquired information (Twente University, n.d.). The above-discussed concepts and how they apply to this study are illustrated in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Core assumptions and Statements in the PMT applicable to this study

Concept	*Definition*	*Application*	*Application to the current study*
Perceived Susceptibility (Risk factor)	One's opinion of chances of getting a condition.	Define population(s) at risk, risk levels; personalize the risk based on a person's features or behavior; heighten the perceived susceptibility if too low.	Define children's risk levels of being sexually abused.
Perceived Severity	One's opinion of how serious a condition and its consequences are.	Specify the consequences of the risk and the condition.	Specify the consequences of child sexual abuse.
Perceived Benefits	One's belief in the value of the advised action to reduce the risk or seriousness of impact.	Define action to take; how, where, when; clarify the positive effects to be expected.	Impart children with knowledge and skills to be able to discriminate safe from unsafe situations.
Perceived Barriers	One's opinion of the tangible and psychological costs of the advised action.	Identify and reduce barriers through reassurance, incentives, and assistance.	Their inability to comprehend that people they trust can sexually abuse them.

Concept	Definition	Application	Application to the current study
Cues to Action (Action Plan)	Strategies to activate "readiness."	Provide how-to information, promote awareness, and issue reminders.	Develop the information provision model to create awareness.
Self-Efficacy (Effectiveness)	Confidence in one's ability to take action.	Provide training, guidance in performing action.	Guide children to adapt effective preventative approaches, e.g., to be assertive or get away from the situation.

2.4: What is Child Sexual Abuse?

Child sexual abuse is a significant problem worldwide. It requires an effective means of prevention. Child sexual abuse is defined as any sexual act that is directed at a minor. It includes a sexually suggestive touch, fondling, sexually explicit talk or hint, exposure to sexual activity or pornography, rape or attempted rape (Arpan, 2007).

Child sexual abuse is any sexual activity involving a child who is not legally considered mature to give his or her consent (Salvagni and Wagner, 2006). In Kenya, a child who is aged below 18 years is considered a minor. Some examples of child sexual abuse are vaginal or anal intercourse, genital-oral contact, genital-to-genital contact, stroking or petting of intimate areas, masturbation, and exposure to pornography, or to adults having sexual relations. The authors indicate that child sexual abuse is considered by World Health Organisation (WHO) to be a health problem of great concern worldwide. The

WHO estimates that about 40 million children aged between 0 and 14 years suffer sexual abuse annually (APA, 2001; Johnson, 2004; Salvagni and Wagner, 2006).

Child sexual abuse is "maltreatment that involves the child in a sexual activity to provide sexual gratification or financial benefit to the perpetrator." Some types of child sexual abuse crimes are forcible rape, forcible sodomy, sexual assault with an object, forcible fondling and statutory rape. Sexual offenses against children range from inappropriate touching to intercourse, and that offenders may be authoritative figures from diverse professions including teachers and priests (Child Maltreatment, 2001; Terry and Tallon, 2004, p. 3).

The subject of child sexual abuse falls under the broader subject of "child abuse". Child abuse and neglect is defined as any act or failure on the part of a parent or a caretaker, which results in death, serious physical or emotional harm, sexual abuse or exploitation, or an act or failure to act which presents an imminent risk of serious harm to the child (Gross, in Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act [CAPTA], America's Public Law 104–235, 2002). Gross summarises child abuse as the physical, emotional or sexual mistreatment of a child. She gives several types of child abuse including physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse, general neglect, and medical neglect.

As the above discussion illustrates, child abuse is a very wide subject. This study focused on the form of child abuse that is sexually exploitative. The aim was to assess the information needs of children in upper primary school in selected schools in Nairobi

County with a view to conceptualising a child sexual abuse information-provision model for this audience.

2.5: Child Sexual Abuse: An Old Phenomenon

Sexual abuse of young children including infants has attracted much attention among societies of the world. Child sexual abuse is viewed as an old phenomenon that has occurred throughout history, and it takes the form of exploitation of both male and female children (Plummer, 1993; Tomison, 1995; Tower, 1989).

Research began exposing sexual abuse of children as a major problem in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Since then, there has been an upsurge in the cases of child sexual abuse. Indeed, not a single day passes before news is reported, either in print or electronic media, about sexual abuse of a minor by a stranger or a family member, including a parent, especially fathers. This reality raises the concern that young children may not be safe in the society. The theme that has been observed to remain consistent with research related to child sexual abuse is that the vice is extensively undisclosed and underreported (Faulkner, 1996; Tomison, 1995; Watson, 1984). In an article reporting on sexual attacks that took place in the camps for the internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Kenya following the 2007 post elections violence, Ngesa (2008) notes that the reason most victims remain silent is because sexual abuse is not a priority in conflict management.

2.6: Theories of Child Sexual Abuse

Children would have great difficulty in accepting the idea that adults can sexually abuse them, and more so the people they trust and have great respect for. They are also likely to

wonder why people in authority such as teachers or religious leaders, who presumably always have the right answers, and are supposed to protect them, would take advantage of their innocence and assault them sexually (Faulkner, 1996; APA, 2001; Daro and Donnely, 2002). Some questions that a child is likely to have would be:

- "Why would my father, mother or grandfather sexually abuse me?"

- "Why would an uncle I respect so much want to harm me?"

- "Why would a teacher, who is supposed to be my role model, sexually molest me?"

In sensitising children about sexual abuse, these and many more questions that children may have should be answered. For this reason, understanding why adults seek to have sexual relations with a child would help this study to conceptualise and recommend an information-provision model that presents these concepts to the target audience in a simplified language. In this section, therefore, an attempt has been made to briefly explain the theories of child abuse.

Terry and Tallon (2004) indicate that explaining why children are sexually abused has been one of the foremost questions guiding research on the subject. The authors expound on various explanations citing biological, psychological and sociological theories that have been designed to explain why offenders abuse children. They specifically explore the following theories: biological, psychoanalytic, behavioral, attachment, cognitive-behavioral, and integrated theories. These may not be the only theories. Literature, however, cautions that that no one theory explains adequately the motivating factors that

lead an adult to have a sexual relationship with a child and maintain such a bond (Bickley & Beech, 2002).

Biological theorists suggest that physiological factors, for example, hormone levels and chromosomal makeup have an effect on an individual's behavior. Testosterone, a male sex hormone, promotes sexuality aggression (Berlin, 1983; Marshall & Barbaree, 1990; Rösler & Witztum, 2000; Marques et al., 1994; Money, 1970; Rada, Laws and Kellner, 1976).

The psychoanalytic theory is attributed to Freud Sigmund (1856–1939), the Austrian neurologist, psychoanalyst, and psychotherapist, who proposed that sexual deviance is a learned condition and is an expression of unresolved problems experienced during the stages of human development. As Terry and Tallon (2004) explain, aggressive sexual behaviour is acquired the same way by which other individuals learn more conventionally accepted modes of sexual behaviour.

The attachment theory relates to the emotional bonds that an individual forms during growth and development. Behavioral theorists explain that humans have a tendency to establish strong emotional bonds with other people, be they family or non-family members. When this is denied or the individual suffers some form of loss, he or she acts out aggressively as a result of loneliness and isolation. Good parenting is highlighted as critical in the development of an individual in that parents are able to provide strong emotional attachment and also instill a sense of self-confidence. Terry and Tallon (2004) reinforce this observation indicating that research findings have found a relationship

between poor quality attachments and sexual offending. Citing a study done by Marshall and Barbaree (1990) it was found that men who sexually abused children often had not developed the social skills and self-confidence necessary for them to form effective intimate relations with peers. As pointed out, this failure causes frustration in these men that may cause them to seek and sustain intimacy with under-aged partners, whom they deem compassionate because of their innocence.

The cognitive-behavioral theory relates the thoughts of offenders to their behaviour. Citing varied research works (Scott and Lyman, 1968; Scully, 1990; Sykes and Matza, 1957), Terry and Tallon (2004) explain that offenders have distorted thinking patterns, which they call cognitive distortions (CDs). These enable them to shift the responsibility of their actions from themselves to the victim. Offenders give excuses and justifications to defend their behavior and remove from themselves any responsibility. An example of an excuse would be, "she didn't fight with me so she must have wanted sex." Terry and Tallon (2004) indicate that it has not been established whether offenders honestly believe these distorted views. The offenders may even blame the victims for their offenses or justify their offenses through the victims' actions.

Availing to children such information on the frame of mind of offenders is crucial. It would help children to exonerate guilt from themselves after the occurrence of an abuse. As mentioned in chapter one, a long-term effect of sexual abuse on the child is that they suffer self-blame; they accept responsibility of the abuse, yet it is not their fault that they have been abused.

The cognitive-behavioral theory explains that oftentimes perpetrators of child abuse blame the victims for how they were behaving or how they were dressed. Citing the study of Scully and Marolla (1990), Terry and Tallon (2004) report that perpetrators of child sexual abuse have justifications for their actions including claims that:

> they are helping the child to learn about sex, that sexual education is good for the child, that the child enjoys it, that there is no harm being done to the child, that the child initiated the sexual contact and that the child acts older than he or she is. [They may also] assert that the child did not resist and must have therefore wanted the sexual interaction. They fail to recognize any other explanations as to why the child might not have resisted, such as fear, uncertainty about what was happening or the idea that the perpetrator is someone they knew and trusted. (Terry and Tallon, 2004, p. 17).

Last but not the least Terry and Tallon (2004) consider the integrated theory. They name Finkelhor (1984) as one of the leading theorists on child sexual abuse. The integrated theory combines all the factors discussed in the biological, psychoanalytic, behavioral, attachment and cognitive-behavioral theories.

2.7: Child Sexual Abuse: The Advocacy Role of Information Professionals

It cannot be gainsaid that the society is concerned about perpetrators of child sexual abuse on the loose, and the safety of children in and out of the home (Finkelhor, 2009). Children are born into homes where they relate with both male and female adults closely. Yet, the same people entrusted with the care of children may be the very people who are sexually abusing them (Turir, 2007). It is unfortunate that experience shows that,

sometimes, people that children think they know and have come to trust can act in ways that are wildly out of step with the children's expectations (Binghamton University, 2005). This research sought to demonstrate the advocacy role that information professionals can play in disseminating information to children on this sensitive subject, thus equipping them with knowledge and life skills that will enable them to avoid unsafe situations.

The focus of this research was what information should be availed to children on the subject of child sexual abuse. The research took the position that just as children are imparted with skills and knowledge in other core subjects such as mathematics, science and the English language, they should also be informed about the life skill of preventing themselves from child sexual abuse, or discriminating safe from unsafe situations.

2.8:   Child Sexual Abuse Programs (CSAP): Raising Children's Awareness

In today's society, the school is regarded as an information base in which knowledge is generated, organised and transmitted in a way that increases the potential for a change in the behavior of learners. The subjects that are taught in school are pieces of presented information and knowledge that are organised to increase the potential change in the behavior of learners and thus add to their experiential knowledge (Ahuja & Chhabra, 1989).

In the Kenyan 8-4-4 curriculum-based primary schools, learners are taught subjects that have been included in the syllabus, for example, mathematics, English, science, social studies, Kiswahili and religious studies among others. The subject of child sexual abuse

or any other form of sex education is not included in the syllabus at either primary or secondary school level. Neither is it covered as a detailed topic in the life skills subject that was introduced in the curriculum in 2008 (KIE, 2000a–f).

The above observation notwithstanding, child sexual abuse is a serious problem in Kenya and in the world today. While reports on child sexual abuse have increased over the years, the problem still remains vastly undisclosed (Canadian Center for Child Protection, 2005).

In response to the alarmingly high incidence and negative consequences of child sexual abuse, most developed countries have established child sexual abuse preventative information programs. These awareness programs help children acquire relevant information, knowledge, skills and attitudes on child sexual abuse. Examples of such programs include *Feeling Yes, Feeling No*; *C.A.R.E. kit (Challenge Abuse through Respect Education)*; *Who Do You Tell?*; *Body Safety Training (BST); Child Abuse Prevention Program (CAPP);* and *NO-Go-Tell* among others. The programs help to raise children's awareness on the subject. They also provide children with strategies to help promote their own safety and also understand the importance of protecting others (Wurtele, 1987). In Kenya, such formal programs are non-existent.

Researchers in this subject elaborate on child sexual abuse programs indicating that they are of various types, namely primary, secondary, and tertiary type. The primary type of program targets the potential victim. The main focus of primary prevention programs is to strengthen the potential child victim's capability to resist a sexual assault. The

secondary type targets a child who has already fallen victim of sexual abuse. The aim is to help the child cope with the ordeal; the tertiary type involves long-term responses and efforts after abuse has occurred. The aim is to address the lasting consequences of sexual abuse (Barron and Topping, 2003; Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004; Daro and Donnelly, 2002).

While CSAP programs aim at communicating safety skills to children, they may differ in terms of their content, style and method of presentation. They may also differ depending on the age of the targeted child. (Center for Early Education and Development (CEED), 2004). Some programs also include information for parents, teachers and guardians. In evaluating these programs, researchers have concluded that on balance, most evaluations find statistically significant gains in the child's knowledge and awareness of sexual abuse, and how they respond. The areas of knowledge that the child gains include, who can be a molester; the difference between an appropriate and an inappropriate touch; and the fact that if sexual abuse occurs, it is not the victim's fault (Daro and Donnelly, 2002). The programs also encourage children victims who may currently be undergoing abuse to reach out, tell someone, and hence prevent further abuse. Despite structural differences, most programs emphasise a common set of concepts including body ownership, touching continuum, secrets revealing, intuition, assertiveness skills and support systems to help children discriminate safe from unsafe situations (CEED, 2004).

In the absence of such programs in Kenya, this research was intended to be an information needs analysis. The aim was to seek the information needs of children in upper primary on child sexual abuse with a view to conceptualising a structured child

sexual abuse awareness and preventative information-provision model. The ultimate intention is to create awareness on the subject, communicate prevention strategies to children, and impart skills that they can employ in order to protect themselves and others from the perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

2.9: Child Sexual Abuse: What are the Issues?

It is not easy to identify would-be perpetrators of child sexual child abuse. Yet, every child is vulnerable to sexual abuse (APA, 2001). Concerning children being at risk of being sexually abused, the society will always have a myriad of questions. They will ask: What acts comprise sexual child abuse? How does a sexual abuse ordeal affect a child's mental, emotional and social growth? Can the harm caused by a sexual abuse ordeal in a child be corrected? What knowledge does a child require in order to prevent the occurrence of a sexual abuse ordeal? What knowledge does a child require to deal with a sexual abuse ordeal? And considering that a child's life must be influenced at the formative stage, would an information-provision model intended to create awareness help alleviate the problem? Would imparting children with information and knowledge on the vice pay dividends in the long-term? Should children be provided with life skills that will influence their knowledge of child sexual abuse early enough? (Protective Services Section Health and Community Service, 1993). In addition to answering the research questions set out in this study, the research also attempted to address the above-stated questions.

2.10:   Schools as Information Provision Agencies

Publishers of school information materials are in the information dissemination industry. In Kenya, mainstream publishers mainly concentrate on publishing educational textbooks. They mainly publish school course books and teachers' guides for the subjects that are provided for in the 8–4–4 system of education. The syllabi for the subjects are developed by the curriculum developing body known as the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD), formerly the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). The institution is a department in the Ministry of Education.

This research took the position that has been advanced by APA (2001): that information professionals can collect and analyse data, and use the results to package information materials on sexual abuse education targeting children. The information materials can then be submitted to publishers for packaging. Once the materials are ready, publishers can avail them to schools through their distribution network.

Orme and Salmon (2002) identify the school as a key setting for providing such information. The authors argue that primary schools have been identified as significant agencies in the prevention of child sexual abuse. Providing such information is especially important now that parents are uncomfortable to communicate this important information to their children, and teachers cannot be entrusted to protect children as some of them are perpetrators of the vice.

As the APA (2001) report further explains, in any type of awareness program, children should be informed that sexual advances from adults are wrong, and against the law. This type of information provision model should further instil in a child the confidence to assert himself or herself against any adult who may attempt to sexually abuse them.

It was the intention of this study to disseminate the findings of the research to educators and curriculum developers in the hope that they would consider integrating child sexual abuse studies in the school curriculum. It is also to be noted that other researchers, trainers, government bodies, agencies in the Ministry of Education or other relevant bodies could use the findings to develop electronic and print information materials such as "how-to-manuals" or video tapes on the subject.

From the foregoing discussion, it can be argued that it is indeed important that an awareness program be implemented in schools to offer children an early exposure to issues related to the vice. This would empower them to protect themselves from the tragedy of getting sexually abused. This would not only encourage parents to supplement the educators' efforts to sensitise children on this grave issue; it would also ensure that both parents and children acquire life skills that could help protect children from sexual abuse.

In a child sexual abuse awareness program, children must also be informed about the importance of disclosing any sexual abuse experiences they may have undergone; because how quickly they report about it has short- and long-term effects. Children who are able to confide in a trusted adult about sexual abuse suffer less trauma than children

who do not disclose the abuse. Additionally, children who disclose the abuse soon after its occurrence may be less traumatised than those who live with the secret for years (APA, 2001). As a society, we cannot fight child sexual abuse perpetrators; because they do not wear an identity mark. We also recognise that child sex abuse could happen to any child regardless of gender or tribe. The crime can also be committed by anyone, including a parent (Slippery Rock University, 2006). Additionally, parents may not always be there to monitor who is stalking their children. Would the development and implementation of an information awareness program in primary schools pay dividends in the long-term? Should children be provided with critical life skills that will influence their knowledge of protecting themselves from potential child sexual abuse perpetrators? If the above questions were to be answered in the affirmative, then availing protective information on child sexual abuse to children would be an appropriate measure to take.

2.11:   Prevalence Rates of Child Abuse in Kenya

Distinguishing the terms prevalence and incidence, Ratlhagane (2002) explains them as follows: Prevalence rates refer to the number of children experiencing sexual abuse in the population, while incidence refers to the number of new cases of child sexual abuse reported over a specified time period, usually a year. The author explains that information about incidence and prevalence of child sexual abuse is important so that the magnitude of the problem is communicated accurately.

A 2009 survey by the Kenya's Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) indicated that up to 12,660 girls had been sexually abused by teachers over a five-year period (2003–2007).

The report further indicated that in some cases, teachers abused as many as 20 girls in a single school before they got reported. This information raises the concern that teachers cannot be entrusted with protecting children against the vice if they perpetrate the same. The report in fact indicated that some teachers were serial sexual offenders who sexually abuse children from one school to another. This was attributed to the fact that when the offending teachers got caught, they would simply be transferred to another school without any legal action being taken against them (Siringi, 2009).

The report further indicated that only 633 teachers had been charged with child sexual abuse in the five-year period (2003–2007) that the study covered. The report indicated that the results were just the tip of the iceberg as the vice was overly under-reported indicating that the vice was "rampant and endemic" (Siring, 2009, p. 2). From the data collected, a significant 53% of the respondents indicated that child sexual abuse by teachers was very high. In fact the TSC report indicated that more than 90% of sexual abuse cases orchestrated by teachers were never reported, meaning that the cases were higher than the statistics given in the report.

2.12: Sensitising Children on Grooming

Child sexual offenders take time to plan how to execute the vice. This manipulative planning is known as grooming (Plummer, 1993; Wurtele, 1987; Terry and Tallon, 2004). Grooming is intended to manipulate the potential victim into complying with the sexual abuse, or intimidate the victim into engaging in sexual acts.

Researchers have studied the various tactics that perpetrators use to groom their target victims. Several methods are discussed. They include verbal and physical intimidation, seduction or the use of enticements such as sweets and chocolate, money, or other attractive gifts. The strategies that the offenders use depend to some extent on the how the target victim responds to the scheme (Pryor, 1996). Many children may not be aware of this grooming concept. There is, therefore, the need to inform them of the concept so that every time someone older than they are offers them a gift, they are able to evaluate the supposedly kind gesture with a skeptical mind.

Terry and Tallon (2004) note that if the victim does not resist the tactic, the attacker might use the same tactic over and over again. If, however, the victim shows some resistance to the tactic, the attacker may opt for another strategy or coerce the potential victim into sexual engagement. Citing Pryor (1996), Terry and Tallon (2004, p. 22) discuss various grooming tactics that potential offenders use. The most common is the "seduction and testing of a child." As the authors explain, this grooming behaviour is used when there is an existing relationship with a child, and the child is familiar with the supposedly "affectionate" expression of the offender. The attacker progressively extends the warm touching to include sexual behaviour, all the while "testing" the victim's reaction. If the child does not openly resist the grooming behaviour, the sexual abuse continues.

Terry and Tallon (2004) report that a less frequent tactic that is mentioned by Pryor's study is where the offender catches the victim by surprise. In this case, the offender may plan a situation to divert the attention of the victim or take up the opportunity to abuse

when it arises. Offenders use this scheme when the chance to establish contact with the target victim seems elusive.

Terry and Tallon (2004) further report that another grooming tactic used by offenders is the use of either verbal or physical force, where the offender physically coerces the victim to engage in sexual acts. As they further explain, this grooming trick is more common in cases where the abuse is recurrent. As the authors report from Pryor's study, emotional manipulation and verbal coercion are the most common tactics used by offenders to groom their victims. The tactics may include doing favours for the victim in exchange for sex, as well as emotionally blackmailing the victim into submission. As the authors put it, "even though it may appear that there is room for negotiation on the part of the victim, the outcome always favours the offender" (Terry and Tallon, 2004, p. 22). The authors also report that perpetrators who have ongoing contact with their target victims repeatedly employ this tactic.

Another grooming tactic reported by Terry and Tallon (2004) involves the offender concealing his or her intentions of sexual advances in the pretext of playing a game. For example, the attacker may begin by tickling a girl and gradually progress to fondling her breasts. As the authors note, while this grooming tactic may appear unplanned, this is not usually the case. The tactic is usually well planned by the offender, yet schemed in a rather secretive manner.

Terry and Tallon (2004) further report that the most well calculated grooming tactic is where the offender engages the victim in a conscious process to the idea of sex. The

offender then gradually engages them in sexual encounters. Citing Pryor's (1996) work, Terry and Tallon (2004) explain this tactic as turning the victim out. They give the example that the attacker may start by displaying himself in the nude or introducing the victim to pornography. The attacker may then reason with the victim that engaging in sexual activities is acceptable. This may continue for sometime and then be followed by fondling the victim or having the victim fondle the offender. The attacker may applaud the victim for the effort. This association may progress to penetrative sexual acts. The offender may even offer the victim gifts for participating in the sexual activities. Gradually, the child victim is "groomed to the point that engaging in sex with the offender is more or less automatic" (Terry and Tallon, 2004, p. 23). As the authors explain, grooming may take months or years to get accomplished. The authors explain that when a perpetrator plans to groom a potential victim, he or she will often use a grooming tactic that has been employed successfully, and if the scheme does not prove to be successful, the offender will change the tactic.

As the above discussion reveals, children need to be sensitised on this concept of grooming. The knowledge is expected to help them gauge situations, and probably escape those that are potentially abusive.

2.13: Encouraging Children to Disclose Sexual Abuse

It would help to prevent further sexual abuse if children could reach out and disclose to a trusted adult about past or ongoing incidents of sexual abuse. Research findings, however, report that every published empirical study on disclosure of child sexual abuse indicates that a high percentage of child sexual abuse victims who report the abuse to

authorities delay disclosure of their abuse. While children should be encouraged to disclose incidences of sexual abuse, studies indicate that a significant number of children do not disclose the abuse at all (Terry and Tallon, 2004). Why is this?

A number of factors that influence the delay between the initial occurrence and the subsequent disclosure of the abuse have been cited in literature. Some identified factors include the age of the victim at the time of the event, the relationship between the perpetrator and the abused, the gender of the abused, the severity of the abuse, developmental and cognitive status of the victim, and the likely consequences of the disclosure. Based on these factors, child sexual abuse is, therefore, significantly underreported; when victims eventually report that they were abused, they often do so years after the abuse occurred (Finkelhor, 2009; Pummer, 1993; Terry and Tallon, 2004; Wurtele, 1987).

Regarding the relationship between disclosure of the abuse and its severity, research results vary. Arata's (1998) study found that children victims who experience severe levels of sexual abuse were less likely to disclose this type of abuse. Arata's findings have been found to be consistent with those of Gries, Goh and Cavahaugh (1996) who found that 80% of their study population who had experienced less severe assault of fondling disclosed the abuse. The results of Hanson (2000) differ in that they indicate that children victims of more severe sexual assaults were more likely to report than those of less severe assaults.

Some studies speculate that children may not disclose sexual assault if they suspect that they will receive unsupportive reactions. The authors also indicate that assaulted children may wait until adulthood to disclose when they can choose the appropriate people to tell (Lamb and Edgar-Smith, 1994). The observations are accurate. Oftentimes, a child who reports to the mother that he or she has been abused by a father or the mother's lover is less likely to be believed. For this reason, children must be informed that they should keep telling about an abuse until someone believes them and assures them that all will be well. Research has also established that older children victims of sexual abuse were less likely to disclose than their younger counterparts. This is attributed to their cognitive factor; their knowledge of social consequences is a significant hindrance to disclosure. In the case where one of the parents is involved, the child may fear family break-up (Campis et al. 1993; Terry and Tallon, 2004).

Study findings indicate that fear of further attack by the perpetrator has an impact on a child's motivation to disclose abuse. The child victim often only feels safe enough to disclose the assault after the departure of the perpetrator. The fear about perceived reactions of others prevents some children from disclosing sexual abuse (Berliner and Conte, 1995; Sorenson and Snow, 1991; Terry and Tallon, 2004). In a study conducted by Roesler and Weissmann-Wind (1994), 33.3% of the subjects reported that they did not disclose their abuse during childhood because they feared for their safety. The study also found that 32.9% of their subjects did not report their abuse during childhood because they felt guilt or shame as a result of the abuse; they felt responsible for the abuse. The

above statistics demonstrate the importance of creating awareness in children that if sexual abuse occurs, it is not their fault.

Both girls and boys should be sensitised on the importance of disclosing any incidents of child abuse. Regarding gender differences, most researchers acknowledge that generally girls were more likely to report about sexual abuse than boys. The researchers also indicate that sexual abuse of boys was more likely to be disclosed by a third party (Terry and Tallon, 2004). Terry and Tallon (2004) add that there are no methodologically reliable empirical studies that indicate that more boys disclose sexual abuse than girls.

2.14: Enabling Children to Disclose Sexual Abuse

Children should be empowered so that they can make the decision to disclose sexual abuse cases deliberately. The process of disclosing childhood sexual abuse varies with individual children. Literature indicates that the disclosure is often discussed as either "purposeful or accidental; and as either spontaneous or prompted" (Terry and Tallon, 2004, p. 7). Citing the study conducted by DeVoe and Coulborn-Faller (1999), Terry and Tallon (2004) report that the results found children in their study requiring assistance with disclosure. In the study by Sorenson and Snow (1991), it was noted that accidental disclosure was more common in pre-school children, whereas purposeful disclosure was more common in adolescents.

Children in upper primary children aged between nine and 13 plus are considered preteens and young teens. Going by the above previous research findings, it is in order to speculate that for this group of children to tell about an incidence of child abuse, it would

have to be purposeful; and it has to be encouraged. The conceptualised information-provision model could be structured in a way to encourage this group to voluntarily disclose any past or ongoing incidences of sexual abuse. The teacher, parent, guardian or facilitator must assure the child that the information they wish to share will remain confidential and that the issue will be addressed.

Literature discusses four stages of disclosure namely "denial, disclosure (tentative and active), recantation and reaffirmation" (Terry and Tallon, 2004, p. 7). DeVoe and colleague (1999) found that 72% of their subjects originally denied the abuse; about 78% of the subjects who tentatively revealed their abuse progressed to active disclosure; about 22% withdrew or recanted their reports, and of those who withdrew, 93% later reaffirmed the original report.

In explaining factors that hinder disclosure of child sexual abuse, Terry and Tallon (2004) cite Summit's (1983) model of child sexual abuse, which is referred to as the Child Sexual Abuse Accommodation Syndrome. As the authors explain:

> … this syndrome consists of five components namely: secrecy (the abuse occurs when the victim and perpetrator are alone, and the perpetrator encourages the victim to maintain secrecy); helplessness (children are obedient to adults and will usually obey the perpetrator who encourages secrecy); entrapment and accommodation (once the child is helplessly entrenched in the abusive situation, he or she assumes responsibility for the abuse and begins to dissociate from it); delayed disclosure (because the victims who report child sexual abuse often wait long periods of time

to disclose, their disclosures are subsequently questioned); and retraction

(as in the recantation stage described by Sorenson and Snow (1991), the

victims may retract their disclosures of abuse after facing disbelief and

lack of support after their disclosure) (p. 7).

This syndrome points to the following: children must be taught that it is important they

tell someone about sexual abuse; they must not blindly obey people in authority; it is not

their fault if abuse occurs; if the person they tell does not believe them, they must keep

telling until someone listens. This study assessed whether children were aware of these

concepts and subsequently recommended their inclusion in the conceptualised model.

2.15: What are the Concerns?

Whatever its form, childhood sexual abuse can have a very negative impact on a child.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child states that children have the

right to be protected from being hurt and mistreated, physically or mentally (APA, 2001).

The concerns of this study could be summarised into this one question: Are children able

to recognise and protect themselves from potential perpetrators of child sexual abuse?"

The feeling of most parents, educators and society at large is that children may not have

the information and knowledge to help them resist, escape from, or even deal with a

sexual abuse ordeal (Gross, 2002). They may not also have the skills to discriminate safe

from unsafe situations in order to prevent the occurrence of sexual abuse.

Alluding to Gross's observation, Faulkner (1996) speculates that the stigmatisation of the

problem may be an obstacle to determining answers to the prevention of child sexual

abuse. Gross' and Faulkner's arguments apply to the situation in Kenya. The education

that the Kenyan upper primary child receives is based on what is in the syllabus. The syllabi are developed by the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD). The primary school syllabus is in three volumes. Volume one covers languages and social studies. Volume two covers science, mathematics and religious studies. Volume three covers life skills. None of the three volumes covers child sexual abuse as a concept to be introduced to the child. The volume that covers life skills only has a topic on development of assertiveness as a topic to be taught. However, a review of the specific objectives under this topic does not reveal any relationship to prevention of child sexual abuse (KIE, 2002a–f; KIE, 2008).

