

2021

The Influences of Cultural Norms on Child Sexual Abuse Prevention of Female Adolescents in Jamaica

Valeta Wilson-James
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Latin American Literature Commons](#), and the [Quantitative, Qualitative, Comparative, and Historical Methodologies Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Valeta L. Wilson-James

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Karel Kurst-Swanger, Committee Chairperson,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Kevin Fandl, Committee Member,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. James Frampton, University Reviewer,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2021

Abstract

The Influences of Cultural Norms on Child Sexual Abuse Prevention of Female

Adolescents in Jamaica

by

Valeta L. Wilson-James

MPhil, Walden University, 2020

MBA, DeVry University Keller Graduate School, 2013

BS, Columbia College, 2009

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Public Administration

Walden University

August 2021

Abstract

Child sexual abuse (CSA) is a global epidemic that became a national crisis affecting female adolescents in Jamaica. CSA occurs in all cultures, and prevention policies are well researched to address this problem. However, little is known about the influence that cultural norms have on CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. Other researchers have focused on CSA prevention policies, but none have explored the influences of cultural norms from the perception of law enforcement and child welfare workers. With the social-ecological model, this qualitative case study addressed the cultural norms influencing the enforcement of CSA prevention policies affecting Jamaican female adolescents. Snowball sampling technique was used to reach 10 participants who were Jamaican nationals with experience in law enforcement and child welfare. Data were collected from interviews and archival records on CSA prevention and statistics. Using Microsoft Excel, data were coded and categorized to identify themes. Results revealed that cultural norms influenced the enforcement of CSA prevention policies because these norms fostered an antiinformant culture where victims and witnesses were afraid to disclose sexual abuse. Also, it was culturally accepted for older men to be sexually involved with female adolescents with some parents encouraging the relationship for financial support. Findings also indicated that CSA prevention policies are affected by a female adolescent socioecology. Implications for positive social change include using this analysis to inform policymakers of the influences that cultural norms have on CSA prevention policies, strengthen current legislation, change cultural norms that condone CSA, and improve the public health of female adolescents.

The Influences of Cultural Norms on Child Sexual Abuse Prevention of Female

Adolescents in Jamaica

by

Valeta L. Wilson-James

MPhil, Walden University, 2020

MBA, DeVry University Keller Graduate School, 2013

BS, Columbia College, 2009

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Public Administration

Walden University

August 2021

Dedication

To my grandparents, Percival “Sonny” Bogle, Kenneth “Big Ken” Wilson, Tesselin “Dur” Bucknor and my and grandaunts Elaine “Nanny” Bucknor, and Merris “May” Bucknor, may your souls rest in peace. You have all taught me the value of hard work, dedication, resiliency, perseverance, generosity, and love. To my parents, Gever Bogle-Wilson and the late Joseph Wilson, this research study would not be possible without you. I recognize and appreciate your sacrifices. You have instilled in me the qualities needed to become a strong woman and sacrificed so much along the way. Arianna and Cameron, my beloved children, I love you more than words can describe. Thank you for making me a better person and giving me purpose in life. Never stop reaching for the stars because, through hard work, your dreams will come true. To the victims of child sexual abuse, I will continue to be your advocate.

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty God for blessing and guiding me through this process. I embarked on this journey eight years ago, not fully understanding the challenges to be encountered along the way. Even when life got in the way, I kept my faith in seeing this process through. I want to acknowledge Dr. Karel Kurst-Swanger for her continuous support, advice, knowledge, and insightful discussions as my Faculty Chair. She always made herself available, answering numerous phone calls and text messages. My sincerest gratitude to Dr. Kevin Fandl for his support, may you rest in Paradise with eternal love. Dr. James Frampton, thank you for your support and willingness to see me through the remainder of this endeavor. To my siblings, Kemar, Latoya, Karyelle, and Brianna, thank you for always believing in me. To Schmar James, thank you for the love, friendship, and support throughout this rigorous but rewarding journey. You have been my sounding board in more ways than one. To Monte Powell, I appreciate your weekly phone calls and words of encouragement “run at your own pace.” To Dr. Jeffery Deal, we did it brother, defying all odds and stereotypes. Finally, my profound gratitude to my family, friends, and everyone for your support. A good support system is important to surviving the doctoral process and I would not have made it without your words of encouragement.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background.....	6
Problem Statement.....	8
Purpose of the Study	9
Research Questions.....	10
Central Research Question.....	10
Subquestions	10
Theoretical Framework.....	11
Nature of the Study	13
Definitions.....	15
Assumptions.....	17
Scope and Delimitations	18
Limitations	19
Significance of the Study	20
Summary	22
Chapter 2: Literature Review	25
Introduction.....	25
Literature Search Strategy.....	29
Theoretical Foundation: The Socioecological Model.....	31
Individual Level	33

Relationship Level	35
Community Level	39
Societal Level.....	44
Rationale for Use of Socioecological Model	47
Literature Review Related to Key Concepts.....	49
A Global Public Health Problem	50
Defining Child Sexual Abuse	51
Legal Age of Consent	52
Child Sexual Abuse Primarily Affects Adolescents	54
Child Sexual Abuse Primarily Affects Females	55
Cultural Norms Influence Prevention	56
Patriarchal Beliefs.....	60
Taboo	61
Nontraditional Household.....	62
Lack of Awareness of CSA Prevention Policies.....	63
Psychological and Psychosocial Disorders	63
Summary and Conclusions	64
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	67
Introduction.....	67
Research Design and Rationale	68
Role of the Researcher	71
Ethical Considerations	75

Methodology	77
Participants.....	78
Population and Sampling	78
Participant Recruitment and Selection.....	80
Saturation and Sample Size	82
Data Collection	83
Data Analysis	87
Issues of Trustworthiness.....	90
Credibility	91
Transferability.....	93
Dependability	93
Confirmability.....	94
Reliability and Validity.....	95
Summary	96
Chapter 4: Results.....	98
Introduction.....	98
Setting	99
Demographics	100
Data Collection	102
Interviews.....	102
Review of Archival Records.....	104
Data Analysis	105

Interviews.....	106
Archival Records	113
Evidence of Trustworthiness.....	119
Credibility	119
Transferability.....	120
Dependability	120
Confirmability.....	121
Results.....	122
Interviews.....	123
Archival Records	138
Summary	149
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations	150
Introduction.....	150
Interpretation of the Findings.....	152
Findings Related to the Central Research Question	153
Findings for Subquestion 1	154
Findings for Subquestion 2	158
Theoretical Framework: The Socioecological Model.....	166
Limitations of the Study.....	170
Recommendations.....	172
Implications for Social Change.....	173
Conclusion	175

References.....	177
Appendix A: Interview Protocol.....	212
Appendix B: Interview Questionnaire	214

List of Tables

Table 1. Participant Group Demographics.....	101
Table 2. Interview Questions, Responses, and Codes	107
Table 3. Thematic Structure.....	112
Table 4. Archival Data Review.....	114

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Child sexual abuse (CSA) is a global problem affecting approximately 150 million girls (David et al., 2016). In the Caribbean, namely Jamaica, CSA is a serious problem that is widespread across communities. The prevalence of CSA in Jamaica is attributed to strong cultural beliefs that influence prevention (Caribbean Policy Research Institute [CPRI], 2018). As with most countries in the Caribbean, violence against females in Jamaica can be explained by the strong patriarchal society (Wang, 2015). A patriarchal society depowers females, making them feel powerless to the sexual abuse (Fakunmoju et al., 2016; Rawat, 2014), especially female adolescents. Exploring cultural norms helps to make comprehensible the risk factors that increases the risk of sexual abuse among female adolescents. These cultural norms can influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies. Cultural norms influence not only CSA prevention policies but also the acceptability of attitudes towards this problem (Gupta et al., 2018). Recognizing cultural norms creates a safe and healthy environment for victims of CSA to report the abuse (Caprioli & Crenshaw, 2017). Other researchers have shown that there is a correlation between cultural norms and CSA prevention (Jeremiah et al., 2017; Martinello, 2020; Seth & Srivastava, 2017).

Despite being a universal problem, varying definitions make “sexual abuse” difficult to define (Samms & Cholewa, 2014; Sheykhjan, 2015). Definitions of the term *child sexual abuse* are ambiguous due to variable definitions of both *child* and *sexual abuse*. These definitions differ between cultures and societies (Meinck et al., 2015). The variations in definitions are due to CSA being a complex issue (De Jong et al., 2015;

Samms & Cholewa, 2014). Although many researchers agree that CSA involves inappropriate sexual contact between an adult and a child, there are differences concerning the age of the child (De Jong et al., 2015; Finkelhor et al., 2014). The differences in defining the age of a child mean that no universal definition of CSA is available. The United Nations Children's Fund's (UNICEF) general definition of CSA is "any involvement of a child in sexual activity that he or she does not fully comprehend, is unable to give informed consent to, or for which the child is not developmentally prepared and cannot give consent, or that violates the laws or social taboos of society" (David et al., 2016, p. 2). In Jamaica, however, the Sexual Offences Act describes CSA as sexual offenses committed by an adult against a child under the 16 for sexual purposes (Ministry of Justice [MOJ], 2009b).

CSA continues to be a significant public health problem that undermines the victims' psychological and emotional well-being. A research study of 75 sources found that 42 CSA victims reported experiencing psychological distress following the abuse (Blakemore et al., 2017). The effects of CSA undermine healthy human development and damage healthy interpersonal human relationships (Djopkang, 2018). The psychosocial effect of sexual abuse is a problem affecting both girls and boys, but studies suggest that young women are more vulnerable to sexual abuse (Haffejee & Theron, 2017). For these young women, sexual abuse can be a traumatic experience that affects their quality of life resulting in lifelong psychosocial disorders (Blakemore et al., 2017; Bourne et al., 2015). Additional studies report that most female adolescents experience sexual violence in the Caribbean at an early age, resulting in physical and psychological vulnerabilities

(Jeremiah et al., 2017; Reid et al., 2014). Given the adverse implications of CSA, exploring the full scope of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention is necessary.

Research studies examining the cultural norms that promote the acceptance of sexual abuse in Jamaica are sparse (Smith et al., 2019). Several research studies have examined the different levels of CSA prevention, but none of these studies examined how cultural norms influence primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policy enforcement targeting female adolescents. There are concerns about the lack of research focusing on the impact of culture on sexual violence (Herres et al., 2018). Prevention is a holistic approach that requires examination of prevention across all three levels of prevention. Primary prevention involves taking measures to intervene before sexual abuse occurs (McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020; Zeller, 2017). Secondary prevention measures aim to stop abuse once the abuse is disclosed or has occurred (Knack et al., 2018; Zeller, 2017). Tertiary prevention aims at mitigating the negative consequences of the abuse after it has occurred to prevent revictimization (Zeller, 2017; Zollner et al., 2014).

For more than a decade, CSA prevention focused on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention (Zollner et al., 2014). The collective efforts of these prevention policies have the potential for preventing sexual abuse and avoiding harmful consequences for abuse victims. CSA is a problem that causes a multitude of psychosocial effects but is also associated with significant economic costs (McKibbin et al., 2017). Therefore, to reduce CSA, an examination of the cultural norms that influence primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. Additionally, exploring the cultural norms

related to the different levels of prevention according to Rudolph et al., (2018) should focus on targeting multiple levels of an adolescent's ecology.

In this qualitative research study, I explored whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies aimed at reducing female adolescents' sexual abuse. The high prevalence of CSA towards female adolescents makes exploring primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies a priority (Knack et al., 2018). However, exploration of these cultural norms required the collective effort of law enforcement and child welfare workers. The findings increased awareness about the cultural norms that could influence the three levels of prevention policies targeting female adolescents in Jamaica. This is important because of the misconceptions of CSA, with some people falsely perceiving the problem due to their inability to recognize the sexual abuse (Nurse, 2018; Veenema et al., 2015).

The implementation of prevention policies requires policymakers to address the cultural norms (Bott et al., 2012), and so does the enforcement of prevention policies. In the Caribbean, the exploration of cultural norms is crucial for determining the influences on primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention. Bott et al. (2012) suggested that sexual abuse in the Caribbean is linked to cultural norms that support females being inferior to males. With high rates of CSA, exploring cultural norms as they relate to prevention identifies different reasons for the increase in CSA rates. Cultural norms affect the likelihood of CSA, namely, CSA disclosure and relationship to the perpetrator. Different variations of problems related to one's cultural background are reliable predictors for influencing a victim's willingness to disclose sexual abuse (McElvaney et

al., 2012). Wang (2015) suggested that one of the most common reasons for the increase in CSA is cultural norms causing these crimes to go unreported, consequentially resulting in between 60% to 95% of sexual abuse being unreported, globally.

The Jamaican culture is one in which parents are disinclined to discuss sex and discourage their child from disclosing sexual abuse, especially when the perpetrator is a family member or acquaintance (Smith et al., 2019). By examining the cultural norms that contribute to CSA, there is the potential for reducing CSA (Marcus, 2014). Other implications for social change include the potential for informing policymakers about the effects of cultural norms on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies to reduce the prevalence of CSA in Jamaica. The research findings across Jamaican communities can influence local prevention planning, implementation, enforcement, and monitoring across the different levels of prevention. The findings have the potential for increasing the universal body of literature on CSA, prevention, and the psychological effects of sexual violence. Lastly, cultural norms can and have provided perpetrators with opportunities to access victims (Blakemore et al., 2017); hence, the government can use the findings in their decision-making process about the enforcement of policies and practices creating positive social change.

In this chapter, I discuss CSA as a global epidemic that affects female adolescents in Jamaica. Chapter 1 begins with an introduction of CSA as a problem for which the different levels of prevention have been examined for decades. However, the introduction highlights the importance of exploring how cultural norms influence primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies to reduce the sexual abuse of female adolescents. The

chapter includes brief discussion of the importance of law enforcement and child welfare workers in exploring the influences of cultural norms on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. Described in detail is a background of the study, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, and research questions, followed by an overview of the theoretical framework used to structure and support the research study. I also describe the nature of the study, definitions of terms, assumptions, information relevant to the scope of work and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study. Chapter 1 concludes with a summary of the main points and a transition to Chapter 2.

Background

The global prevalence of CSA is an epidemic affecting millions of children (Cox, 2018; David et al., 2016; Veenema et al., 2015). Of all the Caribbean nations, Jamaica reportedly has one of the highest CSA rates, all socioeconomic groups (CPRI, 2018; Gardner et al., 2007). CSA is a nationwide problem affecting female adolescents from all 14 parishes (Miller, 2014; United States Department of State, 2018). In the Caribbean, 92.3% of adolescents report experiencing their first sexual intercourse before the age of 16 (Reid et al., 2014). Of these reported cases, 47.9% of females described their first sexual experience as unwanted, forced, or coerced by a relative or close associate of the family (Jeremiah et al., 2017). Martinello (2020) found that, of all the sexual abuse incidents reported, children knew their abuser in approximately 88% of abuse incidents, whereas, the abuser was known to the family 70% to 90% of the time. The high reports of sexual abuse against children contribute to the everyday risk a child faces in their community. Previous studies have shown that sexual abuse occurs when the child is not

developmentally equipped to grant consent (Jeremiah et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015). Jamaica's Sexual Offences Act makes punishable performing sexual acts on a person who is incapable of consenting to the act (MOJ, 2009b). Cultural norms, coupled with the lack of cognitive development, can increase sexual abuse for female adolescents. Studies have shown that cultural norms result in many children feeling powerless against their perpetrators (McHugh et al., 2015; Sanjeevi et al., 2018). As a matter of fact, children are innocent and powerless individuals who are vulnerable to sexual abuse (Jayapalan et al., 2018).

Based on an empirical study on CSA, it was determined that the effects of sexual abuse cause long-term psychological and psychosocial distress (Domhardt et al., 2015). A similar study identified that CSA harms the victim's psychological well-being (Blakemore et al., 2017). Other researchers have reported that sexual abuse can negatively impact a person's physical, emotional, and mental health development (Jayapalan et al., 2018; Oshima et al., 2014; Veenema et al., 2015). These psychological and psychosocial effects degrade interpersonal trust, making it challenging for adolescents to maintain healthy relationships. Jeremiah et al. (2017) asserted that CSA victims tend to experience difficulties in maintaining long-term interpersonal relationships. Additional studies have shown that the psychological and psychosocial effects of CSA make victims susceptible to additional trauma (Committee for Children, 2020; Jeremiah et al., 2017).

Other researchers have explored CSA across three levels of prevention, but additional research is needed to examine how cultural norms influence prevention

policies targeting female adolescents from the perception of individuals responsible for enforcing policies. Through this study, I explored the cultural norms that influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. In particular, this study considered law enforcement and child welfare workers perception of cultural norms across the different levels of prevention. Considering the cultural norms of these participants is essential because of their role in prevention across different levels. CSA prevention requires collaboration and cooperation of these participants and policymakers to ensure continuous primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention throughout an adolescent ecology. Muers (2017) explained that cultural norms can shape prevention policy objectives and outcomes. Nonetheless, studies have shown that prevention policies require everyone's cohesion to include research participants, policymakers, and people impacted by these policies to share collective beliefs (Márquez-Flores et al., 2016; Miller, 2014; Todahl et al., 2019).

Problem Statement

The problem to be addressed in this research is whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies from the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers. CSA is a significant problem affecting female adolescents in Jamaica. For example, Jamaican female adolescents are eight times more likely to be sexually abused than any other group (David et al., 2016; Miller, 2014; Samms & Cholewa, 2014). Previous researchers have described female adolescents as highly vulnerable to sexual abuse, demonstrating the need for prevention to protect this group (Meinck et al., 2016; Pérez-González et al., 2017). Interview

findings from a sample of 3,515 children, ranging from 10 to 17 years, showed that 32.3% of adolescents report experiencing abuse (Meinck et al., 2016). Another study of 590 participants determined that girls are the primary victims of sexual abuse (Yuce et al., 2015). In addition, a situation analysis of Jamaican children found that of 1,094 reported incidents of child abuse, 97.3% were sexual abuse committed against girls (CPRI, 2018).

Although several studies on CSA prevention exist, researchers have not examined whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention targeting female adolescents. Despite the lack of knowledge about the influences of cultural norms, Haffejee and Theron (2017) explained that cultural norms increase the risks of sexual abuse for female adolescents. Other researchers have described cultural norms as a catalyst for the prevalence of childhood sexual abuse (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019; Sanjeevi et al., 2018; Sheykhjan, 2015). Exploring the potential influences of cultural norms on the different levels of prevention is important because many Jamaicans are unfamiliar with the current prevention policies (Gordon, 2015). Most of these studies also focused on CSA from a global perspective. Therefore, for this qualitative research study, I concentrated on the epidemic of CSA in Jamaica.

Purpose of the Study

This qualitative study was to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies targeting female adolescents from the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers. This study acknowledged CSA as a significant problem that primarily affects female

adolescents in Jamaica and addresses the psychological and psychosocial damage to this problem. In this research study, I explored law enforcement officials' and child welfare workers' perceptions of cultural norms as they relate to their role in enforcing CSA prevention policies. The findings of this study addressed this gap in research by examining whether cultural norms influenced the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies in Jamaica. Addressing the problem from the perspective of the research participants helped identify the cultural norms that influence CSA prevention policy enforcement. The research findings contributed to the body of knowledge about the influences of cultural norms on CSA prevention policies. Additionally, the study sought to bridge the gap in literature by exploring primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies globally and nationwide.

Research Questions

Central Research Question

What are the perspectives of law enforcement and child welfare workers about the influences of cultural norms in enforcing child sexual abuse prevention policies in Jamaica?

Subquestions

From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

Theoretical Framework

The social-ecological model (SEM) was introduced in the 1970s by Urie Bronfenbrenner as a multilevel approach for understanding human development through interrelating components (Hickey et al., 2012; Kilanowski, 2017). Several organizations expanded Bronfenbrenner's model, providing different variations to explore violence and prevention better. Among these organizations was the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), an operating entity of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). There are multiple factors that directly and indirectly influence a person's experience with CSA, making it necessary to examine the different levels of prevention (Martinello, 2020). The CDC's model helps explore the social determinants and nature of childhood sexual abuse at many levels (Kilanowski, 2017; Krug et al., 2002). The SEM integrates an individual's behaviors, culture, and demographic factors that influence people's attitudes toward violence and prevention. The exploration of these different factors creates an environment conducive to change, making it easier to adopt healthy behaviors and preventative measures (Salihu et al., 2015). Moreover, the SEM is useful because it allows researchers to investigate the barriers that discourage the different prevention levels while identifying strategies for improvement (Salihu et al., 2015). The SEM is an appropriate theoretical framework for addressing the different levels of prevention because it encompasses four levels necessary for exploring whether cultural norms influence enforcing CSA prevention policies. These four levels are individual, relationship, community, and societal (CDC, 2020c; Cramer & Kapusta,

2017). The different levels of the SEM allowed for a thorough exploration of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies designed to reduce CSA.

The individual level of the SEM identifies personal factors that increase the probability of a child falling victim to sexual abuse. Some of these personal characteristics include age, gender, personal experiences, history of abuse, lack of education, and diminished cognitive development (CDC, 2020c; Martinello, 2020). To enforce prevention policies at the individual level requires a change in attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors necessary for shaping the cultural norms that increase the likelihood of a female adolescents becoming a victim of sexual abuse.

The relationship level examined the relations that make female adolescents in Jamaica susceptible to sexual abuse. Prevention at the relationship level considers the child's relationship with relatives, community residents, and family associates to determine how these relationships contribute to their experience (CDC, 2020c).

Community, the next level of the SEM, is used to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. The community level explores the environment in which relationships occur and seeks to identify characteristics within these environments that increases the likelihood of becoming a victim of violence (CDC, 2020c). Elements at the community level that may influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies include a person's household and neighborhood. Community-related factors directly and indirectly affect a child's psychological and psychosocial wellbeing (Cummings et al., 2017).

The last level of the SEM focuses on societal factors. The societal level is critical because it explores norms and laws that support violence (Cerulli et al., 2019; Pirelli et al., 2019). This level of the SEM explores relevant cultural norms that shape CSA prevention policies across the different levels of prevention. Framing this research study within the SEM allowed for a greater exploration of the cultural norms that could influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. Additionally, the multilevel approach of the SEM considers the different spheres of CSA, allowing for appropriate prevention policies that are reflective of the culture (Harper et al., 2018; Martinello, 2020).

Nature of the Study

The single case study approach was the qualitative research design for this study. A prevalent research design among qualitative researchers, the single case study strategy allows for a detailed description and analysis to explore the root causes of the problem (Ridder, 2017). A single case study can richly describe the problem's existence providing an in-depth narrative and description of the research problem. The single case study approach offers a degree of flexibility not afforded by other qualitative research designs (Hyett et al., 2014). The autonomy to collect data from multiple sources enhances the research study's reliability and validity (Creswell, 2014; Ridder, 2017). It is a viable approach for exploring complex issues in a naturalistic and real-world setting (Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Ridder, 2017).

Interviews with law enforcement officials and child welfare workers identified whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies across the

different prevention levels. By interviewing law enforcement officials and child welfare workers, I gained a new perspective about their perceptions of cultural norms and the influences these norms have on the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Interviews were conducted by phone and through a video messaging application due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Interviewing participants in a natural environment reveals their genuine emotions, making it possible to capture the true essence of their responses (Creswell 2018; Creswell, 2014). Data collection in a natural setting makes it easier to discern verbal and nonverbal responses and cues (Creswell 2018; Creswell, 2014). These organic responses resulted in meaningful interpretation of the data allowing for a deeper exploration of the problem. To substantiate the responses from the interview and determine the effects of cultural norms on CSA prevention policies, I examined archival records, which included statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents from the CDC, Council on Hemispheric Affairs (COHA), the Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network (RAINN), and the World Health Organization (WHO).

In this study, I employed several methods to establish internal validity. All data collected was validated through triangulation, offering a detailed case description. Triangulation of the data tested the validity of the research through data convergence from multiple sources (Patton, 2015; Ridder, 2017). To validate the interview guide and interview questions, three educators served as peer reviewers providing direction and clarity to improve the interview guide and interview questions. Furthermore, combining the data in the case study provides a chain of evidence that increased readers' confidence in the research data and its findings.

Definitions

The research inquiry incorporated relevant terms that are defined below:

Adolescent (adolescence): The transitional stage of physical and psychological development following the onset of puberty during which a young person develops from childhood to adulthood (Meinck et al., 2016; Tener, 2018; WHO, 2018).

Adult: A male or female of or over 18 years of age (MOJ, 2009b).

Child: An individual under 18 years of age (MacGinley et al., 2019; MOJ, 2009a; National Institutes of Health [NIH], 2019).

Child abuse: All types of abuse that cause physical and emotional damage to a child's wellbeing (Klein et al., 2013).

Child (childhood) sexual abuse: An adult perpetrating a sexual act with a person younger than 16 years old, or who is not developmentally prepared to consent to their participation in the sexual act, violating societal norms and legislations (David et al., 2016; Lahtinen et al., 2018).

Child Sexual Abuse Prevention Programs: Programs designed to increase awareness and reduce risk factors related to CSA (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2019).

Cultural norms: Shared beliefs and learned behaviors that influence people's thought process and actions (Gupta et al., 2018).

Informer: Negative pseudonym for a person who reports to an authoritative position something another person has done (Gordon, 2015).

Legal age of consent: The legally defined age or a minimum age at which a person does not require parental consent to engage in sexual activities (Murray et al., 2014; Tener, 2018).

Marginalized communities: Communities systematically excluded due to being in a lower socioeconomic class and, as a result, lack the self-efficacy to improve their livelihood (Garrett, 2019).

Nontraditional households: Household with a single parent or stepparent (Jayapalan et al., 2018).

Perpetrator: A relative, friend, caregiver, close family acquaintance, and community leader to include pastors and teachers who commit CSA (Lahtinen et al., 2018; Meinck et al., 2016).

Prevention: Actions to reduce or eliminate potential injuries, while encouraging and promoting positive interactions for long-term change (Zollner et al., 2014).

Sexual abuse: Force and unwanted sexual contact and acts against a person (Finkelhor et al., 2014; Meinck et al., 2016).

Socioeconomic: Social standing of a person or group based on a combination of economic and social measures to include education, income, and occupation (American Psychological Association [APA], 2020).

Victim blaming: Attitude that suggests that the victim is responsible for the sexual abuse rather than the perpetrator (Caprioli & Crenshaw, 2017; Radford et al., 2015).

Assumptions

As the primary research instrument in the data collection process, qualitative researchers always have assumptions (Creswell, 2018; Patton, 2015). These assumptions are the uncontrollable aspect of the research study, but necessary to support the research problem (Creswell, 2018; Simon, 2018). Simon (2018) asserted that the research problem could not exist without these assumptions, or study would be irrelevant. Six assumptions were made for this study. First, it was assumed that all research participants have experience enforcing CSA prevention policies at their level of prevention. Second, there is an underlying assumption that participants responded truthfully to the interview questions. However, this assumes that the participants understood the interview questions to articulate a response. Third, cultural norms about CSA in Jamaica are unknown, but it was assumed that varying beliefs influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. However, this assumed that all participants comprehended Jamaica's CSA epidemic and the primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies in place to address this problem. Fourth, there is an assumption that law enforcement and child welfare workers were willing to openly discuss known cultural norms that influenced the different levels of CSA prevention. A fifth assumption is that the participant sample is an accurate representation of the population, and the data presented in the literature search was trustworthy, reliable, and used proper data analysis techniques. Lastly, it was assumed that all participants valued exploring whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies to reduce the sexual abuse of female adolescents across Jamaica.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this qualitative study involved interviewing individuals from Jamaica, who directly or indirectly have experience with CSA prevention policies. Interviewing these individuals helped ascertain whether cultural norms impact the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. The scope of this research study was supported by a central research question and two subquestions that provided insight about the cultural norms that influenced the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies.

Delimitations are restrictions that arise from limitations in the scope of the study (Alpi & Evans, 2019; Simon, 2018). The study's delimitations define boundaries by the exclusion and inclusion decisions made during the development of the study plan to scope the research in a useful way (Alpi & Evans, 2019). Delimitations are imposed by the researcher and include the objectives, research questions, methodology, the population to be investigated, and chosen theoretical framework (Simon, 2018). The research study's first delimitation is the research problem. Other delimitations of the study included law enforcement and child welfare workers. Excluded from this study were individuals younger than 18, survivors of CSA, and people lacking professional experience in enforcing sexual abuse. Although several theoretical frameworks were appropriate for this qualitative study, the CDC's SEM supported the gap in the literature through the exploration of law enforcement and child welfare workers. Nonetheless, findings from this research study can be used to identify additional gaps in research, used

by child protection agencies to enhance their prevention policies, and be incorporated in the body of knowledge on CSA prevention policies.

Limitations

There were several limitations and ethical issues with this qualitative study. The first limitation was the difference in terminologies and the case study approach. The difference in definitions may result in generalized findings, which can be challenging when attempting to carry out this research. Second, data saturation was a limitation of the case study design because of the abundance of available material for researchers. Third, like most studies that involve sensitive topics, there were ethical concerns, and this qualitative study was no exception. Qualitative research is suitable for researching sensitive topics because it allows researchers to establish a trusting relationship with the participants through interviews (Dempsey et al., 2016; Fahie, 2014). However, interviews on sensitive topics such as CSA can be uncomfortable and challenging for the researcher and participant. This is the case for professionals such as law enforcement and child welfare workers. Questions about their professional work could lead to disclosure, resulting in reprisal for their participation (Porter, 2018; Walden University, 2019). Due to the sensitive nature of this research, measures were taken to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants and their responses. The final limitation was the potential for ethical issues during the recruitment process, namely, obtaining informed consent. A preliminary discussion with Walden's Institutional Review Board (IRB) was done to mitigate these ethical concerns by ensuring that research protocols included the necessary safeguards to protect all participants' rights to privacy and confidentiality.

Significance of the Study

CSA is a global problem with millions of children affected annually (Cox, 2018; David et al., 2016; Veenema et al., 2015). With more than 44,000 reported cases of child abuse in Jamaica for over 7 years, a significant percentage of these cases are CSA (Linton, 2017). Sexual abuse is a persistent problem affecting the health and empowerment of adolescent Jamaican females (UNICEF, 2020). Researchers have found that an unprecedented number of these crimes are perpetrated against female adolescents (Harriot & Jones, 2016; Meinck et al., 2016). The high rates of CSA against young women and its effect make it necessary to explore the different prevention levels. Specifically, exploring whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. It is theorized that the increase in sexual abuse among Jamaican children is a result of cultural norms (Samms & Cholewa, 2014). A patriarchal society consists of a male-dominated power structure in which males are superior to females. Regarding sexual relations, Jamaican men have a strong sense of belief that they are privileged and entitled to sexual favors from females residing in their household (Samms & Cholewa, 2014). Samms and Cholewa (2014) explained that this superiority complex among Jamaican men contributes to the sexual abuse of Jamaican girls. These cultural norms in Jamaica are a problem worth exploring, as “culture establishes normative behavior” that is maintained by a society (Grant, 2017, p. 40-1). Another study indicated that culture impedes substantial progress in preventing the adverse consequences of CSA (Sanjeevi et al., 2018). For researchers, this research study is significant because it might uncover additional gaps not already explored in previous

research studies. This research study contributed to the literature on primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies.