Despite the above-identified knowledge gap in the school system, it does not mean that solutions to the problem are not within reach. Seifert (2006) notes that research into creation of awareness and prevention is an effective way of ensuring that there will be no more victims.

The society must come to terms with the fact that any child is vulnerable to sexual abuse, an ordeal that could certainly affect a child's life, sometimes indefinitely (Tulir, 2007). Researchers in this subject have found that victims of child sexual abuse frequently experience feelings of shame, guilt, isolation, powerlessness, embarrassment and inadequacy. Researchers also acknowledge that these effects may last to adulthood (Bagley, 1992; Courtois and Watts, 1982; Herman and Hirschman, 1977; Faulkner, 1996; Finkelhor and Browne, 1986).

The above observations explain why there is need to empower children to recognise and resist situations that could lead to child sexual abuse. Perpetrators of this vice target infants, children, the youth, as well as adults. Unfortunately, when children become the target, they may not understand the motive that drives a perpetrator of child sexual abuse. This is why children must be taught that the danger of being sexually abused may come from a family member, a neighbour, a handyman, a grocer, a youth leader, a tout, a matatu driver, a pastor, a househelp, or a stranger (Seifert, 2006).

A sexual abuse ordeal can provide a child with a 'misleading script' or schemata regarding how she or he should relate with relatives, neighbours, as well as members of the opposite sex (APA, 2001). Researchers acknowledge this fact. They note that children can be confused because a neighbour, a teacher, a religious leader, or a family member is supposed to be someone they can trust (Seifert, 2006). This explains why children who may have been sexually abused may fear relating with members of the opposite sex, and generally lack in social skills. The provided script may also present a child with a misleading approach that may lead to risky and unhealthy activities such as drug and substance abuse, early sexual activities, as well as aggressive behaviour (APA, 2001).

Literature points out the importance of sensitising children that an inappropriate touch is a bad touch, and that they should not allow anyone to do it to their bodies. They should further be sensitised that when they are not sure whether something a grown-up is doing is right, they should feel free to consult another adult on the matter. This study assessed the children's knowledge levels on concepts of body ownership and proposed their inclusion in the conceptualised model. Regarding this concept, children should be

sensitised that their bodies are private and that no one has a right to touch them in a way that feels uncomfortable.

Child sexual abuse perpetrators are barely punished; because abuse cases are rarely reported. And even when the matter is reported, there is often laxity observed in prosecuting the perpetrator. In the Kenyan case, the implicated teachers in the TSC report discussed in chapter one are yet to be prosecuted. As the report indicated, some teachers were simply deployed to other schools. And that is how they had become serial perpetrators as they abused children from one school to another. In the *Daily Nation* of 24 March 2010, another case of justice denied was reported. The headline of the story read, "Principal who raped student still in service."

Children often fail to report cases of sexual abuse for fear that disclosure will bring consequences worse than being victimised. The child may feel guilty of creating consequences for the perpetrator and may fear subsequent retaliatory actions from the perpetrator (Berlinger and Barbieri, 1984; Groth, 1979; Swanson and Biaggio, 1985; Faulkner, 1996). A number of researchers share this view. They observe that if the perpetrator is a relative or an acquaintance, victims of child sexual abuse are less likely to report the offense, or they are likely to disclose the abuse after a long delay. Conducted studies have generally found that children who have been sexually abused by family members feel responsible for the abuse, and they usually take longer to report the abuse (Arata, 1998; Hanson, 2000; Smith et. al, 2000; Wyatt and Newcomb, 1990; Terry and Tallon, 2004). In Arata's study, for example, 73% of the victims did not disclose the

abuse when the perpetrator was a relative or a stepparent; and 70% did not disclose when the perpetrator was an acquaintance.

The disclosure of child sexual abuse is often delayed. Research indicates that just about 30% of child sexual abuse victims disclose during childhood. This is attributed to the fact that children are not sensitised on the importance of reporting sexual abuse incidents. As research reports further posit, children avoid telling about it because they are either afraid of negative reaction from their parents, or being harmed by the abuser. They often delay disclosure until adulthood. They may also feel that they are to blame because they have not been made aware that if sexual abuse occurs, it is not the fault of the child (The Canadian Center for Child Protection, 2005).

A report on facts about child sexual abuse explains that children generally do not have the capacity to discriminate love from sexual abuse, and they can easily be vulnerable to a well-calculated case of child sexual abuse. The report further notes that children may not discern the ill motives, or the harm that the perpetrator is exposing to them. A further observation made in the report is that perpetrators of child sexual abuse also frequently employ the earlier discussed persuasive and manipulative tactics referred to as grooming, for example, buying gifts, giving money and other enticements, or arranging special activities, which can further confuse the victim (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, NCTSN, 2005). As earlier discussed, grooming is a premeditated behaviour that is intended to manipulate the potential victim to complying with sexual abuse activities. The tactics used by the offenders depend somewhat on the potential victim's response to the particular tactic applied (Terry and Tallon, 2004). When grooming is

employed, the child victim may not understand that the actions of the perpetrator are abusive, particularly if the sexual abuse is presented as a game (NCTSN, 2005).

2.16: Empowering Children with Information

In spite of the above-discussed complexities posed by child sexual abuse tragedies, the Kenyan society may not discuss the issues related to this subject freely as it is considered a taboo. The most viable solution would be to avail preventative information to children so that they are able to recognise sexual overtures. In this way, they are empowered and become literate in matters related to sexual abuse. As research reports indicate, perpetrators of child sexual abuse are less likely to victimise a child if they think that the child will tell about the incident (Canadian Center for Child Protection, 2005).

It is important to empower children to question anyone touching them inappropriately in a way that makes them feel uneasy and uncomfortable. Children must also be made aware that respect does not mean blind obedience to adults and authority. Children must, for example, be instructed not to always do everything that the teacher or the babysitter tells them to do. This kind of information will also provide them with tools for fighting back, if and when necessary, in order to avoid manipulation by adults with ill motives (Family Resources, 2001).

In view of the foregoing, children need to be enlightened on the probable behaviours of potential perpetrators of child abuse (Government of Canada, 2006). An effective preventative information-provision program will require that children be provided with adequate and accurate knowledge in order to help children make intelligent decisions

regarding turning down sexual overtures (Carruthers, 2006). This study, therefore, regards availing of the information to children as a key undertaking to ensuring their safety. This is because educators, especially teachers, may not fully be entrusted with protecting children against the vice. In the study cited in chapter one conducted by the Kenya's Teachers' Service Commission, 12,660 children had been abused by their teachers. The report indicated that in some cases, teachers abused as many as 20 children in a single school before they are reported (Siringi, 2009). The abuse by teachers raises an important concern: can they be entrusted with the safety of the children, if they [teachers] are the perpetrators of the vice? This research takes the position that children can be empowered through provision of information, so that they are able to discriminate safe from unsafe situations.

2.17: School-based Child Sexual Abuse Prevention Programs

What could society do to address the problem of child sexual abuse? Studies indicate that creating awareness among children on basic sexual education has been identified as one of the ways of protecting children from sexual abuse. Related studies point out that the increased awareness of child abuse along with the need for child care has led to the development of Child Sexual Abuse Prevention (CSAP) programs that are designed to enlighten and empower children to protect themselves (APA, 2001; The Center for Early Education and Development [CEED] at the University of Minnesota, 1989).

A common method that is used to create awareness among school-aged children about child sexual abuse and how to protect themselves from the vice is the school-based child sexual abuse awareness program. An evaluation of school-based child sexual abuse

prevention initiatives reveals that these educational programs teach children such skills as how to identify dangerous situations, how to resist an abuser's approach, how to break off an interaction, and how to summon for help. The programs also aim to promote disclosure, reduce self-blame, and mobilise bystanders (Finkelhor, 2009).

Researchers into school-based programs back the idea that school-based child sexual abuse preventative programs help to promote disclosure of past abuse and prevent future abuse of children. The general finding is that children who have been involved in these programs tend to have a better understanding of various aspects on child sexual abuse. There is also the observation that programs that involve children in activities and are carried out repeatedly over time seem to offer the best results (Korn, 2004; Davis and Gidycz, 2000).

As mentioned before, the problem that this study addressed is the lack of child sexual abuse information-provision programs in Kenyan primary schools. While those programs exist in the developed world, the problem has not been addressed locally. In support of these prevention programs, Kohl (1993) is of the view that creating awareness at an early age has been advocated by scholars and practitioners to intervene with children and youth who have been, or are being sexually abused, as well as to prevent sexual abuse from occurring.

Empirical studies are in support of these programs. Researchers observe that children should be informed that no one should touch the "private parts" of their body. They must also be taught that no matter where, when, and how it happened, sexual abuse is never the

victim's fault. The only person to blame for the crime is the perpetrator. Children must also be sensitised that their body is theirs alone, and nobody has the right to touch it in a way that makes them feel uncomfortable (Royse, 2007; Slippery Rock University, 2006).

For the above-stated reasons, researchers generally advocate the integration of child sexual abuse awareness programs in the school system. The Kenyan school system, however, does not provide for creation of this awareness at both primary and secondary school levels. Sex education is also not offered as a subject in the school curriculum (KIE, 2000a–f; KIE, 2008).

2.18: Evaluation of School-based Sexual Abuse Prevention Programs

Considerable evaluation research exists about school-based sexual abuse prevention programs, suggesting that they satisfactorily achieve certain of their goals. Research shows, for example, that young people can and do acquire the concepts. The programs also promote disclosure and help children not to blame themselves. The studies, however, caution that studies are inconclusive about whether education programs reduce victimization. Recommendations arising from the findings urge that further research be conducted in this area suggesting that school systems could integrate such programs in the curricula (Finkelhor, 2009).

An important question that arises regarding these programs is whether children learn the concepts taught. Researchers generally find that children of all ages acquire the key concepts taught in these programs, indicating that younger children show the ability to learn more than older children (Berrick and Barth, 1992; Finkelhor, 2009).

2.19:   An Evaluation of some Selected Child Sexual Abuse in the West

In the Western world, school-based sexual abuse awareness and prevention programs have existed since the 1970s. This is the period when public awareness about the extent of child sexual abuse became heightened (Univeristy of Calgary, 2002). The programs were primarily developed and funded by community organizations (Kohl, 1993). In the 1980s there was intense development of school-based sexual abuse prevention programs. Research into their effectiveness was also conducted. In the West, what is known about child sexual abuse prevention today is based on 30 years of experience and research (Plummer, 1993).

2.19.1: Objectives of CSAP Programs

School-based sexual abuse prevention programs are considered the foundation of child sexual abuse prevention efforts. They were developed in response to the high rates of sexual abuse of children, as well as to deal with the short- and long-term effects of the vice on children (Tutty, 1997). The goal of these programs is primary prevention; that is, prevention that targets the potential victim rather than the perpetrator (Daro and Donnely, 2002). The aim is to reduce the incidences of child sexual abuse through arming children with the knowledge and skills to resist inappropriate touching, or what to do if abuse has occurred. Recent revisions of some programs have expanded these objectives to include learning other personal safety knowledge and skills, for example, avoiding engagements with strangers, known as the stranger-danger concept (Finkelhor, 2009).

When children are helped to understand how, for example, a would-be perpetrator is likely to treat them, they become assertive and will actively take charge of the situation.

It is, therefore, assumed that guiding children to discern the behaviours of would-be perpetrators will help them to build lifelong skills that they need in order to make them skeptical in relating with all adults, including parents, teachers and relatives (Daro and Donnely, 2002).

2.19.2: Types of Programs
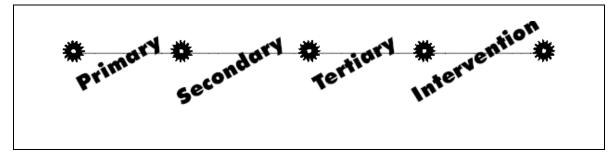
Preventative information programs target different groups. Awareness creation efforts can target children, adults, both children and adults, or potential perpetrators as illustrated in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Child sexual abuse prevention efforts target different groups. (Source: www.thecollinscenter.org)

Child-Focused	Community Awareness & Outreach	Adult Programs	Perpetrator Prevention
Giving children tools to avoid and protect themselves in dangerous situations, the responsibility is solely on the child (eg. self-defense, No-Go-Tell, fear-based approaches)	Targeting general community with the facts about child sexual abuse, what children can do to keep safe, and how parents can keep children safe	Teaching parents and other adults about the facts of child sexual abuse and prevention strategies; may include children's program, but focuses responsibility for prevention on adults	Programs teaching kids empathy for others and respect for sexual boundaries (eg. healthy sexuality education); Adults keeping other adults accountable for inappropriate behaviors with children (Stop It Now!)

Some literature sources simply discuss two types of prevention efforts namely: primary and secondary prevention. Others include the third type called tertiary prevention, and the fourth called intervention. This study adopted the categorisation discussed by the Collins Center. According to this source, child sexual abuse prevention efforts can be thought of in terms of a spectrum as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Child sexual abuse prevention efforts seen in terms of a spectrum. (Source: www.thecollinscenter.org)

Those that discuss two types indicate that primary prevention targets the potential victim, in this context the child.

Primary prevention is intended to stop abuse before it ever happens. It may target the general population, the at-risk groups, or both. Secondary prevention is offered after the abuse has occurred. It includes immediate efforts and responses after the abuse has occurred to address the short-term consequences of abuse and prevent additional harm. Tertiary prevention involves long-term responses after the abuse has occurred. The aim is to address lasting consequences of sexual abuse (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004, pp 8–10).

According to the above-discussed categorisation, the current study was concerned with the primary type of prevention. This is the type that focuses on sensitising the risk group, the children, on how to recognise a potentially abusive situation and respond to it appropriately. The primary focus is on strengthening the child's capacity to resist abuse (Daro and Donnely, 2002). An evaluation report of the programs indicates that they have been found to increase the conceptual awareness of school-age children on sexual abuse

and inform children on the importance of disclosing actual or potential abuse (University of Calgary, 2002).

2.19.3 Examples of Child Sexual Abuse Programs

In the Western world there are many programs that exist that address the subject of child sexual abuse. Some examples given by the University of Calgary (2002) and the Collins Centre (n.d.) include the following: the Body Safety Training (BST); C.A.R.E. (Challenge Abuse through Respect Education) Kit; CAP – Child Abuse Program; CARE for Kids; Child Abuse Prevention Program (CAPP); Child Assault Prevention Program; Children of the Eagle Resource Kit; Circles II Stop Abuse; Eagle Child; Feeling Yes, Feeling No; Good Touch, Bad Touch; Hello Craig; It's Not Your Fault; Kid&TeenSAFE; Life Facts II Sexual Abuse Prevention; No-Go-Tell; Our Children's Future; Project Trust: Teaching Reaching Using Students and Theater; Red Flag, Green Flag People; Safe Child; Stop It Now!; Talking About Touching; Touching: A Child Abuse Prevention (CAP) Program; and Who Do You Tell?

The University of Calgary review report indicates that the list represents only a fraction of the sexual abuse prevention programs that have been developed. Some are broad in nature and cover child abuse in general. Those that have been mentioned in this discussion focus on the sexual aspect of child abuse.

2.19.4: The Basic Elements of a Preventative Information Program

While CSAP programs aim at communicating safety skills to children, they may differ in terms of their content, style and method of presentation. They may also differ depending

on the age of the children that the program targets. Most programs emphasise a common set of concepts including body ownership, touching continuum, secrets revealing, intuition, assertiveness skills and support systems to help a child who has been abused (University of Calgary, 2002).

Some basic elements have been identified and are considered necessary to be included in a comprehensive sexual abuse prevention program. Some common core concepts included in these programs include the following: all children are at risk; content about what comprises sexual abuse; correct names of private body parts; body ownership and identifying good and bad touch/confusing touch. Other concepts are incest; that is, abuse by family members; abuse by figures in authority, for example, teachers and religious leaders; abuse by strangers; assessing potentially unsafe situations; disclosing sexual abuse incidents to a trusted adult; and keep telling until someone believes and acts. Some more common concepts are resisting by being assertive; self-protecting knowledge and skills, for example, moving away, or screaming and yelling to attract attention, if need be what to do if sexual abuse occurs; it is never the child's fault if sexual abuse occurs; and legal rights of a child if sexual abuse occurs.

2.19.5: Presentation Methods of Child Sexual Abuse Programs

Child Sexual Abuse Programs take various modes of presentation, which include verbal instructions; film or video tape; behavioral skills training approaches; skits; teacher-led programs; expert-led programs; mimes; role plays; use of puppets or dolls; drama and plays; assemblies; story books; life skill guides or manuals; comic strips; games; art; and music.

2.20:   Chapter Summary

As discussed in chapter one, this study identified an existing knowledge gap in the information needs and creation of awareness on child sexual abuse among children in Kenyan primary schools. Children have no access to information materials on this subject. They, therefore, lack skills and knowledge about child sexual abuse. The literature that was reviewed helped to address the identified knowledge gap.

Based on the studies that have been evaluated and the literature that has been reviewed, this study sought the information needs of the targeted children on this subject. The aim was driven by the desire to have the children empowered with information, knowledge and skills that they can employ in order to discriminate safe from unsafe situations.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1:   Introduction

This chapter gives the details of the research methodology that the researcher used in the study. A research methodology is a roadmap for conducting a research study, providing the details for the procedures and the methods that a researcher applies in each step of the study process (Maholta, 2002; Zikmund, 2003; Saunders et. al, 2009; Creswell, 2009). The chapter describes the various procedures that were followed in conducting the study in order to achieve the earlier-stated objectives, as well as address and answer the research questions. The chapter covers the research design and the research population that was studied. The samples that were selected and the sampling methods, procedures and techniques that were applied have also been discussed in detail. There are ethical challenges that accompany conducting research among children. For this reason, the ethical considerations that were involved and the permissions and assents that had to be obtained in dealing with children have also been discussed. The type of data that was collected and the data collection process and tools are also discussed among other elements.

3.2:   The Research Design

In research, there are no hard-and-fast rules for conducting the study. There does not exist one best and correct research design that can be prescribed for a specific type of research. This does not mean that a researcher can face insurmountable challenges; it means that a

researcher has many alternative methods of solving the challenges encountered during the process (Zikmund, 2003).

There are many definitions of research design, and no one definition brings out all the important aspects. In several literature sources, authors highlight that a research design constitutes a detailed plan and the structure of the study. A research design constitutes the blueprint or the master plan for data collection, measurement and analysis. It is a structure within which the intended research is conducted. The research design enables and guides the researcher to conduct the study efficiently. It helps the researcher to obtain answers to the research questions through data collection, measurement and analysis. The research design should assist the researcher to select the research method to use, as well as decide the type of research to conduct (Cooper and Schnidler, 2003; Maholta, 2002; Peter, 1994).

In discussing the research design, the researcher must clearly indicate the research method to be adopted. There are three main methods of research namely quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method. In quantitative research, data are collected in numbers, whereas in qualitative research, data are collected usually in words. Qualitative data are normally analysed by themes. Another major difference between the two is that qualitative research is inductive and quantitative research is deductive. In qualitative research, a hypothesis is not needed to begin research, but in quantitative research, one requires a hypothesis before research can begin. In quantitative research, the researcher is an observer. He or she neither participates in nor influences what is being studied. In

qualitative research, however, the researcher can participate in the research (Zikmund, 2009).

Literature reveals that there are some researchers who feel that one method is better or more scientific than the other. They believe that qualitative and quantitative methodologies cannot be combined because of the varying assumptions underlying each type of research. Other researchers acknowledge the differences between qualitative and quantitative research, but agree that these two research methods can be used in combination in what they refer to as mixed methods.

In view of the above observations regarding the varied interpretations of the approaches of researches, this study adopted Creswell's (2009) position, and his definition of a research design. He argues that qualitative research is appropriate to answer certain kinds of questions in certain conditions, and quantitative is right for others. He, however, concedes that both qualitative and quantitative methods can be used simultaneously to answer research questions. In his discussion on research design, the author further attempts to harmonise the above-stated research methods, namely quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods.

Going by Creswell's description, a research design is a plan and procedure that helps a researcher to narrow the research decisions from broad assumptions to comprehensive methods of data collection and analysis. The exercise entails making several decisions including the worldview that the researcher brings to the study, the procedures of enquiry, which Creswell refers to as "strategies," as well as the specific methods of data

collection, analysis and interpretation. In selecting a research design, a researcher must consider the nature of the research problem that is being studied, as well as the researcher's personal experiences (Creswell, 2009, Saunders, et al., 2009).

Distinguishing qualitative and quantitative research in terms of using words and numbers respectively, Creswell does not view the three designs as distinctive. The author views them as different ends of a continuum, with mixed methods existing in the middle of the continuum, as it applies elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The author explains that a mixed method study may be more qualitative than quantitative, or vice versa. As explained later in sections 3.4 and 3.5, this study was primarily quantitative. The researcher, however, included some open-ended questions in the research that generated qualitative data.

3.3: The Philosophical Worldview of this Study

Whether a research opts for a qualitative, quantitative or mixed type of research design, it is important for the researcher to indicate the basic philosophical assumption or worldview that the researcher brings to the study. The assumption or worldview is also referred to as a paradigm (Creswell, 2006; Saunders, et al., 2009).

A paradigm is the basic belief system or worldview that gives an investigation the choice of a research method, as well as to what constitutes acceptable and realistic knowledge in a field of study (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The term research philosophy relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. When a researcher embarks

on research, he or she is developing knowledge in the particular field of interest As

Saunders and his contemporaries put it:

> The knowledge development [one is] is embarking upon may not be
>
> as dramatic as a new theory of human motivation. But even if the
>
> purpose has the relatively modest ambition of answering a specific
>
> problem in a particular [subject area], it is, nonetheless, developing
>
> new knowledge. (Saunders et al., 2009 p. 107).

Different authors categorise worldviews into various categories, which may range in

number. Creswell, for instance, discusses four worldviews namely post-positivism,

constructivism, advocacy and pragmatism. Post-positivism is the worldview in which

causes determine the effects. Post-positivism is applicable in experiments.

Constructivism, on the other hand, is the worldview in which the researcher seeks to

understand the world by developing personal meanings. Pragmatism is concerned with

what works, and it seeks to understand a problem and develop a solution. Last but not the

least, advocacy is the worldview in which the research contains an action agenda that is

intended to bring change to or empower the study subjects (Creswell, 2009).

In addition to the above-named paradigms there is also the interpretivism worldview,

which advocates the necessity of the researcher to understand the differences between

humans in their role as social actors. Interpretivism is associated with qualitative research

and emphasises the difference between conducting research among people rather than

inanimate objects (Saunders et al., 2009). Part C of the research tool that was

administered in this study had questions that generated qualitative data. The children

were given two short stories and were to answer some questions by interpreting the information given in the stories. The interpretivism approach or worldview was, therefore, applicable to this research. As humans, children will always interpret the actions of adults with whom they interact. If an adult gives a child an inappropriate touch, the child might interpret the touch as an act of love. If the child is, however, informed that there are "good" and "bad" touches, the child may interpret the inappropriate touch as harmful. The child may even tell about it, if he or she has been encouraged to report about bad touches.

When adopting the interpretivism philosophy in research, it was crucial for the researcher to assume an empathetic stance. In a study, the researcher must enter the social world of the research subjects and understand their point view (Saunders et al., 2009). This is exactly what the researcher in this current research did. In designing the questionnaire that was administered to children, each question was carefully considered during the construction. The aim was to avoid ambiguity, as well as biased and confusing wording of the questions. The researcher tried to view the subject of this study from a child's perspective. This helped to determine if the child was likely to view the topic differently from an adult. In applying the interpretivism paradigm, the researcher also phrased the questions in a way that the targeted children interpreted the questions as intended, and also felt at ease to give truthful responses. It had been speculated that among the subjects that were to be sampled, there could have been children who had been sexually abused in the past, or were being abused at the time of the study. For this reason, being sensitive to their feelings and emotions in phrasing the questions was of utmost importance. In doing

this the researcher was empathising with children as required in applying the interpretivism worldview.

The advocacy approach was also applicable to this research in that empowering children with protective information so that they are able to recognise and escape from sexually abusive situations was the intention of this study. An advocacy research begins with an important issue or stance about a problem facing the society and subsequently advocates for the need for empowerment. Advocacy research provides a voice for the study subjects, who ultimately "reap the rewards of the research" (Creswell, 2009, p.9; Kemmis and Wilkinson, 1998). This was exactly the intention of this research. In conducting this advocacy research, the researcher was agreeing with Barron and Topping (2003) that child sexual abuse is a serious and significant social problem with long-term consequences on victims, and needs to be addressed. In advocating the process of empowering children with knowledge, information and skills about this subject, this study hypothesized that such knowledge would enable children to become better able to discriminate safe from unsafe situations.

3.4: The Study Population

A study population consists of the elements from which the sample is selected. It consists of a set of elements from which the researcher collects data for the study. Sometimes the population is referred to as the "universe". The population may either be specified or unspecified (Baxter & Babbie, 2004; Cooper and Schnidler, 2003; Peter, 1994; Proctor, 2005).

The population of this study was specified and comprised children in upper primary drawn from mixed public and private primary schools in Nairobi County. The sample consisted of 16 schools that were purposively selected; eight (8) were private and eight (8) were public as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The purposively selected schools for this study (Source: Author, 2014)

Constituencies in Nairobi County	*Purposively-Selected Schools*	
	Public schools	*Private schools*
Dagoretti	Gatina Primary School	Light Christian Education Center
Embakasi	Embakasi Primary School	Mwanicos Academy
Kamukunji	Muthurwa Primary School	Kabiro Primary School
Kasarani	Kasarani Primary School	Faith Christian Church Academy
Lang'ata	Khalsa Primary School	First Step Academy
Makadara	St Catherine Primary School	Pumwani Child Survival Education Center
Starehe	Race Course Primary School	Holy Family Basilica Catholic Parochial School
Westlands	Kangemi Primary School	Upendo Academy

According to the 2014 *Taskforce Report for the Education Sector of Nairobi City County*, the primary school-going population was estimated to be 493,586 in 2012. Out of this number only about 193, 053 children are enrolled in the 205 public primary schools in Nairobi County. The estimated number of pupils in private primary schools in Nairobi, therefore, translates to about 300,533 (Nairobi City County, 2014).

From the above-listed 16 schools, a sample of 576 children in upper primary classes six (6), seven (7) and eight (8) were selected using a combination of stratified, random and systematic sampling methods.

Table 3.2: Samples taken (N=576) (Source: Field data)

Constituency	Schools Selected	Sample taken
Dagoretti	Mwanicos Academy	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Gatina Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Starehe	Holy Family Basilica Catholic Parochial School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Race Course Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Kasarani	Kasarani Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Faith Christian Church Academy	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Embakasi	Embakasi Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Upendo Academy	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Makadara	St Catherine Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Kabiro Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Westlands	Kangemi Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Light Christian Education Center	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Kamukunji	Muthurwa Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Pumwani Child Survival Education Center	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Lang'ata	Khalsa Primary School	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	First Step Academy	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
Total Sample		**576 (288 girls and 288 boys)**

The sample population consisted of 288 girls and 288 boys. On average, children in these classes are aged between nine and 13 plus years; they are pre-adolescents and young adolescents. Knowing in advance whether the population is specified or unspecified helps the researcher to select a satisfactory sample and also decide on an appropriate method of sampling (Peter, 1994).

3.5: The Research Method: A Survey

A research method is a set of conditions that facilitates the collection, analysis and presentation of data thereby providing the basis for explaining the relationships that exist among the measured variables in a research problem. The method a researcher employs mainly depends on the research purpose, which could be to explore, to describe, to determine or diagnose, or to experiment (Baxter and Babbie, 2004; Peter, 1994).

This study was a survey. A survey is a research method that collects data from a defined population by asking questions. A survey research provides both quantitative and qualitative data from the sample studied. Data are collected with a view to generalising the results from the sample to the entire target population. Surveys attempt to find out things about a population, which comprises all the subjects to which a researcher would like to direct questions (Creswell, 2009; Proctor, 2005; Roberts et. al, 2003)

Literature indicates that there are a number of possible approaches to data collection in survey research. These include one-to-one interviews, questionnaires, draw and write, and focus groups. This research used a combination of a questionnaire survey and the draw and write technique.

3.6:   The Sample

In a survey, data are collected from a sample. A sample is a representative part of the population, which when studied can help the researcher to understand the entire population. A sample is a subgroup of individuals selected from a population (Baxter & Babbie, 2004; Peter, 1994).

It would have been advantageous to contact all members of a population and ask them to respond to all the 66 items that were in the research instrument. If this could have been done, it could have been hypothesized that the researcher stood a high chance of producing accurate results. However, in most researches this may not be possible; it may be impractical or too expensive (Proctor, 2005). This is the reason for sampling. So what is sampling?

Sampling is the process of selecting part of the elements in the population for study. Sampling enables the researcher to collect and analyse data, and subsequently draw conclusions about the entire population. Once the analysis of the data collected from the sample is done, the findings can then be generalised to the larger population. In sampling, however, the researcher must ensure that the sample chosen represents the population as a whole (Cooper and Schindler, 2003; Maholta, 2002; Peter, 1994; Proctor, 2005).

The methods for sampling can either be probabilistic or non-probabilistic. In probability sampling, each subject in the population drawn has a chance of being selected. Samples from specified populations are normally selected by probability sampling, a method in which every unit of population has a chance of being selected (Peter, 1994; Proctor,

2005). Baxter and Babbie (2004) advise that a sample must adequately represent the characteristics of the entire population; that is, studying the selected sample must be almost as accurate as studying the entire population. Peter (1994) explains that samples are deemed adequate within 10% of the target population. Proctor (2005) and Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) recommend between 20% and 30%. Peter (1994) notes that for small populations, the sample size tends to be proportionately large, whereas in large populations, the sample size tends to be proportionately small. Where the population is relatively small, a researcher is allowed to conduct a census, which is the count of all the elements in the population (Cooper and Schindler, 2003).

The sample population for the proposed study was drawn from 16 purposively selected mixed primary schools in Nairobi County. From each of the current 8 constituencies, two schools were selected.
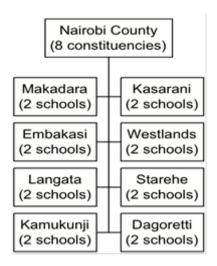
Figure 3.1: Sampling the 8 constituencies in Nairobi County (Source: Author, 2014)

The reason for purposively selecting the schools was because Kenya's population of schools is big and cannot be covered because of resource implications. The current

edition of *Kenya Education Directory (2011, p. 23)* gives the current statistics of the number of schools in the country. It indicates that the total number of primary schools in Kenya is about 26,667. Out of this number, about 18,543 are public and 8,124 are private. The directory further indicates that the total number of pupils enrolled in public primary schools is about 8.8 million. The girls are about 4.3 million, while the boys are about 4.5 million. This figure of 8.8 million pupils attending primary school in Kenya was quite intimidating. With the free primary education program that became effective in the year 2003, this research speculated that the number of enrolled pupils had considerably increased in the eight years that it had been in place. The statistics shown in Table 3.3 on Kenya's school population and enrollment have been extracted from the *2011 edition of Kenya School Directory*.

Table 3.3: Total number of public and private primary schools in Kenya

Kenya's School Entire Population and Enrollment (Kenya School Directory, 2011)

Number of Public Primary Schools	18 543
Number of Private Primary Schools	8 124
Total Number of Primary Schools	**26 667**
Total Number of Girls Enrolled in Kenya's Primary Schools	4.3 million
Total Number of Boys Enrolled in Kenya's Primary Schools	4.5 million
Total Number of Pupils Enrolled in Kenyan Primary Schools	**8.8 million**

(Source: Kenya School Directory, 2011, pp. 23 and 24)

From the above statistics, it is evident that the primary population that concerned this research, that is, that of number of schools and that of the pupils attending primary school was large. With this kind of large population for schools in the country, as well as their distribution in the country, purposive sampling was deemed appropriate for this study (Baxter & Babbie, 2004). The total number of pupils that had enrolled in primary school

from class one to eight was also high. This, therefore, explains why this study sampled only children in upper primary to participate in the survey. It is, however, important to mention that a human developmental implication was factored in choosing the target population for this study. It is to be noted that all children are vulnerable to sexual abuse. Indeed, studies reveal that perpetrators of this vice target even infants. However, for the important reason that infants and children aged five and below may not have fully developed language skills that were required to respond to the questions in the research instrument, this study did not target them. This aspect is further discussed in section 3.13 on designing of the research tool.

Last but not the least, given the logistics and the limited resources in terms of finances, the accessibility of schools, as well as the time frame for this research program, the choice of 16 purposively selected schools in Nairobi County was deemed realistic. It was expected that with this selected population, the objectives of this study would be realised within the given time frame, and the research questions would be addressed and answered adequately. The research results from the 16 schools would then be generalised to the entire population of children in upper primary in Kenyan schools.

3.7: Guarding against Bias in the Children's Sample

The data required for this study was on the knowledge levels and information needs of primary children from classes six to eight on the subject of sexual abuse. On average, the targeted children were aged between nine and 13 plus years. Regarding the safety of children from perpetrators of sex abuse, it is not possible to establish how many children have the skill of discriminating safe from unsafe situations. For this reason, this research

selected a representative sample of children for the study and administered a questionnaire on the subject under study. This research selected an unbiased group of children to be surveyed. In order to avoid bias in the sample, every child in the target population had an equal chance of being selected to participate in answering the questionnaire (Baxter & Babbie, 2004).

The researcher surveyed a total sample of 576 pupils from 16 mixed primary schools, two from each of the 8 constituencies in Nairobi County. This averages 36 children from each of the 16 schools. All the 16 schools were, therefore, represented equally. From each school, children were drawn from classes six to eight. This means that from every upper class level, 12 children were selected. Depending on the number of streams in each school, this number of pupils was selected equitably. In schools where the children enrolled in the targeted classes could have turned out to be lower than 12, a census was to be conducted. The 12 children from each of the classes six, seven and eight from each school were selected using a combination of simple random sampling, stratified and systematic sampling procedures. The techniques of these sampling procedures are explained in section 3.8.

Considering the enrolments in Nairobi schools, an upper class level may have between 90 and 150 pupils, the desired sample of 12 children from each class was highly expected to be within 10–30% of the entire population, thus correspond to the earlier-stated requirement cited from literature (Peter, 1994; Proctor, 2005; Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

This study selected an equal number of boys and girls to participate in the study regardless of their enrolment in the selected schools. Past trends have always indicated that more boys enroll than girls. In this study, the sample population consisted of a balanced gender. Since every girl or boy had an equal chance of being selected, the drawn sample was considered to be free of conscious or unconscious bias of the researcher (Baxter & Babbie, 2004).

The total number of 576 children – 288 girls and 288 boys – was subsequently administered with a colour-coded questionnaire. The questions in the instrument were, however, the same. Girls were administered with a questionnaire printed on pink paper, whereas boys had their questionnaire printed on blue paper. The intention for colour-coding was to enable the researcher to compare the knowledge levels of girls to that of boys on the subject of child sexual abuse during data analysis with ease.

The total population of 576 worked well for this study, as this figure is divisible by 16 and also by three (3). The former is the total number of the purposively selected schools in this research; the latter is total number of upper primary levels namely classes six, seven and eight. This sample size of 576 was considered neither too small to leave out some significant variables nor too large to present management problems (Peter, 1994). Commenting on the appropriateness of a sample size, Peter indicates that determining the sample size is a matter of methodology. Citing Moser and Kalton (1979), Peter warns that a large sample does not automatically guarantee accuracy of results if it is poorly selected.

3.8   The Sampling Procedure

As indicated earlier, three sampling procedures were employed in this study, namely simple random, stratified and systematic sampling procedures. The reason for combining the three procedures was to decrease the probable sampling error and, therefore, obtain a greater degree of representativeness (Baxter & Babbie, 2004). First, the entire population of the children in the respective classes in the 16 schools was stratified into two categories – boys and girls. Using respective class registers that were obtained from the respective schools, the pupils' names were separately listed alphabetically using their first names in order to provide separate sampling frames (Peters, 1994). The reason for using the first names was to avoid the bias of, for example, having children from the same tribe grouped together. Nairobi being a metropolis, it was expected that children enrolled in schools were from a variety of ethnic groups. In a class where children were of different ethnic backgrounds, the use the first names eliminated bias. For instance, the majority of children with Luo surnames begin with "O" and many Kamba names begin with K or Ky. In such a scenario, the surnames would have followed each other in the alphabetical lists, which, if not taken care of, could have introduced some form of bias. The use of the first names also gave the girls a chance to be selected using their **own** names rather than those of their family, the surnames. It was expected that the majority of the girls were using official family surnames, which are those of their fathers. The assumption is that the use of the latter, especially in a single class list could have the girls excluded in the sample (Njoroge, 2007).

The above procedure yielded 96 sampling frames, six from each school. Out of the 96, 48 sampling frames consisted of girls' names and the other 48 comprised boys' names. From each obtained sampling frame, systematic sampling was then applied in order to pick the 6 girls and 6 boys to comprise the desired sample of 12 pupils from each of the upper class levels in each school.

In systematic sampling, every kth element in the total list is chosen systematically for inclusion in the sample (Baxter & Babbie, 2004). The value of $k = \dfrac{Population\ Size}{Required\ Sample\ Size}$ (Peter, 1994, p. 72). The computation of "k" in this study was determined by the total number of boys and girls in each class. These refer to the entire populations of the various classes. Depending on the value that was yielded, the study then selected every appropriate kth element with this value at uniform interval. Depending on the number of children in each sampling frame, every kth child's name was drawn.

Proctor (2005) cautions that when applying systematic sampling, the researcher must ensure that the method is a true probability method where every subject in the study will have an equal chance of being included in the sample. Proctor advises that the researcher should have a random starting point. To guard against any possible human bias in using the systematic method as cautioned by Proctor, the first names to be picked from the 96 separate sampling frames were selected using simple random sampling. This method was adopted from Baxter and Babbie (2004), which they technically refer to as a "systematic sample with a random start". In this study, the names of the first 10 children on the sampling frame were written on slips of paper and folded or crumbled to hide the name

appearing on it. The slips were then deposited in a box or a container. The container was shaken so that the folded or crumpled slips of paper became thoroughly mixed up. The research assistant would then ask a blindfolded child to draw one slip of paper from the box randomly. The drawn name became the kth name.

The simple random, stratified and systematic sampling procedures detailed above helped to draw the required sample of 36 children from each school. The respective numbers of boys and girls that were not required in the sample were eliminated from the 96 lists respectively. The total sample then consisted of 288 girls and 288 boys. The value of N in this study, therefore, was 576. The ratio and percentage composition of this sample was, therefore, matched in terms of gender. This explains the reason for targeting mixed schools. This match was expected to help increase the validity and representativeness of the sample (Maholta, 2002).

3.9: The Research Instrument

Literature reveals that a well-designed and tested research instrument is a requirement for good data quality. Designing a good quality survey of young children needed more careful thought, because surveying children has special challenges owing to their growth and development stage. For this reason, the survey design had to be adapted to their cognitive and social development. To achieve this it was important to understand the cognitive abilities of the children being surveyed, particularly in relation to their developmental stage. To successfully achieve this, a full understanding of children's stage of development at ages 9–13 plus years was essential.

3.9.1: Development of Children and its Relevance in Surveying Children

Literature on human psychology reveals that as children develop, they learn in the process. Ideally, this research would have wanted to target children from pre-school to classes eight, owing to the fact that all are vulnerable to sexual abuse. However, it would have been very difficult to develop a single research tool to be administered to this target population of children, who, on average are aged between zero (0) and 13 plus years. The research settled on targeting children in upper primary, who on average are aged between nine and 13 plus years. This detail has been explained in section 1.8.2 on *Limitations of this Study.*

In a study that is targeting children, a study of the classification of their developmental stages is helpful to assist the researcher in surveying children. Piaget's (1929) theory of cognitive growth provides useful guidelines in this respect. According to Piaget, children's intellectual growth and development takes place in stages. These are: (1) Sensori-motor intelligence, from birth until about 2 years; (2) the pre-conceptual thought, from 2 to 4 years; (3) the intuitive thought, from 4 to 7 or 8 years; (4) the concrete operations, from 8 to 11 years; and (5) the formal thought (adolescence), which develops between 11 to 15 or 16 years of age. Some authors combine the second and third stages above and refer to it as the preoperational stage.

Despite the distinct stages, most authors on child psychology, however, indicate that the stages tend to overlap and the boundaries are blurred. Literature also indicates that at any specific stage, children's abilities vary, depending on heredity, learning, experience, and

socio-environmental factors. However, the authors are in agreement that children's cognitive capacities do clearly increase with age. With regards to the current study, the basic levels of cognitive development were extremely important for understanding how children would interpret and answer the questions in the research tool, which was a questionnaire. With reference to Piaget's stages of development, an understanding of the concrete operations and the formal thought stages of development were of particular interest to this research.

3.9.2: The Concrete Operations and Formal Thought Stages of Development

At the concrete operations stage, language develops and reading skills are acquired, though children may still have problems thinking logically or interpreting phrases constructed in the negative. They take words and interpret them to their literal meanings. At the formal thought stage, children's language and reading skills are sufficiently developed to be able to answer well-structured and simplified questions. Indeed literature reveals that from 8 years onwards, children can be surveyed with questionnaires Schickedanz, et. al, 2001).

Going by Piaget's theory of 1929, children targeted in this study could easily handle a research tool that had well-designed questions. However, literature revealed that many precautions needed to be taken to construct appropriate questions and test them fully in a pilot study before undertaking the main data collection phase of the research. To successfully survey the targeted children, the questionnaire had to be specially developed for this population. The questionnaire was designed very carefully with researcher fully aware of the fact that language skills were still developing, and that the children were still

acquiring reading skills. Difficult and demanding questions and use of ambiguous language was avoided, which would have otherwise misled and subsequently collected unreliable data.

3.9.3: The Relationship between Children's Developmental Growth and the Question

Interpretation and Answering Process

The question-answer process was crucial to a successful survey. When undertaking research with children, the cognitive growth of children has great implications for the question-answer process. The stage of development of the targeted children would influence their interpretation of each item in the research tool. Subsequently this would impact on the answers that the children give. In the current study, it was deemed important that children understood the questions, determined the intended meaning, and used their current knowledge to give the answers they considered most appropriate.

Literature revealed that children may have difficulties understanding indices designed to measure relative rates of agreement. They could have difficulties figuring out clear definitions for indices such as "always," and "almost always." It may tax their developing memories trying to discriminate the different meanings in question items whose response are to be indicated using the Likert-type scale, for example, the use of *"Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Slightly Agree," "Slightly Disagree," "Disagree"* and *"Strongly Disagree."* This is because children's interpretation of words is literal. Literature explains that it is easier for them to either "Agree" or "Disagree" with a statement. For this reason, the research tool for this study provided children with simple responses. In section B that was

intended to gauge the children's knowledge levels on child sexual abuse, children were expected to either respond with a *"True," "False"* or *"I do not know"* to the given statement. The language used in the instrument was simplified. The words used were simple. This removed the possibility of having children being unsure of the meaning of the questions.

3.9.4: The Data Collection Tools

Considering that the primary data for this study was to be collected from a large population of children, the use of a questionnaire was considered the most effective method of gathering data from this population (Maholta, 2002). This method requires the researcher to develop an appropriate research instrument. The questionnaire is considered by most researchers as appropriate for large populations.

The questionnaire enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data from the sample of 576 children in upper primary. This approach was particularly valuable for the collection of data on a sensitive subject such as child sexual abuse. It was expected that children would feel a great sense of privacy and would have the freedom to give truthful answers. This was especially so in that they were assured of confidentiality, and they were answering the questions anonymously. The children also found the draw and write technique that was incorporated in the questionnaire quite interesting and were able to express their knowledge and awareness of child sexual abuse. The issues that were involved in the development of a suitable questionnaire are outlined in section 3.10. The value of the draw and write technique for the target population is presented in section

3.12. The advantages and disadvantages of these chosen approaches have also been discussed in the respective sections.

3.10: Questionnaire as a Data Collection Tool With Children

Questionnaires are usually designed and constructed for research and are an efficient way to collect information from large samples relatively quickly (Zikmund, 2009). They are a particularly useful way to collect confidential information on sensitive subjects, for example, the one researched in this study. The issues that were considered when developing the questionnaire for this study included structuring the questionnaire; the types of questions; instructions to the children respondents; response options; the length of the questionnaire; and questionnaire administration. In using questionnaires, the researcher was able to assure respondents of the confidential nature of their participation, particularly that their names were not recorded on the questionnaire. At the introduction of the questionnaire, children had been given instructions not to record their names anywhere. For emphasis, this instruction had been set in bold type and in upper case.

Questionnaires provide a greater sense of privacy and can lead to disclosure of more and truthful information. Literature indicates that empirical research has shown that self-administered questionnaires when compared to interviews produce more valid reports of sensitive behaviour, people's beliefs and values. Respondents are also able to provide answers they would normally consider embarrassing or less socially desirable (Saunders et al., 2009). However, self-administered questionnaires have one serious drawback, particularly with children, as was the case in this study; it is only a relatively simple

questionnaire that can be used with the 9 to 13 plus age group, the population of this study.

3.10.1: Developing a Questionnaire for 9-13 plus Year-Olds

Before constructing the questionnaire, an extensive library research was conducted. This process involved critically appraising academic literature that was available on the subject of child sex abuse. The information was collected from all the relevant works available in physical and online libraries that were be visited. The process of library research involved looking for different viewpoints and assessing the strength of the arguments put forward in the retrieved works (Peter, 1994). Literature and Child Sexual Abuse Prevention (CSAP) programs developed for other countries and for different levels were sought to provide guidelines in the construction of the questionnaire, which was then administered to the sampled population.

During the construction of the questionnaire, guidelines outlined in the reviewed literature were sought and followed. Generally most authors advise on the language aspects, clarity, conciseness, readability, length and the structure of questions. Considering that the targeted population consisted of children, the language was pitched to their level. For this reason, the language that was used in stating the questions was simplified in order to increase the readability of the questionnaire.

3.10.2: The Type of Questions that were Developed

Children in Kenyan primary schools are introduced to objective type of examinations at class four when they are about seven years. In this type of exam, they are taught how to select the chosen answer. By the time they get to class six, they know how to select the answer and shade the same in an answer sheet with ellipses labelled A, B, C, and D. A similar approach was employed in Section A of the research instrument. However, the responses were be labelled using Arabic numbers such as ⓿❶❷❸❹❺❻❼❽❾❿. A box [☐] in which the child was expected to tick his or her answer using the mark [☑] was provided. The numbering and the expected mode of ticking made it easier for the researcher to code the data for analysis.

Careful construction of each question to avoid ambiguity, biased or confusing wording of the questions was essential. Viewing the topic from the child's perspective was primary to determine if the child was likely to view the topic differently from an adult. This was especially so going by Piaget's theory, which suggests that children tend to interpret questions quite literally. Asking the right questions in the right way was, therefore, critical. This was ensured.

Literature also advises that questions meant for children should be as short as possible. Nonetheless, some researchers claim that for children, longer questions provide memory cues and act as a form of aided recall. They allege that longer questions also take more time to read, giving the child more time to think. As they explain, all else being equal,

the longer the child spends on the memory task, the more the child remembers. Despite this assertion, long questions were avoided in the research tool (Zikmund, 2003).

Literature also indicates that it is also advisable not to use negatively phrased items in a questionnaire as children may have difficulty with them. Their literal interpretation of words means that they tend to have challenges with negations. Most authors advise the same regarding the construction of questionnaires that target adults. Ambiguity in questions, either in the question itself or the response items, also has a strong effect on data quality, especially with younger children. When speech is ambiguous children often find it difficult to distinguish between what is said and what is meant. For example, consider the following question: "How often do you discuss about child sexual abuse with your parents? Tick [☑] your chosen answer:

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often

This is a question that could easily be answered by an adult. However, to a child, the question lacks clear definitions in the provided response items. The interpretation and answering of this question requires logical and abstract thinking, a skill that may not have fully developed in children aged between 9 and 13 plus, going by Piaget's theory. It would, therefore, be difficult for them to interpret and translate the responses. Some clearer responses would possibly be:

Never	Every two weeks	Once in a month	Once in a week	Daily

The same difficulty would apply in a question with Likert type responses. Again consider this question: "All children are at risk of being sexually abused." Tick [☑] your chosen answer.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Again this question would present the same challenge to the child respondent; and item difficulty has been found to affect the reliability of an instrument (Zikmund, 2009). To overcome the difficulties posed by such questions, careful wording was considered in the questionnaire. The children were provided with three simple options: *"True," "False,"* and *"I do not know""*. The presentation of the above two questions is illustrated in Table 3.5.

3.10.3: Structuring the Questionnaire

At the age of 9 years, literature assures that children have sufficient reading and writing skills to complete a questionnaire. Nonetheless, some researchers have found that some children, especially slow learners, may have problems in responding to items with ambiguous response scales. These results have been associated with the developmental stage of these children. Slow learners in this age group of 9 to 13 are very literal in their interpretation of words and also limited in their language development. It is likely that these children do not recognize the ambiguity of the words in the response scale.

For the reason that the targeted children were of mixed abilities, that is, fast, slow and average learners, the research tool was structured with the slow learner in mind. In such a scenario, even the fast learner was able to follow and handle the questions. The reverse

would not have worked, where the instrument would have been developed with the fast learner in mind. The slow learner may not be able to follow and handle the questions.

A number of item characteristics were, therefore, considered when structuring the questionnaire for children. Firstly, response to the items in Section B was reduced to three. Secondly, a clear introductory text before each section was included in the questionnaire. This was done in very simple language and was emphasised in bold type. The aim was to put the children at ease, especially with a strange research assistant. It also gave them a clearer understanding of the task at hand. The introduction also assured them of confidentiality.

Literature explains that the order in which the questions are asked can affect the response of children in various ways. To encourage the child to respond to the questions, the first several questions in the survey tool should be easy and provoke interest. Literature also indicates that the quality of the first five or 10 questions is particularly important for children. Some children may refuse to continue with questions that seem boring or difficult. Generally speaking, the first questions should be simple and should also direct the child's attention to a given set of information to increase cognitive accessibility. It is advised that difficult or threatening questions be placed later in the questionnaire to allow the children the opportunity to feel comfortable about answering questions. This principle was followed in developing the questionnaire. The first 14 questions were simple and straightforward. The child was expected to tick the answer(s) he or she considered appropriate. For the questions seeking their knowledge level that came later in the

questionnaire, the responses to select from were provided and were simple. The questions, therefore, were manageable for the targeted child.

3.10.4: Instructions to Children
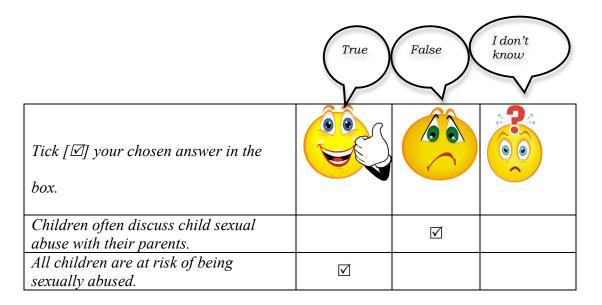
Children can experience difficulties answering questions. In designing the questionnaire for children, it was ensured that both the instructions and the questions were simple and that the wording was clear and unambiguous. Literature sought revealed that studies on surveying children have shown that clearly labelled response options can help the children to give more reliable responses. Literature also suggests that different types of response options can lead to useful data whereas others that, for example, offering vague responses to the children can lead to unreliable data. For this reason, the researcher used graphical cartoon faces to represent the expected responses of *"True," "False,"* and *"I do not know"* to make the exercise more interesting for children. Children are known to respond well to communication through cartoons. Table 3.4 illustrates the response cartoon faces that were used.

Table 3.4: The response prompt graphics used in the questionnaire (Source: Author, 2014)

True	*False*	*I Do not know*

The above approach was considered child-friendly and was expected to heighten their interest in participating in the exercise. The questions were also presented in a friendly layout, where the child was ticking in the appropriate column. Each column was given an appropriate cartoon face to prompt the child to give their chosen response. In the research tool, the two questions sampled earlier to illustrate the difficulty children would experience with responses appeared as illustrated in table 3.5. The children were expected to tick their responses in the columns provided.

Table 3.5: A child-friendly layout

	True	False	I don't know
Tick [☑] your chosen answer in the box.			
Children often discuss child sexual abuse with their parents.		☑	
All children are at risk of being sexually abused.	☑		

These two examples that illustrate how children were expected to tick their responses were actually included in the questionnaire as items 30 and 15 respectively. It is important to note that all was not left to chance that the children would read and understand. At the beginning of the exercise, the research assistant was required to draw a section of the response table and demonstrate to the children on the board how they were expected to tick their chosen answers in the box. The research assistants asked a few

children to practise answering on the board and demonstrate to the rest. The practice questions were, however, not necessarily drawn from the questionnaire. Where the research assistant decided to draw the examples from the questionnaire, he was expected to answer the given question by alternately ticking all the three possible answers, so that they did not lead the children to think that the illustrated answer was the expected or the 'correct' one.

3.10.5: The Length of the Questionnaire

Literature suggests that a questionnaire developed for the 9–13 plus years should neither be too short nor too long. If it is too short, it may not capture all the data that the researcher requires. If it is too long, children may get bored. This is because children have a short concentration span. The challenges that may be experienced in keeping up their concentration could result in poor data quality. In fact, in Kenyan primary schools, lessons are designed to last between 30 and 45 minutes. The questionnaire for this study was deemed neither too long nor too short. A long questionnaire could have been boring. Children would have lost their concentration. In this study, children took between 15 and 25 minutes to fill in. This had been established during piloting.

3.10.6: Administration of the Questionnaire

As expected, the school administration allowed the sampled children to fill in the questionnaires all at the same time, the same way the school examinations are conducted. In this way, the research assistant took about 10 minutes to brief and explain the instructions to the children. During the filling in session, the research assistant was on the alert to attend to children who called out for attention.

At the age of between nine and 13 plus, children did not need to be taken through the questionnaire question by question. As this researcher had estimated, a period of between 15 and 25 minutes was adequate for the exercise. This duration was shorter than school lesson periods, which usually run for between 40 and 45 minutes. For this reason, children were not given even a short break, which could have been detrimental to the study in that children could have discussed the questions and introduce some form of bias. A consistent reassurance that was offered to children was that their answers would not be shown to their teachers. The research assistant explained to them that their completed questionnaires were to be sealed in a large envelope as soon as they were collected. The sealing was indeed done before their eyes at the end of the exercise. The children were also assured that their filled in questionnaires would be destroyed as soon as the research was complete.

The researcher discussed and agreed with the headteachers the desire to administer the questionnaires in the absence of the teachers. Teachers are authoritative figures among children and are held in high regard. It had been speculated that the presence of the teachers could have been intrusive and subsequently intimidate the children; they would not have relaxed or even answered the questions truthfully. For example, Item 22 in the questionnaire read: *"Teachers can sexually abuse school children."* The children were expected to indicate their response with *"True," "False,"* or *"I do not know."* In the presence of a teacher, a child would have feared that the teacher would peek at the child's responses to find out if his or her answer to the item was *"True."* The child would have subsequently feared suffering some punitive consequences from the teacher. To be safe

from such a scenario, the child probably would have opted for the response *"False."*
Such speculated cases would have interfered with the credibility of the data. This
anecdotal factor was explained fully to the headteachers. It was expected that with the
high rate of sexual abuse in schools that have recently been reported in the media, the
headteachers would agree to the proposed arrangement, and they did. If, however, any of
the headteachers had insisted that the teachers be present, the research assistant was
required to ask the teachers to observe the exercise from a distance to avoid intrusion.

3.11   Pre-testing of the Research Instrument

Literature reveals that it takes time to develop and design a good questionnaire. For this
reason, an important requirement in research was that the tool had to be piloted;
researchers generally recommend that data collection tools be pre-tested (Malholta,
2002). Baxter and Babbie (2004, p. 187) lucidly put it this way: "no matter how carefully
you design a data-collection instrument such as a questionnaire, there will always be the
possibility – indeed the certainty – of an error." They further advise that the surest
protection against errors of ambiguous questions or other types of errors is to pre-test the
questionnaire in full or in part. Pre-testing is important for establishing the content
validity of the research instrument as well as improving the questions, format and the
scales used (Creswell, 2009).

As advised above, the proposed questionnaire in this research was piloted. This research
conducted a trial run in which the questionnaire was pre-tested. The purpose of piloting
was twofold: firstly it was aimed at improving the reliability and validity of the research

instrument. Secondly the exercise was aimed at finding out how the questions would be understood and why children would opt for particular answers.

3.11.1: Improving the Reliability and Validity of the Research Instrument

Validity is "the ability of a *measure to measure* what it is supposed to *measure.*" Some factors that affect the reliability of an instrument include item difficulty and the length of the testing instruments (Zikmund, 2003, p. 302). These aspects have already been discussed in detail in section 3.10.

To improve the validity and reliability of the instrument, the researcher gave copies of the draft questionnaire to three experts: a trained Early Childhood Development Education (ECDE) teacher, a retired teacher, and a psychologist. The experts were requested to examine the appropriateness of the questions. This helped to assess the face or content validity of the instrument, which Zikmund (2003) refers to as "the subjective agreement among professionals that the instrument reflects accurately what it is supposed to measure, and whether it covers adequately the concept under study." The minor revisions that were suggested by the experts were incorporated. The examination of the questionnaire by an expert who understands the psychology of children helped to improve its reliability and validity.

The researcher also held qualitative in-depth group discussions regarding the questionnaire with a few parents prior to its administration. Copies of the questionnaire were given to a few parents in the researcher's neighbourhood and at work. Their views regarding the questions and the instructions to the children were sought. Piloting the

questionnaire helped to arrest any pitfalls and possible misinterpretations; for example, the length of the questionnaire was revised, and the clarity of some questions and instructions was improved.

3.11.2: Piloting the Research Instrument among Children

A pre-test sample normally contains between 1% and 10% of the target population depending on the sample size (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). For this study where the sample size (N) was 576, it, therefore, required that the pre-test be conducted on between about 6 [5.76 rounded off to the nearest 10] and 58 (57.6 rounded off to the nearest hundred) children.

During the pre-test, the researcher used a convenient sample of 30 children, 15 girls and 15 boys. In piloting the questionnaire, the children who were chosen were similar to those who participated in the study. Although Baxter and Babbie (2004) explain that it is not usually essential that the pre-test participants constitute a representative sample, the pre-test was representative. During the pre-test it was ensured that all the upper primary school classes were represented. The pre-test, therefore, consisted of 10 children in class six; 10 in class seven; and 10 in class eight. The representation was also matched in numbers and by gender.

The pre-testing period happened to be during the school holidays. The selected children for the pilot survey were visited in their homes. The researcher also arranged with parents at the work place to bring their children to the office. The consent to have them participate was sought from their parents or guardians. The home and office setting were

preferred for the pre-test. This is because it was relaxed, as children were not under any pressure to go back to class for a lesson. They, therefore, gave the exercise their all. The researcher also wanted to spend adequate time discussing the tool with the children in the pre-test group. This could not have been possible in the school setting as it would have inconvenienced the running of the school. In a school setting, the pre-test group of children would not have been allowed adequate time to fill in and discuss the research tool comprehensively.

The researcher administered the questionnaire to those who were granted permission to participate in the trial run study. The participating children were given about 10 minutes to read through the questionnaire and another 15 to 20 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. Afterwards, they were asked to comment on how they found the questionnaire in terms of completeness, clarity, logic, simplicity, readability and the suitability of the questions. General remarks regarding the subject of child sexual abuse were also solicited from these children. All their valid comments, especially on clarity of the questions, were incorporated in the amendment of the questionnaire before it was finally administered in the full survey.