Through this qualitative study, I explored whether cultural norms influenced the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies from law enforcement officials and child welfare workers' perspective. This was accomplished through interviews and archival records such as statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents for an interpretative analysis. Through this qualitative study, Jamaica's CSA prevention policies became more visible. Increased visibility is necessary because many Jamaicans are unfamiliar with the government's prevention policies to include its support services (Gordon, 2015). Policymakers could use results to support the design, implementation, enforcement, and evaluation of CSA prevention policies nationwide. Multiple agencies enforce these prevention policies, including the Centre for Investigation of Sexual Offences and Child Abuse (CISOCA), Child Protection and Family Services Agency (CPFSA), Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF), MOJ and the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Information (MOEY). The most prevalent of these agencies is Jamaica's leading child protection organization, the CPFSA, which promotes and enforces prevention policies that protect children and strengthen families (CPFSA, 2020). Also, the CISOCA investigates sexual offenses and provides preventative services to these victims and their families (CPFSA, 2020). The findings of this research could be the catalyst for social change, specifically to increase awareness of the cultural norms that has the potential to influence CSA prevention policies. The presence of more information enables policymakers to make informed decisions.

Summary

CSA remains a problem that primarily affects female adolescents in the Caribbean. In Jamaica, sexual abuse against young women persists due to prevailing cultural norms (Smith, 2016). For example, cultural norms influence the likelihood that sexual abuse go undiscovered and unreported by the child or adult. The Jamaican culture is not conducive to people, especially children feeling comfortable broaching the issue of sexual abuse. There is growing evidence to suggest that Jamaican children feel scared and helpless because their parents and communities are unable to protect them from sexual predators (Miller, 2014). Specifically, because most perpetrators are often relatives of the victims, a trusted family friend, and highly regarded members of the community (Jeremiah et al., 2017; Lahtinen et al., 2018; Lumsden, 2017; Miller, 2014). Therefore, victims are unable to report the sexual abuse because of their perpetrator's position in the family.

The global pervasiveness of CSA highlights the need for exploring whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of prevention policies in Jamaica. Although the prevalence of this global epidemic has made the problem more visible, there are growing concerns for prevention policies across all three levels of prevention (Pasura et al., 2012). Practical prevention policies are realized when there is a comprehensive understanding of the cultural norms that could potentially influence CSA prevention enforcement. The exploration of Jamaica's cultural norms makes it easier for individuals involved at the different levels of prevention to promote and enforce these prevention policies. Subsequently, these prevention policies can reduce the adverse effects of sexual abuse for

victims and their families. These adverse effects include increasing concerns that CSA causes debilitating psychological and psychosocial disorders that reach into adulthood.

For this research study, I used single case study as the qualitative research design because it explores real-life problems in a naturalistic environment. This was accomplished by analyzing the research problem, which allows for richness with real-life context (Creswell, 2018; Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Ridder, 2017). One central research question and two subquestions guided the research and offered clarity in addressing the research problem. The CDC's multilevel SEM was the theoretical framework that focused this research study. The operational definitions, assumptions, delimitations, and limitations were discussed in this chapter as well. Concluding Chapter 1 were the significance of this research study and the potential implications for social change.

Chapter 2 includes a comprehensive description of the literature review for this research inquiry. A review of peer-reviewed journals on CSA at the global level and in Jamaica, CSA prevention policies, and three different levels of prevention are exhausted in this chapter. This chapter address the literature strategies used to search and retrieve relevant data from multiple databases and search engines. Further described in this chapter is the SEM, which was the theoretical framework. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology and the analytic process applied to the data to answer the research questions. Chapter 4 reports the findings that emerged from the data analysis to include the presentation of the four emerging themes collected through interviews and eight themes that emerged from the archival data. The final chapter synthesizes the research

findings, recommendations for future study, implications for social change, and identified gaps for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

CSA is a universal problem affecting millions of children. Reports from the U.S. Department of State estimated that more than a million children in the Caribbean are susceptible to sexual abuse (Seelke, 2016). All children are at risk for sexual abuse, but the risks are greater for those in their adolescence. The increasing rates of CSA have resulted in a considerable amount of research on the issue. Despite CSA studies being on the rise, sexual abuse targeting female adolescents remains a silent and prevailing epidemic (Morgan, 2019). Although there are a wide range of research on CSA, scholars have identified that cultural norms are an important factor in the commission of CSA (Morgan, 2019; Palmer & Feldman, 2017; Shafe & Hutchinson, 2014). For example, a comprehensive assessment of 512 participants from five Caribbean nations, including Jamaica, identified culture as a precursor for adolescent sexual violence (Gentle-Genitty et al., 2017). However, researchers have not explored how such cultural norms influence the work of those professionals tasked with the prevention of sexual abuse of children in Jamaica (Samms & Cholewa, 2014; Sawrikar & Katz, 2017). In addition, different regions and countries have their own cultural norms about CSA, demanding an exhaustive exploration of the problem (Sawrikar & Katz, 2017).

CSA is a taboo topic in Jamaica (McKibbin et al., 2017; Reid et al., 2014), which lends to cultural norms, possibly influencing the rate of sexual abuse among female adolescents. Although violence is a problem affecting all levels of Jamaican society, dominating cultural norms result in these crimes going unreported (Smith, 2016). One

study showed that cultural norms affect disclosure, promoting the silence of sexual abuse (Caprioli & Crenshaw, 2017). The effects of CSA result in children often being worried about the adverse consequences of disclosure to include feelings of guilt, shame, physical abuse, and revictimization (Schönbucher et al., 2012; Yuce et al., 2015). Several studies concluded that a child's emotional beliefs of abuse, particularly feelings of shame, embarrassment, guilt, responsibility, and poor sense of self affect their decision to disclose the sexual abuse (Foster & Hagedorn, 2014; Morrison et al., 2018; Tat & Öztürk, 2019). These children's beliefs are influenced by concerns surrounding people's cultural norms towards CSA (Morrison et al., 2018).

Patriarchal belief is another cultural norm that influences the sexual abuse of female adolescents. For centuries, patriarchal beliefs have fostered an environment of violence against females in the Caribbean (Wang, 2015). In Jamaica, violence against females is deep-rooted in patriarchal beliefs of male dominance and female subordination (Smith, 2016; Wang, 2015; Yoon et al., 2015). Patriarchal beliefs in Jamaica are longstanding, encouraging male sexual entitlement and trivializing male behavior towards females (Smith et al., 2019). A patriarchal society is based on the cultural norms that there is a hierarchical power structure and that females are inferior to males (Rawat, 2014; Yoon et al., 2018a). Although Jamaica's Sexual Offences Act makes sexual relations between an adult and a person under 16 illegal, the country's patriarchal beliefs willfully disregard this legislation. The patriarchal beliefs allow men unrestricted access to sex from females, including minors (Djopkang, 2018; Morgan, 2019). Even in a structurally constructed system, patriarchal beliefs can disempower and silence females,

making them more vulnerable to sexual abuse (Djopkang, 2018). The degree of vulnerability is heightened for female adolescents. The imbalance of power under a patriarchal society inherently promotes a culture of silence and acceptability for CSA (Caprioli & Crenshaw, 2017). The cultural norm embedded in patriarchal beliefs is a critical influencer of sexual violence against Jamaican females. Therefore, this research is necessary to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies targeting female adolescents in Jamaica.

Undeniably, sexual abuse affects both males and females. However, in comparison to males, females are overwhelmingly the victims of sexual abuse. Multiple studies have shown that sexual abuse occurs more frequently in female adolescents (Márquez-Flores et al., 2016; Yoon et al., 2018b). As a matter of fact, Jamaican females are 30 times more likely than males to be sexually abused (Smith et al., 2019). In the Caribbean, a survey of 85 children showed that 67.1% of females reported being sexually abused (Klein et al., 2013). Current studies have shown that Jamaica continues to experience one of the highest rates of sexual abuse against females, averaging more than three times the global average (Smith et al., 2019). The sexual abuse of children is one of the fastest growing crimes adversely affecting Jamaican communities, and the second most common cause of injury among females (Smith et al., 2019). Statistical data from the CPFSA shows a rapid increase in CSA from 121 reported cases in 2007 to 3,806 cases of sexual abuse in 2015 (CPFSA, 2015). Studies show that sexual abuse continues to be a severe public health and social problem affecting female adolescents in Jamaica (Miller, 2014; Rock, 2013; Samms & Cholewa, 2014). There are concerns about the

psychological and psychosocial distress inflicted on adolescent victims of CSA. Research studies describes CSA as a severe problem with long-term psychological and psychological effects for female adolescents (Jones & Jemmott, 2016; Runarsdottir et al., 2019).

Although research on CSA prevention exists, a comprehensive exploration of whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of the different prevention levels is needed to eradicate the problem. This is especially important since no community has developed a useful system for safeguarding adolescents from sexual abuse (Collin-Vézina et al., 2013). The seriousness of Jamaica's CSA problem has encouraged multiple governments and NGOs to analyze the problem to reduce the occurrence of sexual abuse in children and adolescents across the island. These organizations have implemented CSA prevention programs in Jamaica, but additional primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies are still needed to reduce the violence against females (Safou-Mat, 2015). The Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) and UNICEF are two organizations that have earmarked resources to address Jamaica's CSA epidemic through the development and implementation of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies (CDB, 2017; CPRI, 2018). However, more is needed to address the cultural norms that could potentially influence primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policy enforcement targeting female adolescents.

In this chapter, I describe CSA as a problem affecting children worldwide. However, the literature review for this qualitative study focused on the problem of CSA in Jamaica. CSA is also described as a problem affected by cultural norms that causes

public health issues relating to psychological and psychosocial distress. I reviewed previous studies that described CSA as an epidemic and outline how cultural norms shape primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policy enforcement. The chapter includes the literature search strategy that lists the search engines, databases, and search terms used to locate articles relevant to the problem. I also describe the theoretical framework used to structure the research inquiry. Moreover, Chapter 2 is an exhaustive review of the three levels of prevention and prominent research concepts.

Literature Search Strategy

An iterative search approach was the literature search strategy for this qualitative study. A comprehensive examination of many academic electronic databases and search engines was performed to locate relevant articles for the literature review. The different databases and search engines produced peer-reviewed journal articles relating to CSA, CSA in Jamaica, Jamaica's CSA prevention policies, and primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. These multidisciplinary databases included SAGE, ScienceDirect, EBSCOhost, Academic Search Complete, ProQuest Central, and Academic Search Premier, along with the multidisciplinary search engine Google Scholar. Google Scholar was especially useful because it offered articles that matched the search criteria and date range. I received weekly alerts of relevant articles through Google Scholar. Subject specific data for the literature search derived from the *Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences*, *Child Abuse and Neglect Journal*, *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, and *Trauma Violence and Abuse Journal*. Thoreau database and Walden's Library were used to access multiple databases simultaneously, enhancing the literature search results. Walden's

library allowed for access to the university's Dissertations and Theses database along with the ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global database. Using both the Dissertation and Theses databases allowed for a review of similar studies to better conceptualize any content and theoretical frameworks. Other websites searched for relevant information include those of the WHO, UNICEF, the CDC, and Jamaica's MOJ.

The keywords and phrases used to search these databases and search engines included *three levels of prevention (primary, secondary, and tertiary), adolescent, age of consent, age of first sexual encounter, break the silence campaign, child abuse, child-adult relationship, childhood sexual abuse, child sexual abuse, child sexual abuse in the Caribbean, child sexual abuse in Jamaica, child sexual abuse prevention policies, consent, cultural norms, cultural norms and sexual abuse, family and sexual abuse, Jamaican culture, Jamaica sexual abuse, legal age of consent, perpetrators of child sexual abuse, sexual abuse, sexually abused children, sex with a minors, violence against females, violence prevention, social-ecological model, and socioecological model*. Each keyword or a combination of the keywords guided the study by producing relevant literature. The scope of the dissertation topic and research questions were used to maximize the literature search results. A great deal of the literature on CSA derived from books, journal articles, reports from governmental and NGOs, and archival records to include statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents from NGOs and nonprofit organizations. The breadth and scope of the literature search, however, was limited to work published in the last 5 years, except for relevant articles.

Theoretical Foundation: The Socioecological Model

The ecological model was first espoused by Bronfenbrenner in the 1970s to understand human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Kilanowski, 2017). Bronfenbrenner's ecological model offered a greater exploration of child development and family demographics through a multilevel system but did not account for the causes of abuse or help researchers gain in-depth insight about an individual's experiences throughout the abuse (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; Zhang, 2018). The literature review demonstrated that variations of Bronfenbrenner's ecological model are used to investigate child abuse risk factors and prevention (Meinck et al., 2015). As a result, theorists expanded earlier paradigms of Bronfenbrenner's ecological model so that it included cultural characteristics that contribute to abuse. After Bronfenbrenner's introduction of the SEM in the 1970s, the CDC later introduced an innovative model that focused on prevention. The CDC's adoption of the SEM uses a multilevel approach for addressing public policy issues relating to public health issues and violence prevention (Kilanowski, 2017). Specifically, the SEM considers characteristics that exacerbate violence and influence prevention at all levels. Because of the challenges and seriousness of CSA, the SEM helped explore cultural norms at the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels that influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies.

For this qualitative inquiry, the CDC's SEM is the theoretical framework to support and guide the research study. The SEM guided this qualitative research study by using basic concepts that explained and supported the research problem and research

questions. Moreover, the SEM provided a basis for interpreting and understanding the relevance of the research findings. I used this theoretical framework to explore individual, relationship, community, and societal characteristics that support primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention aimed at reducing child sexual abuse. Previous studies have shown the SEM is best for studying factors related to CSA across multiple ecological systems (Herres et al., 2018; Jeremiah et al., 2017) because the four levels of the SEM are intertwined with the three levels of prevention. The SEM suggests that no single factor can explain why some people are predisposed to interpersonal violence over others (WHO, 2020b). In other words, the different levels of the SEM must interact simultaneously. Based on this suggestion, the sexual abuse of female adolescents is associated with the interaction between the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels. Studies show that, through this interaction, the four levels of the SEM influence each other over time (Kilanowski, 2017; Mendelson & Letourneau, 2015; Salihu et al., 2015). Hence, it was necessary to explore individual, relationship, community, and societal characteristics that influenced CSA prevention policy enforcement. Likewise, the multiple levels of the SEM are more likely to sustain prevention policies because they encompass different aspects of an adolescent's ecology. Furthermore, the SEM was critical for guiding this qualitative research study because it identified cultural norms that created malleable risks that influenced CSA prevention policies across the different levels of prevention.

Individual Level

CSA occurs due to the interaction of individual and contextual factors including age, gender, culture, personal experiences, and family history, all factors that have an impact on female adolescents being sexually abused (Cramer & Kapusta, 2017; Rudolph et al., 2018). Exploration of these individualistic characteristics determines the likelihood that a person will be vulnerable to violence. Studies show that cultural norms increase adolescent exposure to sexual abuse in their home and neighborhood (Hahn, 2012; Harper et al., 2018). CSA intricate nature requires prevention policies at the individual level that explores a dynamic network of interpersonal characteristics over time. At the individual level, CSA prevention policies are designed to reduce sexual abuse through education initiatives that increases awareness of sexual abuse. These individuals included the perpetrator, victim's family, and female adolescents. For this research study, exploring the influences of cultural norms on prevention policies focused on female adolescents and their parents.

CSA prevention at the individual level of the SEM include primary and tertiary prevention policies. Primary prevention policies included strategies that reduces the pervasiveness of sexual abuse among female adolescents. Some of these primary prevention approaches included personal safety skills, life skills education programs, and parenting education classes on sexual abuse. The basis of these primary prevention policies focuses on mentorship and education that positively change the interpersonal characteristics (Andresen & Bouldin, 2010) of potential victims, victims, and parents to support enforcement of primary prevention policies. The CDC (n.d.) described these

primary prevention policies as some of the most effective approaches for violence prevention at the individual level. In Jamaica, there are several primary prevention policies, most of which are in partnership with the Jamaican government and NGOs. Examples of these primary prevention policies are the CDB implementation of a storybook, video, and additional preventative resources that helps children identify and report child abuse (CDB, 2017). Research study recognized that children are crucial in protecting themselves from abuse when provided with the proper information (CDB, 2017). The capability to recognize and report sexual abuse to the appropriate authority is crucial for CSA prevention (Smith et al., 2019). Increased reporting of CSA incidents changes the power dynamics that foster a culture of shame, guilt, and social taboos that often results in nondisclosure.

Tertiary prevention at the individual level has concentrated on the psychological and psychosocial trauma of sexual abuse. Previous studies have shown that sexual abuse experiences are closely related to adverse mental and emotional health for many victims (Blakemore et al., 2017; Pulido et al., 2015). Tertiary prevention policies include mental health services, for example, therapeutic counseling for sexually abused victims and their parents. The government offers these individualized counseling through the Victim Services Unit (VSU) and local hospitals (MOJ, 2020; Wilson-Harris, 2019). Jamaica provides universal access to healthcare with these services available at no charge for adolescent victims of sexual abuse (UNICEF, 2020). Cultural norms have CSA victims feeling perceived guilt, powerless, and inferior (Blakemore et al., 2017; Foster & Hagedorn, 2014; McHugh et al., 2015). To dispel these cultural norms, the Jamaican

government has partnered with the UNICEF to launch a prevention program to encourage and support victims of sexual abuse (UNICEF, 2020). At the individual level, addressing tertiary prevention helped enhance individuals' cognition of the problem, provide emotional stability to CSA victims, and help them regain their independence.

Furthermore, identification of the individualistic characteristics of female adolescents and their parents helped identify whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary and tertiary prevention policies.

Relationship Level

Relationship is the second level of the SEM to be explored for this research study. Given the pervasive nature of CSA, it is imperative to explore the relationships that shape cultural norms toward the sexual abuse of female adolescents. Kilanowski (2017) explained that the relationship level considers the interaction between people in their immediate surroundings. Specifically, this level examined formal and informal social systems that influence individual behavior, increasing the risk of being exposed to violence (CDC, 2020c). Therefore, prevention policies at the relationship level of the SEM concentrated largely on primary prevention policies.

The relationship level examined primary prevention policies and explored relationship-related risk factors that make female adolescents vulnerable to sexual abuse. The CDC (n.d.) described these relationship-related risks as emotionally unsupportive families, inadequate supervision of children, instability, and violence within the home. Several studies identified unsupportive family structure and lack of parental supervision as an underlying cause for sexual abuse and the disclosure of the sexual abuse (United

States Department of Justice [DOJ], 2016; Lahtinen et al., 2018; Schönbucher et al., 2012). Another study describes the child's poor relationship with their parents as a risk factor that increase their exposure to sexual abuse (Radford et al., 2015). Cultural norms coupled with the different relationship-related risk factors influenced the enforcement of primary prevention policies at the relationship level.

For this research study, at the relationship level, I explored the child's relationship with their parents. Parents' cultural norms can encourage and discourage sexual abuse making them instrumental in CSA prevention policies. For example, parents who have a substantial deficit of knowledge about the signs and symptoms of sexual abuse could unintentionally influence CSA prevention policies (Nurse, 2018). However, parents with knowledge of sexual abuse prevention strategies can educate their children about the signs and symptoms of the abuse, encouraging disclosure, and dialogue (David et al., 2016; Martinello, 2020). Specifically, because adolescents are cognitively less developed than adults, they are not fully equipped to understand CSA's concept. Parents' inclusion in primary prevention policies, namely, parent-child communication and family support, results in open discourse about sexual abuse between parents and adolescents (Dinaj-Koci, Deveaux, Wang, Lunn, Marshall, Li, & Stanton, 2015). The parent-child communication supports adolescents in making prudent decisions, reducing the risk for sexual abuse (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019). Parental awareness and participation serve as prevention strategies that encourage parents to take preventative measures to reduce or eliminate sexual abuse (Mendelson & Letourneau, 2015). The close relationship between the parent and child emphasizes the importance of primary

prevention policies that focus on the child's relationship with their parents (Runarsdottir et al., 2019). Other researchers have shown that parents are more suitable for maintaining external barriers to include parental supervision, involvement, and monitoring that would otherwise make children vulnerable to sexual abuse (Masilo, 2018; Rudolph et al., 2018). Therefore, parents are essential for enforcing primary CSA prevention policies because their superior cognitive abilities allow them to fully comprehend the sexual abuse and related preventative strategies (Nurse, 2017; Rudolph et al., 2018; Zeller, 2017).

Given Jamaica's cultural norms, parents' inclusivity in primary prevention policies allowed for open and honest communication about sexual abuse to build trust and reduce the prevalence of sexual abuse among female adolescents. This is important because of misconceptions about CSA and differences in parental approaches towards sexual abuse. Research findings illustrate a high percentile (70.2%) of women dismiss the sexual abuse of a child when their partners or relatives are the abusers (Tener & Murphy, 2015; UNICEF, 2010). Misconceptions about CSA are dangerous as it causes people to overlook signs and symptoms of sexual abuse to validate their preconceptions (Nurse, 2017). For example, there is the misconception that sexual predators prey on children in public places when in actuality, most offenders are known to the victim (Collin-Vézina et al., 2013). Because primary prevention policies are designed to stop CSA from occurring by educating individuals (Gomez & Fliss, 2019; McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020), these policies can dispel any misconception about the sexual abuse of female adolescents.

Primary prevention at the relationship level of the SEM involves policies to reduce sexual abuse while it occurs by addressing the relationships that contribute to the

abuse (Zollner et al., 2014). At the relationship level, these primary prevention policies include family support groups and parental supervision. Family support involves measures to support the child and their family by fostering a safe environment (Radford et al., 2015). In the Caribbean, these primary prevention policies increase awareness and help to recognize early signs of CSA (Reid et al., 2014). Jamaica's MOEY, and the National Parenting Support Commission (NPSC) has enacted several legislations to support and educate parents about CSA. Among these legislations is the National Parenting Support Commission Act that guarantees Jamaican families receive the resources and support necessary to improve parenting skills, exposing all children to a positive parenting experience (Government of Jamaica, 2018; Houses of Parliament, 2012; National Parenting Support Commission [NPSC], 2018). The NPSC also provides mentorship, counseling, and education workshops to help parents best address the child's needs while maintaining a level of accountability and responsibility (Ministry of Education, Youth, & Information [MOEY], 2007; NPSC, 2018). As a result of the different primary prevention policies at the relationship level, Reid et al. (2014) explained that parents have the knowledge to educate their children about the risks of sexual abuse.

Previous studies show that lack of parental supervision makes adolescents vulnerable to sexual abuse (Masilo, 2018). In Jamaica, cultural norms influence parent-child communication that focuses on sex relations as topic of conversation (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019). However, parental supervision in which there is a healthy parent-child relationship makes it difficult for perpetrators to access potential victims (Rudolph et al., 2018). Because sexual abuse is a taboo topic, developing a healthy parent-child

relationship promotes disclosure by breaking down communication barriers (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019; Masilo, 2018). A random sample of 55 adolescents found direct communication between a parent and child reduces sexual abuse (Rogers et al., 2015). Another research finding describes parental supervision and communication as preventative measures for reducing the sexual abuse of female adolescents (Dinaj-Koci et al., 2015). Nonetheless, parent-child communication, family support groups, and parental supervision are crucial primary prevention policies at the relationship level for exploring whether cultural norms influence primary prevention policy enforcement.

Community Level

The third level of the theoretical model explores an adolescent's community. A person's community is described as their home, school, neighborhood, and other locations where social relationships occur (CDC, 2020c; Meinck et al., 2016). The community level of the SEM provides a sense of trust, fulfillment of shared emotional needs, safety, and feeling of belonging (Chavis & Lee, 2015; Lampinen et al., 2018). This collective sense of belonging empowers people to influence their environments and each other (Chavis & Lee, 2015). The community level integrates individualistic behavior, dynamic network of interpersonal characteristics, and community components that help explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention at this level of the model. To reduce CSA, these prevention efforts must target multiple levels of an adolescent's environment. Hence, the community level of the model concentrated on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. Exploring community-based

primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies help explore the context of CSA, increase awareness, and desensitize communities (Reid et al., 2014).

Primary and secondary prevention policies at the community level were combined to reduce sexual abuse. Primary prevention policies prevent sexual abuse before it occurs, preventing initial victimization (Kirk et al., 2017; Zollner et al., 2014). Secondary prevention measures recognize and stop the abuse while in progress (Zollner et al., 2014). Studies show that secondary prevention focuses on risk and preventative factors that aid offenders in perpetuating sexual abuse (McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020; Zollner et al., 2014). Secondary prevention policies provide support services to help victims cope with the immediate effects of sexual abuse. These prevention policies are designed to put an end to the ongoing sexual abuse. However, to be effective, the victim must disclose the abuse. Prevention policies should focus on adolescents learning self-protection skills to prevent them from sexual abuse (Zollner et al., 2014). These self-protection skills are delivered through sexual abuse and sexual health education in schools-based programs (CDC, n.d.; McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020). Reports from the CDC found evidence from more than ten studies suggesting education reduces the occurrence of CSA (De Jong et al., 2015). Walsh et al. (2015) discovered that school-based prevention policies reduce sexual abuse by helping a child to recognize the signs of sexual abuse and encouraging disclosure. Studies also determined that exposure to CSA prevention increases the likelihood that children will disclose the abuse in comparison to children who did not receive school-based prevention education (Dinaj-Koci et al., 2015; Walsh et al., 2015).

To be effective, school-based prevention policies must be perfected to consider cultural norms. Cultural norms are influential because these standards can create an environment that promote or reduce the deleterious effects of sexual abuse. Public school-based prevention policies are useful because it eradicates problematic cultural norms in adults and children about sexual abuse (Jayapalan et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2019). Comprehensive public school-based prevention policies could potentially dispel fallacies of sexual abuse, define what constitutes sexual abuse, and inform female adolescents about the detrimental effects of sexual abuse (Smith et al., 2019). Proper enforcement of school-based prevention policies identify, challenge, and discontinue persisting cultural norms that underpin sexual abuse against female adolescents. In Jamaica, *Aria's Story* is one of the most popular school-based prevention policies. A government-sponsored public education campaign, *Aria's Story*, is a children-friendly initiative that defines and highlights the nature of sexual abuse (Smith, 2017). Children exposed to *Aria's Story* receive an abundance of information that empowers them to take protective and preventive actions (MOEY, n.d.). These policies are essential for female adolescents because it teaches them about inappropriate behavior, harmful sexual behavior, and the right of consent (Kirk et al., 2017). Furthermore, at the community level prevention policies in Jamaica include public education initiatives that focus on raising awareness about the severity of sexual abuse.

Community-based education is another secondary prevention policy for reducing sexual abuse among female adolescents. The issue of CSA is complex and thus, requiring community-based prevention policies to ensure the wellbeing of children and their

families (Gomez & Fliss, 2019). Community-based prevention policies target the entire populace and aim to change individual characteristics for the betterment of the community (Gomez & Fliss, 2019; Institute of Medicine [IOM], 2012). These prevention policies promote the reduction of CSA because it empowers children, parents, and members of the community to prevent and respond to incidents of CSA (Reid et al., 2014). In the Caribbean, community-based prevention policies use public education strategies with support from the media (Smith et al., 2019). An example is the Break the Silence (BTS) campaign launched in 2015 to expose CSA and its prevalence throughout Jamaica (Reid et al., 2014; Economist Intelligence Unit, 2019). The BTS campaign is a collaboration between the Jamaican government, NGOs, policymakers, the media, and celebrities to address the growing concerns of CSA in communities. Reports suggest that the BTS campaign increases public awareness, encourages discussion, and promotes victim support services (Linton, 2017; Reid et al., 2014). Community-based prevention policies such as the BTS also strengthens child protection systems (David et al., 2016) as it is embedded in both the community and the education system. Moreover, community-based prevention policies embrace changing cultural norms, including individual and community attitudes that influence people's expectation, behavior, and thinking (Gomez & Fliss, 2019).

Tertiary prevention policies are designed to respond to the victim's need after the abuse has occurred (McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020). Support for the victim mitigates the risk of immediate and long-term consequences after the sexual abuse (Zollner et al., 2014). Because tertiary prevention stops the abuse from reoccurring, this level of

prevention considers policies and legislations. At the community level of the SEM, tertiary prevention encompasses counseling services, healthcare, and legal support resources. Counseling services manage the negative consequences associated with psychological and psychosocial health (Palusci & Ilardi, 2019; Zollner et al., 2014). Access to counseling is free of charge for CSA victims across the island (Wilson-Harris, 2019). Following a report of sexual abuse, victims need access to adequate healthcare. Healthcare services are important because these medical professionals undergo formal training that prepares them to deal with sexually abused victims (Chopra, 2019). Depending on the robust nature of the CSA prevention at tertiary level, victims have access to legal support resources. Access to legal support provides victims with an advocate willing to fight for their welfare. Advocates are important because many CSA victims express feeling powerless, especially if the perpetrator is a relative or an authoritative figure (Martinello, 2020; McHugh et al., 2015).

Tertiary prevention policies in Jamaica include multiple measures to support the victims and their families. Jamaica has legislation enacted to protect the welfare of all children. Three of the most relevant legislations are the Child Care and Protection Act, the Sexual Offences Act, and the Child Pornography (Prevention) Act. The Child Care and Protection Act safeguard and promote the welfare of all children (MOJ, 2007). The Sexual Offences Act describes all aspects of CSA to include definitions, the legal age of consent, and provisions for dealing with violations under this law. The Child Pornography (Prevention) Act explicitly defines what actions constitute child pornography. This Act also prohibits the production, distribution, possession, and trade of

child pornography (MOJ, 2009a). Another tertiary prevention policy is the support services offered through the MOJ's VSU. The VSU is committed to preserving the welfare of CSA victims, advocating for their rights (MOJ, 2020). Through the VSU, victims have access to a plethora of resources to include emotional support, healthcare, legal support, crisis intervention, and referrals for follow-on support services. In addition, victims have immediate access to secondary and tertiary prevention services such as telephonic counseling, home visits, and walk-in service (MOJ, 2020).

Societal Level

The societal level is the last level of SEM. This level focuses on a wide range of social drivers that promotes acceptance or intolerance for violence (CDC, 2020c). The societal level addresses larger scale issues that influence CSA prevention policies throughout Jamaica. Some of these social drivers include cultural norms, legislation, and lack of access to resources and support services (Cramer & Kapusta, 2017; Radford et al., 2015). At the societal level, prevention concentrates on tertiary prevention policies. Tertiary prevention policies are intended to help CSA victims and their families in dealing with the aftermath of the sexual abuse (McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020). Although tertiary prevention policies are intensive, they are well needed to support female adolescents after the abuse had already occurred (Wang, 2015; Zollner et al., 2014). Tertiary prevention policies help victims and their families manage the long-term effects of CSA. Most importantly, these prevention policies seek to change cultural norms to deter sexual abuse of female adolescents.

Cultural norms are persuasive because these are shared expectations and beliefs that can shape the behavior of a person, group, or society. The societal level addresses whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of tertiary prevention policies designed to combat CSA. Dealing with CSA prevention is a complicated problem that is worsened by cultural norms surrounding sexual abuse. Cultural norms could potentially affect a person's perceived appropriateness of CSA because of the learned behavior reinforced by different people in a person's environment. Gupta et al. 2018 describe cultural norms as contextual drivers of an individual's behavior, making it necessary to explore the influences of cultural norms on CSA prevention policies enforcement. Moreover, societal drivers at this level of the SEM could potentially influence enforcing Jamaica's CSA prevention policies.

In Jamaica, numerous tertiary prevention policies, specifically resources and support services, are in place to support CSA victims and their families. The Department of Correctional Services (DCS) maintains a sex offender registry that requires perpetrators be entered into a nationwide database under the Sexual Offences Act (CPRI, 2018; DCS, 2019; MOJ, 2009b). Perpetrators convicted of sexual abuse are entered into the sex offender registry database to prevent revictimization (CPRI, 2018). Sex offender registries because this is a system for monitoring and tracking perpetrators following their release back into their communities. The databases of these registries provide information about convicted sex offenders to authorities and people in the community. The sexual offender registry not only provides the perpetrator's name, location, and convicted

offenses, but it allows authorities to enforce the restrictions imposed on who they can live with, and where they can live and work.