The purpose of piloting the questionnaire on children was to reduce and preferably eliminate any possible barriers and errors from the instrument. As this was done keenly, it was guaranteed that children in the main study would not experience any difficulties in completing it. The piloting helped the researcher to find out whether the wording of the questions was likely to present any difficulties for children, as well as during the analysis. After the pilot exercise, the following questions were asked to the participating children:

1.   How much time did you take to answer all the questions?

2.   Was the questionnaire too long, too short, or the length was okay for you?

3.   Were all the instructions easy to understand?

4.   (a)   Were any questions unclear?

      (b)   If yes, which ones?

      (c)   Why were the questions you have cited unclear?

5.   (a)   Were you uncomfortable answering any of the questions?

      (b)   If yes, which ones?

      (c)   Why were the questions you have cited uncomfortable to answer?

6.   Was the layout of the questionnaire clear? Was it friendly and attractive?

7.   Was the questionnaire useful to you?

8.   Was the questionnaire interesting?

9.   Was the questionnaire embarrassing?

10.   What would you want to be included in this questionnaire that you felt had been left out?

11.   Have you any other comments you would like to make?

 The responses to the above questions enabled the researcher to revise the questionnaire and make it ready for the main survey.

3.12: The Draw and Write Technique

Literature sources indicate that this approach has been used in the health education activities among children. For example, it has been used to gauge the knowledge of children about drugs. The purpose of the draw and write technique in this research was to understand more about the knowledge, perceptions and understanding of children regarding sexual abuse. The short "draw and write" exercise formed Part C of the research tool. Rather than asking the children the straight question, "what is child sexual abuse?" or "what is a bad touch?" the researcher sought children's views on this sensitive subject using a short story as an introduction, followed a number of questions. Two short stories were narrated in the research tool. One story depicted a girl being sexually abused by her Physical Education (PE) teacher. The second story depicted a boy being sexually abused by the housegirl:

Table 3.6: Story 1 included in the research instrument (Source: Author, 2014)

Story 1
After a PE lesson, Baraka, a class six girl was asked to remain behind by the PE teacher, Mr Maumizi. After the other children left, Mr Maumizi reached out and touched one of Baraka's private part.
Draw and write simple sentences explained below. Do not worry about making spelling mistakes.   1. *Draw simple pictures of Baraka and Mr Maumizi.*   2. *Under the picture, write simple sentences about your drawing.*   3. *Which part of Baraka do you think Mr Maumizi touched?*   4. *Write whether this was a good or a bad touch.*   5. *Draw what you think Baraka did after she was touched.*   6. *Write in simple sentences what you think Baraka did after the touch.*

Story 1
7.   What would you have done if you were Baraka? 8.   Which parts of your body are private? 9.   What is a bad touch? 10.   Is a teacher allowed to touch you in a way that feels uncomfortable? 11.   What can a child do if a teacher behaves badly?

Table 3.7: Story 2 included in the research instrument (Source: Author, 2014)

Story 2
Abdi is a class seven pupil. He is an only child. His parents work late. They usually get home from work after 8:00 pm. When Abdi gets home from school, the housegirl asks him to play an adult game. The housegirl touches Abdi's private parts. <u>*Draw and write simple sentences explained below. Do not worry about making spelling mistakes.*</u> 1.   *Draw simple pictures of Abdi and the housegirl.* 2.   *Under the picture, write simple sentences about your drawing.* 3.   *Which part of Abdi do you think the housegirl touches?* 4.   *Write whether this is a good or a bad touch.* 5.   *This was a _____ touch.* 6.   *What would you do if you were Abdi?* 7.   *Is Abdi safe with the housegirl?*

The main purpose of the draw and write technique was to find out children's knowledge, perceptions and understanding about child sexual abuse. This technique assisted the researcher to discover understanding of child sexual abuse by young children; their understanding of private parts; the touches that they would consider "bad"; their understanding of the possible actions they could take in a potentially abusive situation; and what they could do if a case of sexual abuse, however slight, occurred.

The draw and write technique enabled the researcher to gather qualitative data from children in relation to sexual abuse. Literature sources cite that a major advantage of this approach to data collection is that it utilises an enjoyable method, which is familiar to children. Other advantages have been cited of using the draw and write technique among children. The advantages include: the method provides the children with the opportunity to tell as much as they want to tell about the subject under study; it is easy to administer; it is simple and enjoyable for children as drawing and writing, or writing accompanied by a drawing, is a day-to-day activity in every primary school; and when the questions are carefully designed, they can obtain a wide range of informative responses. The only major drawback is that children may get so much interested in perfecting their drawings and spend more time in the activity than in answering the questions.

3.13: Data Collection

3.13.1: The Process of Making Contacts

The headteachers from the targeted schools were contacted in person. The researcher made what Saunders et al. (2009) refer to as a pre-survey contact. The researcher, and in some cases the research assistant held explanatory meetings with the headteachers of the purposively selected schools and briefed each one of them about the research. Appointments were booked to see them. Each headteacher was also provided with a copy of the introductory letter and the children's questionnaire beforehand (*see Appendices 1 and 2*). Follow-ups were done via cell phone. As discussed later in section 3.15, the researcher needed the consent of the headteachers in order to administer the children with the questionnaire. Once the headteachers gave their consent, the researcher booked the

appointment for the research assistant, who had been trained by this researcher ahead of the survey.

Creswell (2009) states that a survey can be either cross-sectional or be longitudinal. He explains that in a cross-sectional survey, data are collected at one point in time whereas in a longitudinal survey, data are collected over time. This study was a cross-sectional survey. The data were collected during school days. This was done during the times the headteachers indicated as appropriate. The researcher had planned to collect the data early in the term before intensive teaching began. Towards the end of the term would not have been appropriate, as the teachers would have been trying to cover the syllabus in preparation for the end-of-term examinations. Due to logistical reasons, the researcher contacted the schools in the month of March 2011, which was about mid-term and was accorded all the support she needed.

In every purposively selected school, the sampled children were administered with the questionnaire at the same time. The research assistant gave the children 20 to 25 minutes to read through and fill in the questionnaire as he monitored and took any queries that the children had. The research assistant did not allow the children to be left with or discuss the questionnaire. If children would have been left with the tool, the chances were that the children could have discussed it before filling in, to probably "agree on some answers!" Some would even have wanted to carry the questionnaire home and discuss it with their parents and their siblings. If this were to happen, it would have introduced some form of bias.

3.13.2: Type of Data Required for the Study

This study used primary data, which refer to information that is collected from the field, specifically from a sampled population (Roberts et. al, 2003). The data required to determine the information needs of primary school children regarding child sex abuse was mainly quantitative. However, the few open-ended questions and those under the draw and write technique helped to collect qualitative data. Whereas quantitative data is measurable, qualitative data is not (Zikmund, 2003). The data that were collected mainly focused on the beliefs, opinions, and knowledge and awareness on child sex abuse. A combination of the quantitative and qualitative data strengthened the quality of the research. The qualitative questions in the children's questionnaire provided clues to the degree of information needs and levels of the sampled children in the research population.

3.13.3: Data Interpretation

Data analysis is the process of categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising data in order to obtain answers to the research questions. During data analysis there are several procedures and processes that are performed to summarise and make sense of the data. They include editing, coding, data entry (keyboarding), analysis and interpretation (Kothari, 2003; Zikmud, 2003). Data analysis reduces data into logical, intelligible, observational and interpretable forms that are then used to explain the patterns that have been observed. Peter (1994) identifies five steps in data analysis namely editing, coding, tabulating, interpreting and presenting.

As mentioned earlier, the data that were collected from this survey were primarily quantitative. The open-ended questions included in the questionnaire elicited qualitative data. Analysis of all the data collected provided the statistics that were needed to explain the expected findings, and answer the research questions.

After the data were collected from the sampled school children, all the questionnaires were edited for consistency, sense, accuracy and completeness. This scrutinizing process enabled the researcher to establish the questionnaires that were usable and those that were not. Any questionnaires that were found with major response faults or inaccuracies such as omissions and replicated answers were discarded (Peter, 1994; Zikmund, 2003). Subsequently, the various responses were assigned codes and were analysed accordingly, both manually and by computer software, mainly Microsoft Excel. The computer software helped to process summations and percentages with ease. Microsoft Excel was also be used to generate cross tabulations, frequency tables, pie charts and bar graphs.

The data were then interpreted and explained in accordance with other findings that have been made on the subject of child sexual abuse. Details of the analysis are presented in chapter 4. The findings were also explained according to the literature that the researcher encountered on this subject as discussed in chapter 2. The detailed discussion, conclusion and recommendations are presented in chapter 5.

The responses to the qualitative questions were also analysed by themes and described accordingly in order to establish the information needs and knowledge levels of the sampled population regarding the subject under study. The interpreted data was

subsequently used to make recommendations on the concepts that should be included in the school-based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Programme for the target population.

3.13.4: Generalising the Findings

As stated under the specific objectives, the purpose of this study was to assess the information needs of school children in upper primary regarding the subject of child sexual abuse, with a view to conceptualising and designing a prevention awareness program. The data that were collected from the sample population have been generalised to the entire population of children in upper primary school in Kenya.

3.14: Some Practical and Ethical Considerations for Surveying Children

An important aspect of all research with human subjects is to understand the sample being investigated very well before carrying out research. This is particularly relevant where the members of the population, for example, children are regarded as among the vulnerable groups. This section presents the considerations for undertaking a survey with primary school children. The information is based upon the literature reviewed regarding the experience of other researchers.

There is no doubt that surveying primary school children aged nine and 13 plus years raises important ethical issues. These had to be taken into consideration by the researcher. Young persons aged below 18 years are considered minors. For this reason, research cannot be conducted on them without the express permission of their parents, guardians or custodians. During the pre-testing stage, permission was sought from their parents or their guardians. During the full survey, their consent was sought through the headteachers

of the respective schools. The researcher also had to find out from the school heads whether it was necessary to seek and obtain parental/guardian consent from all participating children.

As indicated earlier, the headteachers of the target schools were contacted individually. This was done by writing to each school principal with a follow-up phone call made later in order to explain more fully the nature of the research, and the planned procedure for undertaking it within the school. It was at this point that a formal direct request was made to the school for their participation in the study. A copy of the letter that was sent to the headteachers is presented in *Appendix 1*.

In some schools, it had been expected that the headteacher's consent would not be final. The researcher had expected that she would be required to seek the consent of the parents or guardians of the children to be surveyed. Seeking this consent would, therefore, have been paramount to the success of the research. If this had been required by the headteachers, the researcher would have followed the method that the headteachers would have recommended for seeking this consent. This would have probably involved writing to the parents of the children selected in the sample. However, the headteachers in all the selected schools gave express consent.

The consent from the headteachers did not guarantee that the children would be willing to participate in the survey. For this reason, the researcher also sought the consent of each of the participating child. The researcher considered whether the questions to be asked could have upset the children. As mentioned earlier, it is reasonable to speculate that some of

the children consisting the sample could have experienced sexual abuse in the past. Others could have been experiencing sexual abuse at the time of the study. For this reason, they would not been comfortable answering the questions.

Child sexual abuse is a sensitive subject. Discussing it has always been treated with shame and secrecy. For this reason, the researcher trained the research assistant on how to brief and debrief the children on the subject before and after the filling in the questionnaires. The technique of briefing the subjects was borrowed from Ratlhagane (2002), who briefed the subjects in a survey that was investigating the opinions of educators on child sexual abuse. Ratlhagane, however, did not debrief the study subjects. In this study, it was important for the researcher to explain the purpose of the research to the children.

The research assistant was required to explain to the children what was being asked of them. He then obtained the children's agreement to participate in the survey before administering the questionnaire. Literature reveals that there are two conditions related to consent from the participant, and both must be fulfilled: consent must be voluntary and informed. The consent of children was obtained verbally; that is, those who did not wish to participate in the survey were asked to exclude themselves before it started. The research assistant also asked those participating to use a pre-arranged signal; they were to raise the left hand if they found that they were unwilling to proceed at some point. Even as those who had given their consent began to answer the questionnaire, the research assistant had to be alert to indications of any children who were unwilling to proceed.

It was the research assistant's responsibility to ensure, that children participating in the survey understood these issues. These were articulated in a simple language, and in a way, that they understood. The issues included the aims of the research, the extent, and the duration of the participation requested. They were told the uses that will be made of the research findings, where the data were to be held and who had access to it. However, researchers indicate that this is a particularly challenging aspect of surveying children as the subjects do not always fully understand confidentiality, which then calls into question their responses to survey questions. Children were given the opportunity to withdraw from the exercise at any time. All information about the nature of the survey and its purpose was given to the children in a language that they understood. For record, no single child from any of the samples selected from all the schools chose to withdraw from the research.

During the briefing session, children were also informed about the importance of this research. The importance of confidentiality was also explained to them. They were also assured of this as part of their participation in the survey. The researcher had to respect the rights and dignity of children participating in the survey. This was also given as an assurance. The aim of the research, which was to empower them so that they are able to protect themselves from potential perpetrators of child abuse, was emphasised. During this session children were also encouraged to give their honest answers to the questions to enable the researcher to correctly gauge their knowledge and thoughts about child sexual abuse. The children were also assured that their responses to the questions would not be

revealed to anyone else. This assurance had been stated in the introductory paragraph in the research instrument.

During the debriefing session, the children's participation in the study was appreciated. The children were assured that the information they had given in the questionnaire would be used to prepare an information resource material that would aim to help them distinguish and avoid unsafe situations. The children were assured that the information materials would be availed to them once they were ready.

3.15: Permissions Obtained

The following permissions were required to carry out this study and were sought accordingly:

(i)   The researcher needed documentation to authenticate that she was indeed a doctorate candidate carrying out research in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctorate of Philosophy in Information Sciences. A letter of identity was subsequently obtained from the Coordinator at the School of Information Sciences, Moi University.

(ii)   As indicated earlier, during the pre-testing of the questionnaire, children were visited in their own homes and others were brought to the office. The permission to administer children with the questionnaire during the pre-test was sought from their parents and guardians. Those that were granted permission were then issued with the research tool.

(iii) Permission to administer the full survey in the respective schools was sought from the headteachers, who were contacted via phone and in person. This has been explained in section 3.13.

(iv) In the case of public schools, headteachers do not have the mandate to allow research studies to be carried out. A research permit to carry out study in any public school must be sought from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovations (NACOSTI), formerly known as the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST). A copy of this research permit had to be deposited at the Provincial Commissioner's offices and also at the office of the Provincial Director of Education for approval. Research authority from these sources was sought at a fee. This had been budgeted for.

3.16: The Research Outcome

This research was action-oriented or applied type of research. It applied the advocacy worldview in which the research contains an action agenda that is intended to bring change to or empower the study subjects (Creswell, 2009). The outcomes of this research include the following:

1. The findings on the information needs of children in upper primary on the subject of child sexual abuse.

2. The findings on the knowledge levels of children in upper primary on the subject of child sexual abuse.

3. A recommended school-based child sexual abuse awareness and prevention program that consists of the following:

√   An information provision model for school children in upper primary outlining the core concepts children at this level should be sensitised in the subject of child sexual abuse.

√   The proposed knowledge areas that should be included in the program in order to develop children's capacity to resist child sexual abuse.

3.17: Chapter Summary

This chapter has given the details of research methodology, describing the various procedures that were followed in conducting the study in order to achieve the earlier-stated objectives and answer the research questions. The particulars that have been given are those of the research design, the research population, the samples selected, the sampling methods and procedures applied, the ethical considerations involved, the type of data that were collected, the data collection process and tools, the pre-testing process, the data analysis plan that was followed, and the permissions that were obtained. The research outcome of this study has also been pointed out.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTEPRETATION

4.1:   Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses and interprets the data that were collected from the sample population of 576 children drawn from 16 purposively selected schools in Nairobi. The analysis was done both manually as well as with Microsoft Excel. The data are presented in frequencies and percentages using tables, charts and bar graphs. The interpretation of the data has been done in line with the objectives of the study and the research questions that were stated in Chapter 1.

It is important to note that due to the sensitivity of the subject of this research, any frequencies collected, however small they appeared especially when expressed in percentages, were taken to be significant. For example, even if only a single child indicated that he or she would not disclose about a sexual abuse incident, this frequency was taken with the seriousness it deserved. This is because child sexual abuse can affect the life of a child indefinitely.

4.2:   The Schools that Participated in the Study

The aim of this study was to assess the information needs of school children in upper primary in Nairobi County, regarding the subject of child sexual abuse with a view to conceptualising a child sexual abuse information provision model for the target population. The population consisted of children in classes six to eight in 16 purposively selected urban primary schools in Nairobi County. The schools were selected from the 8

constituencies in Nairobi. From each constituency, two schools: a private and a public school were selected. The schools selected are presented in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1: The purposively selected schools for this study (Source: Author)

Constituency	*Schools Selected*	
	Public school	*Private school*
Dagoretti	Gatina Primary School	Light Christian Education Center
Embakasi	Embakasi Primary School	Mwanicos Academy
Kamukunji	Muthurwa Primary School	Kabiro Primary School
Kasarani	Kasarani Primary School	Faith Christian Church Academy
Lang'ata	Khalsa Primary School	First Step Academy
Makadara	St Catherine Primary School	Pumwani Child Survival Education Center
Starehe	Race Course Primary School	Holy Family Basilica Catholic Parochial School
Westlands	Kangemi Primary School	Upendo Academy

The 16 schools were purposively selected due to their accessibility to the researcher. This was crucial considering the time frame within which the study was to be conducted. The trained research assistant also had contacts in the schools and was able to easily get permission to administer the questionnaire.

In this chapter, the overall findings based on the quantitative and qualitative data collected are systematically reported, discussed, and interpreted. The interpretations and discussions are linked to the four objectives and the eight research questions that were stated in Chapter 1. The discussion also provides the linkage of the study to the conceptual framework, in which case the current findings are compared to the literature

that was reviewed. It is to be noted that several independent theories informed this study, each one of them fitting into an element of this study. The applicable theories as discussed in Chapter 2 included:

(i)   The agenda-setting theory (creating awareness)

(ii)   The social marketing theory (promoting socially valuable information)

(iii)   The social learning theory (adapting information on social safety skills)

(iv)   The Protection Motivation Theory (adapting the promoted preventative messages)

(v)   The Health Belief Model (believing that safety information messages promote one's health and well-being)

4.3:   The Population of Study

The population of this study was specified and comprised children in upper primary drawn from mixed public and private primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. A sample of 16 schools were purposively selected; eight (8) were private and eight (8) were public. According to the 2014 *Taskforce Report for the Education Sector of Nairobi City County*, the primary school-going population was estimated to be 493,586 in 2012. Out of this number only about 193, 053 children are enrolled in the 205 public primary schools in Nairobi County. The estimated number of pupils in private primary schools in Nairobi, therefore, translates to about 300,533 (Nairobi City County, 2014).

A total sample of 576 children for this study were drawn from 16 purposively selected mixed primary schools in Nairobi County as presented in Table 4.2. The schools included 8 private and 8 public schools. This selected population resulted from combining

stratified, systematic, and simple random sampling procedures as explained in Chapter 3.

Table 4.2 shows the actual samples that were taken.

Table 4.2: Samples taken (N=569; Source: Field Data)

Constituency	*Schools Selected*	*Sample taken*
Dagoretti	Mwanicos Academy	36 (18 boys and 18 girls)
	Gatina Primary School	,,
Starehe	Holy Family Basilica Catholic Parochial School	,,
	Race Course Primary School	,,
Kasarani	Kasarani Primary School	,,
	Faith Christian Church Academy	,,
Embakasi	Embakasi Primary School	,,
	Upendo Academy	,,
Makadara	St Catherine Primary School	,,
	Kabiro Primary School	,,
Westlands	Kangemi Primary School	,,
	Light Christian Education Center	,,
Kamukunji	Muthurwa Primary School	,,
	Pumwani Child Survival Education Center	,,
Lang'ata	Khalsa Primary School	,,
	First Step Academy	,,

4.4: The Response Rate

All the 576 questionnaires that were administered were returned back. This overwhelming 100% response rate is attributed to the fact that the administration of the questionnaire employed the procedure that is used in administering examinations in primary schools. The research assistant collected all the administered questionnaires before granting the pupils permission to leave the room.

Out of the 576, those that were useful after the editing process were 569. In this study, therefore, N=569. The remaining 7 were considered spoilt and were, therefore, rendered useless and discarded. Some of them had questions left blank and others had more answers marked for the questions that required a single answer. In part C of some of the discarded questionnaires, the answers given were incomprehensible. The logical conclusion of the researcher was that the children who responded to these spoilt questionnaires lacked basic reading and writing skills. The precise response rate, therefore, translates to 98.7%.

The above response rate was higher than expected by about 23.7%. This researcher had anticipated that the response rate after the editing process would be about 75%. This researcher had estimated that the usable questionnaires would be about 432, which represents about 75%. The 90 plus% response rate was, considered excellent for analysis. Baxter and Babbie (2004, p. 190) essentially regard this as an *extremely high response* rate. Commenting generally on response rate, the two authors "feel that a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting; … 60% is good … and 70% is very good". The authors, however, caution that the above are just rough guides, as they have no

statistical basis. They add that a demonstrated lack of bias in a sample is far more important than a high response rate.

4.5: Response by Gender

The first three items in the questionnaire were intended to survey the children's demographics. The study had deliberately purposed to balance the gender. During the survey, the number of boys and girls were represented equally. It, therefore, means that 288 girls and 288 boys were administered with the questionnaire. Out of the 569 usable questionnaires, 288 were from girls and 281 were from boys. The respective percentages are 50.6% and 49.4%. The responses are summarized by gender in Figure 4.1.
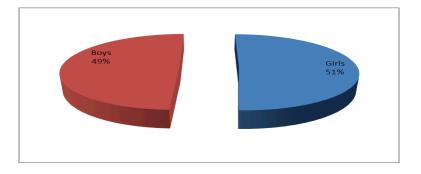
Figure 4.6: Response rate by gender (N=569) (Source: Field data)

The interpretation of the above data, therefore, means that all the discarded questionnaires were from boys. The slight difference can be attributed to the fact psychologists explain that girls do well in writing and speaking than boys. Scientific literature with studies over the past 40 years documents that girls have superior language skills than boys. Developmental growth differences have been attributed to this variance. Females excel at verbal and language skills including reading and writing, which were

the basic skills required in answering the questionnaire that was administered in this study (Schickedanz, et al., 2001).

4.6: Demographics: Characteristics of the Respondents

4.6.1: Distribution of the Respondents by Age

The majority of the sampled children were aged between 11 and 13 plus years. Only 18 pupils (4.2%) were aged 10 and below. The interpretation of this research was that the 18 who were aged 10 and below must have started school at an early age of three. In the Kenyan 8-4-4 system, this is rare as children normally attend baby class at age three, nursery at age four and pre-unit at age 5. They then join class one at age six. The distribution of the respondents by age is illustrated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Distribution by age of the respondents (N=569; Source: Field Data)

Age of the Pupils	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 10 years	1	0.18
10 years	17	2.99
11 years	87	15.29
12 years	117	20.56
13 years	170	29.88
13 plus years	177	31.11

(Source: Field data)

The 177 (31.1%) respondents who indicated that they were aged above 13 years must have either started school late or had repeated a class or two in their lower and mid primary level. The normal average age of children in classes six to eight is between 11 and 13.

4.6.2: Distribution of the Respondents by Class

About one-third of the usable questionnaires were from children in class six. The data showed that out of the total respondents, those who were in class six were 190 (33.4%), those in class seven were 196 (34.4%) and those who were in class eight were 183 (32.2%). The distribution of the respondents by class is shown in Figure 4.2:
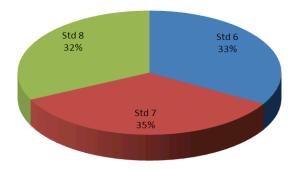
Figure 4.7: Distribution of respondents by classes (N=569) (Source: Field data)

4.7:   Analysis and Interpretation of Findings alongside the Research Objectives and the Research Questions

In assessing the knowledge levels of the subject of child sexual abuse, a questionnaire consisting of a total of 65 items was administered to the sampled children. The questionnaire consisted of three parts: Part A had 14 questions, Part B had 35 questions and Part C had two stories with a total of 16 questions. The questions were geared towards answering the following research objectives that were stated earlier in Chapter 1:

1.   To establish the extent to which school children in upper primary have access to information on prevention of child sexual abuse.

2.   To determine the information, knowledge and skills that children require in order to prevent the occurrence of sexual abuse.

3. To establish the problems experienced by school children in accessing information on child sexual abuse.

4. To conceptualise a suitable preventative child sexual abuse information-provision model for school children in upper primary.

For ease of interpretation and discussion, the responses to the questions have been collapsed into compartmentalized items and will be discussed under several headings.

4.8: Are Children Safe in the Home Environment?

Question four was intended to establish the family members that the children in the survey lived with. The majority of the surveyed children, 339 (59.6%) indicated that they were living with both their parents. Only a negligible number were living with stepparents; about five children (0.9%) were living with the stepfather and six children (1.1%) with the stepmother. The responses were as tabulated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Responses to Item 4: Whom do you live with? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Family member living with the sampled children	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Father	30	5.27
Mother	124	21.79
Both parents	339	59.58
Guardian	62	10.90
Step father	5	0.88
Step mother	6	1.05
Other	12	2.11

About 12 children (2.1%) indicated that they lived with other people. Most of them named the people by their names, for example, John, Ann and David. The interpretation of this research is that these people could be househelps or relatives such as cousins, nephews, and nieces.

It is important to note that although most of the children are living in a supposedly safe environment with their parents, siblings and relatives, literature reveals that most cases of child sexual abuse are committed by people known to the child, including parents, siblings, step-parents and other relatives (APA, 2001). This means that the very people who have been entrusted with the safety of children are the same ones who are perpetrators of this vice.
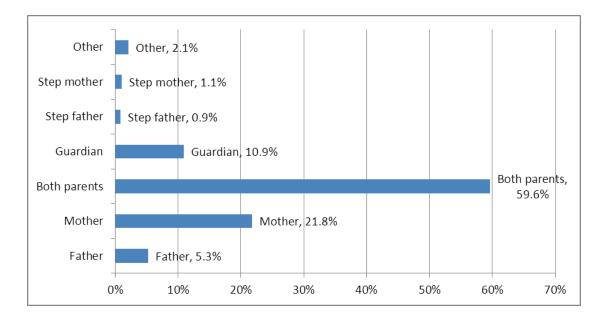
Figure 4.3: The majority of the children were living with both parents (N=569) (Source: Field data)

4.9: **Knowledge of Child Sexual Abuse**

The first objective that this research pursued was to establish the extent to which school children in upper primary have access to information on the prevention of child sexual abuse. It was, therefore, crucial to find out whether the sampled children knew what it meant to be sexually abused. Item 4 in Part A of the questionnaire was intended to do this. The respondents were required to indicate whether they knew what it means to be sexually abused. The statement was a leading question and the children were to state, "Yes," or "No."

Analysis of the data indicated that the sample was wholly characterised by children who indicated they knew what it meant to be sexually abused. A high percentage of 94.56% indicated "yes." This means that they knew what it means to be sexually abused.

These statistics seem a positive indicator of the children's knowledge levels of the subject of this research. However, this may not be the accurate status. Literature and past studies on this subject may contest this finding. The definition of child sexual abuse is broad and children may not understand that child sexual abuse is both a physical act and a psychological experience (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008). The authors underscore the importance of explaining to children all the aspects of child sexual abuse, including touch and non-touch forms. In the CSA awareness program conceptualised in this research, it is recommended that these details should be explained to the child.

Another objective that this study sought to achieve was to establish how children accessed information on child sexual abuse. In Item 6, which was a follow up of item 5,

this research anticipated to achieve this objective. The item was intended to find out how children had learnt about child sexual abuse. The majority of the respondents, 386 (67.8%) indicated that they learnt from their teachers. Notably, Kenya's 8-4-4 system of education has no provision for a formal school-based child sexual abuse program (Kenya Institute of Education [KIE], 2002a–f; KIE, 2008). The curricula developer, the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD), formerly the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE), however requires that book publishers incorporate emerging issues in the content of the course books developed for the syllabus. Child sexual abuse is regarded as an important emerging issue among others, including drug and substance abuse and premarital sex. Upon inclusion of these issues in the course books, teachers are subsequently required to mention the issues to pupils during the teaching and learning activities.

This research finds the lack of a comprehensive school-based child sexual abuse program a major omission in the education system. The mentioning of this important emerging issue is an inadequate provision as it leaves the issue at the discretion of the publishers and the teachers, who may choose to leave it out as it is not part of the examinable content in the syllabus.

The children who had learnt about child sexual abuse from their home were about 16.2%. A notable frequency of 12 pupils representing 2% indicated that no one had ever told them about child sexual abuse. These findings were not surprising considering that parents find this a sensitive and scary subject to discuss with children; oftentimes, it is

treated with shame and secrecy (Ratlhagane, 2002; Royse, 2007). Figure 4.4 illustrates the responses to this item.
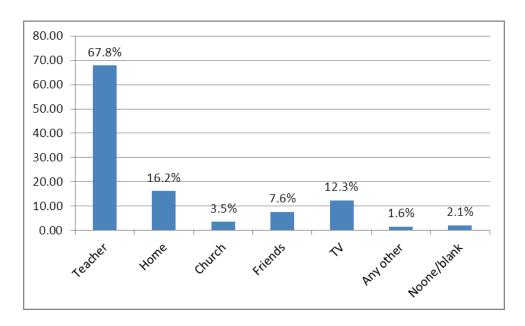
Figure 4.4: The majority of the children, 386, (67.8%) indicated that they had learnt what it meant to be sexually abused from their teachers (N=569). (Source: Field data)

Item 7 was a follow-up to item 6. It sought to find out whether the subject of child sexual abuse is ever discussed at home. In view of what many researchers have found out, this researcher did not expect high levels of positive response to this item. As expected, the results indicated that the subject is rarely discussed in homes. Table 4.5 illustrates the findings to this item. This finding corroborates the findings of other researches that this subject is regarded a taboo, and is, therefore, significantly underreported, or even discussed in the home setting (Terry and Talon, 2004).

Table 4.5: Response to Item 6: If you learnt about child sexual abuse at home, who told you about it? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Likely source of information on CSA	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Father	58	10.19
Mother	171	30.05
Both parents	169	29.70
Guardian	90	15.82
Stepfather	13	2.28
Stepmother	16	2.81
Any other	68	11.95
No one/blank	89	15.64

Notably, slightly under a third of the respondents, 169 (30%) indicated that the mother was the source of information. Step-parents were rated the least possible source of information by only about 5% of the respondents.

Extensive study affirms that the occurrence of child sexual abuse is much more frequent than it is assumed (Bagley, 1990; Faulkner, 1996). Studies also indicate that most of the cases that are reported represent only about 10% of the cases that occur daily (Siringi, 2009). In relation to this, item 8 sought to find out if the sampled children knew of a child who had been sexually abused. About 58.5% said "yes" while 41.1% said "no." The percentage of those who knew of a child who had been sexually abused is deemed significantly high. Going by the frequent reports received from the media, as well as the low rates of disclosure reported in various studies (Terry and Tallon, 2004), the interpretation of this research is that the cases of child sexual abuse are higher in the environment of the surveyed children than it could have been assumed.

Item 9 was a follow up to item 8. The respondents who indicated that they knew of a child who had been sexually abused were expected to state the sex of the victim child. The results were as tabulated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Identity of the children who had been sexually abused (N=569; Source: Field data)

Identity of the child who was sexually abused	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Boy	56	9.84
Girl	286	50.26
Me	14	2.46
Don't know	234	41.12

Notably, half of the identified 286 cases (50.3%) involved the sexual abuse of girls. This finding agrees with research findings that indicate that most children who fall victim of sexual abuse are girls. Indicating that current figures may be underestimates, Gilgun and Sharma (2008) indicate that worldwide, at least 20% of all girls and about 10% of all boys are sexually abused. The authors explain that these figures may be underestimations because many children do not tell about being sexually abused.

Other studies also indicate that one out of every four female children, and one out of every ten male children will experience inappropriate sexual contact before they attain the age of 18 (Centre for Early Education and Development [CEED], 1989; Finkelhor, 1996). Other studies show that a range of about seven per 1000 girls and about two per 1000 boys are sexually abused every year (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008). The authors note that internationally, several studies report an average prevalence rate of 20% for females and 5−10% for males. The rates may, however, vary by country.

It is also, however, notable that children also knew of about 56 boys who had been sexually abused. A notable number of 14 children indicated that they were themselves victims of child sexual abuse. This reported number was encouraging considering that victims of child sexual abuse fear to tell that they have been sexually abused (Gilgun & Sharma, 2008; Terry and Tallon, 2004; Wurtele, 1987).

Most of the child sexual abuse incidents are committed by people known to the child, including teachers, parents, stepparents, siblings, stepsiblings, babysitters and other relatives. Indeed, sexual abuse by strangers is not nearly as common as sexual abuse by family members (APA, 2001; CEED, 1989). For this reason, it was crucial in this study to find out the people that children thought could sexually abuse children. This was the intention of Item 10. The item required children to tick the people they thought could be perpetrators of child sexual abuse. The children had been asked to tick more than one answer. The frequencies, sorted from the largest to the smallest, are as tabulated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Identity of the people the respondents thought could sexually abuse children (N=569; Source: Field data)

Identity of the person children thought could be a perpetrator of child sexual abuse	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Father	234	41.12
Stepfather	211	37.08
Teacher	155	27.24
Guardian	130	22.85
Stepmother	88	15.47
Any other	72	12.65

Identity of the person children thought could be a perpetrator of child sexual abuse	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Both parents	68	11.95
Mother	62	10.9
Blank	38	6.68
No one	16	2.81

Conspicuously, father and stepfather had the highest frequencies notably 234 (41.12%) and 211 (37.08%) respectively. These were followed by teacher and guardian with frequencies of 155 (27.24%), and 130 (22.85%) respectively. It is also to be noted that mothers were also indicated as probable perpetrators of child sexual abuse with a frequency of 62 (10.9%). The results corroborate past studies that indicate that men are the most common perpetrators of child sexual abuse though there are cases in which women are the offenders (APA, 2001).

Notably, about 38 (6.68%) children did not give any response; they left the item blank. Another 16 (2.81%) children indicated that no-one among the listed persons could sexually abuse them. This finding was not unexpected. Studies indicate that children would have great difficulty in accepting the idea that adults can sexually abuse them, and more so the people they trust and have great respect for (Terry & Tallon, 2004). This ignorance and innocence among children makes a case for imparting children with skills and knowledge that they can apply to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse, as well as raise their cognitive levels so that they become sceptical if an adult, stranger or otherwise tries to touch them in an inappropriate way.

Disclosure of sexual abuse is an important aspect in sensitising children about this vice. Literature reveals that most of the cases usually go unreported. Empirical studies on disclosure of child sexual abuse indicate that most child victims delay disclosure; a significant number of children do not disclose at all. The studies acknowledge that the cases that are reported represent only a fraction of the offences that are committed. Indeed, the study mentioned in chapter 1 that was conducted by the Kenya's Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) indicated that about 12,660 cases of child sexual abuse in schools that had been reported between 2003 and 2007 represented only about 10% of the cases that had occurred during the period (Siringi, 2009). It was, therefore, crucial to find out whether children would disclose about child sexual abuse if they fell victim of the vice. This is what item 11 intended to find out. Table 4.8 shows the analysis by frequency.

Table 4.8: People children identified as possible confidants (N=569; Source: Field data)

Identity of the person children could tell if they were to fall victim of child sexual abuse	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Tell mother	420	73.81
Tell teacher	282	49.56
Tell father	264	43.4
Tell guardian	171	30.05
Tell sister	87	15.29
Tell brother	68	11.95
Tell friends	39	6.85
Tell police	16	2.81
Tell the housegirl	10	1.76

Identity of the person children could tell if they were to fall victim of child sexual abuse	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Not tell	7	1.23
I don't know	6	1.05
Any other	6	1.05

In this item, children were free to tick more than one item. The frequencies have been sorted from the largest to the smallest. Notably a high number of children (73.81%) indicated that they would tell their mother, followed by telling their teacher (49.56%), and then their father (43.4%). A significant number of children (7) indicated that they would not tell about it. Another six (6) children (1.05%) indicated they did not know what they would do if they were sexually abused.

As the results reveal, about 13 (2.28%) children did not give encouraging responses. About seven (7) indicated that they would not tell at all; another six (6) indicated they did not know what they would do. Although generally the results of this item were encouraging as the frequencies indicate, the frequency of 13 who would choose not to tell, or did not know what to do is considered significant. Their response could be related to the fact that child sexual abuse is a subject that is surrounded by silence, stigma and myths implying that children need instruction and information about child sexual abuse (Gilgun & Sharma, 2008). These two authors state that children who receive little or no education and information from adults about child sexual abuse are at a higher risk to remain silent than those who are well-informed about the subject.

As one of the objectives of this study was to assess the knowledge levels of children on the subject of sexual abuse, it was essential to establish who provided them with information about sex. In item 12, children were expected to tick more than one answer. The frequencies were as tabulated in Table 4.9. The frequencies have been sorted in descending order.

Table 4.9: People children identified as their source of information about sex (N=569; Source: Field data)

Identity of the person children indicated provided them with information about sex	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Teachers	349	61.33
Parents	250	43.94
Friends	150	26.36
Older sisters	81	14.24
Older brothers	68	12
Neighbours	58	10.19
Aunt	57	10.02
Cousins	48	8.44
Uncles	32	5.62
Any other	29	5.1
No one/blank	11	1.93

Teachers, as the source of information about sex, were scored the highest by 349 children (61.33%); they were followed by parents (43.94%) and friends (26.36%). About 11 children indicated that no one provided them with information about sex. A major concern of this study was whether anyone was telling children about child sexual abuse. As the results reveal, teachers were the greatest source of information on this sensitive subject. However, it is to be noted that teachers, who have been entrusted to care for and

protect children against this vice sometimes abuse the trust and become the perpetrators of this heinous act as documented in the Kenya's TSC report (Siringi, 2009). This scenario makes a case for creating awareness among children and empowering them with knowledge and skills that they may employ to resist abuse from potential perpetrators, including family members, friends, older siblings, relatives, as well as authoritative figures such as teachers, fathers, stepfathers and religious leaders.

It is to be noted that in an earlier item (11), about 7 children indicated that they would not tell at all if they were sexually abused. Item 13 specifically sought to find out if children would choose to tell or not if someone sexually abused them. The subsequent item (14) was a follow-up to the children's responses. It sought to find out if the child chose to tell someone about an attack, how does the child think the confidant would react. The results of these two related items were as tabulated in Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.10: Disclosure levels of children if they were sexually abused (N=569; Source: Field data)

Level of disclosure among children about sexual abuse incidents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	525	92.3
No	27	4.8
Don't want say	18	3.2
Any other	4	0.7

Table 4.11: How children thought the confidant would react upon disclosure (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's perception of how a confidant would react if the child reported about a sexual abuse attack	Frequency	Percentage (%)
I would be helped	323	56.77
I would be believed	118	20.74
I would not be believed	103	18.10
I would keep it a secret	19	3.34
Nothing happens	12	2.11
Left blank	2	0.35

The majority of the children, 525 (92.3%) indicated that they would disclose about the incident. This result of 92.3% was encouraging. However, the frequency of 27, 18 and 4 totalling to 49 children whose response indicated otherwise is significant; about 27 indicated they would not disclose; about 18 indicated they did not want to say; and 4 others gave other responses such as "I don't know". As mentioned earlier, any statistic in this research, however, small is deemed important. Children must be encouraged to disclose about a sexual attack because non-disclosure could lead to recurrence of similar attacks (Terry and Tallon, 2004).

Some studies speculate that children fear to disclose sexual assault if they suspect that they will not receive a supportive reaction. Children also fear retaliatory actions from the perpetrator (Berlinger and Babieri, 1984). In this study, a significant frequency of 103 children indicated that if they were to report a sexual attack incident, they would not be

believed. Another 12 indicated that nothing would happen upon reporting. Terry and
Tallon (2004) are of the opinion that children must be encouraged to keep telling about
sexual abuse until someone believes them and assures them that all will be well.

4.10: Interpretation of Part B of the Questionnaire

Part B of the questionnaire comprised 35 items. The items were numbered 15 to 49. The
children were required to respond to the items by ticking the answer they thought was
appropriate. The optional responses were: "*True*," "*False*," or "*I do not know*." The
knowledge-seeking statements in the listed items were intended to further assess the
knowledge levels of children on child sexual abuse.

Item 15 sought to find out whether the respondents thought that all children were at risk
of being sexually abused. Their responses were as shown in table 4.12.

*Table 4.12: (Item 15: Knowledge-seeking statement: All children are at risk of being
sexually abused.) (N=569; Source: Field data)*

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
True	390	68.54
False	141	24.78
Don't know	34	5.98
Blank	1	0.18

Although the majority of the children (68.5%) stated that all children were at risk of
being sexually abused, a significant combined percentage of about 31% stated otherwise.
Of this 31%, about a quarter (24.8%) thought the statement was false; and about 6%

indicated that they did not know whether the statement was correct. Literature reveals that all children are at risk of being sexually abused (CEED, 2004; APA, 2001; Faulkner, 1996; Tulir, 2007). It is, therefore, important to sensitise children to be on the alert as they could easily fall prey to perpetrators of this heinous act.

This research also wanted to find out the opinion of the children regarding the gender of children that is most vulnerable to child sexual abuse. Items 16 and 17 were intended to seek this information. The results were as shown in Tables 4.13 and 4.14.

Table 4.13: (Item 16: Knowledge-seeking statement: Most children who are sexually abused are girls.) (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage
True	353	62.03
False	186	32.69
Don't know	27	4.75
Blank	1	0.18

Table 4.14: Item 17: Knowledge-seeking statement: Most children who are sexually abused are boys.) (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
True	63	11.07
False	437	76.80
Don't know	63	11.07
Blank	2	0.35

The most commonly held opinion in society is that girls are more vulnerable to sexual abuse than boys. This was also the case in this study. A total of 62% indicated that most children who are sexually abused are girls. Only about 11% thought that most children

who are abused are boys. A related item that sought to clarify the position of the respondents on child sexual abuse of boys was item 34. The knowledge-seeking statement was stated as follows: *Boys can be sexually abused*. The children were required to state whether the statement was true or false, or that they did not know. The analysis is as shown in Table 4.15 below:

Table 4.15: (Item 34: Knowledge-seeking statement: Boys can be sexually abused.)
(N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
True	470	82.6
False	62	10.9
Don't know	34	6.0
Blank	0	0.0

A comparison of these two scenarios therefore confirms that children (82.6%) do know and believe that boys can be sexually abused. However, they do not think that most children who are sexually abused are boys. This result corroborates findings of other past studies that indicate that girls are more vulnerable to sexual abuse than boys (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008; CEED, 1989; Finkelhor, 1996).

The combined frequency of 96 children representing 17% of the respondents that indicated that boys cannot be sexually abused (11%) or that they did not know (6%) is a significant number. This is a misconception that is held by many children, including boys

themselves. Holding such a misleading opinion could lead to sexual abuse of boys without their knowledge that they are being abused (Faulkner, 1996).

Items 18 to 24 sought to find out the kind of people children thought were perpetrators of child sexual abuse. The following persons had been stated as possible perpetrators: older children, housegirls, family members, strangers, teachers, fathers and mothers. The children were expected to state their level of agreement with either "*True*," "*False*," or "*I do not know*." The ratings were as follows:

Table 4.16: The respondents' level of agreement on people who can sexually abuse children. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Knowledge-seeking statement	*Frequency of children's responses*			
	True	*False*	*I don't know*	*Left blank*
18. Older children sometimes sexually abuse younger children.	416 (73.1%)	72 (12.7%)	76 (13.4%)	1 (0.18%)
19. House girls can sexually abuse a child.	362 (63.6%)	125 (22%)	79 (13.9%)	0
20. Some family members can sexually abuse children in the family.	410 (72.1%)	116 (20.4%)	39 (6.9%)	1 (0.18%)
21. Most people who sexually abuse children are strangers.	374 (65.7%)	154 (27.1%)	35 (6.2%)	1 (0.18%)
22. Teachers can sexually abuse children.	349 (61.3%)	152 (26.7%)	65 (11.4%)	0
23. Fathers can sexually abuse children.	418 (73.5%)	106 (18.6%)	36(6.3%)	3 (0.53%)
24. Mothers can sexually abuse children	179 (31.5%)	298 (52.4%)	87(15.3%)	2 (0.35%)

Fathers (73.5%) were rated the most highly probable perpetrators, followed by older children (73.1%) and family members (72.1%). Others identified as probable perpetrators were strangers (65.7%), housegirls (63.6%) and teachers (61.3%). Mothers were rated the least probable perpetrators by about 31.5% of the respondents.

Children must be sensitised that most cases of child sexual abuse are committed by people known to the child, including parents, stepparents, siblings, stepsiblings, baby sitters and other relatives. Indeed, sexual abuse by strangers is not nearly as common as sexual abuse by family members (APA, 2001).

An item related to those discussed above was item 44 that sought to find out if children knew about "grooming". This is the manipulative planning of child sexual offenders (Plummer, 1993; Wurtele, 1987, Terry and Tallon, 2004). As literature explains, grooming is intended to manipulate the targeted child into complying with the sexual abuse, or intimidate the child into engaging in sexual acts. A child may, for example, be offered gifts to confuse him or her and eventually get abused sexually. The knowledge-seeking statement required the respondent to indicate whether an adult who could be planning to sexually abuse a child could offer him or her gifts in order to trick them. The responses were as shown in figure 4.5.
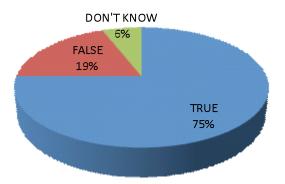
Figure 4.5: The respondents' level of agreement regarding the fact that an adult who could be planning to sexually abuse a child could offer him or her gifts in order to trick them. (N=569) (Source: Field data)

Notably about three-quarters of the respondents (75%) indicated that perpetrators could offer them gifts in order to trick them. However, a significant 25% were not aware of this grooming concept. Children must be sensitised on this concept so that anytime someone older offers them a gift, they are able to assess the supposedly kind gesture with a sceptical mind (Terry & Tallon, 2004).

Item 25 sought to find out the location that children thought sexual abuse could take place. About 71.2% thought that a child is likely to be abused when alone at night. Literature indicates that children often get abused in settings they are most familiar with, especially in the home or school (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008). For this reason, children may not have the skills to discriminate safe from unsafe situations.

A crucial aspect in this research was what the respondents thought about disclosure of sexual abuse if it were to take place. Items 26 to 28 and 47 were intended to assess this aspect.

The respondents' answers were as follows:

Table 4.17: The respondents' level of agreement on disclosure of sexual abuse incidences. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Knowledge-seeking statement	Frequency of children's responses			
	True	False	I don't know	Left blank
26. Most children who are sexually abused report about it.	256 (45%)	244 (42.9%)	64 (11.2%)	2 (0.35%)
27. Most children who are sexually abused DO NOT report about it.	312 (54.8%)	192 (33.7%)	60 (10.5%)	2 (0.35%)
28. It is advisable to tell a trusted adult about sexual abuse.	435 (76.4%)	68 (11.95%)	61 (10.7%)	1 (0.18%)
47. If someone sexually abused me and asked me to keep it a secret, I would not keep it a secret. I would tell about it.	510 (89.6%)	39 (6.8%)	18 (3.16%)	0

In item 26, less than half the respondents (45%) indicated that most children who are sexually abused report about the incident. About 42.9% indicated that children who are sexually abused do not report about it. When the same question was rephrased about 54.8% stated that children do not report about sexual abuse incidents.

Terry and Tallon (2004) discuss Summits model of 1983 on disclosure of sexual abuse cases. The authors submit the factors that lead to non-disclosure of child sexual abuse.

The model is referred to as the Child Sexual Abuse Accommodation Syndrome. As the authors explain:

> … this syndrome consists of five components namely: secrecy (the abuse occurs when the victim and perpetrator are alone, and the perpetrator encourages the victim to maintain secrecy); helplessness (children are obedient to adults and will usually obey the perpetrator who encourages secrecy); entrapment and accommodation (once the child is helplessly entrenched in the abusive situation, he or she assumes responsibility for the abuse and begins to dissociate from it); delayed disclosure (because the victims who report child sexual abuse often wait long periods of time to disclose, their disclosures are subsequently questioned); and retraction (as in the recantation stage described by Sorenson and Snow (1991), the victims may retract their disclosures of abuse after facing disbelief and lack of support after their disclosure) (p. 7).

In discussing the children's responses to item 13 earlier in this chapter, it was noted that children should be encouraged to report about sexual abuse incidences; because non-disclosure could lead to recurrent attacks (Terry and Tallon, 2004). Responding to item 28, slightly more than three-quarters of the respondents (76.4%) indicated that it is advisable to tell a trusted adult about sexual abuse. A significant 12% indicated that it was not advisable to report about it. However small this percentage is, this research found the frequency significant in that all children should find it advisable to report any cases of sexual abuse they may suffer, however, slight.

In item 46, this research intended to assess whether any child participating in the study was undergoing any form of sexual abuse at the time of the study. The respondents were required to state whether someone they knew too well was sexually abusing them while

making the child believe that it was a game, or it was out of love. The results were as follows:

Table 4.18: Knowledge-seeking statement: There is someone I know too well who has been abusing me sexually while making me believe that it is a game or it is love. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
True	157	27.59
False	299	52.55
Don't know	108	18.98
Blank	3	0.53

The frequency of 157 children representing 27.6% of the children who indicated that they were being abused at the time is high. The number is slightly more than a quarter of the children who responded to the questionnaire, which is alarming, and confirms findings of past studies. Extensive research confirms that child sexual abuse is much more frequent than previously assumed (Bagley, 1990; Faulkner, 1996). Considering that in this study N = 569, the statistics of children undergoing child sexual abuse in Kenya could be very high. *The Kenya Education Directory* for the year 2011 estimates the 2009 school enrolments as follows:

Table 4.19: The Primary School Enrolments (N=569; Source: The Kenya Education Directory, 2011)

Primary school enrolment by gender	
Boys	4 509 400
Girls	4 322 000
TOTAL	**8 831 400**

A simple computation of ratios of the possible number of affected children computes to about 2 436 783 children as per the current enrolments in schools. This is a very high number. The computation is as follows:

N in this study $=$ 569

Frequency of the affected children in the current study $=$ 157

Ratio $=$ 157:569 $= \frac{157}{569}$

$=$ 1:3.6

Extrapolating the figure as per the current enrolment

Frequency of the affected children in this study $=$ 157

Total Primary School Enrolments $=$ 8 831 400

Extrapolated figure $= \frac{157}{569} \times 8\ 831\ 400$

Possible total number of the affected children $=$ 2 436 783

When children were asked if they would keep a sexual abuse incident a secret in item 47, an encouraging percentage of 89.6% indicated that they would not keep it a secret. A significant combined frequency of 57 children (about 10%) indicated otherwise. Of these, 39 (6.8%) indicated that they would not report about it whereas 18 (3.16%) indicated that they did not know what they would do. This is illustrated in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Respondents' indication on whether they would disclose incidents of sexual abuse (N=569; Source: Field data)

Table 4.20	*Frequency of children's responses*			
Knowledge-seeking statement	*True*	*False*	*I don't know*	*Left blank*
47. If someone sexually abused me and asked me to keep it a secret, I would not keep it a secret. I would tell about it.	510 (89.6%)	39 (6.8%)	18 (3.16%)	0

Studies indicate that one of the reasons why children do not disclose child sexual abuse cases is because they tend to blame themselves for its occurrence (Daro and Donnelly, 2002). As a follow-up, therefore, it was critical to establish what children thought about self-blame. In item 29, children were expected to state whether they thought a child was to blame for being sexually abused. The analysed results were as follows:

Table 4.21: Item 29: Knowledge-seeking statement: If a child is sexually abused he or she is not to blame. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
True	332	58.35
False	169	29.70
Don't know	62	10.90
Blank	3	0.53

An encouraging 58.4% were in agreement that the child is not to blame. A significant 29.7% thought that the child was to blame. Self-blame has been cited as a major reason why children choose to keep sexual abuse a secret; the victims blame themselves for the abuse. Studies indicate that victims of child sexual abuse suffer self-blame; they accept responsibility for the abuse, yet it is not their fault that they have been abused. Indeed, self-blame has been identified as the most common effect of child sexual abuse. It is, therefore, important that children be taught to recognise that it is not their fault that they have been abused (Johnson, 1987; Faulkner, 1996; Wurtele, 1987; Gilbert, 1988; Daro and Donnelly, 2002).

Parents have been accused of not discussing sexual abuse with their children. In most societies, the subject is regarded a taboo (Ratlhagane, 2002). Indeed, Faulkner (1996) observes that school children are often surveyed on drug and substance abuse and other social problems. The author, however, notes that the question about sexual victimisation is rarely or never asked. Faulkner wonders why this is the case, speculating that the society is afraid to open the Pandora's Box. Lack of discussion between parents and children on this matter was corroborated by the findings of this research. When children were asked to attest the statement in item 30 that most parents did not discuss sexual abuse with their children, a high percentage of 61.7% indicated this position to be true. The children's responses are shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Most parents do not talk about child sexual abuse with their children (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's Responses	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
True	351	61.69%
False	166	29.17%
Don't know	48	8.44%
Blank	2	0.35%

It is certain that child abuse is a major concern in societies; yet this sensitive subject is considered a taboo (Ratlhagane, 2002). Research in this subject indicates that victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to become victims of rape, or get involved in physically abusive relationships as adults (APA, 2001). For this reason, parents teachers and society as a whole are obliged to create awareness among children regarding this

subject. Every child must be sensitised to recognise and resist an inappropriate touch. Every child must be enlightened to protect himself or herself from perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

In a related item (48) that required children to indicate the person they thought was appropriate to provide them with information on how to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse, the majority (443) indicated parents, followed by teachers (377) and older siblings (142). In this item, children had been asked to tick more than one answer. The frequencies of their responses, sorted from the largest to the smallest were as shown in Table 4.23:

Table 4.23: Item 48: Knowledge-seeking statement: Who should inform you about how to protect yourself from people who are likely to abuse you sexually? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Parents	443	77.86
Teachers	377	66.26
Older brothers and sisters	142	24.96
Friends	109	19.16
Any other	22	3.87
Blank	8	1.41

This research also wanted to find out whether children had an idea of what they should do if an adult sexually abused them. Item 31 was intended to seek this information. The children were not required to state what they would do. Items 40 and 42 were also seeking the same information but were phrased differently.

The responses are as shown in Tables 4.24, 4.25 and 4.26.

Table 4.24: Item 31: Knowledge-seeking statement: I know what I should do if an adult sexually abuses me. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
True	418	73.46
False	80	14.06
Don't know	68	11.95
Blank	1	0.18

Table 4.25: Item 40: Knowledge-seeking statement: I know how to handle a situation that could lead to sexual abuse. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
True	281	49.4
False	163	28.6
Don't know	121	21.3
Blank	1	0.18

Table 4.26: Item 42: Knowledge-seeking statement: I can easily tell whether a situation is safe or unsafe. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
True	318	55.9
False	147	25.8
Don't know	101	17.8
Blank	1	0.18

In item 31, almost three-quarters (73.5%) of the respondents indicated that they knew what they should do if they were sexually abused. A significant combined percentage of 23.9% indicated they did not know what to do. In item 40, however, only about 49.4% indicated that they knew how they could handle a situation that was likely to lead to sexual abuse. A high combined percentage of 50.1% did not know how they could handle such a situation. In item 42 where children were to state whether they could discriminate a safe from an unsafe situation, 55.9% indicated that they could. However, a high combined percentage of 43.8% indicated that they could not.

Research reports indicate that perpetrators of child sexual abuse are less likely to victimise a child if they think that the child is empowered with preventative information, and that he or she is likely to tell about the abuse (Canadian Center for Child Protection, 2005). For this reason, children must be informed that they have a right to say "No," and remain assertive in a situation that could lead to sexual abuse. They should also be taught that they also have a right to say "No" to authoritative people such as teachers, fathers, uncles and grandfathers, if these people tried to sexually molest them. Children must also be sensitised on the importance of listening to their gut feeling. If they sense that a situation is likely to be unsafe, they can run to safety or call out for help.

Children generally do not have the capacity to discriminate love from sexual abuse, and they can easily be vulnerable to a well-calculated case of child sexual abuse. The child may not discern the ill motives or the harm that the perpetrator is exposing to them (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, NCTSN, 2005). For this reason, it was crucial

to find out if children knew what acts comprise child sexual abuse. Items 32 and 33, and

38 and 39 were intended to assess this aspect. The results were as shown in Table 4.27:

Table 4.27: Children's knowledge on various forms of child sexual abuse. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Knowledge-seeking statement	Frequency of children's responses			
	True	*False*	*I don't know*	*Left blank*
32. If an adult asks me to show him or her my private parts, he or she is sexually abusing me.	450 (79.1%)	92 (16.2%)	24 (4.2%)	0
33. If an adult asks me to touch or play with his or her private parts, he or she is sexually abusing me.	459 (80.7%)	65 (11.4%)	42 (7.4%)	0
38. If an adult shows me pictures of naked people having sex, he or she is sexually abusing me.	404 (71%)	97 (17%)	61 (10.7%)	5 (0.9%)
39. If an adult shows me a movie of naked people having sex, he or she is sexually abusing me.	410 (72.1%)	102 (17.9%)	53 (9.3%)	1 (0.18%)

Forms of sexual abuse are classified as touch and non-touch. If an adult asks a child to

display his or her private parts, or shows the child pornographic pictures and movies,

these are forms of non-touch sexual abuse (Gigun and Sharma, 2008). About 79.1%, 71%

and 72.1% of the children indicated that they were aware of these facts in items 32, 38

and 39 respectively. However, a significant combined of 20.4%, 28.5% and 28.1% were

not aware of these facts.

A form of touch sexual abuse is where an adult asks a child to touch or play with his or

her private parts (APA, 2001). About 80.7% of the respondents were aware of this fact.

However, a significant combined frequency of 107 children (18.8%) was not aware of

this fact. Children must be sensitised on all forms of sexual abuse, both touch and non-

touch (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008).

A related item (45) sought to find out if the respondents knew the difference between a

"good" touch and a "bad" touch. Their responses were as shown in figure 4.6:
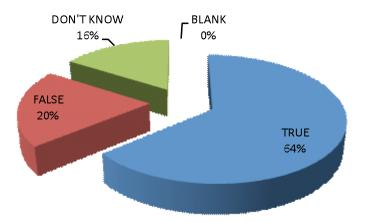
Figure 4.6: Children's indication on whether they know the difference between a "good" and a "bad" touch. (N=569) (Source: Field data)

About 64% knew the difference between a "good" touch and a "bad" touch. A significant

combined of 36% indicated they did not know the difference. Children must be sensitised

to discriminate a "good" touch from a "bad" touch. They must also be made aware that a bad touch could subsequently lead to sexual defilement (Terry and Talon, 2004).

The aim of this research was to conceptualise and design a school-based child sexual abuse awareness program. It was, therefore, crucial to assess what children thought about the aspect of providing them with information on this sensitive subject. Items 35 to 37, 41, and 43 were intended to evaluate this aspect. The children's responses were as shown in Table 4.28:

Table 4.28: Respondents' level of agreement on accessibility to information about child sexual abuse. (N=569; Source: Field data)

	Frequency of children's responses			
Knowledge-seeking statement	*True*	*False*	*I don't know*	*Left blank*
35. You should be informed about how to protect yourself from sexual abuse.	529 (93%)	21 (3.7%)	12 (2.1%)	3 (0.53%)
36. Lessons about protecting oneself from child sexual abuse should be taught in school.	432 (75.9%)	97 (17%)	38 (6.7%)	1 (0.18%)
37. Lessons about protecting oneself from child sexual abuse should be taught at home.	360 (63.3%)	152 (26.7%)	54 (9.5%)	1 (0.18%)
41. The subject of child sexual abuse should be introduced in schools.	427 (75%)	96 (16.9%)	42 (7.4%)	1 (0.18%)

	Frequency of children's responses			
43. I need more information about how I can protect myself from sexual abuse.	518 (91%)	31 (5.4%)	19 (3.3%)	1 (0.18%)

Notably, the majority of the children indicated that they would welcome any form of information provided on this sensitive subject. About 93% pointed out that they should be informed about how to protect themselves from child sexual abuse. About 75.9% and 63.3% indicated that they would want to have lessons on this subject in school and at home respectively. About 91% indicated they needed more information about how they could protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

4.11: Interpretation of Part C of the Questionnaire (Draw and Write Method)

Part C of the administered questionnaire was intended to collect qualitative data. The method used was the draw and write technique. Children read two short stories and were expected to generate data from the two stories.