Sexual abuse has negative effects on the psychological wellbeing of children. Adolescent victims of sexual abuse experience psychological distress well into adulthood (Samms & Cholewa, 2014; Tener, 2018), making counseling a critical component of tertiary prevention policies. It is imperative that mental health prevention incorporates provisions for managing the adverse psychological problems these victims encounter. These mental health policies should focus on counseling, specialized medical care, and support groups for the victims (Cramer & Kapusta, 2017; Radford et al., 2015; Wang, 2015). However, knowledge of Jamaica's cultural norms is critical for determining how to enforce these tertiary prevention policies effectively. Namely, what cultural norms influence adolescents' and their families' decision to seek support services following sexual abuse. Universally, studies have found that children do not receive support services because of the negative stigma surrounding sexual abuse and their families' unwillingness to discuss sexual abuse (Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2017; Morrison et al., 2018; Sanjeevi et al., 2018). Foster and Hagedorn (2014) identified shared feelings of nervousness, fear, embarrassment, and distrust of counselors as to why CSA victims do not receive adequate support. Exploring the cultural norms that influence prevention policies at the societal level are crucial for reducing the incidence, prevalence, and recurrence of CSA. All of which is necessary because the Jamaican government in a multiagency partnership provides support service through the CPFSA, CISOCA, and the VSU (CPFSA, 2020; CPRI, 2018; Miller, 2014).

Lastly, for Jamaican policymakers, CSA prevention is a national priority and a means for ending the country's increasing CSA problem through the enforcement of practical prevention policies (Patterson, 2019). Through a series of sexual abuse prevention policies, the government is committed to protecting children's welfare. Safeguarding these children require collective effort between the different ministries of the Jamaican government and global NGOs to prevent and respond to sexual abuse (CPRI, 2018; Government of Jamaica, 2018). Prevention policies established through these partnerships include strategies for enforcing legislation and exploring the cultural norms that could influence legislation, policies, environments, and support services (Government of Jamaica, 2018). All these tertiary prevention policies reduce the immediate consequences and lasting effects of adolescent sexual abuse across Jamaica. Nonetheless, exploring the different societal factors is necessary to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of tertiary prevention policies at this level of the SEM.

Rationale for Use of Socioecological Model

The theoretical framework is a blueprint that guides the research by integrating and situating theories that contextualize the research study (Adom et al., 2018; Grant & Osanloo, 2014; Imenda, 2014; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). A theoretical framework establishes the credibility of the research inquiry by making the findings more meaningful (Adom et al., 2018; Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Also, a valid theoretical framework justifies the significance of the research study (Lederman & Lederman, 2015). An inadequate or missing theoretical framework is an indication of a research study that

lacks direction. For researchers, the SEM has been meaningfully applied to explore public health issues and related prevention policies (Cramer & Kapusta, 2017; McCormack et al., 2017). The concepts of the SEM helped explore and explain whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies targeting female adolescents. Application of the SEM was used to explore different aspect of an adolescent's life that makes them vulnerable to sexual abuse. Preventative measures should include a plan that fully integrates the active participation of children and their parents as well as other members in the community (UNICEF, 2010). This included the participation of law enforcement and child welfare workers because of their position in enforcing primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies. Therefore, the different levels of the SEM provide a structured approach to exploring the cultural norms that could influence the 3 levels of prevention (Cramer & Kapusta, 2017).

Previous studies found CSA to be a complicated problem that is influenced by cultural norms (CDC, n.d.; MacGinley et al., 2019; Sanjeevi et al., 2018). Other researchers found that sexual acts against children are worsened by strong cultural norms (Ssenyonga et al., 2018; UNICEF, 2010), namely at the relationship and community level of the SEM. The CDC (n.d.) described the complex nature of violence as a direct result of multiple influences on behavior. Use of the SEM to explore CSA requires exploration of the 4 different levels that are significant in the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies. Also, prevention requires cohesion from multiple levels in a person's ecology. Therefore, the SEM helped determine the interconnectedness of

the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels that contributes to sexual abuse (Alaggia et al., 2019). The different relations can be described as a transactional process where each level of the SEM influences each other, shaping how people behave and interact in their environment (Cummings et al., 2017). The application of the SEM as a theoretical framework considered the influence that cultural norms might have on enforcing CSA prevention across multiple levels to include the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels.

Literature Review Related to Key Concepts

The SEM grounds this research study as it emphasizes multiple levels of influence to explore cultural norms that potentially influence enforcing the different levels of prevention. A combination of different factors and social vulnerabilities are some etiologies for abuse resulting in a significant percentile of female adolescents in Jamaican having experienced sexual abuse (CPRI, 2018). This section includes a literature review and synthesis of key concepts relating to child sexual abuse. These concepts are global public health, defining CSA, legal age of consent, affects adolescents, affects females, cultural norms, patriarchal beliefs, taboo, nontraditional household, lack of awareness of prevention policies, and psychological and psychosocial issues. The exploration of these critical concepts helps produce known information about CSA and what remains to be studied during this research study. A detailed description of these key concepts is the factors that increase the likelihood for female adolescents to become a victim of sexual abuse. Likewise, these concepts influence prevention at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels.

A Global Public Health Problem

Sexual abuse is a prevalent and massive social problem affecting children, especially children from developing countries (Chopra, 2019; Jones & Jemmott, 2016). The Child Welfare Information Gateway (2019) defined sexual abuse as the use of persuasion, coercion, and enticement that is sexually explicit. These sexually explicit acts include undesirable sexual acts to include rape, molestation, prostitution, incest, and sexual exploitation (Murray et al., 2014; Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2019). Noncontact sexual behavior, such as producing pornographic material and exposure to pornography are other forms of sexual abuse committed against children. In the context of this research study, sexual abuse is any unwanted sexual activity, where the perpetrator disregards the victim's ability to consent using force, threat, and intimidation (APA, 2017).

For decades, researchers studied sexual abuse, but until recently not much thought has been given to the sexual abuse of adolescents (Chopra, 2019; David et al., 2016; Jones & Jemmott, 2016). Recent examination of CSA is a result of the international community's perceptual experience of CSA as a significant public health issue. Studies suggest that CSA is a public health problem affecting young people in the Caribbean (Miller, 2014; Reid et al., 2014). The effect of this public health issue includes psychological and psychosocial distress that affects a child's mental health. The WHO classified CSA as a global risk that influences the global burden of disease used for informed policymaking (Letourneau et al., 2014). The health concerns are worsened by the absence of support services in low- and middle-income countries (Mendelson &

Letourneau, 2015). In Jamaica, public health issues for children increase because vulnerabilities to sexual abuse compromise their wellbeing (UNICEF, 2020). CSA is a public health issue of universal concern, but in Jamaica it is of significant concern because children do not receive adequate mental health support services (Pottinger, 2012).

Global interests in CSA research are due to the increasing reports of sexual abuse in the education system and the church (David et al., 2016; McCoy & Keen, 2014; McHugh et al., 2015; Oshima et al., 2014). Sexual abuse in the church and school are determined to occur because of the lack of punishment and anonymity throughout the investigation process (McHugh et al., 2015). Studies suggest cultural norms create an enabling environment, which, as a direct result, increases the sexual abuse of children (Alaggia et al., 2019; Morgan, 2019). Other research study explains that the role of cultural is critical for exploring the effects of childhood sexual abuse (Sanjeevi et al., 2018).

Defining Child Sexual Abuse

Among researchers, the definition of CSA is debatable (McCoy & Keen, 2014). The severity of sexual abuse against children is difficult to categorize due to varying definitions across communities, jurisdictions, and among researchers (Breckenridge & Salter, 2018; David et al., 2016; MacGinley et al., 2019). CSA is defined by some researchers as any sexual activity involving a child with or without consent (McCoy & Keen, 2014; Samms & Cholewa, 2014). However, other definitions of CSA are more specific. CSA, for example, is any sexual activity between a person older than 18 or an

adult with authority for sexual purposes (Reid et al., 2014). CSA includes any inappropriate sexual contact and behavior including fondling of the genitals, rape, sodomy, and indecent exposure. A universal definition offered by the United Nations defined CSA as the interaction between an adult and child in which force, trickery, bribery, or threats are used for the adult's sexual needs (Chopra, 2019). The varying definitions make it difficult for researchers to present a history of the problem (Samms & Cholewa, 2014). The problem is defining each word of "child sexual abuse", as each term is defined differently across culture. There are also varying definitions for legal age of consent (Breckenridge & Salter, 2018; MacGinley et al., 2019). Jamaica and most countries define a child as a person under 18 years of age (Jones & Jemmott, 2016; MOJ, 2009b; Pasura et al., 2012). Findings from a study of adults in six Caribbean countries reveals that for all definitions of CSA, age was the commonly accepted marker for defining "child" (Jones & Jemmott, 2016).

Legal Age of Consent

The enforcement of CSA prevention policies must consider the child's inability to consent freely due to their age. A child's age is crucial for defining the legal age of consent. From a global perspective, societal laws and cultural norms establish the legal age of consent. The legal age of consent describes all sexual acts between an adult and child to be illegal, regardless of the child's acceptance (Murray et al., 2014). The disparity of the adult and child age increases the child's vulnerabilities to sexual abuse. Primarily because an adult is an authority figure creating a power imbalance (Gordon, 2015; Rudolph et al., 2018). Adolescents lack critical thinking and reasoning skills

needed to rationalize their decisions; therefore, unable to provide consent to an adult in an authoritative position. Findings from 16 research studies found that adolescents are not mature enough to make conscious decisions, exposing them to sexual abuse (Tener, 2018). Findings from another study deduced that children are not mentally mature to consent to sexual activities because they cannot recognize the full scope of their decisions (Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2017).

Any sexual relationship between an older person and an adolescent violates the legal age of consent (Tener, 2018). Sexual relations with a child under the legal age of consent and an adult is prohibited in many countries (Tener, 2018). For most countries, sexual abuse legislation deems a person younger than 18 cannot legally consent to sexual relations (Barnert et al., 2017; Chopra, 2019). Even though some countries recognize 18 as the legal age of consent, most Caribbean nations recognize 16 to be the legal age of consent (Jones & Jemmott, 2016). Jamaica's Sexual Offences Act explains that a person 16 and younger cannot legally consent to sexual activities with an adult (MOJ, 2009b).

Knowing the legal age of consent is crucial for enforcing CSA prevention because cultural norms influence the sexual abuse of female adolescents. Attitudes and beliefs differ among countries regarding the age for which children can cognitively consent to sexual intercourse (Radford et al., 2015). In some societies, citizens do not perceive an adult man engaging in sexual activities with a consenting female as sexual abuse (Pasura et al., 2012). Studies have shown that sexual relations between an adult and a child is common even normalize and desensitize among parents (McHugh et al., 2015). Although not negatively perceived in some countries, research findings do show that adults

recognize these sexual acts to be morally wrong (Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2017; Pasura et al., 2012). Perpetrators of the sexual abuse are perceived as abusive regardless of the nature of the relationship or the child's consent (Tener, 2018).

Although sexual intercourse with a person under 16 is illegal in Jamaica (MOJ, 2009b), there is no universal definition for the legal age of consent. Results from a study conducted in the Caribbean reveals sexual abuse legislation does not adequately define age of consent, requiring policy revision (Pasura et al., 2012). For policymakers, a primary concern is raising the age of consent from 16 to 18, which is a contentious issue for some Caribbean countries (Pasura et al., 2012). Lowering the age of consent increase the risk of exposure for sexual abuse, whereas, higher age of consent risks criminalizing people for normal sexual behavior (Radford et al., 2015).

Child Sexual Abuse Primarily Affects Adolescents

Adolescents take on different meanings across cultures. The general description of adolescents is as a person between 10 and 19 years of age (Tener, 2018; WHO, 2018). Other researchers describe adolescents as a person between 11 and 17 years of age (Domhardt et al., 2015). An adolescent in Jamaica is someone between the age of 14 to 18 years (Hutchinson et al., 2012). Adolescence, however, is a period of immaturity that is crucial for social, cognitive, and psychological development (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019). Finkelhor et al. (2014) revealed sexual abuse generally increases during the period of adolescence. The maturity of an adolescent is significant because it affects sexual development and their decisions when faced with an inappropriate sexual situation. Adolescents are less capable of making judicious decisions due to their lack of

maturity, knowledge, and cognitive skills to recognize or make sense of the abuse (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019; Gordon, 2015; Marriott et al., 2014; Tener, 2018). Therefore, sexual education by their parents is crucial for sexual abuse prevention.

Focus groups of 46 female adolescents and 30 mothers of female adolescents concluded that a mothers' sexual beliefs and behaviors influence the adolescents' attitude towards sexual relations and abuse (Hutchinson et al., 2012). The participants from the focus groups described the importance of maternal influences on sex, sexual relations, and sexual abuse (Hutchinson et al., 2012). Education offers adults a greater understanding of sexual abuse allowing parents to inform their children about unusual behaviors committed by adults (Gordon, 2015; Seth & Srivastava, 2017). Likewise, parents are one of the few sources for educating adolescents about sexual health and abuse (Dinaj-Koci et al., 2015).

Child Sexual Abuse Primarily Affects Females

In many instances of CSA, gender plays a significant role. Gender differences are obvious in CSA, as females are more vulnerable to sexual abuse than are males (Martinello, 2020). According to Jayapalan et al. (2018) gender inequality and cultural norms results in females being more likely to be sexually abused than males. These vulnerabilities imposed on females not only increase the potential for sexual abuse, but it deters the enforcement of prevention policies. Research findings show that one in every five females experience sexual abuse in their childhood (Finkelhor et al., 2014). Researchers found young women to be more susceptible to sexual abuse than young men (Teicher & Parigger, 2015; Teicher & Samson, 2016). Previous studies determined that

150 million female adolescents have experienced sexual abuse through force and coercion (David et al., 2016; Murray et al., 2014; Veenema et al., 2015). Findings also shows that 40% of female adolescents are forced into sexual activities before reaching the legal age of consent (Cox, 2018; Hargrove, 2014; Reid et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2019). The CPRI (2018) explained that 46% of young women reported that their first sexual intercourse happened before the age of 13 with a person more than 6 years older.

A multisite longitudinal study on child abuse and neglect of 1,354 adolescents showed that a higher number of sexual abuse cases are perpetrated against female adolescents (Yoon et al., 2018b). Studies conducted in the Caribbean and Latin America found that boys report lower rates of sexual abuse than girls with most sexual abuse occurring in adolescence (Bott et al., 2012). Particularly in Jamaica, sexual abuse is a primary form of violence affecting female adolescents (Manjoo, 2016). A study with a sample size of 862 boys and girls found that sexual abuse significantly affects those in their adolescence (Yoon et al., 2018b). In another study of 590 sexual abuse victims, it was shown that 507 of those victims were females, in comparison to 83 male victims (Yuce et al., 2015). CSA is therefore a multidimensional problem affecting female adolescents in Jamaica (CPRI, 2018).

Cultural Norms Influence Prevention

All societies are comprised of cultural norms. These cultural norms are shared beliefs that guide and shape the behavior, thought process, and action of people in each specific society. Society's attitudes toward CSA influence the prevalence of this global epidemic, and prevention policies. The role of cultural norms is critical for understanding

CSA because there are known risks and preventative factors that differ across cultures (Meinck et al., 2015; Sanjeevi et al., 2018). In Jamaica cultural norms contribute the rate of recurrence for the sexual abuse of young women. Rates of sexual abuse in Jamaica remains high because of the strong cultural influence. One major cultural norm that influences primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies is the stigma associated with being labelled an “informer.” Studies shows that their apprehension is due to shame, stigma attached to sexual abuse, and fear of being labeled an informer (CPRI, 2018; Yuce et al., 2015). Being labeled an informer could have negative implications for anyone who reports a crime to law enforcement. This cultural norm influences the handling of sexual abuse, specifically, whether the abuse is disclosed or reported. For members of CISOCA who are responsible for investigating CSA, the informer mentality makes it difficult to carry out these investigations. Because of the fear of being labeled an informer, victims and witnesses are afraid to step forward to disclose cases of sexual abuse. In other words, making it difficult to enforce primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. If incidents of CSA are not being reported it becomes difficult for child welfare workers to provide secondary and tertiary prevention and support services. These attitudes influence the tolerance of disclosure and responsibility for the abuse placed on children who decide to disclose the sexual abuse (McElvaney et al., 2012). Disclosure of sexual abuse by a relative cause disruption in the household and engender a great sense of shame. The culture of shame associated with sexual abuse means that adolescents are less likely to reveal the abuse hindering the enforcement of prevention policies (Leach et al., 2017), namely, secondary, and tertiary prevention.

Cultural norms cause systemic underreporting of sexual abuse, a problem that impedes researcher's ability to characterize and approximate the underlying causes, prevalence, and effects of CSA (Sanjeevi et al., 2018). Research shows that Jamaica's sexual abuse remains high despite the reluctance of victims to report the sexual abuse to police (Elntib et al., 2020). The culture of stigmatizing CSA has resulted in the problem being underreported, resulting in modest estimates, and diminishing the severity of the problem (Da Silva et al., 2018; Hargrove, 2014; James et al., 2016). Stigma reduces prevention efforts, and in Jamaica the cultural stigma of sexual abuse directly influences the different prevention levels. Stigmatism, for example, influences underreporting with approximately 25% of sexual abuse incidents reported to law enforcement and other protection agencies (CPRI, 2018). Addressing cultural norms reduces the stigmatism associated with the CSA, while promoting prevention policies. Limitations of the professionals assigned to investigate sexual abuse also contributes to the underreporting and issues with enforcing prevention policies. The limitations are a result of ineffective laws and policies, which makes it difficult for child welfare workers and law enforcement professionals to conduct their duties.

In Jamaica, policy formulation challenges are combined with training, expertise, and capacity deficiencies, and early mishandlings with victims impedes Jamaica's ability to discover possible sexual offenses by ham-strung child abuse agencies (Elntib et al., 2020). Jamaica's cultural norms and the culture within law enforcement determine whether the parents of a sexually abused child or the child seek support. There is also a lack of understanding about CSA and the effects sexual abuse has on the child. This lack

of knowledge is across the board with some law enforcement officials, parents, and the victim failing to understand what constitute sexual abuse of a child. It is common for parents and the child to not seek out secondary and tertiary prevention support services because of the lack of education about sexual abuse. Cultural attitudes also determine if the victims and their families seek support from the different protection agencies.

Sexually abused children often receive no support from their family members with some relatives blaming the child for the abuse (Masilo, 2018). In some instance, a child reports the sexual abuse, but the perpetrator agrees to pay the parents off to not pursue criminal charges (Masilo, 2018). Caprioli and Crenshaw (2017) said that victim blaming has long lasting effects on the victim, and their ability to disclose the sexual abuse. Perceptions between communities and the police seen sexual abuse of lesser importance than other crimes; thus, breeding a culture of victim blaming (Elntib et al., 2020). There is a cultural environment in which black women are blamed for the sexual abuse (Wadsworth et al., 2018) creating systemic barriers toward prevention, primarily primary prevention.

Blaming the child for the sexual abuse affects relationships with relatives, friends, and close family acquaintances (Wadsworth et al., 2018).

There are misconceptions within law enforcement that sex is just sex, reducing a victim's potential cooperation (Elntib et al., 2020). Law enforcement attitudes toward the sexual abuse of female adolescents provide a greenlight for parents to prostitute their daughters for money. The Jamaican police have a culture of shifting support for victims with the implementation of new policies (Elntib et al., 2020). Change in police attitudes empower cooperation from members of the community, especially when they know the

police are legitimate (Pryce & Grant, 2020). Cultural norms determine the support sexual abuse victims receive from the child protection organizations, their communities, and parents. Whilst CSA victims are more empowered to report the abuse (Elntib et al., 2020) cultural attitudes make it difficult for these victims to receive justice. Even within law enforcement, the police officers responsible for investigating sexual abuse offenses discredits the victims because their attitude and belief reflects those of the society (Elntib et al., 2020). The culture within these child protection agencies not only influence disclosure and reporting, but also influences the criminal justice system process.

Patriarchal Beliefs

In some cultures, patriarchal beliefs describe males as superior to females, making gender a position of superiority (Jayapalan et al., 2018; Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2017). The patriarchal beliefs in the Caribbean resulted in females having little to no power, causing underlying problems for CSA prevention (Jeremiah et al., 2017). Qualitative research on CSA has found patriarchal beliefs to be a common descriptive theme that increased the risks of sexual abuse among females (Choudhry et al., 2018). Patriarchal beliefs provide males with a sense of sexual entitlement when it comes to sex. In the Caribbean, for example, females are objectified with some men perceiving female adolescents to be legitimate sexual targets after starting their menstruation cycle (Jones & Jemmott, 2016). Moreover, patriarchal gender norms enforce a culture of silence to protect the family honor. (Jeremiah et al., 2017). The gender inequalities imposed on female adolescents not only increase the vulnerabilities for sexual abuse, but it conceivably influences the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention

policies. Specifically, patriarchal beliefs influence a child's willingness to disclose sexual abuse (Morrison et al., 2018). Recognizing the patriarchal beliefs in Jamaica offered a more in-depth understanding of the cultural norms that helps explore the direct links to sexual abuse, both in the past and present society (Jeremiah et al., 2017).

Taboo

Despite the prevalence of sexual abuse against female adolescents, this remains a taboo topic. In most societies CSA is a taboo topic, making it difficult for most people to discuss the abuse openly. The forbidden nature of CSA makes initiating sex-related conversations difficult for adolescents, especially when the perpetrator is someone close to the victim and their families. The taboo nature of CSA hinders disclosure increasing the prevalence of underreporting (Perpetrada & Ninos, 2018). Because of the taboo nature of CSA, it makes it difficult for victims to receive the support services needed because these conversations frequently occur behind closed doors. The taboo nature of CSA shapes the problem at the relationship and societal levels (Band-Winterstein et al., 2019), all of which impact prevention policies. CSA is inherently taboo making it difficult for researchers to measure. This makes it difficult for policymakers to understand the true nature of CSA and enforce prevention policies. Throughout prevention policy enforcement, not much attention has been given to trend analysis of CSA data sources that facilitates child protection initiatives (Reid et al., 2014). The taboo nature of CSA, especially in Jamaica makes exploring the influences of cultural norms on the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies crucial for combatting the sexual abuse female adolescents.

Nontraditional Household

Several studies have shown a correlation between a child's home life and the sexual abuse, which is more prevalent in the later years of adolescence (Finkelhor et al., 2014; Mendelson & Letourneau, 2015). A nontraditional household in which the parents are divorced, separated, or remarried could result in an unstable environment for female adolescents. Research findings shows that adolescents from nontraditional families experience higher rates of sexual abuse than adolescents from traditional two-parent biological families (Pérez-González et al., 2017). Evidence shows that the risk of being sexually abused is 10 times greater for adolescents from a single-parent household, a household with a stepparent, or a home where both parents are absent (Jayapalan et al., 2018). An unhealthy home environment has severe consequences for the development of a child as it pertains to sexual abuse due to the toxicity within the household. Research findings found that the absence of a parent causes conflicts within the home, all factors that increase the risk of CSA (Collin-Vézina et al., 2013; Jayapalan et al., 2018). Murray et al. (2014) explained that sexual abuse is more frequent in homes with an absentee parent and low family support. Although the risks of sexual abuse are higher for adolescents from nontraditional families, adolescents from all family structures are incredibly vulnerable for being at risk for sexual abuse (Jayapalan et al., 2018). Understanding the dynamics of the child's household supported the exploration of the research questions, and the gap in the research. Although sexual abuse can occur in any household, female adolescents from nontraditional household where both biological

parents are not present are more vulnerable. Therefore, CSA prevention policies should focus on enforcing personal safety skills.

Lack of Awareness of CSA Prevention Policies

Lack of awareness about CSA prevention policies in Jamaican communities is another factor that contributes to the sexual abuse of female adolescents (CPRI, 2018). Several studies supported this assertion by claiming many Jamaican residents do not know where to seek support services or report sexual abuse allegations (Palmer et al., 2012; Samms & Cholewa, 2014). The lack of knowledge about Jamaica's child protection organizations and their services results in sexual abuse victims not seeking support services; instead, these victims seek support from relatives who may discourage disclosure (CPRI, 2018). It is culturally inappropriate to seek advice and support from people outside of the household (Palmer et al., 2012; Samms & Cholewa, 2014). These cultural norms result in nondisclosure and underreporting, worsening Jamaica's CSA epidemic and related prevention policies. However, according to a qualitative study conducted in the United States, underreporting is a global problem with 73% of children choosing not to disclose the sexual abuse for at least one year and 47% waiting for more than 5 years (Singh et al., 2013).

Psychological and Psychosocial Disorders

The literature found that previous research studies determined that CSA causes psychological and psychosocial disorders leading into adulthood (De Jong et al., 2015; Jeremiah et al., 2017; Sanjeevi et al., 2018). Review of the literature further revealed that few studies in the Caribbean has explored tertiary prevention policies which focuses on

the psychological and psychosocial effects of CSA (Reid et al., 2014). Sexual abuse is psychologically traumatic for any female, but is especially traumatic in adolescents (Bourne et al., 2015). CSA has long-term effects of the psychological wellbeing of a child depending upon the severity and persistence of the abuse (Yuce et al., 2015). The act of sexual abuse is particularly traumatic when it is committed by a relative or close family friend. In a quantitative study of 590 sexual abuse victims, it was found that sexual abuse is a risk factor for many common psychological problems (Yuce et al., 2015). The high reports of CSA coupled with the deleterious effects of this problem has prompted researchers to shift the scope of their studies to focus on all aspects within the child's environment. This approach is suitable with the SEM and helped examine how cultural norms influence primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. Psychological and psychosocial problems can be exacerbated if these prevention policies are not adequately resourced at the appropriate level to support the increasing need for sexual abuse support services.

Summary and Conclusions

The literature review is a fundamental section of a dissertation study. It serves as the foundational framework that offers a critical assessment of the literature collected for the research study. In this research study, I explored whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies that targets female adolescents. The Jamaican government, NGOs, and others have committed themselves to reducing CSA through multiple preventative efforts that target the different levels of prevention. However, the literature review shows that CSA remains and

continues to be a significant public health problem for Jamaican females in their adolescence. Although there are multiple prevention policies in place, it is necessary to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of these policies since the impact of culture remains unknown at the different levels of prevention. The increasing rate of CSA incidents in Jamaica makes exploring whether cultural norms influence prevention policies necessary. This research study used the SEM to explore the different factors within an adolescent environment that influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies.

Major themes that emerged from the literature were acknowledged throughout the literature review. These major themes are global public health, defining CSA, legal age of consent, primarily affects adolescents and females. Other themes include cultural norms, patriarchal beliefs, taboo, nontraditional household, lack of awareness of CSA prevention policies, and psychological disorders. These major themes influence primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA policies, namely, these themes can encourage or discourage the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. The literature also identified themes pertaining to individual, relationship, community, and society as relevant components for exploring whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of prevention policies across Jamaican communities. Lastly, findings of this study detailed the importance of incorporating the four levels of the SEM into CSA prevention to effectively enforce these policies, especially given the challenges female adolescents encounter in and outside the home.

Chapter 3 discusses the research design that served as the framework that integrates different components of the study in a logical sequence to address the research

problem. The chapter discusses the rationale for choosing to explore this qualitative case study inquiry. Also described is the role of the researcher and methodology used for participant selection, and data collection. The chapter concludes with the data analysis plan, measures for ensuring trustworthiness, and IRB ethical considerations for safeguarding participants while conducting this research study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study explores whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies from the perception of law enforcement officials and child welfare workers. The scope of the study focused on interviewing law enforcement and child welfare workers from Jamaica. Scholars have identified that cultural norms are an important factor that permit CSA (Fakunmoju et al., 2016; Tat & Öztürk, 2019). Matter of fact, studies already exist describing CSA against female adolescents as a global epidemic (Miller, 2014; Sanjeevi et al., 2018; Sawrikar & Katz, 2017). However, little research has been done to explore how such cultural norms interpose the work of those professionals tasked with its prevention. In this chapter, I discuss the qualitative research methodology and case study research design. Because qualitative research is exploratory, it is useful for examining a phenomenon, making interpretations, and exploring the human experience (Creswell, 2014; Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Roger et al., 2018).

The single case study design is well suited for this qualitative inquiry because it allows for an in-depth exploration and description of the problem (Baškarada, 2014; Jamshed, 2014). Qualitative research is widely interpretive because it focuses on the subjective interpretation of people's experiences (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). For qualitative researchers, textual interpretation during interviews offers the details needed for a comprehensive exploration of the problem (Jamshed, 2014). Besides a detailed description of the research design and rationale, this chapter restates the central research

question and two subquestions. The chapter also explains my role as the researcher in this study. Understanding the role of a researcher helps manage ethical research responsibilities, which ultimately lies with the researcher. This chapter also explains the process of identifying, contacting, recruiting, and selecting participants. In this chapter are the population, sampling method, saturation, and sample size. Described in this chapter are the methods and techniques for data collection. These methods include interviews and review of archival records, all of which are appropriate for this qualitative case study. In this chapter, Microsoft Excel is described as the software used to perform the data analysis. The chapter concludes with the actions taken to manage issues of trustworthiness.

Research Design and Rationale

For this qualitative study, the case study design is a flexible approach for addressing the research questions that are relevant for exploring whether cultural norms influence the enforcement CSA prevention policies. Lucas et al. (2018) explained that the flexibility offered through the case study approach helps explore and discover more complex experiences to ascertain a specific or particular outcome, ideally making the case study approach suitable for exploring the complexities associated with CSA and cultural norms as it relates to prevention. The case study approach is a multifaceted approach that is widely used in social sciences to explore a phenomenon (Harrison et al., 2017; Starman, 2013). The case study design aligns with the SEM as a theoretical framework because it allows for exploration of violence prevention at different ecological levels. If inconsistencies exist with the alignment of the theoretical framework,

methodology, research questions, and research design, then qualitative researchers risk designing a flawed research study (Alavi et al., 2018).

Hyett et al. (2014) explained that the case study approach enables qualitative researchers to thoroughly explore the research questions through multiple data collection methods and a degree of flexibility not readily obtainable by other qualitative methods. The case study design not only align with other components of this study, but this research design supports multiple data collection methods. Exploration of the cultural norms was accomplished using multiple data collection techniques, including interviews and archival records to generate rich data from participants to gain insight into the research questions. Interviews are a crucial source of data because they reveal emerging themes and concepts (Ridder, 2017; Yin, 2014). Relevant information gathered through interviews and archival data helped explore how cultural norms influence CSA prevention policies. For this research study, which sought to explore the influences of cultural norms on CSA prevention policies, I used an interpretative analysis approach to gain context about the interview and archival data. Also, because the case study design involves multiple data sources, qualitative researchers can triangulate the data allowing for a detailed case description (Ridder, 2017). Triangulation of the data enhanced the reliability and validity of the research findings, which is valuable for exploratory research. Given the purpose of this research study, gaining the perceptions of law enforcement officials and child welfare workers, the case study approach seemed to be an appropriate research design for exploring the influences of cultural norms on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies.

The SEM coupled with the case study design offered a detailed description of individual cases and analysis relating to cultural norms and the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. For qualitative researchers, the case study design requires data collection in a naturalistic environment to investigate and explore complex social issues (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). A naturalistic approach revealed meaningful data about participants' experiences and beliefs. Data collected in a real-world setting allowed me to capture participant's organic responses to include verbal and nonverbal cues. From these responses, I was able to interpret the meaning of the data allowing for a greater exploration of the cultural norms that could potentially influence enforcing primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies targeting female adolescents in Jamaica.

The research questions served as the foundation for this study, the aim of which was to determine the influence of cultural norms on CSA prevention policies. The research questions emphasized the relevance for this research study. These questions were exploratory in nature, specific, and explicit so the readers can easily ascertain the purpose of the research study. It has been declared that in qualitative research, the purpose becomes the central research question. The subquestions support the research study by soliciting additional information to strengthen the central research question. The central research question and two subquestions for this study are, respectively, as follows:

- What are the perspectives of law enforcement and child welfare workers about the influences of cultural norms in enforcing child sexual abuse prevention policies in Jamaica?