The first short story read:

Table 4.29: Draw and Write Technique: Story 1 in the Research Instrument (Source: Author, 2014)

Story 1
After a PE lesson, Baraka, a class six girl was asked to remain behind by the PE teacher, Mr Maumizi. After the other children left, Mr Maumizi reached out and touched one of Baraka's private parts.

The children were then expected to draw simple pictures and write simple sentences related to the story. The children were not supposed to worry about making spelling mistakes.

In item 1 under this story, children were to draw simple pictures of Baraka and Mr Maumizi. The pictures that were drawn varied. The results are presented in table 4.30, and are sorted by frequency from the largest to the smallest.

Table 4.30: Children's pictorial depiction of Baraka and Mr Maumizi (N=569; Source: Field data)

Description of the pictorial depiction	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Mr Maumizi touching Baraka's breasts	211	37.08
Mr Maumizi touching Baraka between her legs	191	33.57
No contact	88	15.47
Any other	47	8.26
Mr Maumizi touching Baraka's buttocks	21	3.69
Mr Maumizi and Baraka embracing	16	2.81
Mr Maumizi and Baraka kissing	3	0.53
No picture	1	0.18

Slightly more than a third 211 (37.1%) thought that Mr Maumizi was touching Baraka's breasts. Notably 91.5% of the children mentioned a private part. This explains that children are able to identify private parts.

In item 2, children were required to make a simple comment about their drawing. Slightly more than a quarter of the children (28.8%) mentioned the term "child abuse." This means that they are aware that a teacher can sexually abuse a pupil. A combined percentage of 37.8% indicated it was either bad, mannerless, embarrassing or any other negative term to describe what Mr Maumizi was doing to Baraka. About 28.5% used an exact caption to describe what they had drawn. The caption was extracted from the short story and read, "*Mr Maumizi is touching Baraka's private parts*." About 24 children (4.2%) wrote a statement that was not related to the subject at hand. They commented on the quality of their drawing. This was one of the drawbacks that had been foreseen with the draw and write method as discussed in chapter 3.

When children were asked to state which part of Baraka's body they thought Mr Maumizi touched, the majority again indicated breasts. The results were as shown in Table 4.31, sorted by frequency from the largest to the smallest:

Table 4.31: The private part that children thought Mr Maumizi was touching. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Baraka's private part children thought Mr Maumizi was touching	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Breasts	261	45.87
Private parts	126	22.14
Vagina	96	16.87
Any other	85	14.94
Buttocks	53	9.31

Baraka's private part children thought Mr Maumizi was touching	Frequency	Percentage (%)
I do not know	7	1.23
Anus	5	0.88
Hips/thighs	2	0.35

When children were asked to indicate whether the touch that Mr Maumizi gave Baraka was a "good" or a "bad" touch, the majority (96.1%) thought it was a bad touch. The results were as shown in Figure 4.7:
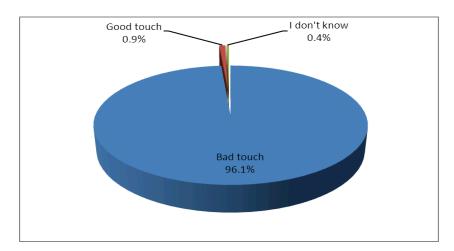
Figure 4.7: The respondents' interpretation of Mr Maumizi's touch on Baraka as either "good" or "bad". (N=569) (Source: Field data)

These results were encouraging as they revealed that the majority of the surveyed children are able to identify a "good" and a "bad" touch. In sensitising children about sexual abuse, one of the objectives should be to arm them with knowledge and skills to identify and resist an inappropriate touch (Daro and Donnely, 2002).

Items 5 and 6 were related. Children were asked to draw what they thought Baraka did after she was touched. Various actions were indicated as shown in Tables 4.32 and 4.33. The results have been sorted by frequency from the largest to the lowest.

Table 4.32: Children's pictorial depiction of what they thought Baraka did after the touch. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Item 5: Picture depicted Baraka:	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Crying/screaming	185	32.51
Running away	176	30.93
Fighting back	30	2.46
Resisting	14	2.46
Welcoming abuse	14	2.46
Shy	2	0.35

Table 4.33: Children's simple description of what they thought Baraka did after the touch. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Item 6: What the children thought Baraka did after the touch?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Screamed/cried for help	173	30.40
Any other	168	29.53
Reported to teacher	116	20.39
Ran away	115	20.21
Reported to parents	52	9.14
Fought back	30	5.27

Item 6: What the children thought Baraka did after the touch?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Resisted	19	3.34
Kept it a secret	19	3.34
Went to police	9	1.58
Blank	4	0.70

In item 7, the researcher asked the children what they would have done if they had been

in Baraka's position. Their responses were as shown in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34: Children's response to how they would have reacted if they were in Baraka's position. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Knowledge-seeking statement: What would you have done if you were Baraka?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Report to parent	161	28.30
Report to headteacher	143	25.13
Report to other teachers	114	20.04
Any other	81	14.24
Scream/shout for help	78	13.71
Go to police	70	12.30
Run away	59	10.37
Fight back	34	5.98
Resist	15	2.64
Blank	7	1.23

Children have been taught that they must always obey persons in authority (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008). In this scenario, children's responses indicated that they were willing to go against this expectation. Notably, in items 5 to 7, the majority of the children indicated that they would take a preventative action to overcome the situation. This line of thinking should be reinforced. As literature reveals, when children are helped to understand how, for example, a potential perpetrator of child sexual abuse would treat them, they become assertive and will actively take charge of the situation (Daro and Donnely, 2002).

The responses were encouraging as they indicated that children were willing to take action against the teacher. Among the responses listed under "Any other," about 16 children indicated that they would report the matter at the Children's Office. This indicated that they were aware of the existence of the Child Welfare Society of Kenya's Office, which is under the Ministry of Education and is located in Jogoo House.

In item 8, the researcher wanted to find out if the respondents knew which parts of the body are private. Both boys and girls stated the various parts they thought were private. The named body parts appeared as shown in Table 4.35. They have been sorted by frequency from the largest to the smallest.

Table 4.35: The body parts the children identified as private. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Knowledge-seeking statement: Which parts of your body are private?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Breasts	229	40.25
Any other	223	39.19

Knowledge-seeking statement: Which parts of your body are private?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Buttocks	186	32.69
Penis	183	32.16
Vagina	133	23.37
Anus	36	6.33
Reproductive organs	29	5.10
Blank/ I do not know	15	2.64

From the results, the majority of the children indicated they are aware what parts of the body are private. However, the frequency of 15 children who indicated they did not know the private parts was viewed to be high. At the age of between 10 and 13 plus, it is expected that children already know all their body parts; and that they are able to identify the private parts. The topic on body parts is taught in the Primary Science curriculum in classes 2 and 3 (Kenya Institute of Education, 2002b).

In item 9, the research sought to find out whether children could explain a "bad" touch from a "good" touch. The majority of the children had an idea of what a bad touch is. They explained that it was a touch of the private parts. Others explained the discomfort that a bad touch brings about.

The results were as shown in Table 4.36:

Table 4.36: Children's understanding of the meaning of a "bad touch" (N=569; Source: Field data)

Knowledge-seeking statement: What is a bad touch?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Touching private organs	353	62.04
Uncomfortable touch	65	11.42
Any other	117	20.56
Blank	20	3.51

As discussed earlier, children must be sensitised to recognise and resist a "bad" touch. As Daro and Donnely (2002) observe, when children are helped to understand any discomfort and consequences associated with sexual abuse, they develop lifelong skills that they need in order to relate cautiously with all adults, including authoritative figures.

Children are taught to obey authoritative figures, including teachers, parents and relatives. In item 10, this research asked the respondents to state whether the teacher is allowed to touch them in a way that feels uncomfortable. The results are shown in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37: Item 10 (story 1): Knowledge-seeking statement: Is a teacher allowed to touch you in a way that feels uncomfortable? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
No	552	97.20
Yes	12	2.11
I don't know	5	0.88

Notably, an overwhelming 552 children (97%) indicated that the teacher is not allowed to touch them in an inappropriate way. However, based on past studies, this research speculates that when real life situations present themselves, the child may not be adequately skilled to say "No". This is the reason why empowering children to question anyone touching them inappropriately is important. Children must be made aware that respect, say for a teacher, does not mean blind obedience to them. Children must be empowered to fight back, if and when necessary, in order to avoid manipulation by a teacher or any other adult with an ill motive (Family Resources, 2001; Government of Canada, 2006; Carruthers, 2006). In item 11, children were asked what a child could do if a teacher behaves badly. Varied answers were given. All answers showed that children were willing to take an action towards correcting the given situation. The responses were as shown in Table 4.38:

Table 4.38: Knowledge-seeking statement: What can a child do if the teacher behaves badly? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's Responses	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Report to parent	230	40.42
Report to headteacher	196	34.45
Any other	120	21.09
Report to other teachers	83	14.59
Go to police	61	10.72
Ran away	13	2.28
Transfer school	5	0.88

The second short story is shown in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39: Draw and Write Technique: Story 2 in the Research Instrument (Source: Author, 2014)

Story 2
Abdi is a class seven pupil. He is an only child. His parents work late. They usually get home from work after 8:00 pm. When Abdi gets home from school, the housegirl asks him to play a game. The housegirl touches Abdi's private parts.

In items 1 and 2 under this story, children were expected to draw a simple picture of Abdi and the housegirl and then write a simple sentence about their drawing. The results of the analysis of these two items were as shown in Tables 4.40 and 4.41:

Table 4.40: Children's pictorial depiction of the sexual abuse scene between the housegirl and Abdi as described in the short story. (N=569; Source: Field data)

The picture drawn by the respondents depicted:	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Housegirl touching Abdi between his legs	391	68.71
No contact	89	15.64
Any other	54	9.49
House girl and Abdi embracing/holding hands	7	1.23
House girl touching Abdi's buttocks	6	1.05
House girl kissing Abdi	5	0.88
No picture	3	0.53
House girl touching Abdi's chest	0	0

Table 4.41: Simple description of the sexual abuse scene between the housegirl and Abdi as described in the short story. (N=569; Source: Field data)

Simple concepts communicated through the picture	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Exact caption describing the scene	159	27.94
Any other	136	23.90
It is child sexual abuse	132	23.20
It is bad	88	15.47
Caption on drawing quality	29	5.10
It is mannerless	15	2.64
It is embarrassing	9	1.58
Blank	5	0.88
Resist	3	0.53

About 132 children (23.2%) used the term 'child sexual abuse' to describe what they thought the housegirl was doing to Abdi. This means that only slightly less than a quarter of the surveyed children had the vocabulary to describe the situation.

Items 3 and 4 were related. In item 3, the researcher asked the respondents to name the body part of Abdi that they thought the housegirl was touching. In Item 4, children were required to indicate whether this was a "good" or a "bad" touch.

The results of these two items were as shown Tables 4.42 and 4.43 respectively sorted in descending order:

Table 4.42: Item 3 (Story 2) Knowledge-seeking statement: Which part of Abdi do you think the house girl touches? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Penis	317	55.71
Any other	125	21.97
Private parts	105	18.45
Buttocks	45	7.91
Chest	15	2.64
I do not know	11	1.93

Table 4.43: Knowledge-seeking statement: Was the touch a good or a bad touch? (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Bad touch	546	95.96
Good touch	7	1.23
I don't know	0	0.00

Slightly more than half of the children (55.7%) indicated that the housegirl touched Abdi's penis. A frequency of 11 children (1.93%) indicated they did not know. The majority of the children (96%) indicated this was a "bad" touch. A frequency of 7 respondents representing 1.2% indicated it was a good touch. Researchers advocate that children must be made to recognise their body parts that should be considered private. Researchers also advocate that children must be instructed that no-one should touch the

private parts of their body. Children must also be sensitised that their body is theirs alone, and nobody has the right to touch it in a way that makes them feel uncomfortable (Royse, 2007; Slippery Rock University, 2006).

Item 5 required children to put themselves in Abdi's position and indicate what they would do if they found themselves in the described circumstances. The results were as shown in Table 4.44 sorted in descending order:

Table 4.44: Item 5 (Story 2) Knowledge-seeking statement: What would you do if you were Abdi? (N=569; Source: Field data))

Children's responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Report to parents when they come back from work	434	76.27
Any other	105	18.45
Go to police	46	8.08
Run away	35	6.15
Fight back or slap the housegirl	25	4.39
Report to teacher	25	4.39
Go to neighbours	22	3.87
Resist	12	2.11
Blank	5	0.88

The majority of the children (76.3%) indicated that they would report the matter to their parents when they got back from work. Notably, 99.2% of the responses were actions geared towards escaping from the abusive situation, which should be reinforced by

empowering children with knowledge and skills in order to help them make intelligent decisions regarding turning down sexual overtures (Carruthers, 2006).

Last but not the least, the researcher wanted to find out how the children viewed the research tool that was administered during the survey. Their responses were as shown in Table 4.45:

Table 4.45: Children's view regarding the questionnaire (N=569; Source: Field data)

Children's responses	*Frequencies*	*Percentage*
Useful	276	48.51
Clear	127	22.32
Difficult	27	4.75
Embarrassing	34	5.98
Interesting	191	33.57
Too long	16	2.81

Although the majority of the children thought that the questionnaire was useful (48.5%), clear (22.3%) and interesting (33.6%), a few also thought that it was difficult (4.8%), embarrassing (6%) and too long (2.8%).

4.12:   Summary of Key Findings

It is important to restate that due to the sensitivity of the subject of this research, any frequencies collected, however small they appeared especially when expressed in percentages, were taken to be significant. For example, even if only a single child indicated that he or she would not disclose about a sexual abuse incident, this frequency

has been taken with the seriousness it deserves. This is because child sexual abuse can affect the life of a child indefinitely. This section gives a summary of the key findings as per the above referenced data.

- About 576 children were sampled for this study. They were drawn from 16 purposively selected mixed primary schools in Nairobi County. The schools included 8 private and 8 public schools.

- Response Rate: All the 576 questionnaires that were administered were returned back. Out of the 576, those that were useful after the editing process were 569. In this study, therefore, N=569.

- Out of the 569 usable questionnaires, 288 were from girls and 281 were from boys. The respective percentages are 50.6% and 49.4%.

- The majority of the sampled children were aged between 11 and 13 plus years as follows: Only 18 pupils (4.2%) were aged 10 and below; about 87 (15.3%) were aged 11; about 117 (20.6%) were aged 12; about 170 (29.9%) were aged 13; and about 177 (31.1%) were aged 13 plus.

- Out of the total respondents, those who were in class six were 190 (33.4%); those in class seven were 196 (34.4%); and those who were in class eight were 183 (32.2%).

- The majority of the surveyed children, 339 (59.6%) indicated that they were living with both parents. Only a negligible number were living with stepparents;

about five children (0.9%) were living with the stepfather and six children (1.1%) with the stepmother.

- About 12 children (2.1%) indicated that they lived with other people. Most of them named the people by their names, for example, John, Ann and David.

- Analysis of the data indicated that the sample was wholly characterised by children who knew what it meant to be sexually abused. A high number of 538 (94.56%) indicated "yes," meaning that they knew what it meant to be sexually abused. About 386 (67.8%) of the respondents indicated that they learnt what it meant to be sexually abused from their teachers.

- The children who had learnt about child sexual abuse from their home were 92 (16.2%). A notable frequency of 12 pupils representing 2% indicated that no one had ever told them about child sexual abuse.

- Out of those who learnt about child sexual abuse at home, 171 (30%) representing slightly under a third of the respondents indicated that the mother was the source of information. Stepparents were rated the least possible source of information by only about 28 (5%) of the respondents.

- About 333 (58.5%) indicated that they knew of a child who had been sexually abused. In about 56 (9.8%) of the cases, it was a boy who had been abused; in about 286 (50.3%) of the cases, it was a girl. About 14 (2.5%) pupils indicated that they were the victims of sexual abuse incidences they knew about.

- Of the people that children thought could be perpetrators of child sexual abuse, father and stepfather had the highest frequencies notably 234 (41.1%) and 211 (37.1%) respectively. These were followed by teacher and guardian with frequencies of 155 (27.2%) and 130 (22.8%) respectively. Mothers were also indicated as likely to abuse children sexually with a frequency of 62 (10.9%).

- Out of 569 children, about 420 (73.8%) indicated they would report a case of child sexual abuse to the mother; about 282 (49.6%) indicated they would tell the teacher. About seven children (1.2%) indicated that they would not tell about it. Another six (1.1%) children indicated they did not know what they would do if they were sexually abused.

- The majority of the children 525 (92.3%) indicated that they would disclose about a sexual abuse incident. A frequency of 27 (4.7%) indicated they would not; about 18 (3.2%) indicated they did not want to say whether they would disclose or not.

- A significant frequency of 103 (18.1%) children indicated that if they were to report a sexual attack incident, they would not be believed. Another 12 (2.1%) indicated that nothing would happen upon reporting.

- About 390 (68.5%) of the respondents stated that all children were at risk of being sexually abused.

- About 353 (62%) of the respondents indicated that most children who are sexually abused are girls. Only about 63 (11%) thought that most children who are abused are boys.

- A combined frequency of 96 children representing 17% of the respondents indicated that boys cannot be sexually abused.

- Fathers 418 (73.5%) were rated the most highly probable perpetrators, followed by older children 416 (73.1%) and family members 410 (72.1%). Others identified as probable perpetrators were strangers 374 (65.7%), housegirls 362 (63.6%) and teachers 349 (61.3%). Mothers were rated the least probable perpetrators by about 179 (31.5%) of the respondents.

- About three-quarters, 427 (75%) of the respondents indicated that perpetrators could offer them gifts in order to trick them. However, a significant 142 (25%) were not aware of the grooming concept.

- About 405 (71.2%) thought that a child is likely to be abused when alone at night.

- Less than half of the respondents, 256 (45%) indicated that most children who are sexually abused report about the incident. About 244 (42.9%) indicated that children who are sexually abused do not report about it. When the same question was rephrased, about 311 (54.8%) stated that children do not report about sexual abuse incidents.

- Slightly more than three-quarters of the respondents, 435 (76.4%) indicated that it is advisable to tell a trusted adult about a sexual abuse incident. A significant 68 (12%) indicated that it was not advisable to report about it.

- A frequency of 157 children representing 27.6% of the children indicated that they were being sexually abused at the time of the study.

- When asked if they would keep a sexual abuse incident a secret, 89.6% indicated that they would not keep it a secret. A significant combined frequency of 57 children (about 10%) indicated otherwise. Of these, 39 (6.8%) indicated that they would not report about it whereas 18 (3.16%) indicated that they did not know what they would do.

- About 332 (58.4%) of the respondents indicated that the child is not to blame if he or she were to be sexually abused. About 169 (29.7%) thought that the child was to blame.

- About 351 (61.7%) of the children indicated that most parents do not discuss the subject of sexual abuse with their children.

- A frequency of 443 (77.9%) children indicated the person they thought was appropriate to provide them with information on how to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse was a parent.

- Almost three-quarters, 418 (73.5%) of the respondents indicated that they knew what they should do if they were sexually abused. A significant combined 136 (23.9%) indicated they did not know what to do.

- About 281 (49.4%) indicated that they knew how they could handle a situation that was likely to lead to sexual abuse. A high combined percentage of 285 (50.1%) did not know how they could handle such a situation.

- About 318 (55.9%) of the respondents indicated that they could discriminate a safe from an unsafe situation. However, a high combined percentage of 43.8% indicated that they could not.

- About 459 (80.7%) of the respondents were aware that if an adult asks a child to touch or play with his or her private parts, he or she is sexually abusing the child. A combined frequency of 107 children (18.8%) was not aware of this fact.

- About 364 (64%) knew the difference between a good touch and a bad touch. A significant combined of 205 (36%) indicated they did not know the difference.

- About 529 (93%) of the respondents pointed out that they should be informed about how to protect themselves from child sexual abuse. About 432 (75.9%) and (360) 63.3% indicated that they would want to have lessons on this subject in school and at home respectively. About 518 (91%) indicated they needed more information about how they could protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

- Regarding the research tool that was administered in this survey, about 276 (48.5%) thought it was useful; about 127 (22.3%) thought it was clear; and about 191 (33.6%) thought it was interesting. A few also thought that it was difficult 27 (4.8%), embarrassing 34 (6%) and too long 16 (2.8%).

4.13: Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the study findings on the assessment of information needs of the children on the subject of child sexual abuse. The chapter has further interpreted and discussed the results. A crucial question that arises after a study has been conducted is: "Those are the findings, so what?" Chapter 5 will answer this question.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1:   Introduction

The preceding chapter 4 has presented the study findings on the assessment of information needs of the children on the subject of child sexual abuse (CSA). The children's responses were collected through a questionnaire. The chapter further interpreted and analysed the results. A crucial question that arises after a study has been conducted is: "Those are the findings, so what?" This chapter 5 answers that very question. It presents the discussions based on the key findings, and the literature that has been reviewed. The discussions are also linked to the objectives of the study and the research questions that are stated in Chapter 1.

5.2:   Children's Access to Information on Prevention of Child Sexual Abuse

Barron and Topping (2003) submit that incidence and prevalence statistics indicate that child sexual abuse has become a significant issue globally. The authors also highlight both the short term and long term consequences of abuse on the growth and development of a child. Echoing Barron and Topping's sentiments, MacIntyre and Carr (2000) try to address the consequences advancing the argument that information school-based programs have been implemented with a view to creating awareness among children.

This effort is based on the fact that access to information is a key factor to the well-being of an individual, as information promotes empowerment, especially of young people and children. Highlighting the importance of empowering children, Berrick (1988) points out

that efforts geared towards raising children's awareness of CSA occurrences are virtually important to the empowerment of children to resist child sexual abuse advances from potential perpetrators. Finkelhor (2009) shares this view indicating that CSA awareness programs develop children's capacity to resist advances from perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

As stated in chapter 1, this study sought to assess the information needs of children in Upper Primary on the sensitive subject of child sexual abuse. *The first objective of this study was to establish the extent to which school children in upper primary have access to information on the prevention of child sexual abuse*. Literature suggests that children have very little knowledge of sexual abuse or self-protection skills; and many may regard sexual touching as acceptable (Maureen et al., 2008). In this current study, a high number of children, 537 (94.56%) indicated that they knew the meaning of child sexual abuse thus seeming to contrast this view. Out of number, 92 children (16.2%) indicated that they had learnt about the vice from the home environment while 386 (67.84%) had learnt about it from teachers.

An assumption that had been stated in this study was that there is no awareness that is created among primary school children regarding this sensitive topic of child sexual abuse. The basis of this assumption was that lessons on child sexual abuse are not provided for in the Kenya's 8-4-4 system of education (KIE, 2002(a)–(f). Reproductive health is not provided for in the education syllabus. This research had also established that there are no information resource materials covering the subject of child sexual abuse.

Probing the respondents further on their understanding of child sexual abuse, however, offered a contrasting view. Although children in this study indicated that they knew the meaning of child sexual abuse, a significant number of 205 children (36%) did not know the difference between a "bad touch" and a "good touch". It is important to underscore the fact that due to the sensitivity of the subject of this research, any frequencies collected, however small they appeared especially when expressed in percentages, were taken to be significant. Even if a single child indicated that he or she would not disclose about a sexual abuse incident, this frequency was taken with the seriousness it deserves. This is because the life of that one child is important, and from the literature that has been reviewed, every researcher has expressed the fact that child sexual abuse can affect the life of a child indefinitely.

Another knowledge gap found among children in this current study was that a significant combined of 17% indicated that boys cannot be sexually abused (11%), and that they did not know that boys could be abused sexually (6%). These findings compare with past studies that indicate that children may not discriminate between an appropriate and an inappropriate touch, especially from adults that they know and trust (Wurtele, Hughes, & Owens, 1998).

Another assumption that this study had stated was that the absence of child sexual abuse awareness programs in primary schools may have been aggravating the assumed risk of children being exposed to the perpetrators of this vice, including their teachers. The findings of this study established that these assumptions to some degree were accurate. Past studies offer an explanation. Deblinger and Runyon (2000) submit that imparting

personal safety skills or abuse response skills may decrease the chances of a child falling victim to a perpetrator of child sexual abuse in that the child's awareness is heightened, and that he or she is more likely to disclose inappropriate sexual advances. Adding to this discussion, Gilgun and Sharma (2008) explain that a child may not understand child sexual abuse in the broader sense of the terminology, where the abuse is both a physical act and a psychological experience. This underscores the importance of sensitising children about all the aspects of child sexual abuse, including touch and non-touch forms. In this current study, a significant frequency of 107 children were not aware that if an adult asks a child to touch or play with his or her private parts, this act is considered a form of child sexual abuse. Another frequency of 106 children did not know that if an adult asks a child to show him or her private parts, that too is considered a form of sexual abuse. Still on the forms of sexual abuse, another combined frequency of 158 (27.8%) children did not know that if an adult showed them pornographic materials, including pictures and movies, that too constitutes a form of sexual abuse. With slightly less than half of the children, 249 (43.8%) indicating that they could discriminate a safe from an unsafe situation, the researcher concluded that parents had a reason to get concerned; because as literature indicates, children generally do not have the capacity to discriminate love from sexual abuse.

Highlighting the importance of sensitizing children on CSA, Finkelhor (2009) elaborates on this point explaining that children do not conceptualise CSA correctly. He stresses the value that a comprehensive CSA awareness program must provide accurate and comprehensive information of what behaviours constitute CSA.

The 569 children who responded to the questionnaire that was administered in this current study were aged between nine and 13 plus years. Slightly below a quarter of them, 117 (20.56%) were aged 12 and, therefore, considered preteens. About three-fifths, 347, (61%) were already in their teens, as they were aged 13 and above. About 339, (59.6%) were living with their parents, and could be said to have been living in a safe environment. Of the sampled children, about two-thirds, 385, (67.8%) indicated that they learnt about child sexual abuse from their teachers. Only about 92 (16.2%) indicated that they got information about child sexual abuse from parents. This finding was not surprising. Comparative studies indicate that parents hardly discuss sexual abuse with their children; nor do they avail any supplementary information in the form of books or video on the subject to the children (Tutty, 1997).

5.3:   Prevalence of Child Sexual Abuse

The problem investigated in this research haunts many parents, who as past studies indicate assume that perpetrators are strangers. In contrast, evidence suggests that in most of the incidences that are reported, child sexual abuse is committed by someone known to the child (Finkelhor, 2009). Researchers continue to explore the subject of child sexual abuse for answers. Their findings are rather disquieting. For a start, it is obvious that the problem could be more frequent than it is assumed. Several barriers to establishing the prevalence of the problem have been identified. Barron and Topping (2003) highlight the fact that the difficulty in establishing the severity of the problem has been attributed to the secrecy of abuse and the lack of documenting or reporting of abusive incidences, especially those committed within families. No parent or educationist can dispute that

child sexual abuse is a sensitive and scary subject to discuss openly with children. Research shows that victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to become victims of rape, or get involved in physically abusive relationships as adults (APA, 2001).

In this current study, a notable 333 (58.5%) of the surveyed children indicated that they knew of a child who had been sexually abused. A frequency of 14 (2.5%) children, which was considered high, indicated that they were themselves victims of sexual abuse. What this means is that cases of child sexual abuse occur more often than it is assumed. It could also mean that children are suffering in silence. This in effect affects children psychologically, as they may be blindly obeying authoritative figures who are essentially taking advantage of their innocence. The many cases that are reported in the media usually represent only about 10% of the incidents that occur (Siringi, 2009).

5.4: Problems Experienced by School Children in Accessing Information on Child Sexual Abuse

Another objective that this current study pursued was to establish the challenges that school children experienced in accessing information on child sexual abuse. The findings indicated that a notable frequency of 12 (2.1%) children expressed the fact that no-one had ever told them about child sexual abuse. These results compare with investigations that have been carried out on child sexual abuse. The subject is regarded a taboo by adults whose conceptualisation of the subject often relate it with sexual intercourse only; and given the social and moral complexity of this subject, there is tendency to avoid discussion about it with children (Sonja & Herman, 2000).

5.5: Knowledge Levels of Children on Child Sexual Abuse

It is often said that knowledge is power. In this regard, *another objective that this current study pursued was to establish the information, knowledge and skills that children require in order to prevent the occurrence of child sexual abuse.*

The questions included in the questionnaire sought to find out various aspects of this subject. They included whether children were able to recognize and avoid potential abusive situations; whether they knew what actions are considered forms of sexual abuse; where abuse occurs; between boys and girls, who do children think are more vulnerable to abuse; who are the likely perpetrators of child sexual abuse; and whether children were likely to disclose incidences of abuse. A significant 390 (68.5%) of the respondents were in agreement that all children were at risk of being sexually abused. Another 341 (60%) indicated that girls are more vulnerable to sexual abuse; and about 63 (11.1%) thought that boys were more vulnerable to sexual abuse.

Past investigations almost agree on the knowledge areas and core concepts that should be developed in children regarding this subject. For example, their knowledge and abilities to be able to identify a potential perpetrator should be developed. This would subsequently reduce their vulnerability to abuse (Deirdre et al., 2000). Researchers also agree on some core concepts that children should be exposed to including saying "No," body ownership, good and bad touch, trusting intuition, escaping from abuse, telling harmful secrets, and non-blame on self (MacIntyre & Carr, 2000).

5.6: Effectiveness of Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Programs

As it had been established at the outset, no formal programs on CSA exist in Kenya's 8-4-4 system of education. This fact was confirmed as none of the respondents indicated that they had learnt about CSA in formally structured a school-based awareness program.