- From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?
- How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

These data collection questions are open-ended, probative, and aligns with the research design. Qualitative research questions allow researchers to contribute additional information to the research findings by asking questions about a participant's experience (Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Simon, 2018). Most importantly, the research questions were the beginning point for this qualitative research study. Research questions need to articulate what human interactions, experiences, and beliefs qualitative researchers want to investigate throughout the study (Agee, 2009; Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Given that this qualitative research study was an exploration of the influences of cultural norms on CSA prevention, the research questions allowed for the deduction of explicit responses from the study's participants. Furthermore, these qualitative research questions provided detailed descriptions and explanations of the research problem.

Role of the Researcher

My role as a researcher was crucial for this qualitative case study inquiry. In qualitative research, the role of the researcher is perpetually linked to the researcher as the primary instrument (Creswell, 2014; Patton, 2015; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The data collection process can be complicated, especially the interviewing process. It was my role

as a researcher to manage difficulties that arise during the data collection and moderate participation that allows participants to share their genuine feelings (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Hence, as a researcher it is imperative to be skillful in interviewing. It is also necessary to possess the skills needed to ask questions appropriately, understand the meaning of what participants say, and actively listen - specifically because qualitative researchers are responsible for exploring a phenomenon through the participants' lens (Asiamah et al., 2017; Patton, 2015). Therefore, another critical role is to gather data, articulate participants' responses, and perform data analysis. An experienced interviewer establishes the foundation for the interview and seeks to describe the meanings of central themes from the participant's experiences (Bracewell, 2018; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Exploring and conceptualizing participants' beliefs, thoughts, and experiences is no easy task because it involves asking people about sensitive, traumatic, and cultural taboo issues (Sutton & Austin, 2015).

The sensitive nature of this qualitative research required participants to be safeguarded throughout the research process. My primary objective as the qualitative researcher for this study was safeguarding the research participants. When working with human subjects, researchers have a moral obligation to protect participants from physical and psychological damage (Barrow & Khandhar, 2020; Leavy, 2017). Another central role of qualitative researchers is to respect the rights and dignity of research participants (Barrow & Khandhar, 2020). It is also my responsibility to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of the research participants while ensuring full disclosure of the details surrounding the research study. Preserving the confidentiality of the research data

contributes to the trustworthiness of the research findings. Ravitch and Carl (2016) explained that upholding the confidentiality of the research is a critical component of qualitative research.

For this qualitative study, there was no personal or professional relationship between the participants and me. Although no relationship existed with the participants, I do have a personal connection with Jamaica and the sexual abuse of female adolescents. For this study, I am an insider researcher because of my Jamaican nationality. My knowledge of the cultural norms helped create a good rapport with the research participants engendering a higher level of trust. Familiarity with the participant's culture not only helps build trust, but it helps in obtaining relevant information about the research (Johl & Renganathan, 2010). Developing a trustful relationship makes it easier for participant recruitment, selection, and data collection, specifically when dealing with culturally sensitive issues. Because of this knowledge, insider researchers have an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon than someone not embedded in the culture (Fleming, 2018; Greene, 2014; Ross, 2017). The unique role of being an insider researcher also allows for easy access to potential participants. In addition, insider researchers are impervious to the culture shock because they can easily integrate themselves in social settings (Greene, 2014).

I was also an outsider researcher for this qualitative case study. Outsider researchers do not share similar backgrounds or experiences with the study's population (Flores, 2018; Greene, 2014). Even though I have knowledge of the Jamaican culture, there is a significant drawback. My role is unique as I am no longer a Jamaican resident

but do visit annually. For this study, there is the potential that being a nonresident of the island impaired my understanding of the culture if there has been a cultural shift. Fleming (2018) pointed out that there is a risk that outsider researchers fail to capture valuable responses because of their unfamiliarity with cultural issues and contextual concepts. As an insider and outsider researcher, I have secondhandedly witnessed the sexual abuse of adolescent Jamaican females. I have also experienced sexual abuse throughout my adolescence. These experiences make it easier to recognize that cultural norm is an issue that could influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. Therefore, as the researcher, it was necessary for me to manage objectivity and researcher bias for this research study.

Researcher bias can adversely influence the findings of the research study. Study suggests that being an insider researcher could lead to a loss of objectivity and prejudice with the potential for providing misleading findings (Fleming, 2018). For this research study, every effort was taken to manage all potential sources of biases that could devalue the research findings. Considering one's reflexivity and positionality helped manage these biases. Scholars describe reflexivity as a systematic process of self-awareness that requires researchers to analyze their positionality and subjectivity, as well as the relationships with the research participants (Bourke, 2014; Palaganas et al., 2017; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Throughout the research process, my positionality as a Jamaican woman and CSA victim remained at the forefront of my mind to ensure participant's responses are captured accurately. My position as a researcher made me think about the importance of reflexivity throughout the entirety of the research. Reflexivity enhances the quality of

the research by promoting transparency, making it critical for qualitative researchers to reassess their positionality and subjectivities frequently (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). To do so, researchers must undergo a process of self-searching to understand how a myriad of assumptions and preconceptions affect every aspect of the research. Nonetheless, the nature of the research topic can change a researcher's positioning, making reflexivity a continuous process that helps eliminate researcher bias.

Qualitative research requires a level of consciousness by researchers to understand how previous knowledge introduces bias into the research. The sensitive nature of CSA coupled with researcher's knowledge present specific challenges. Personal beliefs about the sexual abuse of female adolescents could result in erroneous data collection. This introduces confirmation bias into the research process, which according to Sarniak (2015) occurs when researchers interpret evidence to confirm preexisting beliefs. As a researcher, suppressing personal beliefs allows for objective thinking and elimination of confirmation bias. Researchers must remain neutral throughout the research process, but data collection can be emotionally stressful, resulting in shifting positions. During data collection, remaining objective allowed me to interpret and analyze the data findings appropriately. Knowing views may change after participant interaction, Ravitch and Carl (2016) highly recommend revisiting one's positionality to reflect on how participant interactions might have influenced the researcher's position.

Ethical Considerations

No matter the population or methods used to carry out research, there are ethical challenges. However, ethical considerations were made throughout this qualitative

research. The increasing need for ethical research is in response to society's demand to increase accountability when researching human subjects (Fleming & Zegwaard, 2018). Ethics is essential for increasing the reliability of the research findings, and therefore, ethics is embedded in all stages of the research process. Ethical considerations emerge as researchers must consider the significance of the research topic and its effect on participants (Leavy, 2017). Insider researchers have critical ethical issues to manage and need to be aware of inherent risks that could influence the research findings (Fleming, 2018). Ethical challenges are intensified for insider researchers, increasing the possibility of coercing participants and manipulating the outcome of the research findings (Fleming & Zegwaard, 2018).

For qualitative researchers, ethical problems are more challenging when exploring sensitive topics or vulnerable populations (Marsh et al., 2017). The vulnerable population, as describe by Walden's IRB, was excluded from participation in this qualitative study. Researchers must still consider the protection of all research participants, despite their not being in the vulnerable population, (Leavy, 2017). The population bestows credibility to the research making it one of the most crucial aspects of the research population. Therefore, the foremost attribute of ethical behavior during the research process is not to harm the participants.

Protecting privacy, minimizing harm, and respecting the shared experience of the participants was crucial. Before conducting the research, I presented a plan to the IRB about the protocols that were established to protect the data and all participants. Protective measures were taken to prevent psychological distress to the participants.

Steps were also taken to protect participant's legal rights and privacy. Safeguarding participant's privacy preserves the confidentiality of the research findings. Every attempt was made to collect data confidentially. The interview data is securely stored in a locked file cabinet. To protect myself from breaching any ethics code and protecting my participants from any harm, I included the necessities in the informed consent. An informed consent, for example, should include the purpose for the research, procedures for carrying out the research, potential risks, and the benefits of the research, among other things (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011). Informed consent procedures, instrumentation, and interview questions were outlined, so it is absorbable by all participants. As the researcher, I ensured that the participants understand the limits of confidentiality and the plan to maintain confidentiality throughout the research. The informed consent provided a detailed description of the study to allow for full disclosure. Participants were also made aware that their participation was voluntary, and they can cease the interviews at any point. Likewise, the informed consent was written to minimize the likelihood of undue influence. Informed consent was obtained before commencing the data collection process. Nonetheless, I ensured all requirements adhere to Walden's IRB and the APA ethical standards and guidelines. The efforts of the IRB protected the rights and privacy of all human research participants.

Methodology

In this section, I described the specifics of the methodology. First, I discussed the participants and participant selection logic. Then, I described the sampling method used to recruit and select participants who provided detailed information to answer the data

collection questions. Next, I addressed data saturation, data collection, and instrumentation. Lastly, I concluded this section by describing the data analysis plan.

Participants

The sample of participants for this study consisted of law enforcement and child welfare workers. These participants have knowledge of Jamaica's cultural norms, CSA problem, and prevention policies available through the different child protection agencies. Likewise, law enforcement and child welfare workers are privy to the effects of CSA across the different levels of the SEM. Specifically, because law enforcement and child welfare workers are involved in enforcing primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. Recruitment and selection of these participants were essential, given the sensitive and exploratory nature of this qualitative research study.

Population and Sampling

Through the purposeful sample approach, I had a minimum of 15 participants readily available who were representative of the population. However, the plan was to collect data from at least 10 participants or until saturation was reached among the sample populous. For this qualitative case study, purposeful sampling was used to select participants that could best answer the research questions. The purposeful sampling approach increased the potential for selecting participants interested in the research study based on their familiarity with Jamaica's cultural norms and work with enforcing CSA prevention policies. These participants have first-hand knowledge and experience of CSA prevention policies, making it necessary to explore their perspective on whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies.

Purposeful sampling is the most suitable sampling strategy because it identifies and selects information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest (Palinkas et al., 2015; Patton, 2015). Purposeful sampling is also beneficial because it is a cost-effective and selective sampling method that enables qualitative researchers to choose participants at their discretion (Patton, 2015). Because qualitative research focuses on the responses from a limited number of participants (Celano, 2014), the purposeful sampling method allowed me to choose participants corresponding to the research study's needs. The purposeful sampling method also excludes participants who do not meet the selection criteria for the research study. Considering the cost related to conducting the data collection process, the discretion afforded by the purposeful sampling method allowed me as the researcher to be more selective. Because the sampling and selection process is deliberate (Etikan et al., 2016), this qualitative research involved participants willing to describe their experiences and feelings about Jamaica's cultural norms and its influence on CSA prevention policies.

Consequently, selecting a purposeful sampling approach results in a small sample size, making it ideal for qualitative researchers (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Primarily, the purposeful sampling eliminates some of the difficulties associated with exploring the population in its entirety. The selection process focused on at least 10 participants, who, through their experiences, provided detailed information about the cultural norms that could potentially influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies. The purposeful sampling method is a practical choice because it allows for a deeper exploration of the research questions from the participants'

perspective. The purposeful sampling approach also enhanced the credibility and validity of the research findings. Additionally, given the considerable impact of CSA, the most suitable participants must be selected to capture insightful responses about the influence of cultural norms on CSA prevention policies.

Participant Recruitment and Selection

Qualitative researchers use a multitude of techniques for recruiting participants. For this qualitative study, social media and the snowball sampling technique were used to recruit participants who meet the study's inclusion criteria. Social media is an invaluable recruitment instrument for recruiting participants for this research study. Sikkens et al. (2017) described social media as a useful tool for recruiting participants, mostly hidden populace. Thus, Facebook was the primary social media platform used to recruit participants. Recruitment efforts on Facebook concentrated on recruiting participants from groups with most Jamaican nationals.

Social media was ideal because it allowed me access to participants during the global pandemic (COVID-19). The versatility of social media also allowed me access to more participants than other recruitment methods. Multiple studies have found that social media enable researchers to research a broad segment of the research population, making social media an emergent recruitment instrument (Gelinas et al., 2017; Sikkens et al., 2017). Anonymity is an essential aspect of qualitative research. Using social media allows qualitative researchers to identify and recruit participants while maintaining anonymity (Gelinas et al., 2017). The level of anonymity afforded through social media safeguards research participants, a principal role for qualitative researchers. Although

social media has become a popular recruitment instrument, there is no specific regulatory guidance for IRBs (Gelinas et al., 2017). Therefore, I deferred to Walden's IRB process and policies on social media recruitment for this study.

Snowball sampling was another recruitment technique for recruiting participants for this study. Due to my personal and professional affiliation, I know of participants who meet the research inclusion criteria. These individuals include law enforcement and child welfare workers, both of which meet the inclusion criteria. The snowball sampling makes it possible to access potential participants who meet the inclusion criteria through the research participants. This research study's sensitive nature might make it difficult to recruit participants; hence, the benefit of using snowball sampling. From an ethical perspective, snowball sampling makes it possible to recruit participants without violating the research study's ethics. Also, snowball sampling complements the purposeful sampling technique by allowing me to select any of the participants identified through other participants for this study.

After receiving approval to select participants, I invited all potential participants by phone, email, or private message in accordance with the informed consent. Once contact was made with prospective participants, I provided them with copies of the interview protocol (see Appendix A) and informed consent. The interview protocol allows consistency and flexibility throughout the interview process for both the researcher and the participant. Mainly, the interview protocol is the data collection plan that aids a researcher throughout the interview process. Divulging the informed consent is crucial because it ensures participants understand the nature, purpose, risks, and benefits

of the research study, protecting their wellbeing (Fleming & Zegwaard, 2018; Mandal & Parija, 2014). All the information included in the informed consent allows participants to make an informed, voluntary, and rational decision to participate in the research study. Selected participants were required to electronically give informed consent to take part in the study as indicated in the informed consent. However, to reach the target number of participants needed to exhaust the research, the recruitment process was continued as necessary.

Saturation and Sample Size

Data saturation determines the sample size for each qualitative study (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). There is no one size fits all method for achieving data saturation because study designs are not universal (Fusch & Ness, 2015). For researchers, reaching data saturation is difficult because it combines sampling, data collection, and data analysis (Baker & Baker, 2012). Because of the study's small sample size, saturation is a complex issue when attempting to explore a phenomenon (Gentles et al., 2015). Saturation also makes it impractical to specify the number of interviews it takes to complete the study and report its findings (Baker & Baker, 2012). One study report that data saturation can be reached with six interviews (Fusch & Ness, 2015), whereas, another study recommends a sample size of 20 to 30 interviews (Hancock et al., 2009).

Participant selection was based on the purposeful sampling technique because it allows researchers to be selective. Because of the subjectivity afforded by the purposeful sampling method, data was collected from at least 10 participants or until data saturation is reached for this study. This sample size should be large enough to answer the research

questions, but small enough for the point of data saturation. I conducted interviews that allow for a breadth of information to answer the research questions instead of concentrating on the sample size. After all, in qualitative research, data saturation is about the depth and richness of the data, not the number of interviews or sources (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012; Fusch & Ness, 2015). For this study, data saturation was realized when no additional information about whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. Once participants begin to repeat the same responses, again and again, I discontinued data collection. Data saturation is a matter of identifying redundancy in the data (Saunders et al., 2018), allowing researchers to identify patterns, categories, and themes (Moser & Korstjens, 2018) to respond to the research questions.

Data Collection

Data collection is a process of gathering and analyzing information to answer the research questions (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). For qualitative researchers, collecting data amass considerable amounts of information, which provides a better understanding of the theoretical framework (Etikan et al., 2016; Sutton & Austin, 2015). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) described data collection as the essence of every empirical research. Data was collected from interviews and archival records such as statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents from the databases of NGOs and nonprofit organizations. Both data collection instruments support this qualitative case study and its exploration of CSA prevention through the different levels of the SEM – individual, relationship, community, and societal. The use of multiple data collection methods helped develop a detailed

exploration of whether cultural norms influence CSA prevention policies from law enforcement officials and child welfare workers' perspectives. Multiple data sources enhance the credibility of the research findings through triangulation (Baškarada, 2014; Celano, 2014; Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Yin, 2014); therefore, corroborating the research findings.

Interviews

For qualitative researchers, conducting interviews supports the descriptive and exploratory nature of the case study research design. Interviews allow researchers to obtain a more accurate picture of the problem from the participant's experiences. Interviews are befitting for collecting data on sensitive topics such as CSA because it eliminates the stressors that could result in erroneous or low-quality data gathered through other data collection methods. Interviews help researchers explore a person's thoughts, beliefs, and understanding of complex issues; thus, providing a deep, rich, individualized, and contextualized data that is valuable for qualitative research (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Studies show that data collected through interviews elicit rational responses from participants based on their knowledge or experience about the topic (Celano, 2014; Jamshed, 2014). This makes interviews crucial to the data collection process because it discloses information about the contextual factors that strongly influence a participant's experience and behavior. Therefore, interviews for this research study concentrated on exploring the cultural norms that influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies from law enforcement and child welfare workers' perspectives.

Interviewing was the primary means of collecting data because it offers a breadth of information about a specific research problem. Before commencing the interview, I reviewed the informed consent to ensure the participant wishes to proceed. The video messaging application, location, date, and time for each interview was scheduled within 72 hours of receiving the participant's informed consent. To preserve the participants' anonymity and maintain the integrity of the research, the video messaging application and interview location was agreed upon by the participants and me beforehand. I used an interview protocol throughout the interviews (see Appendix A). Studies describe the interview protocol as a procedural guide that lists issues and topics which the interviewer is free to explore, probe, and ask questions during the interview (Brayda & Boyce, 2014; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012)

The interview questions were based on the behaviors, opinions, values, knowledge, and sensory of the participants. Sensory questions are ideal for interviews because it allows the researcher to capture participants' reactions based on what they had experienced, heard, or witnessed soliciting the most substantial responses. Each interview included 16 semistructured open-ended questions based on the interview questionnaire (see Appendix B). These semistructured open-ended interview questions evoke direct responses from each participant based on their experience (Celano, 2014; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Semistructured interviews require participants to answer predetermined questions. However, if needed, a directive style of questioning was used to get participants to elaborate on their responses.

Open-ended questions are less threatening for participants and allow the researcher to build rapport with each participant, making the interview process run smoothly (Hershkowitz, 2009). Each interview question was carefully worded to ensure neutrality, reducing biases that might influence a participant's response. Bourke (2014) found that open-ended questions encourage participants to express their thoughts, making it easier for researchers to capture their genuine responses. Studies describe open-ended questions as a means for qualitative researchers to ask follow-up questions to elaborate on the participant's initial reaction (Hancock et al., 2009; Jamshed, 2014). Open-ended interview questions also promote conversations instead of a straightforward set of questions and answers between researchers and participants.

Semistructured interviews require minimal time (Jamshed, 2014); therefore, each interview averaged 45 to 60 minutes. The interviews were audio recorded using a digital recorder or a voice recorder application. All interviews were conducted by phone or with an online video messaging service such as Skype, WhatsApp, or Facebook Messenger. Following the conclusion of each interview, all audio recordings were transcribed verbatim using a transcription software. Upon completing each interview, the participants had the opportunity to clarify any ambiguous responses to ensure the interview transcript's accuracy before it is analyzed and included in the study. The data from these interviews are to be maintained in a secure location for five years.

Archival Records

In addition to the interviews, data collected from five archival sources was used to substantiate the research findings. Archival data was collected and reviewed from

statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents from NGOs and nonprofit organizations. The statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents derived from the databases of the CDC, the COHA, the RAINN, and the WHO. Archival records in general are arguably some of the most reliable methods of data collection (Baškarada, 2014). Examining archival records remains an invaluable data collection method because it saves researchers a great deal of time by using existing data. Archival records provide access to a more diverse participant population allowing for a systematic evaluation of the problem (Bowen, 2017; Turiano, 2014). Data collected through archival records aligns with the SEM and the application of the model in exploring prevention policies aimed at reducing sexual abuse of Jamaican female adolescents. Previous studies concluded that archival records produce relevant data that explores the research problem, ensuring trustworthiness in the research study and its findings (Alpi & Evans, 2019; Morse & McEvoy, 2014; Yin, 2014). This data source helped to show the depth of Jamaica's CSA epidemic and the cultural norms that influence the prevention of this problem, as well as assisting in the triangulation of data.

Data Analysis

Upon the completion of collecting data for this qualitative case study, the data analysis commenced. Interviews and archival records were the data sources used for the data analysis. The abundance of data makes data analysis challenging and time-consuming without the proper analysis instruments. The qualitative data analysis process seeks to reduce and make comprehensible the immense amount of information that is gathered from these different sources (Celano, 2014; Elliot, 2018). Data analysis in

qualitative research is a significant step that allows researchers to take descriptive data and devise a sensible explanation or interpretation (Celano, 2014; Sargeant, 2012). The research questions served as the foundation for categorizing the data during the data analysis process. Done correctly, themes can emerge to shed light on the research question. For this qualitative research inquiry, I conducted the data analysis using both manual and automated methods.

Saldaña (2016) explained that coding is one of the many methods for analyzing data. Following Saldaña's (2016) framework for data analysis, I used a combination of descriptive coding and values coding. Combining descriptive coding and values coding allowed me to assign labels to data from the interviews and archival records. Therefore, being able to summarize in a word or short phrase similarities and differences within the data. This was especially useful in coding the interview data. Values coding is appropriate for qualitative research that explores cultural value participant experiences in case studies representing the participant's perspective (Saldaña, 2016). Both qualitative coding methods allow for identifying repeated statements, sentences, and keywords that describe the participant's perspective on the influences of cultural norms in enforcing CSA prevention policies. The chosen coding methods summarized all the data into manageable pieces for an interpretative analysis of the research problem.

Interviews and Archival Records

Data analysis for the interviews require the audio recordings be transcribed verbatim before the researcher can commence the analysis process (Sutton & Austin, 2015). The coding process commenced after each interview recording was transcribed

and verified as accurate. Because of the significance of the interviews, research participants are a critical component of the data analysis process (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Primarily, because the findings represent the research participant's feelings or perspective on a phenomenon. Archival data collected from statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents were analyzed and used to substantiate the interviews. Data analysis of the archival records was accomplished by conducting a descriptive statistical analysis of the data against the research questions. For instance, participant answers about whether cultural norms influence CSA prevention were evaluated against archival data describing the population's perception. Data analysis of the archival records was intended to classify words and phrases into meaningful categories. The analysis of archival records can also make systematic and objective inferences to evaluate the data. Therefore, it is imperative that researchers accurately analyze, interpret, and report the research findings.

The coding process results in the dense data being broken down into categories and themes to uncover theoretical concepts. Coding can be time consuming and rigorous, but as Elliot (2018) explained, coding should not be exhaustive and challenging. Although a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDA) software is an excellent data analysis tool, there are more cost-effective and easier methods for analyzing qualitative data (Bree & Gallagher, 2016). One of these methods is Microsoft Excel. Microsoft Excel allows for systematic manual coding of all content within the dataset, not just the words extricated from the text (Ose, 2016). I used Microsoft Excel to structure and analyze the interviews and data from the archival records.

Microsoft Excel gives researchers control over the data (Linoff, 2016). Microsoft Excel also helped to identify meaningful codes and themes that capture participant's experiences and perspectives. The data analysis was done using different Microsoft Excel functions, namely, conditional formatting and formulas. Microsoft Excel user-friendly interface has other features that make it easier to code, such as colors, sorting, rows, columns, and fill series requiring minimal software knowledge. The functions of the Microsoft Excel software helped organize the interviews in a manner that allows for the organization of codes, accuracy, and queries that for similarities, difference, and repeated codes with an overarching theme. The categorization of the different codes is a representation of the participant's narratives from the sample population. The data was also coded based on the interview questions and participants. As data was coded, categories and themes emerged that identified the cultural norms influencing the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Microsoft Excel is also useful for analyzing small datasets (Linoff, 2016), like this qualitative research study's dataset.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Qualitative research is about exploring a phenomenon and providing meaning to the research questions and research problem (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Readers must be able to trust the research findings, especially if they are actively working to alleviate the problem. Trustworthiness is critical for qualitative researchers because it determines the authenticity, validity, and reliability of the research findings. Ensuring the validity and credibility of the data source is one method for ensuring the trustworthiness of the findings. To validate data sources, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory was used to verify peer-

reviewed publications. Peer-reviewed sources ensure the researcher's findings are accurate and lack researcher bias. Examination of the information of the different data sources enhances the relevancy of the data to determine trustworthiness. The relevancy of the data sources is useful because outdated sources can inadvertently erode trustworthiness, subsequently reducing the validity of the findings.

Besides using credible data sources, triangulation was another technique for ensuring the integrity of the research. Triangulation is useful when there is a convergence of information from multiple data sources to include interviews and archival records (Greene, 2014; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Because triangulation allows for the combination of data collection methodologies (Bowen, 2017), it enabled me to gather participants' perceptions from multiple data sources. Triangulation of the data was accomplished by aligning the interview data and archival data. Data from multiple sources provide a convergence of evidence that generates credibility, which causes greater confidence in the trustworthiness of the research findings for the readers (Bowen, 2017). This is critical because it assures the readers of the objectivity that is applied throughout the research process. Additional studies explain that to determine the trustworthiness of the study, qualitative researchers need to consider the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the research process and its findings (Greene, 2014; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

Credibility

Credibility is the first criterion for establishing trustworthiness in the findings of qualitative research. Establishing credibility begins early in the research process with the

participant selection. Credibility is about establishing confidence in the research findings (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019; Sutton & Austin, 2015). For this qualitative research, credibility determines whether the research findings are an accurate representation of the information initially drawn from participants as well as the correct interpretation of their responses (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). As a researcher, to maintain credibility, I was reflexive and aware of internal and external influences as well as the relationship with the participants and the research topic (Dempsey et al., 2016).

The triangulation of the multiple research data establishes credibility.

Triangulation also offers a comprehensive exploration of the research problem (Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Sargeant, 2012) because it gauges the accuracy of the research findings. Through triangulation, I examined the data collected from the different participants for similarities and differences to aid in the data analysis process. To further establish credibility, data collected through archival records substantiated participant responses to the interview questions. Credibility was achieved by having each participant review the interview transcripts. Research lacking credibility causes readers to distrust the researcher, devaluing the research findings' validity and reliability. Also, the purposeful sampling technique enhances credibility by eliminating researcher bias in the selection of participants (Shenton & Hayter, 2004). All strategies for ensuring credibility provides an accurate picture of the phenomenon, demonstrating the consistency and cohesiveness of the data collected from multiple sources.

Transferability

In qualitative research, transferability refers to the applicability of the findings to other research inquiries. Transferability is a researcher's ability to use detailed and descriptive data allowing other researchers to analyze the results and make inferences; therefore, making the research findings applicable to other research studies (Patton, 2015). In this research study, if a common theme was available among the different data sources, then transferability allowed me to petition these findings to be recognized universally. The external threat to validity could impede the transferability of the research findings for other researchers exploring CSA prevention. For this reason, a detailed description of the participants and their environment was provided for findings to apply to other contexts assuring the transferability of the findings. The sampling method also assures the transferability of the research findings. The purposeful sampling method ensures that the selected participants represent their respective population, which is critical for conducting data analysis across the different datasets. Data analysis also helps with the transferability of research findings, but these findings must be reliable to ensure transferability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Sutton & Austin, 2015).

Dependability

Dependability reduces potential biases within the research study, enhancing the trustworthiness of the research findings. Sutton and Austin (2015) expressed that dependability is about replicating the research findings with consistent results. Dependability insinuates that the research process has been logical, well documented, and scrutinized (Fleming, 2018; Patton, 2015). For this qualitative inquiry, the convergence

of multiple data sources assured the dependability of the research. I ensured the accuracy of participant responses by asking immediate follow-up questions to ensure the research findings are replicable. These follow-up questions are meant to expound on their initial responses. Maintaining an audit trail of the data collection process was another technique for ensuring dependability. An audit trail is a detailed record of the steps taken throughout the research, increasing transparency (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The audit trail included securing and maintaining the interview transcripts, audio recordings, and archival data in the event the research needs to be reproduced to reach similar findings. Another technique for establishing dependability was to have the members of my dissertation committee conduct an inquiry of the audit trail by examining the processes of data collection, data analysis, and the results of the research study.

Confirmability

Confirmability is the final step in the research process for determining trustworthiness. Confirmability requires a degree of neutrality where participant's responses support the findings, not the researcher's biases and interests. For qualitative researchers, it is imperative to secure the inter-subjectivity of the data as a measure for ensuring confirmability (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Maxwell (2013) stated that eliminating researcher bias guarantees confirmability so the researcher can focus on issues that arise during data collection and data analysis that could taint participant responses. Thus, confirmability occurs through researcher flexibility. To achieve confirmability, qualitative researchers must establish processes that capture and verify the

accuracy of participants' initial responses (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). For this qualitative study, member checking participants answers would be critical. Qualitative researchers use the technique of member checking to explore the credibility of the results (Birt et al., 2016). All interview participants had an opportunity to review the interview transcript, which is crucial for the confirmability of the research findings. An audit trail describing the processes taken throughout the research inquiry was maintained, illustrating the decision-making process throughout the study. Furthermore, confirmability was determined by linking the themes identified during data analysis back to the participant's initial responses (Gabbidon & Shaw-Ridley, 2019).

Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are a critical component of the qualitative research paradigm. In qualitative research, both reliability and validity assess the quality of research. Reliability is about the consistency of the research findings over time. Consistent results ensured the research findings are transferable. Qualitative researchers can attain reliability and validity in several ways. Triangulation is one method used to increase the reliability and validity of the research findings. For this research study, triangulation was accomplished through member checking, and comparing the interview and archival data to determine the consistency of results across multiple datasets. The case study design used for this study offers qualitative researchers' autonomy to collect data from multiple sources. Another strategy that enhances reliability and validity requires qualitative researchers to discuss how potential biases influence data collection and analysis.

Validity establishes the credibility of the research study. In qualitative research, achieving rigor establishes research validity (Leung, 2015). For this research study, multiple steps mitigated threats to validity. Establishing the validity of the research was accomplished by obtaining informed consent from the research participants. Participant validation was another strategy that helped to achieve validity. Research participants had an opportunity to validate the data before it was interpreted and included in the findings. The audit trail used to ensure dependability also ensured research validity. A final approach to strengthen validity was saturation. Saturation promoted validity when the responses were consistent making the data more reliable.

Summary

In this chapter, I addressed the research methods used in this qualitative research inquiry. The research method describes the approach used to explore whether cultural norms influence CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. The chapter begins with the research design and rationale that described the reason for conducting the study. My role as the researcher is thoroughly described and ethical considerations are explained to illustrate transparency with the research methods. Adhering to ethical norms in research prohibits the fabrication and misrepresentation of research data while minimizing error (Resnik, 2015). This level of transparency ensured the replication of the study's findings. In this chapter, I also presented the methodology which lets readers critically assess the reliability and validity of the research findings. Included in this section is a description of the study's participants, along with the sampling and recruitment process used to select the participants. A description of the data collection methods and instruments used for

data gathering were included for the readers to consider. This chapter also provided a description of the plan for analyzing the data gathered through interviews and review of archival records. The chapter concluded with a comprehensive explanation of the issues of trustworthiness that may influence the research findings. In Chapter 4, I present the results from the interviews and archival records. The details of the results are presented in a logical sequence to address each research question.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore the cultural norms that influence primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies from law enforcement and child welfare workers perspective. The purposeful sampling and snowball sample methods together identified a total of 10 law enforcement officials and child welfare workers with an understanding and experience of Jamaica's CSA problem and its prevention policies. Using a series of 16 open-ended interview questions (see Appendix B), I captured an assortment of responses from these professionals regarding the influences of cultural norms on the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. I was able to evaluate the responses from these interviews against the archival data gathered from the CDC, COHA, RAINN, and the WHO. Collectively, the interviews and archival records identified codes and themes that answered the research questions. The central research question that guided this study was: What are the perspectives of law enforcement and child welfare workers about the influences of cultural norms in enforcing child sexual abuse prevention policies in Jamaica? To support this central research question, the two research subquestions below were developed:

1. From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

2. How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

These research questions served as a basis for the development of the semistructured interview questions. In Chapter 4, I describe the setting, demographics, and the strategies used to recruit participants. Then, I discuss an overview of the data collection and data analysis procedures for this research study. Lastly, I present the results from the data analysis and address whether these findings answer the research questions.

Setting

Because of the COVID-19 pandemic and travel ban, the participants and I decided not to conduct in-person meetings or face-to-face interviews. As such, I spoke with each participant through email, phone, or the video messaging platforms Facebook Messenger and WhatsApp to discuss the nature of the research study. These technologies made it possible to discuss the participants' concerns or questions about the research study. During each conversation, I reviewed the informed consent, interview protocol, and interview questions with the participants to increase their familiarity with the research study. Some participants expressed concern about their responses being made public and the use of their names in the research study. In addressing their concerns, I reminded these participants that partaking in the research study was voluntary. I further expressed that no personal identifiers would be made public, and pseudonyms would be used to keep their identities confidential. Conversing beforehand helped address these concerns. Because all participants resided in Jamaica, each chose their interview location and

instrument for conducting the interview. All participants were informed to choose a location that afforded privacy due to the sensitive nature of the research topic. I used a private home office for all interviews. No personal or organizational conditions negatively influenced the participants or the data collection and data analysis quality. All interviews were conducted as planned by Walden's IRB approval, 11-16-20-0411168. Before each interview commenced, the participants signed the informed consent agreeing to participate in the research study. The interviews were audio-recorded and conducted over two weeks in November 2020. Recordings of the interviews were uploaded to SONIX and WREALLY, two online audio transcription software.

Demographics

All participants were of Jamaican nationality and citizenship. The research sample consisted of 10 participants which included four men and six women. Five participants were police officers (three female and two male), and five participants work in child welfare (four female and one male). The participants worked for different agencies including the CPFSA, CISOCA, Ministry of National Security, and the Saint John Bosco Children's Home. All participants have years of experience in their respective profession. According to the demographic data gathered, the number of years of experience ranges from 7 years to more than 4 decades. Except for one participant, all participants had more than a decade of experience in law enforcement or child welfare. Pseudonyms were assigned to the participants to maintain confidentiality. The use of pseudonyms also made it easier to track the data, perform data analysis, and identify emerging codes and themes. Table 1 provides a breakdown of the participants' demographic information.

Table 1*Participant Group Demographics*

*Participants	Gender	Pseudonyms	Profession	Experience (years)
Participant 1	Female	Sharon	Police officer	23
Participant 2	Female	Sue	Child welfare	17
Participant 3	Female	Samantha	Child welfare	13
Participant 4	Female	Stephanie	Child welfare	10
Participant 5	Male	Samuel	Police officer	16
Participant 6	Male	Sheldon	Police officer	7
Participant 7	Female	Sasha	Police officer	13
Participant 8	Female	Stacey	Child welfare	40
Participant 9	Male	Shawn	Child welfare	27
Participant 10	Male	Steven	Police officer	17

*Pseudonyms assigned to all participants for confidentiality

Archival data were collected from the databases of four organizations to include NGOs and nonprofit organizations. These organizations were the CDC, COHA, RAINN, and the WHO. From these organizations, I gathered statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents that were relevant to this qualitative research study. The archival records examined and analyzed for this research study were:

- CDC – *Preventing child sexual abuse*
- CDC – *Prevention strategies*
- COHA – *Perversion in paradise*

- RAINN – *The criminal justice system: Statistics*
- WHO – *Global status report on preventing violence against children 2020*

Data Collection

For this study, I used a purposeful sampling and snowball sampling strategies to recruit participants. A social media recruitment flyer was posted to Jamaicans Abroad, You're Probably from Jamaica, I am Jamaica, Everything Jamaica by Jamaicans, all groups on Facebook. Although the process was delayed awaiting the administrator's approval of the recruitment flyer, I was able to recruit two participants through this method. Both participants met all inclusion criteria for the research study. I provided both participants with an invitation to participate and informed consent form, and both contributed to this study. However, the snowball sampling technique was beneficial because most participants were referred by one of the two participants, or from other people who saw the social media recruitment flyer. The primary sources of data were the interviews with the participants recruited through purposeful sampling and snowball sampling and the archival data collected from the four NGOs and nonprofit organizations.

Interviews

The primary method of data collection was in-depth interviews with law enforcement officials and child welfare workers. Before each scheduled interview, I provided the participants with the invitation to participate and informed consent form. These documents were sent via Facebook Messenger, WhatsApp, and Walden University official email address. All participants responded via Facebook Messenger and

WhatsApp with “I consent” with the interviews completed within 48 hours. The participant contacted through email was interviewed within a week because she had trust and confidentiality concerns. This participant requested a video message meeting via SKYPE beforehand to quell her concerns due to her position as a high-ranking child welfare advocate. Following our conversation addressing her concerns, she consented to the interview.

I collected data from 10 participants, reaching data saturation with the 10th participant. Eight of the participants interviewed were through WhatsApp and two interviewed by phone. The duration of the interviews was approximately 15 to 45 minutes. For each interview, the participant answered a series of 16 semistructured questions (see Appendix B). The same questions were asked of all participants, but follow-up questions differed for some participants. I spoke clearly and used words that the participants could understand. Whenever necessary, I repeated and rephrased any questions that were not clear to the participants. If a participant’s response were not clear, I would repeat it or ask for clarification to ensure the accuracy of their response and the research’s findings. Responses to the interview questions provided accurate data on participant perspectives about the influences of cultural norms on the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. WhatsApp and phone interviews were recorded using an audio recorder application on a MacBook. For each interview, I printed the interview questionnaire (see Appendix B) and took notes for each participant. After the interview session, I transcribed the recorded data using SONIX and WREALLY online transcription software. All the transcripts were saved in Microsoft Word but required

additional transcription due to the participants' English dialect and Patois speaking. For each SONIX and WREALLY transcript, I had to listen to the audio recorded interviews and correct the transcripts to capture each participant's correct responses. I also used QuickTime Player to slow the audio recordings. This was a lengthy process that took approximately one and a half weeks to complete more of the manual technique due to the transcription software's ineffectiveness.

The lack of access to email resulted in all participants being contacted through WhatsApp and phone to review the interview transcript for errors and accuracy. Once all participants confirmed the accuracy of the transcripts, I began the coding process. All information that could identify the participants was redacted from the interview transcripts to maintain confidentiality. All audio recordings and electronic transcripts are stored on a password protected file on my computer. Printed interview transcripts are kept in a secured file cabinet. I will maintain all information for 5 years in accordance with Walden University's IRB policy.

Review of Archival Records

Exploring law enforcement officials and child welfare workers perception about the cultural norms that influence CSA prevention policies require reviewing secondary data to supplement primary data collected through interviews. Reviewing secondary data from multiple sources could enhance the credibility of the research study (Yin, 2014). Thus, after obtaining IRB approval, I collected archival data. To find relevant archival data, I searched the databases of several NGOs and nonprofit organizations to locate relevant archival data for this research study. I also conducted a Google search of specific

keywords. Some of these keywords include *child sexual abuse statistics, child sexual abuse by the numbers, statistics of child sexual in Jamaica, and reports on child sexual abuse in Jamaica*. These keyword searches helped me locate *statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents* from the CDC, COHA, RAINN, and the WHO. No special permission was required to obtain the archival data from the databases of these organizations. All archival data was available to the public for review and download.

Data Analysis

As outlined in Chapter 3, the data analysis plan for this research study included the use of a combination of Saldaña descriptive coding and values coding to perform the data analysis for this research study. Descriptive coding requires qualitative researchers read through the data to create codes. Values coding was done in addition to descriptive coding to derive meaning from the codes that were identified. Use of Saldaña's descriptive coding and values coding was ideal because these coding methods do not focus on the quantity of coded data, but data saturation (Saldaña, 2016; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2016). Several CAQDAS were considered including ATLAS.ti and Quirkos, but I decided to continue with Microsoft Excel as discussed in Chapter 3. The decision not to use a CAQDAS was due to the difficulty using the software and the accuracy of the codes. Use of a CAQDAS made the data very objective, which according to Saldaña (2016) is a drawback of such software. Data from the interviews and archival records were analyzed using Microsoft Excel.

Interviews

Through Microsoft Excel, I was able to code and categorize participant responses to the interview questions. In the first step of the coding process for the interviews, I read each interview transcript immersing myself in the data. The second step of coding required me to use Microsoft Excel to create a workbook with three spreadsheet files to document participant responses. In the first Microsoft Excel spreadsheet file, I documented all the participants' responses for all the same questions. I then printed the Excel spreadsheet file and sorted through the document to identify similarities and differences in each question's responses. Coding was accomplished using the highlighting and underlining techniques. For the second Excel spreadsheet file, I documented these responses for the research-based interview questions for all 10 participants. Table 2 is a breakdown of the interview questions, participant's responses, and codes for each question. Though some of the answers were the same it was only listed once.

Table 2*Interview Questions, Responses, and Codes*

Interview Questions	Responses	Codes
What are your thoughts on the increasing cases of CSA committed against female adolescents in Jamaica?	Parents need to be attentive; lack of love and support from parents; perpetrators prey on children because adults not around; sometimes based on poor parenting; lack of supervision and proper parenting; no parental guidance at home; parents not around; ignorance of parents	Inattentive and irresponsible parents
What experience do you have implementing CSA prevention policies?	None personally; lecture students at school; community meetings; don't implement prevention policies – policies already established; provide support and seek justice through the courts; educate children about their rights; educate children about good and bad touch and what person can touch their sexual organs; educate parents at all levels; investigate sexual offenses; patrol with the military to combat child sexual abuse; arrest perpetrators; enforce the Sexual Offences Act; operated residential facility for 40 years; spoke at forums; met with Prime Ministers and heads of government; wrote reports and position papers; very little at the local level	Prevention through education (e.g., lectures, forums, position papers, reports, community meetings)
What prevention policies and resources are available for CSA victims and their families?	Prevention difficult to do from outside the home and school; Victim Support Division/Unit; counseling for child and parent; counseling for perpetrator; women center for pregnant child; Centre for Investigation of Sexual Offences and Child Abuse (CISOCA); Office of Children Registry; police protection; prevention is difficult – how do I prevent a father from abusing a daughter; lots of resources after the abuse; Child Development Agency (CDA); Child Protection and Family Services Agency (CPFSA); Hear the Children Cry; Child Guidance Clinic; human rights group; relocation from the home; medical assistance hospital; peer and guidance counselors	Government agencies; psychological support
What cultural norms influence the implementation of CSA prevention policies?	CSA is misunderstood; parents don't understand the impact; difficult question to answer; need more agencies; schools and churches started speaking out; I am not sure it has anything to do with cultural norms; comes down to the individual; person's background and community – the way they think affect measures that can help children; parents in agreeance with the acts committed; parents expose their children to sexual dangers; witnesses don't come forward; it's see no evil, hear no evil until it's at your doorstep; no father figure; lawmakers need to go back to the drawing board; can't give you an answer; administrators won't speak up publicly, only privately; music is oversexed; sexual abuse in the church	Lack of CSA education by parents; CSA dismissed/ overlooked; denial and silence

Interview Questions	Responses	Codes
How do cultural norms influence the pervasiveness of CSA when the perpetrator is a relative?	Don't think so; Lot of influence; don't want their love one to go to prison; coverup is done; child force to change story; hush hush culture, child alienated from the family; if abused you should protect the family; don't embarrass the family; don't think Jamaican culture has anything to do with it – these people just need to be straightened out; incest; nobody talks about it; if relative is a provider they don't want to lose the benefits	Protection of perpetrator; posttraumatic psychological abuse
What do you perceive to be the most significant cultural challenge as a (participant) in the implementation of CSA prevention policies?	Haven't heard of any barriers; not everyone recognize CSA is a serious problem that needs to be addressed; child welfare workers voice not heard; informer fi dead mentality; perpetrator's status; court process is slow; not enough resources; accused difficult to locate; money and benefits are more significant; parents send their daughters to seek out older men; 90% of time parents send them for money; righteous indignation; having sex with child rid sexually transmitted diseases (STDs)	Need for financial resource; CSA not recognized as a problem; justice system lack resources; fear of perpetrator
How are CSA prevention policies perceived in your community?	Haven't heard of any resistance; not recognized; perpetrators goes to court and back on street in no time; laws and policies not rigid; court process drawn out; informer fi dead; community knows it's wrong but nobody talks about it; taboo; communities see policies as essential but takes time to materialize; policies not effective or strong enough to curtail CSA; in prominent communities policies perceived well; reticence to deal with it is not there; advocates seen as enemy; people against anything that deprive them of benefits	No government or community protection for victims
What are your thoughts on patriarchal beliefs surrounding the sexual abuse of female adolescents?	Males and females both abused; child see it as normal to have a dominant male that supports them; girls want to be with a man of authority; that's what mommy and daddy do; seen as female's fault; girl caused it; not all cases where the male is dominant – females dominant if some communities; it influences it a lot; females seen as weaker; man is the breadwinner and supposed to work; has a lot to do with background; we don't talk about it; parents value male child more than female; females are disposable	Victim blaming; CSA normalized when perpetrator provides financial support
What cultural norms increase female adolescents' risk of becoming a victim of sexual abuse?	Wants and needs; not being satisfied with what they have; greed; lack of love and affection; self-worth, no confidence; money; should have a many at any cost; parents cannot afford it; lavish lifestyle; nobody wants to work hard for what they want; inability for female to be dependent; living above means; you have to pay for what you are receiving; dress code – dressing half naked; mannerism, way they act in the streets; in company of many men; poverty; lack of supervision/ parenting; gratification issues; rewarded with parental approval; not raised as a public concern; mother's attitude towards abuse	Fulfilling needs and wants at all cost; sexual victimization due to self-esteem issues

Interview Questions	Responses	Codes
What cultural norms promote a culture of silence and prevent individuals from disclosing sexual abuse?	Shame; labeled; looked down on; stigmatized; fear; fear of their parents; consequences after the abuse; don't want family, friends or community to know; informer fi dead but it's who you inform against and to; don't want to embarrass the family; perpetrator is the provider; protection of the breadwinner; ridicule; feeling of embarrassment; seen as good for nothing; cast out of community; risk and danger to their families; lack of trust; not a lot of good mothers; girls with older men seen as "top girl"; lose hope in justice system; system is failing victims; lack of communication between parents and child; perpetrator seen as bent that way; don't want to be responsible for tearing apart the family; he is not going to do it again; deny and turn a blind eye; police station is fare and require bus fare – obstacle for many; you can't just call the police – reports done in person; perpetrator is someone of authority; perpetrator so valued the child's words not taken into consideration	Fear and distrust; no family and community support; suffering in silence without access to support services and resources
How are victims of CSA treated following the disclosure of sexual abuse?	Agency protect and encourage them; counseling provided; some in the community will have doubts or disbeliefs; entire family will come down on the girl; cast away; victim has to work harder to be accepted by family and community; scorn; remorse; pity; mercy; level of support; coping mechanism; ridiculed; person afforded confidentiality, privacy, and security; financial resource limitation that slows the process; every case is guided with fiercest policies; treated with respect; punishment based on Sexual Offences Act; report goes nowhere; nothing happens	Established consequences of disclosure; reasons for no or delayed disclosure
Is there anything else you would like to share that you believe will better help me explore whether Jamaican cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies?	Worldwide issue; Jamaica is doing its best; when we get to a point where we change our culture, how we train our boys, buildup our girls self-esteem the abuse will decrease; take more responsibility for our children; poorest people fall victim; how do you stop sexual abuse where the child is being sold by their parents to older men; when the case is reported parents will not be supportive of legal process; must have great respect for our children and consider their own, they would desist from doing so but they fail so it will continue to increase; most cases where a child gets pregnant they get upset and don't want the perpetrator arrested; CSA is broad topic – mens ria/ actus reus; Child Development Agency has blinders on – might address it when it happens but nothing in terms of education and prevention; no national unification to solve the problem; don't think it is a policy issue, policies exists its empowering and educating people – a lot of girls believe they deserve the abuse.	CSA and prevention policies complicated global issue; cultural paradigm shift is needed

Some participants gave similar responses to the same interview questions. Identical responses were listed once. All participants expressed that parents were responsible for Jamaica's CSA epidemic and enforcement of prevention policies. The overwhelming response from both police officers and child welfare workers was the lack of supervision, lack of support, and affection parents show their daughters. Participants felt that the inattentiveness of these parents make young women vulnerable to sexual abuse. Some participants described some parents as being complicit in aiding the perpetrator commit the abuse. As a police officer for CISOCA, one participant explained "What we get 90% of the time is where the mother is in need of some cash and the man is attracted to my 12-year-old. So, okay! I'm going to send my 12-year-old out to be with this man. We have cases where a 12-year-old is sleeping not with mommy when night comes but with the man. We got cases where the man called the mother and said, "wake up the daughter I am ready." A couple of these participants identified socioeconomics and lack of education about CSA as major factors that contribute to these parents' lack of supervision, lack of support, and affection towards the child. Majority of the participants expressed concern with the agencies and policies in place to prevent the sexual abuse of children. Participants were candid about the ineffectiveness of the policies even within their own agency. One participant who worked for CPFSA voiced frustration with the primary prevention policies designed to prevent sexual abuse before it occurs. The participant inquired,

How do I prevent a father from abusing their daughter? Because in order for me to go talk to a Child Development Agency or CISOCA to make a report, I need evidence of the actual occurrence which I am trying desperately to avoid.

Based on responses from the participants, more effective CSA prevention policies are needed but policies alone are not sufficient. Constructive CSA prevention policies require a cultural shift to reduce sexual abuse against female adolescents. This cultural shift requires exploring CSA prevention policies at the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels. Exploration of CSA prevention policies across the four levels of the SEM would result in more effectual primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies.

In the next step of the coding process, I reexamined the data in Table 2 and searched for themes within the codes. To ensure the accuracy of these themes, I listened to the interview recordings and transcripts again to uncover additional codes not previously identified. From these codes, I identified four themes and 13 subthemes. These themes and subthemes were documented in the third Excel spreadsheet file. An overview of the four themes, 13 subthemes, and codes that occurred repeatedly are depicted in Table 3.

Table 3*Thematic Structure*

Themes	Subthemes	Codes (coded in Microsoft Excel)
1. Neglectful and permissive parenting	Lack of education	Parents don't understand the impact of CSA; child don't recognize they are being abused; ignorance of parents; mothers' attitude towards abuse; lack of communication between parents and child
	Irresponsible parenting	Parents need to be more attentive; parents and adults not around; poor parenting; lack of proper parenting; no parental guidance at home; parents in agreeance with the acts committed; parents expose their children to sexual dangers; parents send their daughters to seek out older men; lack of parental supervision
	Words of affirmation	Lack of affection, love, and support from parents; parents and adults not around; not a lot of good mothers; mothers' attitude towards abuse; parents' value male child more than female child
2. Inadequate governmental resources	Ineffective laws and policies	Agencies do not implement prevention policies; agencies have difficult locating the accused; laws and policies not rigid or strong enough to curtail CSA; policies not effective; person not always afforded confidentiality, privacy, or security due to limitation of financial resources; lawmakers need to go back to the drawing board
	Broken criminal justice system	Slow court process; perpetrators back on the street in minimal time; court process is drawn out; lose hope in the justice system; reports go nowhere – nothing happens; system is failing victims
	Unification for change and support for professionals	Not everyone recognizes CSA as a serious problem; no national unification to solve the problem; reticence to deal with it is not there; CSA not raised as a public concern; prevention is difficult; Child Development Agency has blinders on; advocates seen as the enemy; administrators won't speak up publicly; Prevention difficult to do from outside the home and school; need more agencies; child welfare workers voice not heard
	More resources needed	Jamaica is doing its best; need more agencies; not enough resources; agencies have difficult locating the accused; police station is far and requires bus fare; can't call the police to make a report – reports done in person
3. Emotional and Psychological Related Trauma/ Socioeconomics	Silence and nondisclosure	Coverup is done; child forced to change their story; hush hush culture; don't want to be responsible for tearing family apart; he is not going to do it again; perpetrator status
	Family obligation	Don't want their relative in prison; if abused you should protect the family; don't embarrass the family; don't want to be responsible for tearing family apart
	Psychological effects	Shamed; looked down upon; gratification issues; labeled; stigmatized; ridiculed; feeling of embarrassment; child forced to change their story; child alienated and cast out from family and community; seen as female fault; girl caused it; lack of love and affection; self-worth; no confidence; rewarded with parental approval
	Victim blaming	Seen as female fault; not being satisfied, trick and abuse; girl caused it; the way they act in the streets; the words they used; their dress code – wearing very short clothes; dressing sometimes half naked; physical attributes; physical development and maturity; inviting lifestyle
	Financial benefits	Don't report the abuse if a relative – don't want the breadwinner in prison; don't want to lose benefits; money and benefits are more significant; wants and needs; greed; want lavish lifestyle or "top girl" status; you have to pay for what you are receiving
4. No community involvement or support	Perception and mentality	Person's background and community – way they think can affect measures to help the child; community knows it is wrong, but nobody wants to talk about it; taboo; informer fi dead mentality; perpetrator bent that way; witnesses do not come forward; it's see no evil, hear no evil until it's at your doorstep; deny and turn a blind eye

Archival Records

Archival data was another source of data used to supplement data collected from the interviews. Examining archival records produced a plethora of data from statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents. Collecting data can be difficult, especially if the researcher is required to collect data over a lengthy period. Hence, the use of archival data for this research study. Archival data provided endless opportunities, which was valuable because of the COVID-19 pandemic that restricted travel to Jamaica. Although archival data provided endless opportunities it does have its limitations. Research studies have shown that data collected from archival records seldom align to one's research agenda (Turiano, 2014). After archival records were gathered, I spent two weeks sorting through the literature to identify relevant data. Once the data was usable, I recoded the data to answer this study's research questions. Through Microsoft Excel, I was able to code and categorize the statistical data, survey reports, files, and documents from the archival records gathered from different public sources. Sorting through the archival data, I identified eight themes and nine subthemes. Table 4 depicts the themes, subthemes, and codes that emerged from data of the different archival records.

Table 4*Archival Data Review*

Document names	Themes	Subthemes	Codes
<i>Preventing child sexual abuse</i>	1. Understanding CSA and related prevention	Critical gaps in prevention	CSA resources focus mostly on treatment for victims and criminal justice approaches for perpetrators; little investment for primary prevention – preventing abuse before it occurs; improve surveillance systems and data collection for monitoring CSA; increase understanding of CSA risk and protective factors; strengthen existing and develop evidence-based policies, programs, and practices for primary prevention of CSA; increase dissemination and implementation of evidence-based CSA prevention strategies
<i>Prevention strategies</i>	2. Socioecological factors of prevention	Influences of the three levels of prevention	CSA requires addressing risk and protective factors at individual, relational, community, and societal levels; CSA rooted in unhealthy relationships/ environment; effective prevention strategies focus on modifying policies, practices, societal norms; strengthen economic support to families; change social norms to support parents and positive parenting; provide quality care and education early in life; enhance parenting skills to promote healthy child development; intervene to lessen harms and prevent future risk
<i>Perversion in paradise</i>	3. Prevalence of CSA	National crisis	17,000 cases; available data do not represent the severity of the problem; majority of incidents go unreported; 40% of Jamaicans report first sexual experience occurred without consent before age 16; 90% perpetrated by relative/acquaintance
	4. Professionals' perception of Jamaica's CSA epidemic	Cultural attitude towards sexual abuse	Antiinformant culture cowed victims into silence – interaction with police discouraged; virgin cleansing myth; male breadwinners have the rights to all females in the house; some women do not perceive CSA to be wrong/ raise no objection; neighbors/ relatives remain silent – unwilling to see offender go to prison; unwillingness of victims to report the abuse; feelings of shame; remain silent out of uncertainty no one would believe them; mothers were once victims/ turn a blind eye
		Low-income households	20% of Jamaicans living below poverty line; prostituted by their parents; one room dwelling; financial motivations; mothers do not stop the abuse/ fear of losing financial support from breadwinner; mothers threaten the child; mothers demand child lie to keep perpetrator from prison; male breadwinner supports women

Document names	Themes	Subthemes	Codes
	5. Systemic issues influencing CSA	Problems with Jamaica's criminal justice system	CSA laws are poorly enforced; government resources focused on major cities; CSA not on government radar/ goes unreported in rural areas/ little to no understanding of available resources; road to justice long and arduous; lack of resources for CSA agencies; government attention for CSA is inconsistent; Jamaican law do not allow victims to submit videotape or electronic statements; victims required to face abuser in court – contributes to victims unwilling to report abuse/ pursue prosecution; some jurors acquit perpetrator – believe victims invited the abuse
	6. Three levels of prevention – primary, secondary, tertiary	CSA prevention strategies	Fighting CSA require consistent, multifaceted government approach; first step – make society aware of its existence; let society know it is wrong; implement curriculum in schools – nationwide teaching of what constitute healthy behavior/ how to recognize sexual abuse/ importance of disclosing incident; teachers and school workers trained in recognizing signs and symptoms of CSA/ what to do if abuse is suspected or reported to them; create training programs for parents and caregivers; overhaul child protection agencies; merge existing agencies under single coordinative authority; equip agencies and police with advanced technologies; pool resources with community-based advocacy/survivor groups; strong efforts to address root causes of CSA – poverty and economic dependence among mothers
<i>The criminal justice system: Statistics</i>	7. Cultural norms influencing nondisclosure and underreporting	Reasons for not reporting	995 of 1000 perpetrators will walk free; perpetrators less likely to go to jail or prison than other criminals; 20% feared retaliation; 13% believed police would do nothing to help; 13% believed it was a personal matter; 7% did not want to get the perpetrator in trouble
<i>Global status report on preventing violence against children 2020</i>	8. Prevention and risk reduction at different levels of prevention	Prevention strategies across three levels of prevention	Implementation and enforcement of laws; norms and values – strengthening nonviolent norms, community mobilization, bystander intervention; safe environments; parent and caregiver support; response and support services – mental health and medical services; education and life skills – helping children protect themselves; no national action plan addressing sexual violence

In reviewing the archival records of four NGOs and nonprofit organizations, five documents yielded information relevant to this research study. The first document, *Preventing Child Sexual Abuse*, discussed CSA as a significant but preventable public health problem. The second document reviewed was *Prevention Strategies*, where the CDC described child abuse as a complex problem that requires addressing risk and protective factors at the different SEM levels. The third article, *Perversion in Paradise*, described CSA and the causes of this crisis. The fourth archival data reviewed was *The Criminal Justice Systems: Statistics* published by the RAINN. In this report was statistical data about the prevalence of CSA, its effect on the criminal justice system. The last document, *Global Status Report on Preventing Violence Against Children 2020*, is a report that identified strategies and approaches to end violence against children.

Preventing Child Sexual Abuse

In this statistical report, the CDC defined what constitutes CSA. It explained that CSA is a significant problem that violates societal norms because the victims do not comprehend the act, are not developmentally prepared, or cannot give informed consent. For readers to fully comprehend the magnitude of CSA, the CDC provided statistics illustrating the severity of the problem. CSA is reportedly a billion economic burden, but the true impact of CSA remains underestimated due to nondisclosure. The report did identify that CSA considerably affects 1 in 4 girls compared to 1 in 13 boys. The report also included the consequences of CSA, current gaps in CSA prevention, and recommendations for future research.

Prevention Strategies

This second report by the CDC described CSA as having a lasting impact on its victims. CSA is described as a severe problem affecting individual behavior, family and community relationships, and societal factors that influence CSA risk and protective factors. Given the overarching effect of CSA on a person's socioecological, the CDC explained that prevention strategies are needed that focus on modifying policies, practices, and societal norms. Implementing these prevention strategies help create a safe and stable environment for female adolescents to develop nurturing relationships in their environments. The report concluded with a list of prevention strategies and approaches that would reduce the CSA epidemic if implemented.

Perversion in Paradise

In this report, the COHA reported on Jamaica's CSA epidemic. Several senior members from multiple child protection agencies contributed to this report. Government officials interviewed in this report described CSA as a national crisis. Provided in the report were examples of CSA across some of Jamaica's most populated parishes. Some of these incidents include perpetrators in positions of authority demonstrating the seriousness of the problem. Statistical evidence found that in Jamaica, CSA has been increasing each year. Although available data indicated that CSA is a national crisis, the Jamaican government, nonprofit organizations, and NGOs such as UNICEF explained the magnitude of the problem remains unknown because many incidents go unreported. Also discussed in the report are the socioeconomic factors and cultural norms that influenced Jamaica's CSA crisis. The COHA also found that Jamaica's laws and institutions

designed to deal with CSA issues are inadequately resourced, hindering enforcement and prevention.

The Criminal Justice System: Statistics

In this report, the RAINN provided statistical information about the perpetrators of CSA. Specifically, the report described consequences for individuals who commit CSA offenses. The report further revealed that the majority of sexual abuse incidents are not reported to the police. To support this finding, the RAINN provided data to show the number of sexual abuse incidents not reported to the police. Further described in the report are reasons victims choose to report or not report the sexual abuse.

Global Status Report on Preventing Violence Against Children 2020

This report provided a global status report on preventing violence against children. This report aimed to address the growing violence against children from many countries, including Jamaica. The data provided in this report focused on interpersonal violence, which accounted for Jamaica's high rate of violence against children and included sexual abuse. The findings within this report provided a baseline for the Jamaican government to hold itself accountable. Using the study's findings nonetheless provided the Jamaican government with an instrument for monitoring their progress towards reducing violence against children. For instance, in this report, the WHO documented if the Jamaican government has a national action plan implemented to end child abuse. Findings showed that the Jamaican government does not have a national action plan established to end sexual abuse. The study also provided a prevention model

for which governments can use to implement strategies and approaches for preventing and responding to violence against children.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

To ensure trustworthiness required me to demonstrate how the research findings aligned with the gathered data. For qualitative research, demonstrating trustworthiness is accomplished by ensuring the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the research (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). As the researcher, I took certain measures to ensure the trustworthiness of the data. One measure taken was to eliminate researcher bias during the data collection. Throughout the interview process, I had to listen to the participants responses while remaining objective. This was crucial because the researcher is the most crucial qualitative research instrument (Creswell, 2014). Trustworthiness was achieved through member checks, which improved credibility, validity, and transferability. Member checks were conducted by having participants revisit their answers to confirm, clarify, or elaborate on their initial responses.

Credibility

Credibility is a crucial aspect of trustworthiness because it determines if the readers find the research findings believable and reliable. To enhance this research findings' credibility, the richness of the data gathered derived from multiple data sources. Remaining objective throughout the interviews ensured the credibility of the research findings given data was collected from 10 participants with vast experience in law enforcement and child welfare. These participants consisted of both genders, different

backgrounds, and from different parishes. Validating the accuracy of the data was another measure taken to ensure the credibility of the research findings. For this research, I reviewed the interview transcripts with the participants before commencing the data analysis. Lastly, I applied the triangulation approach to enhance the research findings credibility. Studies show that triangulation involves multiple methods and sources to aid qualitative researchers reduce bias in cross examining participant responses (Anney, 2014; Jeremiah et al., 2017). Triangulation allowed me to establish validity of participant's responses, increasing credibility.

Transferability

Transferability is about providing the readers with evidence that the research findings are applicable to other contexts (Greene, 2014; Sutton & Austin, 2015). To ensure the transferability of this research study, I provided a detailed description of the data in Table 1 (*Participant Group Demographic*), Table 2 (*Interview Questions, Responses, and Codes*), Table 3 (*Thematic Structure*), and Table 4 (*Archival Data Review*). These tables allow the readers to make their own inferences, comparisons, and comprehension of the research data, making it applicable to future research inquiries. I also provided a detailed description of the data so fellow qualitative researchers may expound on the work's literary body.