Research done in the developed world indicates that an increase in the incidents of child sexual abuse has led to the establishment and implementation of awareness and prevention programs (O'Reilly & Carr, 1998). Depending on the structure of the established program, it may target children only; other programs may target children, teachers, parents, or the entire family system. The latter are referred to as multi-systemic programs. The main objective of such programs is to build and increase a child's capacity to resist sexual abuse overtures (MacIntyre & Carr, 2000).

Programs that are developed for children may vary depending on the age of children they are targeting; that is, they are "developmentally staged" (MacIntyre & Carr, 2000). Different versions are developed for younger and older children. This current research supports this structuring as concepts should be delivered to children depending on their developmental stages. Indeed, MacIntrye and Carr (2000) advise that in executing the programs, their effectiveness could be enhanced by matching the language and the learning activities to the level of children in terms of language and cognitive skills.

On evaluating long and continuing programs against short programs, MacIntrye and Carr (2000) argue that longer programs lead to greater acquisition of knowledge and skills for the participating children. The researchers are of the view that multi-systemic programs

that focus on children, parents, teachers, child minders, the family system, and other significant members of the child's social network are more effective than those that focus on children alone. In this regard, they suggest that a provision should be made to bring on board child protection institutions, child health care professionals, community-based agencies and other key personnel involved in children programs. This is a position that this current study also favours. The safety of children in and away from home should be ensured by children themselves, as well as everyone in the child's social network.

A common finding among researchers into this subject indicates that another factor that is key in the development of a child sexual abuse awareness program is the culture of the society that is being targeted. The program must be culturally appropriate. Since the subject of child sexual abuse is treated as a taboo subject, the handling and the presentation of the concepts must be acceptable to the targeted population (Tutty, 1992; MacIntyre & Carr, 2000; Finkelhor, 2009). Indeed, here in Kenya, there has been an intense public debate on whether to introduce sexuality education at both the primary and secondary school level. Religious institutions have mainly been opposed to the idea.

Another objective that this study pursued was to determine the information, knowledge and skills that children require in order to prevent the occurrence of CSA. Regarding the implementation of an awareness program, most researchers into this subject seem to agree on certain concepts that should be delivered to children (Deirdre, Alan, Maria, & Michael, 2000; MacIntyre & Carr, 2000;). The concepts include providing facts on the vice to both boys and girls in order to sensitize them on all forms of abuse, including

touch and non-touch; developing knowledge and abilities in children so that they are able to identify a potential perpetrator of child sexual abuse; developing disclosure skills in children so that they can tell about any incidences of abuse to a trusted adult; and raising the children's knowledge levels so that they are able to recognize and resist a potentially abusive situation (Maureen, Vjolca, Reena, Thakkar-Kolar, Erika, & Melissa, 2008). This last concept is key in this study. This is because an awareness program that is effective should be primary in nature; that is, it should aim at sensitizing potential victims in order to reduce their vulnerability. Such a program should enable a child to recognize and resist all forms of abuse, including touch and non-touch forms. The aim is to prevent the abuse before it happens (Wurtele, 1987; MacIntrye & Carr, 2000).

This study also sought to find out whether CSA awareness programs have been effective in the countries where they have been implemented. Considerable evaluation has been conducted to assess some of the implemented programs on areas such as knowledge gained by the participating children, for example, on safety and self-protection, disclosure of incidences of sexual abuse, as well as reports of any negative effects on the children. By and large, the evaluation of these awareness programs gives positive findings suggesting that targeted children do acquire knowledge and skills, and that the programs acquire their goals to a significant extent. This finding was encouraging to this study as it indicated that CSA awareness programs to some degree impact on children and their safety. Studies are, however, inconclusive about whether these awareness programs reduce victimisation. Researchers recommend that further research be conducted with a

view to integrate such programs into a comprehensive health and safety promotion curriculum (Finkelhor, 2009).

With regards to acceptability of such intervention in a society, Finkelhor (2009) indicates that in the 1980s, CSA programs drew criticism. The critics were of the view that the programs were complicated for young children, who may not grasp the concept of prevention. Finkelhor (2009) further explains that other critics also decried that the programs were likely to have unintended negative consequences for children, for example, creating apprehension and mistrust of all adults. The critics have also indicated that it is not psychologically appropriate to expect children to assume the responsibility of protecting themselves from potential abusers. Notably, the studies that have examined the supposedly negative effects tended to be based on parental or teacher observations rather than asking the children themselves.

The concerns of the critics are validly understandable. Given the moral, social and relational complexity of child sexual abuse, there is a tendency to overprotect children on this subject (Sonja & Herman, 2000). In spite of this, analysts who have evaluated varied features of such programs and overall performance have supported the credibility of the programs by giving reassuring findings (Finkelhor, 2009). Some studies that have assessed the programs find that the targeted children acquire the concepts taught (Berrick & Richard, 1992). Quoting Zwi (2007) on an international meta-analysis conducted on such programs, Finkelhor (2009) reports that children who had participated in an awareness program were six to seven times more likely to demonstrate protective

behavior in simulated abusive situations than children who had not. This supports the fact that the knowledge and skills imparted is not too complicated for the targeted child. The concepts must, however, be packaged in a language suitable for the targeted age bracket.

Researchers have also evaluated whether there are any unintended effects on children that arise among children participating in a program. Finkelhor (2009) reports that researchers have not found elevated levels of anxiety among children as a result of participating in a program. He further reports that indeed, parents and teachers report positive benefits as children develop self-protective skills. Indeed, upon evaluation the findings indicate that communication between parents and children improves after participation. Only a small minority of children becomes anxious as a result of participating in an awareness program (MacIntyre & Carr, 2000).

Further to this, no studies have found children misinterpreting adult's intentions or making false allegations against adults (Wurtele, Miller-Perrin, & Metlon, 1989; Binder & McNiel, 1987). Indeed, studies have revealed that children who have participated in an awareness program use correct terminology for their private body parts, and have positive feelings about their body anatomy (Blumberg, 1991).

Although some researchers argue that children should not be overwhelmed with the responsibility for protecting themselves from potential abusers, Finkelhor (2009) protests that it could also be morally irresponsible not to equip children to take preventive actions to avoid potentially abusive situations. He uses the analogy that although adult motorists

should be responsible for protecting children on bicycles from collision, it would be negligent to argue that children should not wear helmets when cycling.

In summary, the evaluation of child sexual abuse awareness programs has provided supportive findings showing that children gain knowledge in key areas and core concepts such as body ownership, good and bad touch, saying no, escaping from abuse, disclosing incidences, trusting intuition, and non-blame on self (MacIntyre & Carr, 2000).

5.7: Prevalence of Child Sexual Abuse

Child sexual abuse is a significant problem in our society and cases of sexual abuse of young children under the age of 18, including infants, get reported all the time by the media. Every time one picks a daily newspaper, the chances of coming across a reported incident of CSA are oftentimes 75% or higher. A random check on a pile of newspapers reveals headlines such as "*Fathers threaten to kill daughters [over abortions] yet they are responsible in some instances,*" (Gathura, 2010, p. 3); "*Pope meets Irish Bishops on [child] sex abuse scandal,*" (Reuters, 2010, p. 21); "*Girl Hospitalised after man defiles, stabs her thrice,*" (Standard Reporter, 2010); "*Principal who raped student still in service,*" (Nation correspondent, 2010, p. 9); "*Rape bid on 12-year-old girl lands man in jail,*" (Nation Correspondent, 2010, p. 32); "*Family outings go awry [as] children get exposed to x-rated stuff,*" (Muiruri, March 2010, pp. 6–7); "*Irish Bishop quits over [paedophilia] sex scandal,*" (Reuters, 2010, p. 23); "*Girl stabbed after failed rape attempt,*" (Nation Correspondent, 2010, p. 35); "*Sexual abuse blamed on fathers,*" (Standard Reporter, 2010, p. 6).

The above-reported incidences of CSA suggest the extent and severity of the problem. In fact, with so many media reports about sexual abuse of children, parents now worry about the safety of the child in and out of the home; they worry about perpetrators of child sexual abuse; they also worry about the consequences of sexual abuse on a child, if it were to happen.

Extensive research into this problem as discussed under literature review in chapter 2 confirms that cases of child sexual abuse occur much more frequently than most parents assume. These research reports indicate that the cases that get reported by both the print and electronic media represent only a fraction of the actual cases that occur every other day. Indeed, sexual assault of children has been declared a silent violent epidemic. Research reports indicate that one out of every four female children, and one out of every ten male children will experience inappropriate sexual contact before they attain the age of 18, usually by an adult who is well known to them (Plummer 1993; Ratlhagane, 2002; Gilgun and Sharma, 2008; Finkelhor, 2009).

No parent can dispute that child sexual abuse is a sensitive and scary subject to discuss openly with children. In most families, any occurrences of child sexual abuse are treated with shame and secrecy. It becomes even more worrying when it is reported that most cases of child sexual abuse are committed by people known to the child, including teachers, parents, step-parents, siblings, step-siblings, babysitters, and other relatives. Apparently, research reports explain that cases of child sexual abuse by strangers are not as common as sexual abuse by family members (Faulkner, 1996; CEED, 1989; Terry and Tallon, 2004; Deblinger and Runyon, 2000; Deirdre et al., 2000).

5.8:   Creating Awareness about Child Sexual Abuse among Children

A study that was carried out in Kenya, and whose results were released by the Teachers' Service Commission in 2009, revealed shocking details of child sexual abuse in schools. The report indicated that up to 12,660 girls had been sexually abused by teachers over a five-year period. The survey had included data collected between 2003 and 2007. On computation, this figure translates to about 2 532 cases in a year, or about seven cases everyday, or a single case happening every three hours.

The report further indicated that 90% of sexual abuse cases that were committed by teachers during this period were never reported to the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC). This suggests that this figure of 12,660 cases represented only 10% of the cases that occurred during the five-year period. The reason why the cases are never reported is because sexual violence against children is a sensitive and stigmatised subject in the society. The victims suffer in silence. In fact, most children do not disclose the abuse at all, especially when the abuse is by a person known to the child.

It is certain that the thought of child sexual abuse is a concern that haunts many parents, guardians, educators and the society at large. Yet, the scene is all too familiar: in most households, discussing the subject is a taboo. This being the case, parents, guardians, and society at large have a reason to get concerned; because the consequences of child sexual abuse can be disastrous.

Teachers, parents, guardians and society at large must appreciate that children would have a great difficulty in accepting the idea that adults can sexually abuse them, and more

so the people they trust and have great respect for. They are also likely to wonder why people in authority such as a teacher or a religious minister, who they imagine that he or she always has the right answers, and is supposed to protect them, would take advantage of their innocence and assault them sexually. Some questions that a child is likely to have would be, "Why would my father, grandfather or stepfather sexually abuse me?"; "Why would an uncle I respect so much want to harm me sexually?"; "Why would a teacher, who is supposed to be my role model, sexually molest me?"

In sensitising children about sexual abuse, these and many more questions that children may have should be addressed in an information-provision program. Research shows that victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to become victims of rape, or get involved in physically abusive relationships as adults. Research also reveals that the physical and emotional effects of sexual abuse can be devastating (Ratlhagane, 2002; Gilgun and Sharma, 2008; Finkelhor, 2009; Deblinger and Runyon, 2000; Deirdre et al., 2000). Victims of sexual abuse suffer shame, guilt, isolation, powerlessness, embarrassment and inadequacy. They also suffer self-blame; that is, they may accept responsibility for the abuse, yet it is not their fault that they have been abused. As a result of self-blame, they may experience the feeling that "I could have stopped this from happening; and because I did not, I, therefore, wanted it." Self-blame has been identified as among the most common effects of sexual abuse on children. For this reason, it is important that children be taught to recognise that it is not their fault that they have been sexually abused (Terry and Tallon, 2004; Plummer 1993; Ratlhagane, 2002; Gilgun and Sharma, 2008; Deblinger and Runyon, 2000; Deirdre et al., 2000; Faulkner, 1996;)

5.9:   Conclusion

The concerns that an information-provision program should address regarding this problem include creating awareness among children regarding this problem; sensitizing children to recognise and resist an inappropriate touch; and enlightening children on how to protect themselves and others from perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

Children were surveyed on this sensitive problem just as they get surveyed on issues such as alcohol abuse, drug and substance use, study habits, bullying, and other social problems. The question about sexual victimisation was also asked.

The society should not be afraid of asking questions regarding this sensitive problem. It would be unfortunate not to sensitise children about this vice; because the only people who would be telling children about sexual abuse would be the molesters. And the saddest thing is that they would be telling the children to keep the abuse a secret. This problem would even get trickier to handle because the very people who are expected to be sensitising children regarding the problem have in the past been the culprits. Teachers, stepfathers, uncles, grandfathers and even parents, the very people who are supposed to be kind and caring for children are the same people who have been reported to be molesting the children.

The people entrusted with the care of children have been the very people who are sexually abusing them. Consequently, these people cannot be entrusted with the safety of children under their care. It is unfortunate that, sometimes, people that children have come to trust can act in ways that end up harming the child, sometimes for life.

For the above reasons, children need to be imparted with skills and knowledge that they can apply to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse. They need to be empowered with knowledge and skills that they can use to be able to tell apart safe and unsafe situations, and to resist abuse from potential perpetrators, including authoritative figures such as teachers.

Most researchers agree that creation of awareness among children is an appropriate measure to prevent sexual abuse from occurring to a certain degree. Creating awareness among children enables them to develop assertiveness and self-protection skills, where they learn that they can say "No!" to an adult. It equips them with knowledge and life skills that enable them to avoid unsafe situations, and learn how to act in a risky situation.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1: Introduction

The school plays a critical role in the life of a child. With the occurrence of countless incidences of child sexual abuse in the society, the school can play a critical role of being a source of accurate information for children on this sensitive subject of child sexual abuse. A school-based CSA information provision program can be instrumental in imparting knowledge and skills to children on how to discriminate safe from unsafe situations. An evaluation of multi-systemic child sexual abuse awareness programs supports the hypothesis that these efforts increase children's knowledge and safety skills, thus lowering the incidences of child sexual victimisation (Wurtele & Kenny, 2008).

Notably, information programs related to sexuality of children have often been controversial (Maureen et al., 2008). This has also happened in Kenya. There are individuals, as well as institutions, mainly faith-based institutions, who believe that creating awareness about matters related to sex in schools will increase curiosity and subsequently lead to sexual activities among the children. This chapter discusses the conclusions that were drawn from the study findings, and the recommendations that have been made. The chapter also identifies the gaps that could be filled by further research.

6.2:   Conclusions

The aim of this study was to assess the information needs of school children in upper primary in Nairobi County, regarding the subject of child sexual abuse with a view to conceptualising and designing a child sexual abuse information provision model for the target population. The population consisted of children in classes six to eight in 16 purposively selected urban mixed primary schools in Nairobi County. The schools were selected from the then 8 constituencies in Nairobi.

It is important to underscore the fact that due to the sensitivity of the subject of this research, any frequencies collected, however small they appeared especially when expressed in percentages, were taken to be significant. For example, even if only a single child indicated that he or she would not disclose about a sexual abuse incident, this frequency was taken with the seriousness it deserved. This is because the life of that one child is important, and from the literature that has been reviewed, every researcher has expressed the fact that child sexual abuse can affect the life of a child indefinitely. The following discussion expounds on the conclusions that have been drawn in this study.

This study consisted of pre-adolescents and young adolescents who are vulnerable to sexual abuse. Out of the 576 children that were sampled for this study, the majority of the respondents, 545 (95.8%) were aged between 11 and 13 plus years. Only 18 pupils (4.2%) were aged 10 years and below. The conclusion that can be made from this fact is that most of the children in upper primary are pre-adolescents and young adolescents. As medical experts explain, this is a vulnerable age as these youngsters start to develop

sexually, and are likely to become sexually active during adolescence. For this reason, they can easily engage sexually with younger children, older children, amongst themselves, or with older people. It is, therefore, the conclusion of this study that these children must be guided appropriately. They must be provided with factual information about what to expect with regard to their physical, social, and emotional development. They must also be guided on how to control their emotions. They should also be sensitized that older people, both males and females, can take advantage of their emotional development and compel them to engage in sexual activities.

There was an item in the research tool that was intended to assess whether any child participating in the study was undergoing any form of sexual abuse at the time of the study. The respondent was required to state whether someone they knew too well was sexually abusing them while making the child believe that what was going on was about love. Of great concern was the fact that a high frequency of 157 children representing 27.6% of children indicated that they were being abused at the time. This result was alarming, and confirms findings of past studies that child sexual abuse is much more frequent than previously assumed (Bagley, 1990; Faulkner, 1996). For the above reasons, this study concludes that awareness on all facts about child sexual abuse must be created.

Another conclusion that this study is drawing is that the children in this study were not knowledgeable about sexual abuse in the broader sense of the word. One of the objectives that this research pursued was to establish the extent to which school children in upper

primary have access to information on the prevention of child sexual abuse. It was, therefore, crucial to find out whether the sampled children knew what it meant to be sexually abused. Interestingly, the majority of these children indicated they knew what it meant to be sexually abused, because a high number of 538 (94.56%) indicated "yes," meaning that they knew what it means to be sexually abused. Although this high percentage is a positive indicator of the children's knowledge levels of child sexual abuse, this finding may not be very accurate. As discussed earlier, literature and past studies on this subject can dispute this finding. This is because child sexual abuse is broadly defined, and children may not have the understanding that the vice is both a physical act and a psychological experience (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008). Based on the observation of most researchers, an important conclusion of this study is to emphasise the importance of explaining to children all the aspects of child sexual abuse, including touch and non-touch forms. This broad understanding of child sexual abuse should be emphasised when sensitising children about the vice, so that they recognise that even non-touch forms of sexual abuse can damage their emotional development.

Another conclusion that this study is drawing is that child sexual abuse is not discussed in the home environment. From the study, children who indicated that they had learnt about child sexual abuse from the home environment represented about 92 (16.2%) of the population. A frequency of 12 pupils representing 2% indicated that no one had ever told them about child sexual abuse. These findings were not surprising considering that parents find this a sensitive and scary subject to discuss with children; oftentimes, it is

treated with shame and secrecy (Ratlhagane, 2002; Royse, 2007). The study had also sought to find out whether the subject of child sexual abuse is ever discussed at home. In view of what past literature indicates, this researcher did not expect high levels of positive response to this item. As expected, the results indicated that the subject is rarely discussed in homes. This finding corroborates the findings of other researches that this subject is regarded a taboo, and is, therefore, significantly underreported, or even discussed in the home setting (Terry and Talon, 2004).

The results of this study also indicate that the prevalence of child sexual abuse was high, with girls being more vulnerable to sexual abuse than boys. Past studies have established that the occurrence of child sexual abuse is much more frequent than it is assumed (Bagley, 1990; Faulkner, 1996). Literature also indicates that most cases of child sexual abuse that are reported represent only about 10% of the cases that occur daily (Siringi, 2009). This study established that the percentage of respondents who knew of a child who had been sexually abused was deemed significantly high. About 332 (58.5%) of children indicated that they knew of a child who had been sexually abused. Going by this percentage as well as the frequent reports that are reported by both print and electronic media, the interpretation of this research is that the cases of child sexual abuse were high in the environment of the surveyed children than it had been expected.

Notably, children reported about 56 cases of boys who had been sexually abused. About 14 (2.5%) children indicated that they were themselves victims of child sexual abuse. This level of anonymous disclosure was encouraging considering that victims of child

sexual abuse are afraid to report that they have been abused (Gilgun & Sharma, 2008; Terry and Tallon, 2004; Wurtele, 1987).

The study results indicated that girls were more vulnerable to child sexual abuse than boys. In the study, the respondents who indicated that they knew of a child who had been sexually molested were expected to identify whether the affected child was a boy or a girl. About 50.3% of the identified cases involved the sexual abuse of girls. Although statistics may vary from country to country, this result concurs with past research findings that indicate that most children who fall victim of sexual abuse are girls. Other researchers explain that available statistics are more likely to be underestimates because many children do not report sexual abuse incidences (Gilgun and Sharma, 2008).

The results of this study also indicated that children were not aware that the people they trust and have great respect for could sexually abuse them. Children had been provided with a list of individuals including father, stepfather, mother, stepmother, and guardian. The children were required to pick out possible perpetrators of child sexual abuse. They also had the option of listing other individuals not included in the list.

About 38 (6.68%) children did not pick out any of the listed individuals as possible perpetrators of child sexual abuse. The children left the item blank. Another 16 (2.81%) children indicated that none among the listed persons could sexually abuse them. This finding was not unexpected. Studies indicate that children would have great difficulty in accepting the idea that adults, and more so the people they trust and have great respect

for, can sexually abuse them (Terry & Tallon, 2004). This ignorance and innocence among children, therefore, makes a case for imparting children with resistance skills and knowledge that they can apply to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse, as well as raise their awareness levels, so that they can question if an adult, stranger, or otherwise tries to touch them in an inappropriate way.

Another conclusion that this study is drawing is that children do not have adequate access to information about child sexual abuse. One of the objectives of this study was to assess the knowledge levels of children on the subject of sexual abuse. It was, therefore, fundamental to establish who provided them with information about sexual abuse.

About 349 (61.33%) of the children indicated teachers as the source of educative information on sexual matters; another 250 (43.94%) indicated parents; and about 150 (26.36%) pointed out they got information from friends. About 11 (1.93%) children indicated that no one provided them with information about sexual matters.

Although teachers scored the highest as a source of information on sex education, a major concern arises. From media reports, it is to be noted that teachers, who have been entrusted to care for and protect children against this vice sometimes abuse this trust and become the perpetrators of this atrocious act as documented in the Kenya's TSC report (Siringi, 2009). This scenario makes a case for creating awareness among children and empowering them with knowledge and skills that they may employ to resist abuse from potential perpetrators. Children need to be told that people who can abuse them sexually

include teachers, stepfathers, fathers, uncles, religious leaders, older siblings, and family friends among others.

6.3   The Recommendations

This study is making the following recommendations arising from the study findings and the conclusions that have been drawn.

1.   **There is need for the Ministry of Education through the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development, KICD (formerly the Kenya Institute of Education, KIE) to develop a policy on the place of child sexual abuse awareness in the education system.**

One of the objectives that this study sought to achieve was to establish how children accessed information on child sexual abuse. The majority of the respondents (67.8%) indicated that they learnt about this subject from their teachers. It is important to highlight the fact that Kenya's 8-4-4 system of education has no provision for a formal school-based child sexual abuse program (Kenya Institute of Education [KIE], 2002a–f; KIE, 2008). The Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD, formerly KIE), however, requires that book publishers find ways of incorporating emerging issues such as drug and substance abuse, homosexuality, premarital sex, and child sexual abuse in the course books. The expectation by the KICD is that upon inclusion of these issues in the course books, teachers integrate them in the teaching and learning activities. This research finds that the lack of a comprehensive school-based child sexual abuse program

is a major omission in the education system. Based on the literature reviewed on the devastating social and emotional effects of sexual abuse on the health of a child, the provision by the KICD is inadequate as it leaves the subject at the discretion of the publishers and the teachers, who may choose to leave it out as it is not part of the examinable content in the syllabus. This study is, therefore, recommending that it is crucial for the Ministry of Education to put in place a policy addressing creation of awareness about the vice among children.

2. The development and implementation of a School-based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Program

The program that this study recommends for the development and the implementation in schools is about creating awareness about CSA among children thus protecting them from sexual exploitation, as well as encouraging them to report any incidences the children may experience.

The aim of this research was to assess the information needs of children in upper primary on the subject of child sexual abuse. It was, therefore, crucial to assess children's thoughts about providing them with information on this sensitive subject. Encouragingly, the majority of children indicated that they would welcome any form of information provided on this sensitive subject. About 529 (93%) pointed out that they should be informed about how to protect themselves from child sexual abuse. About 432 (75.9%) and 360 (63.3%) indicated that they would want to have lessons on this subject in school and at home respectively. About 518 (91%) indicated they needed more information

about how they could protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse. These statistics underscore the fact that children would want to be empowered with information on this important subject. Based on these findings, this study is recommending the development and implementation of an awareness program to sensitise children on this important subject.

The information-provision model should be intended to help children acquire relevant information, knowledge, skills, and attitudes on child sexual abuse. The aim would be to raise children's awareness on the subject by communicating safety skills. The focus would be to sensitise children on the subject, communicate prevention strategies to children, and impart skills that they can employ in order to protect themselves and others from perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

3.   **Partnership between the government and other stakeholders**

Child sexual abuse being a sensitive subject, developers of resource materials and publishers could partner with professionals such as psychologists and psychiatrists on how the information could be packaged and presented to children, as well as to parents, guardians and other child minders. An important factor would be to consider the age and language level of children being targeted so that the information resource materials are written in a simple conversational style.

Upon development of such resource materials, it would also be critical to present them to the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) for vetting and approval. This would ensure that the content included is approved for use in schools. The KICD approval would also ensure that the resource materials are included in the list of books approved by the Ministry of Education for use in schools.

The roles of the identified stakeholders in the development and implementation of the school-based child sexual abuse awareness program and the expected results are shown in Table 6.1. The conceptualised model is shown in Figure 6.1

Table 6.1: Proposed Roles of Stakeholders in the Development of a School-based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Program (Source: Author, 2014)

Stakeholder	Responsibility	Activity	Results
Law makers and policy makers	Formulate policies regarding the provision of information on child sexual abuse to children in primary schools.	Conferences/ Workshops	Policy addressing the provision of information on child sexual abuse to children in primary schools.
Ministry of Education	• Implement the policy made by introducing compulsory school-based child sexual abuse awareness programs. • Develop a curriculum for the child sexual abuse program.	Issue circular to schools and a directive to the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD).	• Implementation of a School-based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Program. • A syllabus on child sexual abuse.
Librarians and other Information	Source for and acquire information materials on child	Identify and acquire the	• Library stocks addressing child

Stakeholder	Responsibility	Activity	Results
professionals	sexual abuse whose content targets children in primary school.	information materials.	sexual abuse. • An awareness program to disseminate information on child sexual abuse.
Information Professionals' Regulatory Bodies (KLA, CCK, MOA, KPA, and Editors' Guild	Give guidelines to libraries, information resource centres and media houses concerning producing Child Sexual Abuse Prevention Education and Communication information programs and resource materials for children.	Workshops and conferences	Guidelines to regulate child sexual abuse awareness programs.
Publishers	Develop information, education and communication materials in the subject of child sexual abuse that target the child.	• Interpret the syllabus • Source for authors to develop the materials • Publish resource materials and present them to the KICD for vetting and approval	Publications such as Life Skills Guides for children covering concepts on child sexual abuse.

Stakeholder	Responsibility	Activity	Results
Psychologists and Psychiatrists	• Moderate content in resource materials. • Endorse resource materials for use by children.	• Moderation workshops with authors and publishers.	Moderated and endorsed content.
Book sellers, book stockists and vendors	Source for and stock their outlets with information materials on child sexual abuse.	Seminars or sensitisation activities.	Sensitised audiences.
Teachers	• Develop children's knowledge on sexual abuse. • Integrate the subject as an emerging issue when teaching other core subjects.	Plan for and execute integrated teaching and learning activities.	Sensitised children.
Parents, guardians, other child minders	Nurture, guide and counsel children, as well as instil in them personal safety skills.	• Home based learning activities. • Open discussions.	Sensitised children
International organisations, child rights activists, as well as other community-based and faith-based organisations	• Advocate for the integration of child sexual abuse information-provision programs in primary schools. • Fund CSA programs.	Camps and workshops	• Influence policy development. • Implementation of programs.
All stakeholders	• Development of a school-based child sexual abuse awareness program.	Workshops, seminars, camps	A streamlined school-based child sexual abuse program.

Figure 6.1 shows the conceptualised model for a school-based CSA awareness program.

A School-Based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Program: The Conceptualised Model
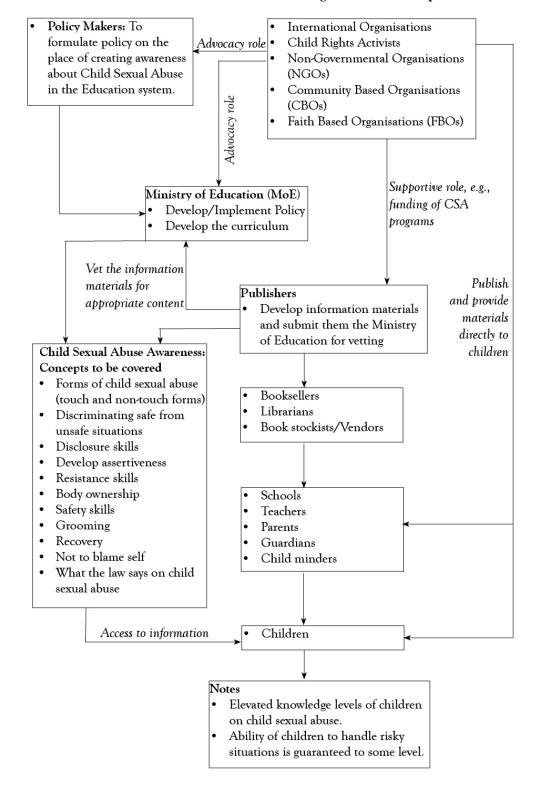
Figure 6.1: The conceptualised model for a school-based CSA awareness program (Source: Author, 2014)

4. Development of a primary type of the School-based Child Sexual abuse Awareness Program

The school-based child sexual awareness model that this study is recommending is of the primary type; this means that it targets the potential victim – in this case the child. A primary type program strengthens the potential child victim's capability to resist sexual assault. In this way, the program is intended to be an intervention before abuse happens. The program should be multi-systemic; that is, it should also target teachers, parents, guardians, and other people in a child's social network.

Primary intervention involves preventing the occurrence of sexually abusive acts by taking action before a sexual assault has occurred (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004). In favour of the primary type, Barron and Topping (2003) argue that primary prevention has been found to be cost effective because it aims at empowering children to avoid or escape abusive situations. The secondary type of intervention, on the other hand, aims at helping children cope with the consequences of abuse.