Dependability

Relating to trustworthiness, dependability is important because it establishes the research findings' consistency and reliability (Moon et al., 2016). For qualitative researchers, dependability is also about ensuring the research is repeatable based on the

data collected allowing other qualitative researchers to arrive at similar findings (Anney, 2014). Dependability was achieved by asking follow-up questions of the participants to capture the depth and preciseness of their responses. Also, being consistent throughout the research process helped to achieve dependability. Throughout the research process, I achieved consistency by having a well-structured method of collecting and analyzing the data sources. The data collected was in accordance with the interview protocol, interview questionnaire, and Walden's IRB approval. I also documented each step of the research process to ensure dependability. This audit trail increased dependability in the research findings through transparency. Reflexivity complimented transparency throughout the entire research process to reduce biases in the research findings.

Confirmability

The final step in determining trustworthiness is confirmability. Achieving confirmability is the degree to which the research findings could be confirmed, followed, and replicated by other qualitative researchers (Moon et al., 2016). Like dependability, I accomplished confirmability using the interview transcripts, recordings, archival data, and data analysis documents. Member checking was also used to accomplish the confirmability of the research results. During the interview, participants had the opportunity to revisit their answers for accuracy. Maintaining an audit trail of these research documents helped to cross-check the accuracy of participants' responses. Documentation of the research process ensured the research findings derived from the gathered data. Because researchers can bring their own biases into the research process, confirmability is the evidence of trustworthiness that established whether the researcher

was biased during the research study. Using a well-structured approach eliminated these biases. Establishing a series of semistructured open-ended interview questions helped eliminate biases in this research study. Throughout the interviews, I did ask follow-up questions based on a participant's response. To ensure confirmability, I maintained objectivity even when asking follow-up questions. Another technique used to maintain confirmability was to allow the participants to respond without interjecting with my thoughts and opinions.

Results

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies from the perception of law enforcement officials and child welfare workers. To achieve this objective, I conducted semistructured interviews with 10 participants that included five police officers and five child welfare workers. During the interviews, I asked 16 open-ended questions (see Appendix B) that allowed the participants to openly and freely discuss their perception about the influences of cultural norms on the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Besides the interviews, archival data was also collected to answer the research questions. Archival data was collected from the databases of four organizations. In all, five archival data documents were useful in exploring CSA prevention. Using Microsoft Excel to perform the data analysis, four themes and 13 subthemes emerged from the interview data (see Table 3). The archival data produced eight themes and nine subthemes (see Table 4).

This section presents the findings for the research questions based on the themes and subthemes that emerged through the data analysis of participant interview transcripts and archival records. The information in Table 3 and Table 4 shows the themes and subthemes that emerged to answer the three research questions which included a central research question and two subquestions.

CRQ: What are the perspectives of law enforcement and child welfare workers about the influences of cultural norms in enforcing child sexual abuse prevention policies in Jamaica?

SQ1: From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

SQ2: How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

Interviews

Theme 1 was neglectful and permissive parenting, which was a common answer among all participants. The subthemes for Theme 1 were lack of education, irresponsible parenting, and words of affirmation. Theme 2, inadequate governmental resources included the subthemes of ineffective laws and policies, broken criminal justice system, unification for change and support for professionals, and more resources needed. Theme 3 was emotional and psychological related trauma along with socioeconomics. The subthemes that emerged were silence and nondisclosure, family obligation, psychological

effects, victim blaming, and financial benefits. Theme 4, no community involvement, or support had the subtheme of perception and mentality.

Subquestion 1: From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

For the first subquestion one theme and four subthemes emerged from the interview data.

Theme 2: Inadequate governmental resources. All 10 participants identified that Jamaica has multiple child protection agencies with prevention policies to protect children from all forms of abuse. Seven of the 10 participants identified either Jamaica's CPFSA, CISOCA or VSU, three of Jamaica's primary child protection agencies. Despite knowing about Jamaica's child protection agencies and prevention policies, most of the participants expressed concerns with the lack of governmental resources and inadequate policies for CSA victims. Five of the 10 participants mentioned the ineffectiveness of Jamaica's criminal justice system in processing CSA cases.

Four subthemes emerged relating to Theme 2.

Ineffective laws and policies. Sue, a child welfare worker, expressed "The laws and policies that's against sexual abuse against children it's not so rigid." Sue also replied that over time the policies already in the system are not recognized. Her sentiments about the laws and policies were shared by participants, both in child welfare and law enforcement. Samuel proclaimed, "Preventative measures or the laws or the policies are not so strong enough to curtail the activities." These laws and policies are not strong

because provisions are not in place to protect CSA victims. Samuel supported this assertion by responding “A person should be afforded the greatest confidentiality, privacy, and security. However, sometimes that is not possible, or it is not so effective.” Sasha who is a police officer for CISOCA said, “People making the laws need to go back to the drawing board.” Her response emphasized the current policies are failing to meet its objective.

Broken criminal justice system. Although several participants’ responses highlighted inadequacies with governmental resource ineffectiveness with the criminal justice system and court process were recurring codes. Samuel responded that “Sometimes the court process is slow.” He also explained that “Sometimes the accused are very difficult to find, and it takes a while to really get the cases under control sometimes.” Sasha and Steven who are both police officers described “The court process is drawn out.” Sheldon pointed out, “Cases go for three, four, five years they are dealing with that whole trauma, and they just want to put it behind them.” There are some instances where the court process is swift, but still ineffective. Although some perpetrators are tried through the courts, Sue responded “Sometimes the perpetrator gets to go to court and in no time, you see them on the road they don’t get the full punishment and sometimes they get away with a lot.” For victims and their families, the broken criminal justice system has direct and indirect consequences. Sheldon said, “The justice system, some of them lose hope in the justice system.” Sheldon and Stacey both felt that the justice system was problematic, failing to support CSA victims. Sheldon said, “The whole justice system is a problem, but I still send the report and let the justice system tell

them.” Stacey who has written several reports and point papers on Jamaica’s CSA epidemic stated, “Report goes nowhere, and nothing happens.” Lastly, Sheldon shared his opinion on victims’ thoughts about the criminal justice system, in which he said, “They feel that the justice system fails them.”

Unification for change and support for professionals. Prevention requires collaboration from policymakers and citizens alike. For change to occur, CSA should be taken as a serious epidemic. Stacey expressed that in Jamaica, “discussions are not something that happens in the public and CSA is not raised as a public concern.” One of the most significant cultural challenges in the implementation of CSA prevention policies is societal understanding. Stephanie asserted that “Getting society to understand that this is a serious situation that needs to be addressed” is important for the implementation of CSA prevention policies. However, as Stacey pointed out, “there is no national unification to solve the problem” and “the reticence to deal with it is not there.”

Unification for change coupled with the lack of support for professionals makes implementation of CSA prevention policies difficult. CSA prevention is already difficult to accomplish in Jamaica. Stephanie in her response explained, “in terms of prevention, it’s a very, very difficult.” Sharon, a senior law enforcement official, described prevention as difficult. She expressed in detail that “Prevention is difficult to do from outside the home and school.” For child welfare workers and law enforcement officials, prevention is more difficult without support. Stacey who worked in child welfare for more than four decades, passionately expressed that the “Child Development Agency has on blinders, they may address it when it happens, but not going to do anything in terms of

education and prevention.” She also mentioned that “Advocates are seen as the enemy.” Sue’s response supported Stacey’s assertion as she claimed that “a lot of times child welfare workers voices are not heard.”

More resources needed. Some participants felt that the lack of resources limited their capability to enforce CSA prevention policies. Sharon explained that although Jamaica is doing its best, more agencies are needed to deal with the problem. In a follow-up question, Samuel was asked about the challenges and limitations with the court process following an investigation that determined the occurrence of CSA. Besides identifying the slow court process, Samuel also responded “Sometimes they are not enough resources.” Unavailable resources make it difficult for child welfare workers and law enforcement officials to implement preventative strategies that support the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Samuel further conveyed that because of the lack of resources, sometimes the accused are difficult to find. Shawn’s response was an example of the impact of lacking resources. Shawn answered,

Something as simple as access to the police, the police station is far. You need to have a bus fare and you are surprised to know that something as basic as going to the station to make a report that can be an obstacle because you have to physically go to the police.

Subquestion 2: How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

The following themes emerged from the data in response to the second subquestion.

Theme 1: Neglectful and permissive parenting. All 10 participants in their responses indicated that parents were responsible in some manner for contributing to CSA and influencing CSA prevention policies. The participants responses were direct and honest based on their experience in law enforcement and child welfare. Three subthemes relating to Theme 1 emerged from the participant's responses.

Lack of education. The implementation and enforcement of CSA prevention policies require a certain level of understanding across the different levels of prevention. Although the child welfare workers and law enforcement officials interviewed understood CSA and the need for prevention, the level of knowledge is lacking among some parents. Sue in her response indicated that "Youngsters don't even know that it is an abuse, sexual abuse. The truth about it, they don't know." She further explained that "They may even have parents who don't even know and don't understand the impact this can have on the child." Stephanie mentioned in her response, we must get the community, groups, and parents to recognize the problem exists despite not being at their door. Stephanie also said, "The problem exists, and it is our responsibility to get parents to understand exactly what it is that is expected of them as a parent." Ignorance is another factor as it relates to education. Stacey proclaimed that people's ignorance towards CSA is a very terrible thing. Shawn described, one of the biggest challenges for child welfare workers is the ignorance of the parents. Shawn also replied, "I've come across quite a few mothers who were abused as children and their attitude is like. I survived, it didn't

kill me, so it won't kill you, no big deal." Steven responded, "Every young woman has a man, and their mother doesn't care, so what am I to do." Sasha in her response described the lack of communication between a parent and child. She stated, "parents don't talk to their children about this stuff." Interestingly, Sheldon who is a coworker of Sasha identified that "Some mothers are not willing to communicate with their daughters and will curse them." Sheldon added that the lack of communication between the parent and child result in the child seeking advice elsewhere making them vulnerable to sexual abuse.

Irresponsible parenting. Sharon, who is a high-ranking law enforcement official expressed, "Well, my view is that parents are to be more attentive to their children, listening to their cry and supervise them more." Stephanie said,

I think I heard recently that there is an increase in CSA in Jamaica because (um) you have those perpetrators who are taking advantage of the child who is supposed to be at home right under home quarantine if you might call it that. And you would have those perpetrators who are taking advantage of the situation so they would prey on these young women because probably an adult is not around.

Samuel responded: "Children find themselves being exposed to these dangers and sometimes based on poor parenting." When asked, "What do you think is some of the most significant challenge as a social worker when trying to implement CSA prevention policies", Shawn responded "A child see their parents in sexual acts all that sort of thing, so it easily spilled over onto them. That is the biggest problem. Shawn provided an

example of irresponsible parenting from his experience in child welfare. Shawn answered,

It was discovered a 12-year-old was sleeping, quarantining with a man and it was my job to investigate, and I investigated and found out that it was true. And when we called in the mother, the mother's attitude was basically, Mrs. James, do you have your husband? Mrs. Stevens, do you have your husband? Mrs. Simon, do you have a man? So, what's wrong if Shelly got her man? That was the attitude of the mother, child under 12.

Samuel and Sheldon both responded that poor parenting, lack of supervision, and lack of proper parenting contributes to the increasing reports of CSA committed against female adolescents. Sharon explained that "Parents need to be more attentive." Stephanie's response supported Sharon's claim by stating that "perpetrators prey on children because parents and adults are not around."

Words of affirmation. Words of affirmation are crucial for female adolescents. Sharon, a police officer, and Sue, a child welfare worker, both agreed that lack of love, affection, and support from parents makes female adolescents vulnerable to sexual abuse. Sue explained in more detail that

Mommy and daddy don't even say to the child, you know I love you and support you. So, they go in search of that and when they go out in search of that, they are preyed upon by men and women in society.

Steven added that "There are not a lot of good mothers and in some cases, they were once victims, so these mothers are unable to forge an emotional bond with their child."

Sheldon also expressed in his response that “There were not a lot of good mothers.” Another interesting aspect uncovered through participants responses was the influence that a patriarchal belief system has on CSA and related prevention policies. One participant Shawn expressed that parents value their male child more than female with females seen as disposable and less valuable than males. Sheldon said most families he has investigated are single parent homes. He explained that either mother or father is absent and some cases both parents have abandoned the child and the child now lives with their grandparents.

Theme 3: Emotional and physical related trauma/ socioeconomics. The combination of emotional and physical related trauma addressed the second subquestion. All 10 participants identified emotional, physical, and socioeconomic factors as significant contributors of CSA, making prevention difficult. Five subthemes relating to Theme 3 emerged from the participant’s responses.

Silence and nondisclosure. Silence and nondisclosure contribute to the increasing reports of CSA. Jamaica’s CSA problem has been exacerbated by the lack of reporting. Samantha explained that in Jamaica, there is a “hush hush culture.” Many of the participants expressed that the culture of silence and nondisclosure are a result of several factors. Some victims want to maintain their family unit, and for this reason will not report the sexual abuse. Stacey proclaimed that these young women do not want to be responsible for tearing the family apart. In cases where the perpetrator is a relative, silence and disclosure is about saving face. Samantha and Sheldon both expressed that the victims will not report the sexual abuse to save the family from embarrassment.

Sheldon provided an example of an elaborate scheme perpetrated to save the family from embarrassment. In his response, Sheldon talked about a woman who kept calling the police on her neighbor with nefarious claims. After the police failed to make an arrest it was determined that the woman and man were relatives, and she had a vendetta against him for allegedly touching her young daughter. Sheldon's experience is common in Jamaica. Sue described that when the perpetrator is a relative "a coverup is done with the child forced to change their story." Steven explained that some perpetrators admit to the sexual abuse and agree to not commit the abuse again engender silence and lack of disclosure. Another reason identified by Sheldon, Stephanie, Shawn, and Steven is the status of the perpetrator. Shawn discussed, "most sexual abuse is not done on a level playing field, it's somebody using power, position, standing in the community, economic, and education."

Family obligation. Some participants expressed that CSA victims have a level of obligation to their family. Steven explained that most victims believe they are helping the family because their mothers are taking the money given to them by older men. These victims not only have to deal with the effects of being a sexual abuse survivor, but they bear the responsibility of protecting the perpetrator. Sue and Steven both explained that victims do not want to see their loved ones go to prison. Samantha expressed, that "if you are abused by a family member you should not say because you should protect the family." She also claimed that you do not want to be the whistleblower in the family. Saving the family from embarrassment was another common response from participants relating to family obligation. Samantha, Sheldon, and Steven all expressed that many

victims have a sense of obligation to their families, and thus, do not want to embarrass their families.

Psychological effects. Concerning psychological effects, nine of the 10 participants mentioned psychological related factors that influence CSA prevention policies enforcement. Some of the psychological effects talked about included “embarrassment, shame, fear, self-worth, no confidence, don’t want to be labeled or looked down on, stigmatized, and ridiculed.” Corroborating the responses from the nine participants was Samantha’s account about a case she worked as a child welfare worker. In her narrative description, Samantha remarked that sometimes following the abuse these females must work extra hard and double up their efforts to be accepted. In an example, she described

A child who was sexually abused by her grandmother’s spouse. When it was brought to my attention, I reported it and the police arrested the person. For years, the grandmother treated the child’s mother and the child as cast out, cast away. The child was not accepted until she passed her entrance exam for high school. That was when her grandmother took her back in her arms.

Stephanie in her response stated, “You will find that many victims are seen as good for nothing and become a cast out by society and in the community.” Sharon expressed concerns about the lack of love and affection that increased female adolescents’ risk of becoming a victim or revictimization. Victim blaming was another subtheme identified, which has severe psychological effects. Steven explained that “Saying it is the girls fault

and not helping them, makes them go mad and man will take advantage of them when they see no one will help the girl.”

Victim blaming. All participants for this study understood the definition of CSA. Based on their responses to the interview questions there is a sense of blame that the community and child’s family members placed on the child for the sexual abuse. Sharon expressed that female adolescents are vulnerable to sexual abuse because of the want and need. She elaborated, stating that these females are “not satisfied with what they have, and someone can offer them something and then they are tricked and abused.” Samuel responded differently, but the blamed remained with the young woman and not the perpetrator. Samuel offered multiple reasons that included “needs, wants, greed, their mannerism, dress code, and immediate background.” In response to a follow-up question, Samuel referred to mannerism as the “Way they act in the streets, the words they use, the way they portray themselves in their dress code, and other physical attributes that included wearing very short clothes and drawing man attention and dressing half-naked.” Stephanie answered that some people blame the child for the sexual abuse because of their inviting lifestyle, saying they were begging for sexual pleasure. Some victims are blamed for their physical development and maturity. Stephanie provided an example. She stated that “there was a 13-year-old victim, and some people questioned her rape allegations because she looked mature” and “society treated her differently with some people saying this was a mature 13-year-old who begged for what happened.” Samantha explained that, “In some quarters it is usually seen as the female’s fault. You are the one who forced yourself on him. You are the one who caused him to do it.” She expounded

her response to include that as a Child Welfare Worker one of the first things is to help the victim understand that they had nothing to do with it, it is not their fault and the perpetrator was wrong to invade their privacy.

Financial benefits. Shawn said, “The socioeconomic thing has an impact on all of that because for a lack of better words a lot of mothers will trade their child for whatever benefits, whatever sacred benefits or what they desire.” Other participants had similar responses. In response to what cultural norms influence the implementation of CSA prevention policies, Samuel responded, “Parents and guardians are ready to accept things and money, so that puts children at danger.” Samuel also stated, “Sometimes parents and guardians expose children in order to get aid as in help or benefits and because of that, it’s difficult sometimes to correct these situations.” Samuel further expressed CSA continues because money and other benefits are significant, a similar response shared by Steven during his interview. Samantha said that protection of the breadwinner influences CSA and related prevention policies. She said, for some families the abuse should not get out if the perpetrator is someone who “keeps a roof over our heads.”

Sheldon responded that these girls have a lack of opportunity. He also proclaimed that some parents are poor and cannot afford certain things, and someone older will provide these things and lead the child astray. In these instances, Sheldon answered, “The parents are not going to consider why and where the child is getting these things.” Sue’s response was like Sheldon. Sue shared, “Some of our children are vulnerable to sexual abuse, because mommy and daddy cannot afford it.” She also expressed, if a survey were

to be completed in Jamaica you would realize it is the poorest people that fall victim to child abuse. Sasha claimed that majority of the sexual abuse cases occur because the mother needs cash and will allow their child to be with older men to receive the cash. Stacey said, children are rewarded with money hindering CSA prevention policies. Sharon expressed that greed and money increase female adolescents' risk of being sexually abused. Sheldon shared that "Girls want a lavish lifestyle or "top girl" status and an older man with money can provide both." He expressed, that "If a child grows up thinking that a man is the breadwinner and supposed to work then a child will look to a man who is working and have nice things."

Theme 4: No community involvement or support. The participants' answers to the interview questions suggested that the community has a significant influence on the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Both child welfare workers and law enforcement officials perceived the community's mentality towards CSA, victims, and prevention to be lacking. One subtheme emerged from the participant's responses.

Perception and mentality. Jamaica's "informer fi dead" mentality was a recurring code that was mentioned by five participants. Samuel described informer fi dead as

Persons who give information to police or any other agencies people try to hurt them or to kill them because they don't want to be exposed and they don't want to go to jail or go to prison in any way come under any consequences, so because of that young people are afraid to speak up because they know the risk of them and their families in danger.

Samantha in her answers mentioned “informer fi dead” more than five times. In implementation of CSA prevention policies, Samantha described the “informer fi dead” belief as a cultural challenge in some communities. She went on to explain, “informer fi dead in some quarters, the person who speak out should not live, should not be allowed to continue living because the family has been embarrassed.” Sheldon explained “we hardly have witnesses coming forward to give evidence against perpetrators and all because of the informer fi dead culture.” Shawn discussed Jamaica’s informer fi dead culture, but explained “It’s who you inform against and who you inform to” that makes prevention difficult. Samuel also stated, “A person’s immediate community and just the way they think it affects measures that can be used to help the children.” As stated by Samantha, “The community will know that it is wrong, but they don’t want anybody to talk and don’t want anybody to see. It’s taboo.” Stacey responded with a similar answer, “We don’t talk about it, we just don’t talk about it here.” She also expressed that some in the community will say the perpetrator is “bent that way”, which is Jamaican slang for the way someone is. Sharon in her answer, explained “that not everyone will gladly believe some will have doubts or disbeliefs.” Turning a blind eye is a common response from the community. Sheldon replied, “The cultural norm for down here is you see no evil, hear no evil until it’s at your doorstep.” He added, “Somebody in the community may see someone bringing in a young woman and they won’t report it. The cultural norm for them is to mind their own business and not get involved.” In a series of answers, Sasha replied “It no longer takes a village”, “People don’t want to deal with other people pickney (children)”, and “Everybody say it’s not my child, so I don’t care.”

Archival Records

The archival data gathered from the databases of NGOs and nonprofit organizations did not influence the emerging themes from the interviews. However, it was used to support findings from the interviews. The archival data produced eight themes and nine subthemes. Theme 1 was understanding CSA and related prevention, with a subtheme of critical gaps in prevention. Theme 2 was socioecological factors of prevention. The subtheme was influences of the three levels of prevention. Theme 3 was prevalence of CSA. The subtheme produced was national crisis. Theme 4 was professionals' perception of Jamaica's CSA epidemic. The subthemes that emerged were cultural attitude towards sexual abuse and low-income households. Theme 5 was systemic issues influencing CSA. The subtheme was problems with Jamaica's criminal justice system. Theme 6 was the three levels of prevention – primary, secondary, and tertiary, with CSA prevention strategies emerging as the subtheme. Theme 7 was cultural norms influencing nondisclosure and underreporting. The subtheme that emerged was reasons for not reporting. Theme 8 was prevention and risk reduction at different levels of prevention. The emerging subtheme was prevention strategies across three levels of prevention.

Subquestion 1: From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

For the first subquestion five themes and five subthemes emerged from the archival data.

Theme 1: Understanding CSA and related prevention. In this archival record, the CDC focused on addressing and understanding CSA. In its description, the CDC described CSA as a “preventable adverse childhood experience and public health problem.” A significant epidemic primarily affecting female adolescents, the archival data highlighted critical gaps in CSA prevention, which emerged as the subtheme.

Critical gaps in prevention. The data revealed that CSA resources predominantly focus on treatment for victims and criminal justice-oriented approaches for perpetrators. Although these approaches are significant for reducing the occurrence of CSA, there is minimal investment for primary prevention efforts. Another critical gap identified in the data, is the lack of effective evidence-based strategies to proactively protect adolescents’ girls from CSA. Besides developing more evidence-based strategies, existing evidence-based prevention policies need to be strengthened to increase understanding of CSA risk and protective factors. Development of evidence-based prevention policies require increased dissemination and implementation for these policies to effectively reduce CSA before it occurs. Additionally, improved surveillance and data collection systems are needed for monitoring and understanding the severity of CSA for victims, their families, and communities.

Theme 3: Prevalence of CSA. The third theme, prevalence of CSA, referred to the widespread and global nature of CSA. From the reviewed literature it was determined that CSA affects millions of young women around the world. CSA for the Jamaica government has become a national crisis, which is the subtheme that emerged for Theme 3.

National Crisis. In the data, CSA was found to be a prevalent problem for which the Jamaican government described as a national crisis. From the data it was gathered that in a seven-year span, nearly 17,000 incidents of CSA were recorded by the OCR, now known as the CPFSA. Report also revealed that 40% of Jamaicans' first sexual experience was unwanted and occurred before the age of 16, the legal age of consent. However, the report indicated that available data is not accurate due to most CSA incidents going unreported. The lack of reporting makes it difficult for Jamaican government officials to understand the magnitude of the problem but do recognize the seriousness of CSA across the island. Officials from the CDA revealed that CSA is not only a national crisis but is becoming an urgent crisis because there is an increase in younger children being victimized. Additionally, 90% of CSA occurs at the hands of perpetrators who are relatives or acquaintances of the victims.

Theme 5: Systemic issues influencing CSA. The data indicated that systemic issues within Jamaica's criminal justice system. Because of issues within the criminal justice system, professionals are finding it difficult to effectively reduce the sexual abuse perpetrated against children. Although laws, institutions, and policies are established to prevent CSA, one subtheme emerged describing the issues with these systems. The emerging theme was problems with Jamaica's criminal justice system.

Problems with Jamaica's criminal justice system. Laws, institutions, and policies were designed to combat CSA, but problems exist due to poor enforcement. Although CSA can occur in any area, it has been proven that low-income communities have a higher rate of sexual abuse against children. Despite high rates of CSA in low-

income areas, most of the government resources concentrated on crimes in major cities. In communities with little to no government resources for prevention, CSA is widespread, unreported, and not on the government radar. Based on the report, CSA victims do not receive the justice they deserve because there are substantial obstacles on the road to justice. First, the criminal justice system process is long and difficult for the victims. Second, Jamaica's laws do not allow videotaped statements or communication through a video-link system requiring child victims to face their abuser in court. These requirements contribute to the unwillingness of victims and their families to report the court and seek prosecution. Lastly, child welfare professionals explained that of the cases that are prosecuted, jurors acquit the perpetrator because there is a belief that the child invited the sexual abuse.

Theme 6: Three levels of prevention – primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. Prevention policies across the three levels of prevention remains critical for ending violence to include sexual abuse. Exploring Jamaica's CSA crisis and related prevention policies require law enforcement officials and child welfare workers consider prevention at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of prevention. From the data, professionals charged with combatting the sexual abuse of children in Jamaica identified several potential prevention solutions. The subtheme that emerged from the data for Theme 6 was CSA prevention strategies.

CSA prevention strategies. The government officials, law enforcement, and child welfare advocates who contributed to the COHA report described several potential solutions for combatting Jamaica's CSA crisis. One child welfare advocate explained that

to effectively fight CSA requires a consistent and multifaceted approach spearheaded by the Jamaican government. The officials within the report described several primary prevention strategies if effectively implemented could prevent CSA before it occurs. Some of these prevention strategies include making society aware about the existence and severity of CSA in Jamaica. It is also important for child welfare advocates and the Jamaican government to let everyone know that CSA is wrong, denouncing cultural norms. Secondary prevention strategies should focus on activities targeting female adolescents from vulnerable populations such as low-income and single-parent households.

One secondary prevention strategy identified by professionals is development and implementation of training programs. Community-based prevention strategies are essential for secondary prevention to be effective. Strong efforts should be made to form prevention coalitions designed to deal with short-term consequences of CSA and reducing the incidence of sexual abuse revictimization for female adolescents. Therefore, secondary prevention efforts should focus on partnerships between the Jamaican government, community-based advocacy groups, survivor groups, and other advocacy groups.

Tertiary prevention strategies address the long-term effects of CSA, minimize its impact, and prevent revictimization. Several tertiary prevention strategies were identified to prevent the sexual abuse of Jamaican children. The data suggested a nationwide school-based prevention curriculum focused on educating and children about sexual abuse. For children, it was suggested that the nationwide program be designed to increase

awareness by teaching about healthy relationships, recognizing sexual abuse, strategies for escaping abusive situations, and the importance of disclosing sexual abuse to trusted adults. Potential prevention strategies for educators included training programs to help them understand the nature of CSA, recognize the signs and symptoms of CSA, and what to do if abuse is reported to them or suspected. However, it was noted that for prevention to be effective across different levels substantial overhaul of Jamaica's child protection agencies was necessary. The inadequacies of existing agencies demonstrated the need for merging these agencies or creating a single coordinative authority capable of managing reported or suspected cases of sexual abuse against children.

Theme 8: Prevention and risk reduction at different levels of prevention. To implement effective prevention policies, require an exploration of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. The data identified the magnitude of the CSA epidemic in Jamaica and discussed strategies for preventing violence against children. Upon review and analysis of the data, one subtheme emerged.

Prevention strategies across three levels of prevention. Effective prevention requires efforts across the three levels of prevention. From the data there were several strategies that together provide a framework to end violence against children in Jamaica. Together these strategies provide the governance and monitoring the Jamaican government need to end violence perpetrated against children such as sexual abuse. It was determined from the data that cultural norms can foster a climate in which violence is normalized. Hence, prevention strategies at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of prevention should aim to discourage negative cultural norms while strengthening

cultural norms that support nonviolence towards female adolescents. It is especially important to dispel cultural norms that suggest CSA is normal and justifiable. Prevention strategies that discourage violence against children require dispelling deeply ingrained cultural norms through community-based and bystander intervention programs.

Effectual implementation and enforcement of laws prevents the sexual abuse of female adolescents. Based on the data, laws prohibiting CSA signal to the community and society that these incidents are not acceptable, and punishable under the law. In Jamaica, proper enforcement of the Child Care and Protection Act and the Sexual Offences Act reduce the risk factors of CSA. Investment in parent and caregiver support help reduce the risk of CSA for Jamaican female adolescents. Archival data revealed that parent support programs reduce the risk of CSA by encouraging parents to adopt positive parenting practices that promote the well-being of young Jamaican girls. For instance, the data revealed that positive parenting practices engender effective parent-child communication and relationships. Secondary and tertiary prevention strategies included response and support services. Both prevention strategies improve access to services including emergency medical care, counseling, and protection immediately after the sexual abuse had occurred and to deal with the lasting effects. Education and life skills for children is a primary prevention strategy identified to help reduce the risk of a child becoming a victim of sexual abuse. These programs improve a young woman's knowledge about sexual abuse and how to protect themselves from being victimized. Increased awareness have been found to reduce the perpetuation of sexual abuse

against children. Despite all the primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention strategies provided, support from the Jamaican government is necessary to reduce the CSA crisis.

Subquestion 2: How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

To answer subquestion 2, three themes and four subthemes emerged from the archival data.

Theme 2: Socioecological factors of prevention. To better understand violence and effective prevention approaches, it is important to explore the complexities of a persons' socioecological. The CDC's SEM considers the complex interaction between individual, relationship, community, and societal factors. Understanding what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica require researchers to consider socioecological issues. The subtheme that emerged for Theme 2 was influences of the three levels of prevention.

Influences of the three levels of prevention. The data determined that CSA prevention requires addressing risk and protective factors at the individual, relational, community, and societal levels. Exploring CSA prevention across the four levels of the SEM is due to CSA being rooted in unhealthy relationships and environment. Because CSA remains a global epidemic, the Jamaican governments and advocacy groups can use the SEM to develop effective prevention strategies. The data suggested that effective prevention strategies that focus on modifying policies, practices, and societal norms create safe, stable, and nurturing relationships and environment. CSA prevention across

the four levels of the SEM included prevention strategies that strengthen economic support to families, change social norms to support parents and positive parenting, early education, enhance parenting skills, and intervention to reduce and prevent future risk. Effective implementation of these prevention strategies eliminates or reduce risk factors which makes Jamaican female adolescents susceptible to sexual abuse.

Theme 4: Professionals' perception of Jamaica's CSA epidemic. Theme 4 focused on the perceptions of professionals responsible for combatting Jamaica's CSA problem. The COHA report included statistical data and statements from the country's child protection agencies and government officials. Activists, analysts, and professionals from Jamaica's child protection agencies provided several explanations as to the cause of Jamaica's growing CSA problem. The data described the leading causes of CSA in Jamaica for which two subthemes emerged. The subthemes included cultural attitude towards sexual abuse and low-income households.