Many researchers are in agreement that the areas of knowledge that should be addressed in an information-provision program should include: who can be a molester, the difference between an appropriate and inappropriate touch, and the fact that if sexual abuse occurs, it is not the child's fault (Finkelhor, 1984). The information provided should also encourage children victims who may have been abused sexually to reach out, tell someone, and hence prevent further abuse. In this current study, about 136 children (24%) expressed the concern that they are not likely to be believed if they tell about a

sexual abuse incident; that they would rather keep the incident a secret; and that nothing was likely to happen. For this reason, it is important that children are encouraged to keep telling about any incidences of sexual abuse until someone listens and acts on their behalf.

Effective school-based CSA programs empower children to verbally resist and openly tell about incidences of CSA. Other concepts that should be addressed include body parts and ownership. Armed with this kind of information, children would be in a better position to tell apart safe from unsafe situations. (Finkelhor, 1984; MacIntyre and Carr, 2000; Berrick and Barth, 1992).

This current study agrees with the observations of the above discussed researchers. In line with their argument, the core concepts that are being proposed for inclusion in this model should include vulnerability of children to molesters, body ownership, forms of sexual abuse, good and bad touch, correct terminologies for the body anatomy, saying no, recognising potentially abusive situations, escaping from abuse, disclosing incidences of sexual abuse to a trusted adult, non-blame on self; and stranger-danger concept; that is, avoiding engagements with strangers.

This study is also recommending programs that are structured depending on the developmental stage of the targeted children. Consequently in this current study, the CSA awareness program that is being proposed targets children in upper primary; that is, classes 6, 7 and 8, who are aged between 10 and 13 plus years. The information resource

materials for this sensitization program should be developed in the format that makes them reader-friendly for teachers, parents, guardians, and children in upper primary.

Some key concepts that this study is recommending for inclusion in the school-based CSA Program

1.   All children regardless of sex, age, or race are at risk of being sexually abused.

An item in the research tool sought to find out whether the respondents thought that all children were at risk of being sexually abused. A high number of the children 390 (68.5%) stated that all children were at risk of being sexually abused. However, a significant combined number of about 176 (31%) stated otherwise. Literature reveals that all children are at risk of being sexually abused (CEED, 2004; APA, 2001; Faulkner, 1996; Tulir, 2007). It is, therefore, important to sensitise children of this fact.

In relation to this fact, this research also sought to find out the opinion of the children regarding the gender of children that is most vulnerable to child sexual abuse.

An opinion that is commonly held in society is that girls are more vulnerable to sexual abuse than boys. This was also replicated in the results. About 353 (62%) indicated that most children who are sexually abused are girls. About 63 (11%) thought that most children who are abused are boys. To seek clarification on what children thought about child sexual abuse of boys, a knowledge-seeking statement was included as follows: "*Boys can be sexually abused*." The children were required to state whether the statement

was true, or false, or otherwise. A combined frequency of 96 children representing 17% of the respondents indicated that boys cannot be sexually abused 63 (11%) or that they did not know 33 (6%). This result confirms a widely held misconception by many children, including boys themselves, that do not know or believe that boys can be sexually abused. The concern is that such a misleading opinion could lead to sexual abuse of boys without their knowledge that they are being abused. It is, therefore, important to sensitise children that they are all vulnerable to child sexual abuse regardless of sex, age or race.

2.   It is not easy to identify a would-be child sexual molester.

Children should be made aware that a potential perpetrator does not have a visual profile. It is also important to sensitize children that the society may not completely eliminate child sexual abuse because perpetrators do not wear an identity mark and are, therefore, not easily recognisable. It is also important to recognise the fact that child sexual abuse could happen to any child regardless of age, gender or tribe. The crime can also be committed by anyone, including a trusted family member, a family friend, or a relative. Additionally, parents, teachers and guardians, may not always be there to monitor who is stalking the children. The best solution against this problem is, therefore, to create awareness among children.

5.   What acts or behaviours amount to sexual child abuse?

Children must be sensitised on the various forms of child sexual abuse. In this study it was critical to establish if children knew the acts that comprise child sexual abuse. Literature identifies forms of sexual abuse as touch and non-touch. If an adult asks a child to display his or her private parts, or shows the child pornographic pictures and movies, these are forms of non-touch sexual abuse (Gigun and Sharma, 2008). Notably, about 107 (18.8%) children were not aware of the fact that non-touch forms of sexual abuse amount to emotional and psychological defilement. For this reason, it is important to sensitise children that the definition of child sexual abuse is broad and includes all touch and non-touch forms.

Children must also be sensitised to differentiate between a "good touch" and a "bad touch". Notably, about 364 (64%) of the students knew the difference between a "good" touch and a "bad" touch. About 205 (36%) indicated they did not know the difference. It is, therefore, important to sensitise children to discriminate a "good" touch from a "bad" touch. They must also be encouraged to report about any "bad touch" they may experience from another child of the same age, an older child, or an adult. Children must be sensitised that a bad touch could consequently lead to sexual defilement.

6.   The importance of disclosing incidences of sexual abuse.

Disclosure of sexual abuse by affected children is key to the healing process. It is, therefore, important to sensitise children to disclose any incidences of sexual abuse they

may suffer to a trusted adult. Past studies reveal that most of the cases usually go unreported, or that most child victims delay disclosure. Sadly, a significant number of children do not disclose at all.

Results from past studies concede that the cases that are reported represent only a small percentage of the offences that are committed. The study mentioned in chapter 1 that was conducted by the Kenya's Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) indicated that about 12,660 cases of child sexual abuse in schools that had been reported between 2003 and 2007 represented only about 10% of the cases that had occurred during the period (Siringi, 2009).

In an item that was intended to find out whether children would disclose about child sexual abuse if it happened, a high number of children 420 (73.81%) indicated that they would tell their mother; about 282 (49.56%) said they would tell their teacher; and about 264 (43.4%) said they would tell their father. About seven 7 (1.23%) children indicated that they would not tell about it; and another six (6) children representing 1.05% indicated they did not know what they would do if they were sexually abused. These 13 (2.28%) children did not give an encouraging response. As indicated earlier, any statistic in this research, however, small is deemed important. The failure of these 13 children to disclose could be related to the fact that child sexual abuse is a highly stigmatised subject and that awareness among children needs to be created. Gilgun & Sharma (2008) note that children who receive little or no education and information from adults about child sexual abuse are at a higher risk to remain silent than those who are sensitized about the subject. Other studies indicate that children must be encouraged to disclose about a

sexual attack because non-disclosure could lead to recurrence of similar attacks (Terry and Tallon, 2004).

As discussed under the literature review, research shows that how quickly a child reports about sexual abuse has short-term and long-term effects. It has been found out that children who are able to confide in a trusted adult about sexual abuse suffer less trauma than children who do not disclose abuse at all. Additionally, children who disclose the abuse soon after its occurrence may be less traumatised than those who live with the secret for years (Plummer 1993; Ratlhagane, 2002; Gilgun and Sharma, 2008; Finkelhor, 2009).

Some studies hypothesize that children are afraid to disclose sexual attack if they suppose that they will not receive a sympathetic reaction. Children also fear retaliatory attacks from the perpetrator (Berlinger and Babieri, 1984). In this study, a considerable 103 (18.1%) children indicated that if they were to report a sexual attack incident, they would not be believed. Another 12 (2.1%) indicated that nothing would happen upon reporting. This study agrees with Terry and Tallon (2004) who are of the opinion that children must be encouraged to keep telling about incidences of sexual abuse until someone listens, believes, and acts on their behalf.

7. Children must be sensitised about grooming.

The research also sought to find out if children knew about "grooming". This refers to the manipulative techniques that are used by child sexual offenders to influence or intimidate

the targeted child into engaging in sexual actvities (Plummer, 1993; Wurtele, 1987, Terry and Tallon, 2004). Children were required to indicate whether an adult who could be planning to sexually abuse a child could offer him or her gifts in order to trick them. About 427 (75%) of children indicated that perpetrators could offer them gifts in order to trick them. However, 142 (25%) were not aware of this grooming concept. It is, therefore, important that children are sensitised on this manipulative tactic. In this way, if someone offers them a gift or talks to them in a manipulative way, they are able to assess any gestures with a sceptical mind (Terry & Tallon, 2004). This knowledge will help them determine risky situations, and probably escape those that could turn out to be sexually abusive.

8. Child sexual abuse can occur in any place.

This research also sought to find out the place that children thought sexual abuse could occur. About 405 (71.2%) thought that a child is likely to be attacked when alone at night. This is a widely held misconception by children. Past studies indicate that children often get abused in settings they are most familiar with, especially in the home or school. Oftentimes, children are not even aware that they are being abused because the attacker may have applied manipulative techniques to influence them to participate in the sexual activity. Children may, therefore, not have the skills to discriminate safe from unsafe situations. This study, therefore, finds it important to sensitize children that sexual abuse could take place anywhere, including settings that would otherwise be presumed safe.

9.   Children are not to blame if someone abuses them sexually.

The aspect of self-blame is of great concern. Literature and past studies hypothesise that one of the reasons why children do not disclose child sexual abuse cases is because they tend to blame themselves for its occurrence (Daro and Donnelly, 2002). This study, therefore, found it crucial to establish what children thought about self-blame. Children were expected to state whether they thought a child was to blame for being sexually abused. About 169 (29.7%) thought that the child was to blame if he or she fell victim of child sexual abuse.

Past studies have quoted self-blame as a key reason why children choose not to disclose sexual abuse incidences. The victimised child mostly blames himself or herself for the abuse, taking the full responsibility for the atrocity, yet it is not their fault that they have been abused. Drawing from the literature studied, it is important that children be made aware that if sexual abuse occurs, it is not their fault (Johnson, 1987; Faulkner, 1996; Wurtele, 1987; Finkelhor, 2009; Daro and Donnelly, 2002).

10.   Children must be encouraged to discuss sexual abuse with their parents or guardians.

Discussing child sexual abuse is regarded a taboo in most societies (Ratlhagane, 2002). For this reason, it has been observed that parents do not discuss the subject with their children. This finding was confirmed in this research by about 351 (61.7%) of the population who indicated that parents do not discuss sexual abuse with their children.

Parents, teachers, and society as a whole are obligated to sensitise children about this subject. It is important that every child be made to recognise and resist an inappropriate touch, and thus protect himself or herself from perpetrators of this vice. Indeed when children were asked to identify the person they thought was appropriate to provide them with information on how to protect themselves from perpetrators of child sexual abuse, 443 (77.9%) indicated parents; 377 (66.3%) indicated teachers; and 142 (25%) indicated older siblings. In this item, children had been asked to tick more than one answer.

11. Children must be sensitised on what to do in a potentially abusive situation.

This study also sought to find out whether children knew what they should do in case of a sexual abuse attack with a simple response of "true," "false" or "I do not know". About 418 (73.5%) of the respondents indicated that they knew what they should do; a combined percentage of 148 (26.0%) indicated they did not know what to do. In a related query, about 281 (49.4%) indicated that they knew how they could handle a situation that was likely to lead to sexual abuse. However, about 285 (50.1%) did not know how they could handle such a situation. Additionally, children were to tell if they could tell apart a safe from an unsafe situation; about 318 (55.9%) indicated that they could. However, 249 (43.8%) indicated that they could not. Drawing from past studies, it is important to empower children with personal safety skills to handle potentially abusive situations. This is crucial considering that perpetrators of child sexual abuse are less likely to victimise a child if they think that the child is empowered with preventative information, and that he or she is likely to disclose about the incident (Canadian Center for Child Protection, 2005). Children must also be sensitised on the importance of listening and

obeying their gut feeling. If they sense that a situation is likely to be unsafe, they should escape before it is too late.

A summary of the concepts proposed for inclusion in the recommended CSA awareness program is shown in Table 6.2:

Table 6.2: The concepts recommended for inclusion in the school-based CSA awareness program (Source: Author, 2014)

Variable	*Description*
Proposed model	• School-based child sexual abuse awareness program
Aim	• Ensure that children, both girls and boys, have access to information on how to resist sexual abuse from potential perpetrators.
Intervention type	• A primary type that is multi-systematic. The program should target children, teachers, child minders, and also engage parents and guardians. • Program activities to be included in the school calendar.
Target group	• All children. The content should be structured depending on the age of children.
Mode of instruction	• Use of instructional materials that address the subject. • Video, cartoons, role-play, lessons, life skills guides, workbooks, and discussions among others.

Variable	*Description*
	• Invite professionals such as psychologists and child counsellors to talk to children, teachers, parents, guardians, and other child minders.
Versions of the CSA awareness program	• Have versions varied depending on the age of children, for example, those aged 5–7 years (lower primary) and 8–12 years (upper primary)
On awareness	• Increase awareness about CSA among children. • Increase a child's ability to identify a potential perpetrator of child sexual abuse. • Make children aware that even good and trusted people (including family members, teachers and family friends) can abuse a child sexually. • All children are vulnerable to child sexual abuse. • Develop a child's ability to recognise and resist potentially abusive situations.
Develop assertiveness	• Children are encouraged to say NO to potential child sexual offenders, including authoritative figures such as teachers, family members, family friends, relatives, and religious leaders. • Children to be empowered to resist taking bribes in exchange of

Variable	*Description*
	keeping secrets. • Children to be empowered to report about secrets, threats, and blackmail.
Body ownership	• Emphasise that their body is theirs alone; no one is allowed to touch it in an inappropriate way.
Disclosure training	• Increase children's disclosure skills. Children to be encouraged to disclose to a trusted teacher or adult if someone tries to touch, or treat them inappropriately.
Personal Safety skills	• Increase a child's ability to resist child sexual abuse advances from a perpetrator.
Peer support	• Build a child's capacity to help other children who may disclose to them about a CSA incidence.
Recovery/Self blame	• Empower children not to self-blame or take responsibility if it happens; emphasise that it is not their fault. • Develop a child's self-esteem.
Grooming	• Children should be made aware of the manipulative techniques that perpetrators use to influence the child to cooperate with the molester. In this current study, a significant 25% of the children were not aware of this grooming technique.

Variable	Description
What the Law says	• Create awareness among children on the penalties that are covered in the law against perpetrators of child sexual abuse.

It is recommended that during the development and implementation of a school-based child sexual abuse awareness program, various programs that exist in the Western world can be referred to. As mentioned in the literature review, such examples of such programs as given by the University of Calgary (2002) and the Collins Centre (NDP) include the following:

- the Body Safety Training (BST);

- C.A.R.E. (Challenge Abuse through Respect Education) Kit;

- CAP – Child Abuse Program;

- CARE for Kids;

- Child Abuse Prevention Program (CAPP);

- Child Assault Prevention Program;

- Children of the Eagle Resource Kit;

- Circles II Stop Abuse;

- Eagle Child;

- Feeling Yes, Feeling No;

- Good Touch, Bad Touch;

- Hello Craig;

- It's Not Your Fault;

- Kid&TeenSAFE;

- Life Facts II Sexual Abuse Prevention;

- No-Go-Tell;

- Our Children's Future;

- Project Trust: Teaching Reaching Using Students and Theater;

- Red Flag, Green Flag People;

- Safe Child;

- Stop It Now!;

- Talking About Touching;

- Touching: A Child Abuse Prevention (CAP) Program; and

- Who Do You Tell?

6.4:   Achievements of this Research

MacIntyre and Carr (2000) submit that in the modern society, we cannot eliminate the problem of child sexual abuse. Finkehor (1998) echoes the same sentiments. What then are the achievements of this current research in relation to empowering children with information regarding discriminating safe from unsafe situations?

This current study has identified the concerned parties to be involved in seeking a solution to the identified problem. The identified stakeholders include the government, curriculum developers, media regulatory bodies, publishers, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), parents, teachers, as well as children's welfare institutions, who are obligated to play their role in this regard. These, in the view of this study, are the groups of people and institutions who could benefit from the findings of this research.

In its role, the government through curriculum developers in the Ministry of Education should develop a policy on the place of child sexual abuse education in the Kenya's school system. Policy makers in the education sector can play a key role in executing their mandate to have children sensitised about this vice. The Teachers Service Commission (TSC) has already issued a circular to schools, TSC/Circular NO. 3/2010 titled, *Protection of Pupils/Students from Sexual Abuse*. The circular spells out disciplinary action that would be taken against teachers who sexually abuse pupils.

Another identified role relates to publishers and other information professionals. They need not wait for directives from the government on how to engage in efforts towards this cause; they could take the initiative to develop information materials on the subject of child sexual abuse and avail them to schools through their nationwide distribution networks. They should submit the published materials to the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) for vetting and approval for use in schools. Teachers, on the other hand, could integrate child sexual abuse as an important emerging issue in their teaching and learning activities in all other lessons.

Other institutions that could make a significant contribution in this endeavour are the media regulatory bodies. They could advise television and radio broadcasting stations and operators regarding developing CSA awareness programs that target children. Media houses could also use social media platforms, including Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp! Pinterest and Blogs to disseminate information on how children can be sensitised on this subject.

Non-governmental organizations and children rights and welfare organizations could also advocate for the introduction of child sexual abuse education in the school curriculum, or even fund the publication of information materials in this subject. They could also partner with government agencies or private entities to disseminate information materials on this subject.

6.5:   Suggestions for Further Research

1.   The aim of this study was to assess the information needs of children in upper primary on the subject of child sexual abuse. It is, however, important to acknowledge that infants and children aged below eight years are also vulnerable to sexual abuse. Indeed, studies reveal that perpetrators of this vice target even infants aged below one year

For this reason, it is particularly suggested that information assessment studies be conducted targeting lower and mid-primary; that is, classes one to five. These children are aged between five (5) and nine (9) years. The studies could assess their information needs on this subject as this current study only targeted children in Upper Primary.

2.   This study was conducted in schools based in Nairobi. It would be important to conduct a similar study in schools based in rural areas and compare the results with the findings of this current study.

3.   Upon the development and implementation of a school-based child sexual abuse awareness program, further research could be conducted to test and validate the link between knowledge levels of children on sexual abuse and their ability to discriminate between safe and unsafe situations, as well as the ability to resist abuse.

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10 March 2011

The Headteacher
Embakasi Primary School
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam:

RE: CREATING AWARENESS: WHAT SHOULD CHILDREN BE INFORMED ABOUT CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE?

Allow me to introduce myself. My name is Wanjiku Njoroge, a postgraduate student at Moi University pursuing a Doctorate degree in Information Sciences. In partial fulfillment for the Degree in this academic Programme, every candidate is required to conduct research in one's area of interest. Subsequently, the student is expected to put together the findings in the form of a thesis report.

My area of research interest is on Child Sexual Abuse. Coming from a Publishing/Information Science/Communication/Education background, I have done a preliminary assessment on the subject. My findings are as follows:

(a)   There is no awareness that is created among children regarding child sexual abuse.

(b)   Lessons on Child Sexual Abuse Prevention are not provided for in the 8-4-4 School Syllabus at the primary and secondary school levels.

(c)   There are no local publications on the subject of Child Sexual Abuse. Specifically, there are no books or manuals that a child who desires to acquire knowledge on how to discriminate safe from unsafe situations can consult. I confirmed this during the BookFair that was held at the Sarit Centre between September 22nd and 26th 2010. A stand-to-stand inquiry on the availability of publications on the subject came to naught.

In order to design an effective awareness and prevention program, I need the input of Upper Primary children in your school (classes 6, 7 and 8). And that is why you are important in this study. I need your consent to administer a questionnaire to the children in your school. I appreciate your busy schedule and that of the children. I would, therefore, feel honoured if you could kindly consider my request. In case you would want to inquire further on this research, the two advisors of this project can be reached through the following contacts:

• Professor Japhet Otike: (Cell phone: 0722 924 355)

• Professor Justus M. Wamukoya: (Cell phone: 0720 439 625)

The two are lecturers at the Moi University, The School of Information Sciences.

Enclosed please find a copy of the questionnaire that I intend to administer to the children in classes 6, 7 and 8. I look forward to your positive response and support. Thank you for your time, consideration and cooperation.

Yours sincerely

Wanjikũ wa Njoroge
 (Cell Phone: 0722 314 649)

PS: The gentleman who has delivered this correspondence to your office is my Research Assistant. He is Alloys Onyisi Angaga. He is a graduate of Maseno University College. Kindly give him all the necessary support. Thank you once again.

Appendix 2

Questionnaire: Child Sexual Abuse Survey

Dear Pupil

You have been selected to provide very important and honest information about Child Sexual Abuse. Note that this is not an examination. There is no right or wrong answer. For this reason, there is no failing or passing. All the truthful answers you give are **VERY IMPORTANT**. No one will ever find out that you gave the answers. Because you **WILL NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ANYWHERE ON THIS PAPER**. Thank you for your truthful answers.

PART A

(Use this mark √ to tick your selected answer)

1. Are you a girl or a boy?
    - ❶ Girl
    - ❷ Boy

2. How old are you?
    - ❶ Less than 10 years
    - ❷ 10 years
    - ❸ 11 years
    - ❹ 12 years
    - ❺ 13 years
    - ❻ More than 13 years

3. In what class are you?
    - ❶ Standard 6
    - ❷ Standard 7
    - Standard ——————
    - ❸ Standard 8
    - ❹ Any other _____

4. Who do you live with?
    - ❶ Father
    - ❷ Mother
    - ❸ Both parents
    - ❼ Any other ——————
    - ❹ Guardian
    - ❺ Step father
    - ❻ Step mother

(In this part, tell what you know)

Use this mark √ to tick your selected answer)

5. Do you know what it means to be sexually abused?
    - ❶ Yes
    - ❷ No

6. If yes, where did you learn about it?
    - ❶ From a teacher
    - ❷ Home
    - ❸ Church
    - ❹ Friends
    - ❺ Television
    - ❻ Any other ———

7. If you learnt about it at home, who told you about it?
    (You can tick √ more than one answer)
    - ❶ Father
    - ❷ Mother
    - ❸ Both parents
    - ❼ Any other ————————————
    - ❹ Guardian
    - ❺ Step father
    - ❻ Step mother

1

8.   Do you know a child who was sexually abused?

❑   ❶ Yes   ❑   ❷ No

9.   The child who was sexually abused was:

❑   ❶ A boy   ❑   ❷ A girl

❑   ❸ Me   ❑   ❹ I don't know

10.   A person who is likely to sexually abuse a child is:
       (You can tick √ more than one answer)

❑   ❶ Father   ❑   ❹ Guardian

❑   ❷ Mother   ❑   ❺ Step father

❑   ❸ Both parents   ❑   ❻ Step mother

❑   ❼ Teacher

❑   ❽ Any other ——————————

11.   If someone sexually abused you, you would:
       (You can tick √ more than one answer)

❑   ❶ Tell my mother   ❑   ❻ Tell my teacher

❑   ❷ Tell my father   ❑   ❼ Tell my friends

❑   ❸ Tell my guardian   ❑   ❽ Not tell at all

❑   ❹ Tell my brother   ❑   ❾ Tell the housegirl

❑   ❺ Tell my sister   ❑   ❿ I don't know

❑   Any other answer: _____

12.   Which is your greatest source of information on matters about sex?
       (You can tick √ more than one answer)

❑   ❶ Friends   ❑   ❻ Teachers

❑   ❷ Parents   ❑   ❼ Neighbours

❑   ❸ Older brothers   ❑   ❽ Cousins

❑   ❹ Older sisters   ❑   ❾ Uncles

❑   ❺ Aunties

❑   ❿ Write down any other answer: _____

13.   If someone sexually abused you, would you tell about it?

❑   ❶ Yes   ❑   ❷ No

❑   ❸ I don't want to say

❑   ❹ Any other answer ————————————————————————

14.   Suppose you told someone that you had been sexually abused. How do you think they
       would react?

❑   ❶ They would believe me   ❑   ❹ Nothing would happen

❑   ❷ They would not believe me   ❑   ❺ I would keep it a secret

❑   ❸ I would be helped

Turn to the next page please ☛

PART B: Is it True or False?

Tick (√) your answer in the box.

	True	False	I don't know
Example: This is not an examination	√		
15. All children are at risk of being sexually abused.			
16. Most children who are sexually abused are girls.			
17. Most children who are sexually abused are boys.			
18. Older children sometimes sexually abuse younger children.			
19. House girls can sexually abuse a child.			
20. Some family members can sexually abuse children in the family.			
21. Most people who sexually abuse children are strangers.			
22. Teachers can sexually abuse children.			
23. Fathers can sexually abuse children.			
24. Mothers can sexually abuse children			
25. A child is likely to be abused when alone at night and outside the home.			
26. Most children who are sexually abused report about it.			
27. Most children who are sexually abused DO NOT tell about it.			
28. It is advisable to tell a trusted adult about sexual abuse.			
29. If a child is sexually abused, she or he is not to blame.			
30. Most parents don't talk about child sexual abuse with their children.			
31. I know what I should do if an adult sexually abused me.			

Turn to the next page please ☛

32.	If an adult asks me to show him or her my private parts, he or she is sexually abusing me.			
33.	If an adult asks me to touch or play with his or her private parts, he or she is sexually abusing me.			
34.	Boys can be sexually abused.			
35.	You should be informed about how to protect yourself from sexual abuse.			
36.	Lessons about protecting oneself from child sexual abuse should be taught in school.			
37.	Lessons about protecting oneself from child sexual abuse should be taught at home.			
38.	If an adult shows me pictures of naked people having sex, he or she is sexually abusing me.			
39.	If an adult shows me a movie that had naked people having sex, he or she is sexually abusing me.			
40.	I know how to handle a situation that may lead to sexual abuse.			
41.	The subject of child sex abuse should be introduced in schools.			
42.	I can easily tell whether a situation is safe or unsafe.			
43.	I need more information about how I can protect myself from sexual abuse.			
44.	An adult who plans to sexually abuse me can offer me gifts to trick me.			
45.	I know the difference between a bad touch and a good touch.			
46.	There is someone I know too well who has been abusing me sexually while making me believe that it is a game or it is love.			
47.	If someone sexually abused me and asked me to keep it a secret, I would not keep it a secret. I would tell about it.			

48. Who should inform you about how to protect yourself from people who are likely to abuse you sexually? **(You can tick √ more than one answer)**

- ❏ ❶ friends
- ❏ ❷ parents
- ❏ ❺ any other answer: _____
- ❏ ❸ older brothers/sisters
- ❏ ❹ teachers in school

49. This questionnaire was:

- ❏ ❶ useful
- ❏ ❷ clear
- ❏ ❸ difficult to understand
- ❏ ❹ embarrassing
- ❏ ❺ interesting
- ❏ ❻ too long

Turn to the next page please ☛

PART C: Draw and Write

STORY 1

After a PE lesson, Baraka, a class six girl was asked to remain behind by the PE teacher, Mr Maumizi. After the other children left, Mr Maumizi reached out and touched one of Baraka's private part.

Draw and write simple sentences explained below. Do not worry about making spelling mistakes.

1. Draw simple pictures of Baraka and Mr Maumizi.

2. Under the picture, write simple sentences about your drawing. _____
    _____
    _____

3. Which part of Baraka do you think Mr Maumizi touched? _____
    _____
    _____

4. Write whether this was a good or a bad touch.
    This was a _____ touch.

5. Draw what you think Baraka did after she was touched.

6. Write in simple sentences what you think Baraka did after the touch. _____
    _____
    _____

7. What would you have done if you were Baraka? _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

8. Which parts of your body are private? _____
    _____
    _____

9. What is a bad touch?

Turn to the next page please ☞

_____

_____

10.   Is a teacher allowed to touch you in a way that feels uncomfortable?

_____

_____

11.   What can a child do if a teacher behaves badly?

_____

_____

STORY 2

Abdi is a class seven pupil. He is an only child. His parents work late. They usually get home from work after 8:00 pm. When Abdi gets home from school, the housegirl asks him to play an adult game. They get into Abdi's bed. The housegirl touches Abdi's private parts. Abdi calls this game tabia mbaya.

Draw and write simple sentences explained below. Do not worry about making spelling mistakes.

12.   Draw simple pictures of Abdi and the housegirl.

13.   Under the picture, write simple sentences about your drawing.

_____

_____

14.   Which part of Abdi do you think the housegirl touches?

_____

_____

15.   Write whether this is a good or a bad touch.

    This was a _____ touch.

16.   What would you do if you were Abdi?

_____

_____

∞ **ENDS**∞

✍**This is the end of the questionnaire. You have time to read it through once again to check if you answered all the questions. You are free to ask any questions. Please remain seated at your desk; we will collect all the questionnaires at the same time. Thank you for taking your time to answer the questions.**

Appendix 3

A School-Based Child Sexual Abuse Awareness Program: The Conceptualised Model

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┌─────────────────────────────┐                    ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ • Policy Makers: To         │   Advocacy role    │ • International Organisations    │
│   formulate policy on the   │ ◄───────────────   │ • Child Rights Activists        │
│   place of creating         │                    │ • Non-Governmental Organisations│
│   awareness about Child     │                    │   (NGOs)                        │
│   Sexual Abuse in the       │                    │ • Community Based Organisations │
│   Education system.         │                    │   (CBOs)                        │
└─────────────────────────────┘                    │ • Faith Based Organisations (FBOs)│
                                                    └─────────────────────────────────┘
```

Policy Makers: To formulate policy on the place of creating awareness about Child Sexual Abuse in the Education system.

Advocacy role

- International Organisations
- Child Rights Activists
- Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)
- Community Based Organisations (CBOs)
- Faith Based Organisations (FBOs)

Ministry of Education (MoE)
- Develop/Implement Policy
- Develop the curriculum

Supportive role, e.g., funding of CSA programs

Vet the information materials for appropriate content

Publishers
- Develop information materials and submit them the Ministry of Education for vetting

Publish and provide materials directly to children

Child Sexual Abuse Awareness: Concepts to be covered
- Forms of child sexual abuse (touch and non-touch forms)
- Discriminating safe from unsafe situations
- Disclosure skills
- Develop assertiveness
- Resistance skills
- Body ownership
- Safety skills
- Grooming
- Recovery
- Not to blame self
- What the law says on child sexual abuse

- Booksellers
- Librarians
- Book stockists/Vendors

- Schools
- Teachers
- Parents
- Guardians
- Child minders

Access to information

- Children

Notes
- Elevated knowledge levels of children on child sexual abuse.
- Ability of children to handle risky situations is guaranteed to some level.