Cultural attitude towards sexual abuse. Jamaica has a culture of silence and nondisclosure about sexual abuse against children. These professionals determined that Jamaica's CSA crisis is due to the unwillingness of victims to report the sexual abuse. The unwillingness of these victims to disclose the sexual abuse is exacerbated by fears of shame and Jamaica's antiinformant culture. Being labeled an informer discourages victims and witnesses from cooperating with law enforcement out of fear of reprisal. Because of the community's attitude towards sexual abuse some victims remain silent because they are afraid no one would believe their allegation of abuse. There are cultural norms surrounding "virgin cleansing" that suggest an adult male engaging in sexual

relations with a virgin cures STDs. Jamaica's virgin cleansing culture results in young women being targeted by adults. Patriarchal beliefs increase the risks of female adolescents being the victims of CSA in Jamaica. The data revealed that in some Jamaican households, male breadwinners believe they are entitled to sexual relations with all females in the house. Officials from the CISOCA and Hear the Children Cry explained that some Jamaican women do not consider CSA to be wrong, and therefore raise no objections to incidents of sexual abuse against female adolescents. The widely held perception that CSA is not wrong causes some witnesses and victims to remain silent. In cases where the alleged perpetrator is a relative or friend the abuse goes unreported by an adult or the victim because they do not want to see the perpetrator in prison. The data also revealed that some victims remain silent due to feelings of shame, lack of support, and uncertainty that no one would believe their allegation of sexual abuse. Some mothers who are believed to be survivors of CSA tend to turn a blind eye to their daughter's abuse perpetuating a vicious cycle.

Low-income households. Poverty and economic dependence are major issues in Jamaica that contribute to Jamaica's CSA crisis. The data showed that an estimated 20% of Jamaicans are living in poverty, a socioeconomic issue that influenced the sexual abuse of young women. The data revealed that some parents force their children to perform acts of prostitution to support the family financially. In other cases where CSA is evident in the household, some mothers do not report or stop the abuse because they do not want to lose the male breadwinner's financial support. For reported cases of CSA, some mothers go out their way to keep the perpetrator out of prison. Some mothers

threaten the child or demand they lie to law enforcement officials investigating or prosecuting the case. Jamaica has a culture where men tend to be the breadwinner. In relationships, Jamaican men often financially support their girlfriends; therefore, there are financial benefits of pursuing a relationship with younger girls. Older men who pursue these relationships believe that younger girls can be satisfied with less money than a woman in their age group.

Theme 7: Cultural norms influencing nondisclosure and underreporting. The statistical data from the RAINN sought to provide insight about criminal justice system as it relates to the sexual abuse of children. Reported in the data was statistical information about nondisclosure and the reporting of sexual abuse cases. For a better exploration of the impact of cultural norms on CSA prevention, reasons for not reporting emerged as a subtheme.

Reasons for not reporting. An analysis of the data uncovered that for every 1000 cases of sexual abuse reported to law enforcement, an estimated 995 perpetrators walk free. Because of the high percentage of perpetrators who escape prosecution, victims are unwilling to disclose the sexual abuse. The data also showed that perpetrators of sexual abuse are less likely to receive prison time compared to other criminals. Besides the perpetrator walking free, the statistical data showed four other significant reasons why victims do not disclose the sexual abuse. First, a reported 20% do not disclose the sexual abuse because of fear. Many victims fear retaliation from the perpetrator and in some cases retaliation from their parents. Second, 13% of victims do not report the sexual abuse because of their perception of law enforcement. These victims believe that the

police would do nothing to stop the sexual abuse. Third, 13% of victims believe incidents of sexual abuse is a personal and family matter. Lastly, about seven percent of victims chose not to report or disclose the sexual abuse to protect the perpetrator.

Summary

For this research study, I used the central research question to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies targeting female adolescents from the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers. The research questions helped in designing the semistructured interview guide for the interviews and also guided the examination of the archival records. A diverse group of 10 highly qualified men and women with law enforcement and child welfare experience were interviewed for this research study. The archival data derived from the databases of four NGOs and nonprofit organizations. Findings of this study led to the development of 12 themes and 22 subthemes presented in this chapter. Of the themes, four derived from interviews and eight emerged from the archival data. Evidence in this chapter showed that cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary CSA prevention policies.

This chapter also presented setting, participant demographic, data collection, and data analysis methodology explained in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 also included evidence of trustworthiness that demonstrated the credibility of the findings by ensuring the data analysis was conducted thoroughly. Chapter 5 includes an interpretation of the findings, recommendations for future researchers, and policymakers.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This qualitative study explored whether cultural norms influenced the enforcement of prevention policies that target female adolescents. A qualitative case study was the most appropriate method to capture the essence of the participants' responses. Using the purposeful sampling approach, I conducted 10 semistructured interviews of child welfare workers and law enforcement officials. These participants worked for the JCF, CISOCA, CPFSA, and a nonprofit child residential facility. All participants were asked 16 open-ended questions to answer a central research question and two subquestions. I questioned the participants about their perspective on cultural norms influencing CSA prevention policies. In addition to the interviews, I examined five archival records derived from the databases of four organizations: the CDC, COHA, RAINN, and the WHO. The archival data gathered from these sources provided contextual details that were used to corroborate the interviews. Together, the interviews and archival data were useful for answering the research questions. Both data collection methods produced insight about the cultural norms that influence CSA prevention policies. The theoretical framework of this research was the CDC SEM, which uses a four-level approach to understand the range of factors that put people at risk for abuse and protect them from abuse before it occurs.

The central research question was the following:

What are the perspectives of law enforcement and child welfare workers about the influences of cultural norms in enforcing child sexual abuse prevention policies in Jamaica?

The following subquestions were also explored:

SQ1: From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

SQ2: How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?

In response to SQ1, many of the interview participants expressed frustrations with the inadequate governmental resources. These participants reported that ineffective laws and policies, broken criminal justice system, unification for change and support for professionals, and lack of resources influenced the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. The archival data revealed critical gaps in prevention that must be addressed to prevent the sexual abuse of children. These critical gaps contribute to the widespread nature of CSA, which became a national crisis for the Jamaican government.

In response to SQ2, the interview data revealed that parents contributed to the ongoing CSA problem in Jamaica. The participants answered that a lack of education and words of affirmation affected how parents responded to incidents of sexual abuse perpetrated against female adolescents in their household. It was discovered that cultural norms affected the enforcement of prevention policies designed to reduce the sexual abuse against children. The interviews showed that lack of community support and

involvement influenced CSA prevention policies, primarily because of people's attitude about CSA in Jamaica. For SQ2, archival data concentrated on socioecological factors of prevention, which included factors at the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels. The archival data further revealed the cultural norms toward sexual abuse.

Included in this chapter are the interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, implications for social change, and the conclusion. Also discussed is the theoretical framework used to frame the research study.

Interpretation of the Findings

In this section is a descriptive narrative of the cultural norms that law enforcement officials and child welfare workers have identified that influence enforcing primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. Guiding this research study was one central research question and two subquestions that addressed the issues of cultural norms. To answer these questions, I collected interview data from 10 participants and five archival records. Narratives from the interviews and review of the archival records contributed to the findings of this study. Through a thematic analysis, the data produced four themes from the interviews and eight themes from the archival records. The four themes that emerged from the interview data aligned with the reviewed literature. Each theme was prominent for exploring law enforcement officials and child welfare workers' perception about the cultural norms influencing CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. Emerging data confirmed and aligned with the peer-reviewed literature discussed in Chapter 2.

A review of the research findings from the interview and archival data corroborated the SEM, which was the theoretical framework presented in the literature

review section. A multilevel approach, the SEM considers individual, relationship, community, and societal factors that influence violence. The SEM provided a detailed explanation of the individual, relationship, community, and societal factors which are influenced by cultural norms, impacting the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. In addition, the SEM provided the foundation for analyzing the data, which served as the basis for interpreting the findings of this research study.

Findings Related to the Central Research Question

The purpose of the question “What are the perspectives of law enforcement and child welfare workers about the influences of cultural norms in enforcing child sexual abuse prevention policies in Jamaica?” was to ask the participants to what extent cultural norms have influenced their role in enforcing CSA prevention policies. The results that emerged suggested that multiple factors influenced the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. However, cultural norms within the home, the community, and society stood out as a root cause affecting the enforcement of prevention policies, consequently increasing Jamaica’s CSA crisis. The interview participants shared from their experience different cultural norms which influenced CSA prevention to include the shared beliefs and learned behaviors of the victim, families, and community members. Data from the archival data determined that cultural norms influenced primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention across the four levels of the socioecological framework. Gathered from the interview and archival, Jamaica antiinformant culture predominantly influences the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. All the participants reported cultural norms that influenced the enforcement of CSA prevention policies across all levels of prevention.

However, one participant was initially reluctant to recognize the influence that Jamaica's cultural norms has on CSA prevention policies. I observed that she was being politically correct, maybe because of her rank as senior officer of the JCF. Despite not perceiving cultural norms as having an influence of the enforcement of CSA prevention policies, this participant did provide similar responses as the other nine participants. The other nine participants perceived cultural norms as a significant challenge that influenced abilities to enforce CSA prevention policies within their respective agencies. According to the archival data from *Prevention Strategies*, changing norms are instrumental for creating safe and nurturing environment that supports parent-child relationship to prevent the sexual abuse of female adolescents. Nevertheless, findings from the interview and archival data identified cultural norms to be a major influencer of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies.

Findings for Subquestion 1

In response to SQ1 (From the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers, what preventative strategies can be implemented to support the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?), inadequate government resources emerged as a theme. All the participants expressed frustrations with the Jamaican government and available prevention resources. Most of the police officers interviewed work directly for CISOCA, the agency responsible for investigating allegations of sexual abuse against children. Each of these police officers discussed their frustration with the lack of resources for them to perform their duties effectively. Some child welfare participants answered that they are often seen as the enemy and many times their voices are not heard.

Based on the findings in *Perversion in Paradise*, there is a lack of available resources in rural areas; most governmental resources in Jamaica are available to people in major cities, and not in rural areas where CSA is widespread. The lack of resources affects effective prevention because law enforcement and child welfare workers cannot enforce CSA prevention policies at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. In the report *Preventing Child Sexual Abuse*, it was determined that CSA prevention requires consistent support from the government. Unavailable resources make it difficult for victims and their families to report the sexual abuse and access secondary and tertiary prevention services. These findings corroborated the examined literature which indicated that a lack of access to resources and support services foster violence. Based on the reviewed literature, secondary and tertiary prevention policies at the community and societal level require access to resources and support services.

One participant explained that the process taken when a sexual abuse allegation is made. She described a thorough and lengthy process but expressed that the report still goes nowhere. Two other participants discussed investigating accusations of CSA, but when the written report goes nowhere. Often this occurs because of ineffective laws and policies. Although Jamaica has legislation and policies in place, these are weak measures. Eventually, these policies are not recognized, making it challenging for these professionals to do their part in enforcing the policies. In the archival data, *Prevention Strategies*, the CDC (2020b) proclaimed that effective prevention strategies need to focus on ratifying policies, practices, and societal norms. The data from the report *Preventing Child Sexual Abuse* corroborated these participants' responses. Examination of this

archival record found critical gaps with existing policies, programs, and practices.

Specifically, the archival data explained that CSA require strengthen existing policies, programs, and practices to proactively protect children from sexual abuse.

The archival data from *Preventing Child Sexual Abuse* also indicated that an increase in dissemination and implementation of evidence-based preventative measures is necessary to prevent the sexual abuse of children. For members of CISOCA to investigate an allegation of CSA, the evidence must be available. This makes it difficult for child welfare workers and police officers to provide secondary and tertiary prevention services. Data in the report *Perversion in Paradise*, supported the interview participants' answers. From this archival record it was determined that CSA laws in Jamaica are poorly enforced causing significant challenges in the criminal justice system. Primary prevention requires professionals, especially child welfare workers to do something before the sexual abuse occurs. However, several participants shared that current laws and policies are failing, with one participant stating that policymakers need to go back to the drawing board. An example of such failure was documented in *Perversion in Paradise*. The data from this archival record showed that Jamaican laws do not allow victims, including children, to provide videotaped statements to the courts. Instead, victims are required to appear in court causing some to forego reporting the sexual abuse or pursuing prosecution.

The laws and policies are not only ineffective, but many interview participants described a broken criminal justice system. Jamaica's court process is slow, making it especially difficult for victims. One participant said that the slow court process makes it

difficult for victims to put the abuse behind them. He also conveyed that a child cannot deal with going to court multiple times because they relive the trauma. The description of Jamaica's criminal justice system by professionals in *Perversion in Paradise* aligned with data collected from the interview participants. Based on the archival data, the road to justice is long and difficult for children who were sexually abused. For those cases that are dealt with swiftly, the criminal justice system remains ineffective. Convicted perpetrators often receive the minimum sentence and return to their communities in no time. From the report *The Criminal Justice System: Statistics*, it was concluded that 995 of 1000 perpetrators walk free and are less likely to be sentenced to prison compared to other criminals. The *Perversion of Paradise* report asserted that of the prosecuted cases of CSA some jurors acquit the perpetrator because they believe the child invited the sexual abuse. Findings from the interviews and archival data that aligned with the reviewed literature indicated that CSA remains a problem due to the lack of repercussion for perpetrators. Ineffectiveness of the laws and policies coupled with the broken criminal justice system results in the victims and their families feeling hopeless. The reviewed literature suggested that child victims reported feeling powerless to disclose the sexual abuse because of the inaction of local officials (McHugh et al., 2015). Therefore, the findings from the interview and archival data reemphasized that laws and policies coupled with the criminal justice system influenced the enforcement of CSA prevention policies.

In Jamaica, there is no national unification for resolving the country's CSA problem through prevention. The interview participants revealed that the lack of

unification surrounding the issue of CSA makes it difficult for professionals to enforce prevention policies. One interview participant described being asked on multiple occasions to write position and point papers describing Jamaica's CSA epidemic. She expressed writing these papers for the different ministries of the Jamaican government, but the papers go nowhere. The Jamaican government avoids discussions about CSA. No one wants to talk about CSA, and it is not an issue of public concern. Based on the findings from the archival data in *Perversion in Paradise*, it was determined that one of the first steps in prevention is to inform and educate society about the existence of the problem. In addition, the findings suggested implementing a nationwide program to educate children and adults about what constitute healthy behavior, recognizing the signs of sexual abuse, importance of disclosing sexual abuse, and what to do if sexual abuse is suspected or reported. The results of the interview indicated that CSA might be addressed after it happens, but the government does nothing relating to education to prevent the occurrence of sexual abuse. People do not want to discuss CSA, which causes a lack of societal understanding surrounding the problem. The results of the archival data suggested that the Jamaican government pool resources with community-based advocacy and survivor groups to form prevention coalitions to address the root causes of sexual abuse against children.

Findings for Subquestion 2

In response to SQ2 (How does law enforcement and child welfare workers perceive the impact of cultural norms towards the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica?), the interview participants and archival data identified several

factors impacting the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. The interviews and archival data revealed cultural norms issues at the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels of the socioecological framework. All these cultural norms influence how primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies are implemented and enforced across the four levels of the SEM. Findings from the interviews revealed that a lack of education is cause for neglectful and permissive parenting. Many of the interview participants answered that parents do not understand effects of CSA and are not able to recognize the signs of sexual abuse. Results from the archival data in *Prevention Strategies* identified early education as a form of secondary prevention that can reduce the sexual abuse of children at the individual, relationship, community, and societal level. These findings supported the literature about CSA prevention not being fully understood. Studies in the literature suggested that a mother's sexual belief increased the likelihood of female adolescents being sexually abused (Hutchinson et al., 2012). Studies have found that, at the individual level of the socioecological framework, a lack of education is a personal characteristic that promotes violence (CDC, 2020c; Martinello, 2020). However, as some interview participants pointed out, these attitudes are a result of the differing definitions of CSA. Studies from the reviewed literature described CSA as difficult to categorize because of differences in definitions (Breckenridge & Salter, 2018; David et al., 2016; MacGinley et al., 2019; Samms & Cholewa, 2014). In fact, one of the interview questions asked participants to define CSA. Although participants' answers varied, there was a broad understanding of what constitutes CSA. After each participant provided their

answer, the definition of CSA as described in Jamaica's Sexual Offences Act was read to the participants.

In Jamaica, attitudes toward sexual abuse are deeply rooted in cultural norms. Based on participant's answers to the interview questions, it was ascertained that young women engaging in sexual relations with older men do not recognize or understand they are being abused. Sue explained these youngsters do not even know it is abuse, and that is the truth. Findings discovered from the report, *Perversion in Paradise*, revealed that some women do not believe the sexual abuse of children is wrong and raise no objection to incidents of sexual abuse. These findings supported the literature that found some people do not perceive an older person having sexual relations with a consenting child as sexual abuse (Pasura et al., 2012). In addition, the literature described an adult and child engaging in sexual relations as normal even among parents (McHugh et al., 2015).

The cultural attitudes of parents and community members have been discovered to be contributors that impact the enforcement of CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. Many of the interview participants blamed the increase in Jamaica's CSA crisis on irresponsible parenting. Poor parenting and lack of supervision was a recurring response by many of the interview participants. Examination of the report titled, *Perversion in Paradise*, explained that cultural attitudes sexual abuse exacerbates the sexual abuse perpetrated against children. The results divulged in this report uncovered that parents, relatives, and neighbors fail to report incidents of CSA for various reasons. However, financial benefit is the primary reason.

It was determined from the archival data that in most cases parents refuse to report the incident of CSA for financial reasons. Results from the archival data revealed that in some cases children are prostituted by their parents to financially support the family. The same source discovered that male breadwinners believe they have the right to demand sex from females in the household despite their age. Some mothers witnessing the sexual abuse remain complicit because they do not want to lose the financial support of the male breadwinner. Shawn said mothers trade their children for the benefits they desire. Samuel and Steven shared that parents expose their children to sexual abuse for financial support from the perpetrator. Interview participants, Sharon, Samuel, and Shawn blamed poor parenting for the increase in CSA and the ineffectiveness of prevention policies. Primarily because parents often force the child to conceal the abuse to protect the breadwinner. For financial reasons, the findings of the interviews and archival data determined that parents remain silent and unwilling to pursue prosecution against the perpetrator. All these findings from the interview and archival data supported the reviewed literature that parents are complicit in covering up sexual abuse and to not pursue criminal charges in exchange for financial payments (Masilo, 2018).

Words of affirmation from a parent or guardian put children at risk of being sexually abused. Sue said many children are receiving love and support from their parents, prompting them to seek it elsewhere. Because of the need for love and attention being sought outside the home, these young women become vulnerable to sexual abuse. The literature reviewed aligned with the findings. Evidence shows that children from single-parent families or families where both parents are absent are subjected to higher

rates of sexual abuse than traditional households (Jayapalan et al., 2018; Pérez-González et al., 2017). Jayapalan et al. (2018) said these children are 10 times more likely to be sexually abused. Sheldon and Steven both said there are not a lot of good mothers. Steven added some mothers cannot form an emotional connection with their child because of their history of sexual abuse. Findings in the archival data suggested that some mothers who were sexually abused as a child often turn a blind eye to their child's abuse. In some cases, the mother threatens the child with physical violence and demands the child lie to keep the perpetrator from going to prison. Research studies described the absence of a supportive family environment breeds toxicity within a household increasing the risk of sexual abuse (Collin-Vézina et al., 2013; Jayapalan et al., 2018; Murray et al., 2014).

Jamaica has a cultural norm that does not foster community involvement and support. From the interviews the lack of community involvement and support resonated with many participants. Based on the participant's answers, Jamaican communities significantly influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Five participants said Jamaica has an "informer fi dead" culture that hinders police investigations. In the archival data from the COHA, Jamaica's antiinformant culture is viewed by professionals as a significant cultural norm affecting the enforcement of CSA prevention policies (Lumsden, 2017). The results from this report found that Jamaica's antiinformant culture causes victims, their families, and witnesses to cower in silence. Because of the antiinformant culture cooperation with law enforcement is discouraged out of fear of reprisal. Some of the interview participants said people within the community believe that if a person provides information to the police, they should be hurt or killed.

Samantha describes Jamaica's informer fi dead culture as a significant challenge for professionals when enforcing CSA prevention policies. Because the Jamaican people adhere to a mantra of informer fi dead, a lot of people do not come forward. Sheldon explained that it is difficult to get witnesses and evidence. Based on the examined literature, people are hesitant to come forward out of fear of being called an informer (CPRI, 2018; Yuce et al., 2015).

Samantha explained, Jamaica has a hush-hush culture, which promotes silence and nondisclosure. Jamaica's hush-hush culture coupled with the antiinformant culture are identified as contributors for psychological trauma. Several participants explained that the culture of silence and disclosure is perpetuated because the child does not want to tear the family apart. The statistical report in *The Criminal Justice System: Statistic*, detailed that 13% of victims do not disclose the sexual abuse because it is a personal matter. The same statistical report found seven percent of victims do not disclose because they do not want the perpetrator to get in trouble. From the participant interviews and archival records, the data determined that there were instances in which a child is forced to recant their allegations of sexual abuse. Both Samantha and Sheldon disclosed that victims suffer in silence to shield the family from embarrassment. Elaborate coverup schemes are also carried out to protect the perpetrator when it is someone of stature, a relative, or breadwinner of the family. Smith et al. (2019) found that Jamaican parents discourage their child from disclosing sexual abuse when the perpetrator is a relative. With victims not coming forward and the lack of support from parents, it is difficult for child welfare workers and law enforcement officials to enforce CSA prevention policies.

Examination of the literature emphasized the psychological effects of being sexually victimized on female adolescents. Previous studies found that female adolescents suffer long-term psychological effects that cause problems well into adulthood (Bourne et al., 2015; Reid et al., 2014; Yuce et al., 2015). Nine of the 10 participants described victims feeling embarrassed, ashamed, ridiculed, fear, looked down upon, and stigmatized about the sexual abuse. From the reviewed literature, studies found that negative stigmatism about sexual abuse and nondisclosure result in children not receiving support services (Da Silva et al., 2018; Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2017; Morrison et al., 2018; Sanjeevi et al., 2018). Findings from the CPRI reported that stigmatism toward the sexual abuse of children reduce prevention efforts (CPRI, 2018). Other research studies explained that children worry about disclosing sexual abuse because of guilt, shame, physical abuse, and repeat victimization (Schönbucher et al., 2012; Yuce et al., 2015). Three additional studies determined that feelings of shame, embarrassment, guilt, and a sense of responsibility affect a child's emotional wellbeing and decision not to disclose the sexual abuse (Foster & Hagedorn, 2014; Morrison et al., 2018; Tat & Öztürk, 2019).

Victim blaming is a widespread problem in society that aligns with the reviewed literature (Elntib et al., 2020). Placing blame or shaming the victim causes psychological trauma, especially for young women. Caprioli and Crenshaw (2017) declared that victim blaming has devastating psychological effects and given the age of child could restrict the disclosure of the sexual abuse. Some interview participants expressed that some families blame the child for the sexual abuse. Within the community, findings from the interviews

determined that within the community the child is blamed for the sexual abuse. One interview participant expressed that community members blame young women for the abuse because of their inviting lifestyle. Another interview participant explained that some victims want a lavish lifestyle and the “top girl” status that comes with the lifestyle of being with older men. Instead of holding perpetrators accountable for their actions, child victims are blamed for their physical maturity, mannerism, dress code, and lifestyle. Stephanie said that these young women are often perceived as good for nothing and often cast out by their community and society. In some instances, some of the female adolescents being blamed for the abuse receive no support from their families (Masilo, 2018). In fact, archival data from *Perversion in Paradise*, found that members of the community and even jurors believe the victims invited the abuse. These jurors even acquit the perpetrator causing the victims to feel powerless.

Victim blaming negatively influenced enforcing CSA prevention at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. Children’s beliefs about the effects of CSA are grounded in the cultural norms of their parents, community, and society (Morrison et al., 2018). Because of some Jamaicans attitudes toward CSA, some interview participants perceived that victims of sexual abuse are shamed into accepting blame for the abuse. From the archival data, Jamaica’s culture of shame contributes to the unwillingness of adolescent victims to report the sexual abuse. It was determined from *Perversion in Paradise*, that feelings of shame coupled with the uncertainty that no one would believe them are primary reasons that allow the abuse to continue. Nonetheless, findings from the

interview and archival data determined that Jamaica's culture of victim blaming and shame influence prevention, namely secondary and tertiary prevention policies.

Theoretical Framework: The Socioecological Model

The findings from the interview and archival data supported the reviewed literature surrounding SEM, which also guided this qualitative research study. All 10 interview participants voiced their frustration with individual, relationship, community, and societal cultural norms that exacerbate CSA and impede prevention policies. The individual level of the SEM concentrated on the different elements of a female adolescent life that make the vulnerable to sexual abuse. Findings from the interview and archival data discovered that education, family history, and income contributed to sexual abuse of female adolescents. Both the child's and parent's lack of education and ignorance about sexual abuse was identified by law enforcement as factors that contributes to CSA. It was revealed through the interview data that some young women do not understand they are being abused because it is normal for older men to take up young women. Archival data in *Prevention Strategies*, explained that to enhance prevention policies where education is contributing factors begins with initiatives designed to educate parents. Enhancing parenting skills promote healthy child development, which endorsed the reviewed literature that education initiatives increase sexual abuse awareness. It was revealed through from the data, that a mother's attitude towards the sexual abuse can be problematic for law enforcement and child welfare workers responsible for enforcing prevention policies. The interview and archival data both revealed that mothers who were once victims of sexual abuse tend to turn a blind eye when their child is being victimized.

Through the data it was discovered that mothers from low-income households turn a blind eye to protect the perpetrator, particularly when this individual is a relative or breadwinner. Hence, an exploration of the cultural norms at the individual level requires an exploration of these individualistic factors to implement and properly enforce prevention policies. Therefore, prevention at the individual level focus on primary and secondary prevention strategies which promote attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that prevent sexual abuse.

Different relationships are crucial to the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Primarily, effective CSA prevention requires an examination of close relationships within a young woman's life that heighten their risk of being sexually abused. Information from the reviewed literature focused on the parent-child relationship, namely, the child's relationship with their mother. Interview findings revealed that neglectful and permissive parenting influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. The consensus from the interview participants were a lack of communication between parent and child, lack of parental supervision, and lack of affection, love, and support are reasons for the increased rates of CSA in Jamaica. Given a mother's sphere of influence and complicity in the sexual abuse of their daughters the findings determined that prevention policies at the relationship level must include primary and tertiary prevention policies. Primary prevention at the individual level focus on stopping the sexual abuse before it occurs. In the archival data, *Global status report on preventing violence against children 2020*, no national action for addressing sexual abuse exists in Jamaica (WHO, 2020a). Implementation of a CSA national plan encourages healthy child and adult relationships

through public dissemination of information and resources. Tertiary prevention policies are designed to help young women who were sexually abused. Through tertiary prevention policies victims and their families receive support services to reduce the lasting effects of the sexual abuse. The interview and archival data identified counseling, mental health, and medical services to help victims and their families cope with the aftermath of the sexual abuse. These tertiary prevention strategies when implemented and enforced prevent the reoccurrence of sexual abuse.

The community level of the SEM is a combination of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention strategies. A thorough exploration of the cultural norms influencing CSA prevention policies require an understanding of the community level of the SEM. Previous research studies discovered at the community level, a person's community provides a sense of security, safety, and belonging that reduces violence (Chavis & Lee, 2015; Lampinen et al., 2018). The literature reviewed described CSA as a complicated issue requiring community-based prevention policies (Gomez & Fliss, 2019). From the interview data, the community's perception and mentality influenced how cultural norms influenced the enforcement of CSA prevention policies. Analyzed from the interview data, a person's community affect their behavior and thinking, consequently affecting preventative measures to protect young women from sexual abuse. The interview data also concluded that for CSA prevention to be effective law enforcement and child welfare workers must get the community to recognize the implications of CSA, despite the problem not being at their doorstep. Implementing community-based prevention policies support changing cultural norms, which reinforces child protection systems (David et al.,

2016; Gomez & Fliss, 2019). From the archival data these community-related prevention strategies effectively change norms through bystander intervention and mobilization programs. It is also important to interrupt the spread of sexual abuse by creating safe environments for young women.

Societal factors according to the literature reviewed help create a climate that encourage violence, to include sexual abuse. These societal factors include cultural norms. Examination of the literature described cultural norms as behaviors, attitudes, and thoughts based on shared beliefs of a particular culture. These cultural norms are highly influential in making specific populations such as female adolescents vulnerable to violence. Also, cultural norms influence how people react or respond to violence based on the cultural norms of its society. Based on the studies, Jamaica has a strong culture. Findings from the interview data revealed that Jamaica has a “hush hush” and antiinformant culture, which leads to the acceptance and perpetration of the sexual abuse of children. In addition, Jamaica’s cultural norms influence CSA prevention policies. At the societal level, tertiary prevention strategies are more suitable for addressing cultural norms issues influencing sexual abuse and related prevention. Tertiary Prevention policies are designed to address the lasting effects of sexual victimization through ongoing support services to help victims cope and minimize revictimization. It was determined from the interview data that more resources are needed to reduce financial constraints imposed on victims, thus, strengthen household finance. One interview participant described that victims are required to file reports in person at the police station requiring victims and their families to purchase bus fares. This problem affects the

enforcement of tertiary prevention for victims from low-income families. Additionally, given the psychological impact of being sexually victimized tertiary prevention strategies to cope with the lasting effects are necessary.

Collectively, the three levels of prevention are needed to achieve a meaningful degree of prevention. In conformity with the archival data, effective prevention policies require an exploration of the three levels of prevention at the individual, relationship, community, and societal level of the socioecological framework. The archival data suggested that the sexual abuse of children is rooted in unhealthy relationships and environment. However, CSA prevention policies are difficult to implement and enforce without changing cultural norms. For instance, Jamaica's antiinformant culture has a significant influence on the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies. The same applies for Jamaica's culture of victim blaming. A culture of shame deters victims from revealing the abuse impeding the enforcement of CSA prevention policies (Leach et al., 2017). Changing cultural norms at the different levels of the SEM promote effective primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention strategies to reduce the risk of sexual abuse for young women.

Limitations of the Study

In Chapter 1, I identified several limitations that could arise throughout this research study. However, all limitations were addressed and did not significantly impact the outcome of this research study. The first limitation was the difference in definitions and terminologies. The interview questionnaire overcame this limitation. The first question asked of all participants during the interview was to define cultural norms and

child sexual abuse. Doing so ensured that the participants and I had the same understanding of cultural norms and CSA as it relates to this research study. Likewise, this ensured participants' responses were not generalized. Another limitation was interviewing law enforcement officials and child welfare workers with experience in Jamaica. There were concerns interviewing these participants because of the sensitive nature of the research topic. However, most participants were willing to participate in the interviews because they understood the seriousness of Jamaica's CSA epidemic. One participant requested a SKYPE meeting beforehand, which I granted to reassure her about the research study's confidentiality. A final limitation of this study was that the data gathered from archival records focused on different aspects of child abuse and prevention. Despite these limitations, results deduced from the archival data provided valuable information about law enforcement and child welfare workers' perception of the cultural norms influencing the enforcement of CSA prevention policies.

Chapter 3 already accounted for the COVID-19 pandemic. Social media was an invaluable recruitment instrument because it allowed me to recruit participants in Jamaica despite the COVID-19 travel restrictions and social distancing requirements. In addition, the snowball sampling was a useful recruitment technique, especially during the pandemic. Research participants were able to assist in identifying potential participants for this study. Majority of the interview participants were recruited through the snowball sampling technique.

Recommendations

The results of this qualitative research study are essential for future research. The findings of this research study provide insight about law enforcement and child welfare workers perspectives on the cultural norms influencing CSA prevention policies in Jamaica. I recommended future researchers conduct studies on a larger sample size that is more representative of the population. Although data saturation was reached with 10 participants, it may not be indicative of the perceptions of child welfare workers and law enforcement officials from different parishes. Future researchers could broaden the population to include healthcare workers and educators. Healthcare workers are crucial to secondary and tertiary prevention. Educators are primarily responsible for enforcing primary prevention but remain involved in secondary and tertiary prevention. Listening to all 10 interview participants describe irresponsible parenting as a major factor contributing to the sexual abuse of female adolescents indicate more is required to educate parents. Thus, it is recommended that the findings of this study are designed to promote prevention policies including early intervention, raise awareness, educational programs that supports families, and build support for community-based prevention programs. It is recommended that policymakers within the CISOCA and CPFSA increase its agencies resources for law enforcement and child welfare workers to support victims and their families. More resources offered through the CISOCA and CPFSA help parents recognize the signs of sexual abuse, and the effect it has on the child. For the Jamaican government it is recommended to overhaul the nation's criminal justice system offering greater protection to victims and upholding penalties against perpetrators. A final

recommendation derived from the archival data which indicated no national plan exist in Jamaica. Establishing a national plan provides a baseline for which the government can use to prevent violence against children.

Implications for Social Change

This qualitative case study has several implications for social change. Findings from interviews and archival data indicated that there are significant issues with Jamaica's criminal justice system. In a report from the CPRI (2018), sexual abuse crimes against children are susceptible to delays discouraging victims and embolden perpetrators. Although issues with the criminal justice system are widely known, policymakers at the MOJ can use the research findings to understand the magnitude of the problem. In doing so this enhances prosecutorial integrity, encourages equitable sentencing, and promotes safety while restoring confidence in the criminal justice system. Likewise, these findings could be used to identify problems requiring attention and the best approach for resolving these issues. Calls for unification was another issue impeding CSA prevention. For social change to be accomplished policymakers from the different government ministries can use the research findings to develop national initiatives that support members of CISOCA and CPFSA to collaborate effectively. Collaboration between the policymakers, CISOCA, and CPFSA is an investment in Jamaican communities, especially disenfranchised areas where CSA is rampant. Cooperation among the different agencies allowed for shared resources that empower and educate the Jamaican people about sexual abuse perpetrated against young women.

The reviewed literature found that factors influencing CSA prevention policies are poorly understood (Letourneau et al., 2014). Findings from the archival data suggested that child welfare advocates want more community-based programs. These child welfare advocates can use the findings of this study to collaborate with community leaders to develop community-based programs that educate communities on topics such as healthy relationships, recognizing the signs of sexual abuse, and the importance of disclosing the sexual abuse. Some community-based programs should focus on developing family-centered treatment support services to victims of sexual abuse. Creating positive social change begins in the community, which is crucial for supporting primary prevention policies.

An additional implication to social change has to do with the issues surrounding poor parenting. The interview findings concluded that all 10 interview participants blame the parent for the increase in CSA incidents. The partnership between policymakers, CISOCA, CPFSA, and community advocates alike could address some of the issues participants alluded to in their answers to include lack of supervision, poor parenting, financial instability, and lack of knowledge about the effects of CSA. Based on the research findings there is the potential for positive social change in child welfare. Sue asserted “A lot of times our voice is not heard.” Stacey expressed “We are the enemy of everybody, the enemy of the parent, the enemy of the children, the officers, and we are the enemy of the of the Child Advocate’s Department.”

Another implication of social change is the positive effects the research findings could have on public health. The WHO identified CSA as one of the 24 global risk

factors that contribute to roughly one percent of the global burden of disease (Letourneau et al., 2014). Primarily, because the sexual abuse of children causes psychological disorders, revictimization, and sexually transmitted diseases (Mathews & Collin-Vézina, 2016). For these reasons, requests for a public health approach to CSA primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention strategies have permeated for decades (Mathews, 2017; McKibbin & Humphreys, 2020).

The final two implications of social change concern cultural norms. Both the interview and archival data revealed that Jamaica's cultural norms significantly impact the sexual abuse of female adolescents. Policymakers can revisit the findings of this study to determine which cultural norms greatly affect CSA to determine an appropriate plan of action for changing these norms. Therefore, the findings refine our moral and social responsibilities to change cultural norms surrounding the sexual abuse of female adolescents. Lastly, the implication for positive social change allows the research findings to expand the universal body of literature.

Conclusion

For this research study, I explored whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies from the perspective of law enforcement officials and child welfare workers. To explore this problem the CDC's SEM guided the research study as the theoretical framework. As a multilevel approach, the SEM addresses violence prevention from an individual, relationship, community, and societal level. Although other researchers explored Jamaica's CSA problem, none of their studies explored how cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies.

Much of the literature on CSA, prevention policies, and cultural norms were reviewed in Chapter 2. Still, none of the literature examined the influences that Jamaican cultural norms have on enforcing CSA prevention policies.

Interviewing law enforcement officials and child welfare workers provided insight about the different cultural norms affecting the sexual abuse of Jamaican young women. The 16 semistructured interview questions were framed so that the participants' responses answered the research questions. A search of the databases from the CDC, COHA, RAINN, and WHO produced relevant data to help answer the research questions. The findings from the interviews and archival records aligned with the literature reviewed suggesting that cultural norms influence the enforcement of CSA prevention policies.

References

- Adom, D., Hussein, E., & Agyem, J. (2018). Theoretical and conceptual framework: Mandatory ingredients of a quality research. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, 7(1), 438-441.
- Agee, J. (2009). Developing qualitative research questions: A reflective process. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 22(4), 431-447. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518390902736512>
- Alaggia, R., Collin-Vézina, D., & Lateef, R. (2019). Facilitators and barriers to child sexual abuse (CSA) disclosures: A research update (2000–2016). *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 20(2), 260-283. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838017697312>
- Alavi, M., Archibald, M., McMaster, R., Lopez, V., & Cleary, M. (2018). Aligning theory and methodology in mixed methods research: Before design theoretical placement. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 21(5), 527-540. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2018.1435016>
- Alpi, K., & Evans, J. (2019). Distinguishing case study as a research method from case reports as a publication type. *Journal of the Medical Library Association*, 107(1), 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.5195/jmla.2019.615>
- American Psychological Association. (2017). *Sexual abuse*. <http://www.apa.org/topics/sexual-abuse/>
- American Psychological Association. (2020). *Understanding and preventing child abuse and neglect*. <https://www.apa.org/pi/families/resources/understanding-child-abuse>
- Andresen, E., & Bouldin, E. (2010). *Public health foundations: Concept and practices*.

John Wiley & Sons.

- Anney, V. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 5(2), 272-281.
- Asiamah, N., Mensah, H., & Oteng-Abayie, E. (2017). General, target, and accessible population: Demystifying the concepts for effective sampling. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(6), 1607-1622. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2017.2674>
- Baker, S., & Baker, R. (2012). *How many qualitative interviews is enough? Expert voices and early career reflections on sampling and cases in qualitative research*. <http://eprints.ncrm.ac.uk/2273/>
- Band-Winterstein, T., Goldblatt, H., & Lev, S. (2019). Breaking the taboo: Sexual assault in late life as a multifaceted phenomenon - Toward an integrative theoretical framework. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, xx(x), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838019832979>
- Barnert, E., Iqbal, Z., Bruce, J., Anoshiravani, A., Kolhatkar, G., & Greenbaum, J. (2017). Commercial sexual exploitation and sex trafficking of children and adolescents: A narrative review. *Academic Pediatrics*, 17(8), 825-829. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acap.2017.07.009>
- Barrow, J., & Khandhar, P. (2020, May 17). *Research ethics*. National Center for Biotechnology Information. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK459281/>
- Başkarada, S. (2014). Qualitative case study guidelines. *The Qualitative Report*, 19(40), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2014.1008>

- Birt, L., Scott, S., Cavers, D., Campbell, C., & Walter, F. (2016). Member checking: A tool to enhance trustworthiness or merely a nod to validation? *Qualitative Health Research, 26*(13), 1802–1811. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316654870>
- Blakemore, T., Hebert, J., Arney, F., & Parkinson, S. (2017). The impacts of institutional child sexual abuse: A rapid review of the evidence. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 74*(2017), 35-48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.08.006>
- Bott, S., Guedes, A., Goodwin, M., & Mendoza, J. (2012). *Violence against women in Latin America and the Caribbean: A comparative analysis of population-based data from 12 countries*. Pan American Health Organization.
- Bourne, P., Hudson-Davis, A., Sharpe-Pryce, C., Francis, C., Solan, I., & Nelson, S. (2015). Homicide, rape and carnal abuse in Jamaica, 1970-2013: The new health pandemics. *International Journal of Emergency Mental Health and Human Resilience, 17*(2), 588-587. <https://doi.org/10.4172/1522-4821.1000224>
- Bourke, B. (2014). Positionality: Reflecting on the research process. *The Qualitative Report, 19*(33), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2014.1026>
- Bowen, G. (2017). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal, 9*(2), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Bracewell, T. (2018). Outcry consistency and prosecutorial decisions in child sexual abuse cases. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 27*(4), 424-438. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-018-0557-1>
- Brayda, W., & Boyce, T. (2014). So you really want to interview me? Navigating “sensitive” qualitative research interviewing. *International Journal of Qualitative*

Methods, 13, 318-334. <https://doi.org/10.1177/160940691401300115>

- Breckenridge, J., & Salter, M. (2018). Child sexual abuse: Social-legal intersections of practice. In S. Rice, A. Day, & L. Briskman (Eds.), *Social work in the shadow of the law* (5th ed., pp. 73–92). Federation.
- Bree, R., & Gallagher, G. (2016). Using Microsoft Excel to code and thematically analyse qualitative data: A simple, cost-effective approach. *The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 8(2), 2811-2819.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. In *International Encyclopedia of education* (2nd ed., Vol. 3). Elsevier.
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (2006). The bioecological model of human development. In R. M. Lerner & W. Damon (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Theoretical models of human development* (pp. 793-828). John Wiley & Sons.
- Burmeister, E., & Aitken, L. M. (2012). Sample size: How many is enough? *Australian Critical Care*, 25, 271-274. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aucc.2012.07.002>
- Caprioli, S., & Crenshaw, D. (2017). The culture of silencing child victims of sexual abuse: Implications for child witnesses in court. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 57(2), 190-209. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022167815604442>
- Caribbean Development Bank. (2017, July 24). *CDB invests in the fight against child sexual abuse in Jamaica*. <https://www.caribank.org/newsroom/news-and-events/cdb-invests-fight-against-child-sexual-abuse-jamaica>
- Caribbean Policy Research Institute. (2018). *UNICEF - Situation analysis of Jamaican*

children – 2018.

https://www.unicef.org/jamaica/sites/unicef.org.jamaica/files/2019-10/UNICEF_20180618_SituationAnalysis_web.pdf

Celano, L. (2014). 6 Methods of data collection and analysis. *Monitoring, Evaluation, Accountability and Learning (MEAL)*, 1–30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1096-3642.1949.tb00873.x>

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2020a, March 20). *Preventing child sexual abuse.*

<https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/childabuseandneglect/childsexualabuse.html>

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2020b, March 20). *Prevention strategies.*

<https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/childabuseandneglect/childsexualabuse.html>

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2020c, January 20). *The social-ecological model: A framework for prevention.*

<https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/publichealthissue/social-ecologicalmodel.html>

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (n.d.). *The social-ecological model: A framework for violence prevention.*

https://www.cdc.gov/ViolencePrevention/pdf/SEM_Framework-a.pdf

Cerulli, C., Winterfeld, A., Younger, M., & Krueger, J. (2019). Public health law strategies for suicide prevention using the socioecological model. *The Journal of*

Law, Medicine & Ethics, 47(2_suppl), 31–35.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1073110519857312>

Chavis, D., & Lee, K. (2015). *What Is community anyway? Stanford Social Innovation Review*. https://ssir.org/articles/entry/what_is_community_anyway

Child Protection and Family Services Agency. (2015). *Sexual abuse 2015*.

<http://www.ocr.gov.jm/index.php/statistics/2015-stats/sexual-abuse-2015>

Child Protection and Family Services Agency. (2020). *Who we are?*

<http://childprotection.gov.jm/background/>

Child Welfare Information Gateway. (2019). *Sexual abuse prevention programs*.

<https://www.childwelfare.gov/topics/preventing/prevention-programs/sexualabuse/>

Chopra, G. (2019). Child sexual abuse in India and the protection of children from sexual offences. *Integrated Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(2), 49–56.

Choudhry, V., Dayal, R., Pillai, D., Kalokhe, A. S., Beier, K., & Patel, V. (2018). Child sexual abuse in India: A systematic review. In *PLoS ONE* (Vol. 13, Issue 10).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0205086>

Collin-Vézina, D., Daigneault, I., & Hebert, M. (2013). Lessons learned from child sexual abuse research: Prevalence, outcomes, and preventive strategies. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 7(22), 1-9.

<https://doi.org/10.1186/1753-2000-7-22>

Committee for Children. (2020). *Prevention of child sexual abuse*.

<https://www.cfchildren.org/policy-advocacy/child-sexual-abuse-prevention/>

Cox, E. (2018, June 1). *The silent epidemic: Child sexual abuse.*

<https://health.usnews.com/health-care/for-better/articles/2018-06-01/the-silent-epidemic-child-sexual-abuse>

Cramer, R., & Kapusta, N. (2017). A social-ecological framework of theory, assessment, and prevention of suicide. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8(1756), 1-10.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01756>

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods Approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Cummings, E., Merrilees, C., Taylor, L., & Mondri, C. (2017). Developmental and social-ecological perspectives on children, political violence, and armed conflict.

Development and Psychopathology, 29(1), 1-10.

<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579416001061>

Da Silva, L., Sousa, T., Cardoso, M., De Souza, L., & Santos, T. (2018). Violence perpetrated against children and adolescents. *Journal of Nursing UFPE Online*,

12(6), 1696-1704. <https://doi.org/10.5205/1981-8963-v12i6a23153p1696-1704-2018>

David, A., Wapmuk, A., & Ezechi, O. (2016). Child sexual abuse: A hidden epidemic.

Nigerian Journal of Clinical & Biomedical Research, 7(7), 6-15.

De Jong, R., Alink, L., Bijleveld, C., Finkenauer, C., & Hendriks, J. (2015). Transition to adulthood of child sexual abuse victims. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 24,

175-187. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2015.04.012>

Dempsey, L., Dowling, M., Larkin, P., & Murphy, K. (2016). Sensitive interviewing in qualitative research. *Research in Nursing and Health*, 39(6), 480–490.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.21743>

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln, *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-19). SAGE Publications.

Department of Correctional Services, Jamaica. (2019). *Sex offender registry*.

<https://www.dcs.gov.jm/pages/probation-services/sex-offender-registry/>

Dinaj-Koci, V., Deveaux, L., Wang, B., Lunn, S., Marshall, S., Li, X., & Stanton, B.

(2015). Adolescent sexual health education: Parents benefit too! *Health Education and Behavior*, 42(5), 648-653. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1090198114568309>

Djopkang, J. (2018). An integrated systems model for preventing child sexual abuse:

Perspectives from the Caribbean. *European Journal of Social Work*, 21(4), 632-633. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13691457.2018.1434268>

Domhardt, M., Munzer, A., Fegert, J., & Goldbeck, L. (2015). Resilience in survivors of

child sexual abuse: A systematic review of the literature. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 16(4), 476-493. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014557288>

Economist Intelligence Unit. (2019). *Jamaica out of the shadows: Shining light on the response to child sexual abuse and exploitation*.

<https://outoftheshadows.eiu.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/Out-the-Shadows-Whitepaper.pdf>

- Elliot, V. (2018). Thinking about the coding process in qualitative data analysis. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(11), 2850-2861. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2018.3560>
- Elntib, S., McPherson, P., Ioannou, M., & Addy, D. (2020). When sex is more than just sex: Evaluating police perspectives regarding the challenges in interviewing victims of sexual offences in Jamaica. *Policing and Society*, 30(3), 255-275. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10439463.2018.1511712>
- Etikan, I., Musa, S., & Alkassim, R. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), 1-4. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11>
- Fahie, D. (2014). Doing sensitive research sensitively: Ethical and methodological issues in researching workplace bullying. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 13(1), 19–36. <https://doi.org/10.1177/160940691401300108>
- Fakunmoju, S. B., Bammeke, F. O., Oyekanmi, F. A. D., Temilola, S., & George, B. (2016). Psychometric properties of beliefs about relationship violence against women and gender stereotypes scale. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 26(3), 246–258. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2016.1185905>
- Finkelhor, D., Shattuck, A., Turner, H., & Hamby, S. (2014). The lifetime prevalence of child sexual abuse and sexual assault assessed in late adolescence. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 55(3), 329-333. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.12.026>
- Fleming, J. (2018). Recognizing and resolving the challenges of being an insider

- researcher in work-integrated learning. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning*, 19(3), 311-320.
- Fleming, J., & Zegwaard, K. (2018). Methodologies, methods and ethical considerations for conducting research in work-integrated learning. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning*, 19(3), 205-213.
- Flores, D. (2018). *Standing in the middle: insider/outsider positionality while conducting qualitative research with opposing military veteran political groups*.
https://www.fs.fed.us/rm/pubs_journals/2018/rmrs_2018_flores_d001.pdf
- Foster, M. J., & Hagedorn, B. W. (2014). Through the eyes of the wounded: A narrative analysis of children's sexual abuse experiences and recovery process. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, 23(5), 538–557.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2014.918072>
- Fouka, G., & Mantzorou, M. (2011). What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health Science Journal*, 5(1), 3-14.
- Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(9), 1408–1416.
- Gabbidon, K., & Shaw-Ridley, M. (2019). Characterizing sexual health conversations among afro-Caribbean families: Adolescent and parent perspectives. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 00(0), 1-31. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558419826064>
- Gardner, J., Henry-Lee, A., Chevannes, P., Thomas, J., Baker-Henningham, H., & Coore, C. (2007). *Violence against children in the Caribbean: A desk review*.

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/300078841_Violence_against_Children_in_the_Caribbean_A_Desk_Review

Garrett, W. (2019, April 1). *Marginalized populations*.

https://www.mnpsych.org/index.php?option=com_dailyplanetblog&view=entry&category=division%20news&id=71:marginalized-populations

Gelinas, L., Pierce, R., Winkler, S., Cohen, I., Lynch, H., & Bierer, B. (2017). Using social media as a research recruitment tool: Ethical issues and recommendations.

American Journal of Bioethics, 17(3), 3-14.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/15265161.2016.1276644>

Gentle-Genitty, C., Kim, J., Yi, E., Slater, D., Reynolds, B., & Bragg, N. (2017).

Comprehensive assessment of youth violence in five Caribbean countries: Gender and age differences. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*,

27(7), 745-759. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2016.1273811>

Gentles, S., Charles, C., Ploeg, J., & McKibbin, K. (2015). Sampling in qualitative research: Insights from an overview of the methods literature. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(11), 1772-1789.

Gomez, R., & Fliss, J. (2019). A community-based prevention approach: Examples from the field. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal*, 36(1), 65–74.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-018-0593-x>

Gordon, L. (2015). Child participation in Jamaica: Cultural reality versus idealism. *Social and Economic Studies*, 64(1), 49-74.

Government of Jamaica. (2018). *National plan of action for an integrated response to*

children and violence 2018-2023. <https://end-violence.org/sites/default/files/paragraphs/download/Action%20plan%20jamaica.pdf>

- Grant, L. (2017). Violence in Jamaica's high schools. *African Journal of Criminology and Justice Studies*, 10(1), 39-61.
- Grant, C., & Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, selecting, and integrating a theoretical framework in dissertation research: Creating the blueprint for your "house." *Administrative Issues Journal: Connecting Education, Practice, and Research*, 4(2), 12–26. <https://doi.org/10.5929/2014.4.2.9>
- Greene, M. (2014). On the inside looking in: Methodological insights and challenges in conducting qualitative insider research. *The Qualitative Report*, 19(15), 1-13.
- Gupta, M., Uz, I., Esmailzadeh, P., Noboa, F., Mahrous, A., Kim, E., Miranda, G., Tennant, V., Chung, S., Azam, A., Peters, A., Iraj, H., Bautista, V., & Kulikova, I. (2018). Do cultural norms affect social network behavior inappropriateness? A global study. *Journal of Business Research*, 85(2018), 10-22.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.12.006>
- Haffejee, S., & Theron, L. (2017). Resilience processes in sexually abused adolescent girls: A scoping review of the literature. *South African Journal of Science*, 113(9/10), 31–40.
- Hahn, T. (2012, May 18). *Fighting child sexual abuse in the Caribbean*. United Nations Children's Fund. https://www.unicef.org/aids/jamaica_62479.html
- Hancock, B., Ockleford, E., & Windridge, K. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative*

research. http://www.rds-yh.nihr.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2013/05/5_Introduction-to-qualitative-research-2009.pdf

Hargrove, S. (2014). *What's hidden in plain sight: A look at child sexual abuse*.

American Psychological Association.

<https://www.apa.org/pi/about/newsletter/2014/11/child-sexual-abuse>

Harper, C., Steiner, R., & Brookmeyer, K. (2018). Using the social-ecological model to improve access to care for adolescents and young adults. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 62(2018), 641-642.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2018.03.010>

Harriot, A., & Jones, M. (2016, June). *Crime and violence in Jamaica*.

<https://publications.iadb.org/en/publication/12510/crime-and-violence-jamaica-idb-series-crime-and-violence-caribbean>

Harrison, H., Birks, M., Franklin, R., & Mills, J. (2017). Case study research:

Foundations and methodological orientations. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 18(1).

Herres, J., Wang, S., Bobchin, K., & Draper, J. (2018). A socioecological model of risk associated with campus sexual assault in a representative sample of liberal arts college students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. 1-22.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260518785376>

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559508326224>

Hershkowitz, I. (2009). Socioemotional factors in child sexual abuse investigations. *Child Maltreatment*, 14(2), 171-182.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559508326224>

Hickey, N., Harrison, L., & Sumsion, J. (2012). Using a Socioecological framework to

understand the career choices of single- and double-degree nursing students and

double-degree graduates. *International Scholarly Research Network*.

<https://doi.org/10.5402/2012/748238>

Houses of Parliament. (2012, November 14). *The National Parenting Support Commission Act, 2012*.

https://japarliament.gov.jm/attachments/341_The%20National%20Parenting%20Support%20Commission%20Act,%202012.pdf

Hutchinson, K., Kahwa, E., Waldron, N., Brown, C., Hamilton, P., Hewitt, H., Aiken, J., Cederbaum, J., Alter, E., & Jemmott, L. (2012). Jamaican mothers' influences of adolescent girls' sexual beliefs and behaviors. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 44(1), 27-35. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1547-5069.2011.01431.x>

Hyett, N., Kenny, A., & Dickson-Swift, V. (2014). Methodology or method? A critical review of qualitative case study reports. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on health and well-being*, 9, 23606.

Imenda, S. (2014). Is there a conceptual difference between theoretical and conceptual frameworks? *Journal of Social Sciences*, 38(2), 185-195.

Institute of Medicine. (2012). *An integrated framework for assessing the value of community-based prevention*. The National Academies Press.

Jacob, S. A., & Furgerson, S. P. (2012). The qualitative report writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(42), 1-10.

James, C., Seixas, A., Harrison, A., Jean-Louis, G., Butler, M., Zizi, F., & Samuels, A. (2016). Childhood physical and sexual abuse in Caribbean young adults and its

- association with depression, post-traumatic stress, and skin bleaching. *Journal of Depression Anxiety*, 5(1), 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2167-1044.1000214>
- Jamshed, S. (2014). Qualitative research method-interviewing and observation. *Journal of Basic and Clinical Pharmacy*, 5(4), 87–88. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0976-0105.141942>
- Jayapalan, A., Wong, L., & Aghamohammadi, N. (2018). A qualitative study to explore understanding and perception of sexual abuse among undergraduate students of different ethnicities. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 69, 26-32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2018.04.004>
- Jeremiah, R. D., Quinn, C. R., & Alexis, J. M. (2017). Exposing the culture of silence: Inhibiting factors in the prevention, treatment, and mitigation of sexual abuse in the Eastern Caribbean. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 53. <https://doi-org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.01.029>
- Johl, S., & Renganathan, S. (2010). Strategies for gaining access in doing fieldwork: Reflection of two researchers. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 8(1), 42-50.
- Jones, A., & Jemmott, E. (2016). Status, privilege and gender inequality: Cultures of male impunity and entitlement in the sexual abuse of children: Perspectives from a Caribbean study. *International Social Work*, 59(6), 836-849. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0020872814537853>
- Kilanowski, J. (2017). Breadth of the socio-ecological model. *Journal of Agromedicine*, 22(4), 295-297. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1059924X.2017.1358971>

- Kirk, L., Terry, S., Lokuge, K., & Watterson, J. L. (2017). Effectiveness of secondary and tertiary prevention for violence against women in low and low-middle income countries: A systematic review. *BMC Public Health*, *17*, 622, 1–21.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-017-4502-6>
- Klein, K., Boersma, A., Meyboom-de Jong, B., & Bruijn, J. (2013). Child Abuse: A common problem in Curaçao? *West Indian Medical Journal*, *62*(2), 127-134.
<https://doi.org/10.7727/wimj.2012.028>
- Knack, N., Winder, B., Murphy, L., & Fedoroff, P. (2018). Primary and secondary prevention of child sexual abuse. *International Review of Psychiatry*, *31*(2), 181-194. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540261.2018.1541872>
- Korstjens, I., & Moser, A. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing. *European Journal of General Practice*, *24*(1), 120-124. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375092>
- Krug, E. G., Mercy, J. A., Dahlberg, L. L., & Zwi, A. B. (2002). The world report on violence and health. *Lancet (London, England)*, *360*(9339), 1083–1088.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(02\)11133-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)11133-0)
- Lahtinen, H., Laitila, A., Korkman, J., & Ellonen, N. (2018). Children’s disclosures of sexual abuse in a population-based sample. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, *76*, 84-94.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.10.011>
- Lampinen, M., Konu, A., Kettunen, T., & Suutala, E. (2018). Factors that foster or prevent sense of belonging among social and health care managers. *Leadership in Health Services*, *31*(4), 468-480. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LHS-09-2017-0054>

- Leach, C., Powell, M., Sharman, S., & Anglim, J. (2017). The relationship between children's age and disclosures of sexual abuse during forensic interviews. *Child Maltreatment*, 22(1), 79-88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559516675723>
- Leavy, P. (2017). *Research design: Quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, arts-based, and community-based participatory research approaches (1st ed.)*. The Guilford Press.
- Lederman, N. G., & Lederman, J. S. (2015). What is a theoretical framework? A practical answer. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, 26(7), 593–597. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10972-015-9443-2>
- Letourneau, E. J., Eaton, W. W., Bass, J., Berlin, F. S., & Moore, S. G. (2014). The need for a comprehensive public health approach to preventing child sexual abuse. *Public Health Reports*, 129(3), 222–228. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003335491412900303>
- Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 4(3), 324-327. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4863.161306>
- Linoff, G. S. (2016). *Data analysis using SQL and Excel (2nd ed.)*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Linton, L. (2017, January 27). *JSIF supports 'Break the Silence' campaign to protect children*. Jamaica Information Service. <https://jis.gov.jm/jsif-supports-break-silence-campaign-protect-children/>
- Lucas, P., Fleming, J., & Bhosale, J. (2018). The utility of case study as a methodology for WIL research [special issue]. *International Journal of Work-Integrated*

Learning, 19(3), 215-222.

Lumsden, A. (2017, February 24). *Perversion in paradise*. Council on Hemispheric Affairs. <http://www.coha.org/perversion-in-paradise/>

MacGinley, M., Breckenridge, J., & Mowll, J. (2019). A scoping review of adult survivors' experiences of shame following sexual abuse in childhood. *Health & Social Care Community*, 2019(00), 1–12.
<https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/hsc.12771>

Mandal, J., & Parija, S. C. (2014). Informed consent and research. *Tropical Parasitology*, 4(2), 78–79. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2229-5070.138533>

Manjoo, R. (2016). *Caribbean study visit report: United Nations special rapporteur on violence against women*.
[https://www.jm.undp.org/content/dam/jamaica/docs/researchpublications/Women
sempowerment/Caribbean%20Study%20Visit%20Report%20Final.pdf](https://www.jm.undp.org/content/dam/jamaica/docs/researchpublications/Women%20sempowerment/Caribbean%20Study%20Visit%20Report%20Final.pdf)

Marcus, R. (2014). *Poverty and violations of children's right to protection in low and middle-income countries: A review of evidence*. Governance and Social Development Resource Centre. <https://gsdrc.org/document-library/poverty-and-violations-of-childrens-right-to-protection-in-low-and-middle-income-countries-a-review-of-the-evidence/>

Marriott, C., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C., & Harrop, C. (2014). *Child Abuse Review*, 23(1), 17-34. <https://doi.org/10.1002/car.2258>

Márquez-Flores, M. M., Granados-Gámez, V. V., & Márquez-Hernández, G. (2016). Teachers' knowledge and beliefs about child sexual abuse. *Journal of Child*

Sexual Abuse, 25(5), 538–555. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2016.1189474>

Marsh, C., Browne, J., Taylor, J., & Davis, D. (2017). A researcher's journey: Exploring a sensitive topic with vulnerable women. *US National Library of Medicine National Institutes of Health*, 30(1), 63-69.

Martinello, E. (2020). Applying the ecological systems theory to better understand and prevent child sexual abuse. *Sexuality and Culture*, 24(1), 326–344.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-019-09629-z>

Masilo, D. T. (2018). Prevention of child sexual abuse within the family system: Guidelines for an educational social group work program. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, 27(4), 335–346. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2018.1430089>

Mathews, B. (2017). Optimising implementation of reforms to better prevent and respond to child sexual abuse in institutions: Insights from public health, regulatory theory, and Australia's Royal Commission. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 74,86–98.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104422>

Mathews, B., & Collin-Vézina, D. (2016). Child sexual abuse: Raising awareness and empathy is essential to promote new public health responses. *Journal Public Health Policy*, 37, 304–314. <https://doi.org/10.1057/jphp.2016.21>

Mathews, B., & Collin-Vézina, D. (2017). Child sexual abuse: Toward a conceptual model and definition. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 20(2), 131–148.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838017738726>

Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. SAGE Publications.

- McCormack, L., Thomas, V., Lewis, M. A., & Rudd, R. (2017). Improving low health literacy and patient engagement: A social ecological approach. *Patient Education and Counseling, 100*, 8–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2016.07.007>
- McCoy, M., & Keen, S. (2014). Child abuse and neglect reporting. In *Encyclopedia of School Health* (2nd ed.). Taylor and Francis.
<https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452276250.n37>
- McElvaney, R., Greene, S., & Hogan, D. (2012). Containing the secret of child sexual abuse. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence 27*(6) 1155 –1175.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260511424503>
- McHugh, S., Smallbone, S., & Tilley, N. (2015). Endemic sexual violence and abuse: Contexts and dispositions. *Crime Justice Journal, 4*(2), 111-124.
- McKibbin, G., & Humphreys, C. (2020). Future directions in child sexual abuse prevention: An Australian perspective. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 105*, 1-8.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104422>
- McKibbin, G., & Humphreys, C., & Hamilton, B. (2017). Talking about child sexual abuse would have helped me: Young people who sexually abused reflect on preventing harmful sexual behavior. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 70*(2017), 210-221.
<https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.06.017>
- Meinck, F., Cluver, L. D., Boyes, M. E., & Loening-Voysey, H. (2016). Physical, emotional and sexual adolescent abuse victimisation in South Africa: Prevalence, incidence, perpetrators and locations. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, 70*(9), 910–916. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech-2015-205860>

- Meinck, F., Cluver, L. D., Boyes, M. E., & Mhlongo, E. L. (2015). Risk and protective factors for physical and sexual abuse of children and adolescents in Africa: A review and implications for practice. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 16*(1), 81-107. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014523336>
- Mendelson, T., & Letourneau, E. (2015). Parent-focused prevention of child sexual abuse. *Prevention Science, 16*(6), 844-852. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-015-0553-z>
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Miller, P. (2014). Children at risk: A review of sexual abuse incidents and child protection issues in Jamaica. *Open Review of Educational Research, 1*(1), 171-182. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/23265507.2014.972437>
- Ministry of Education, Youth, & Information. (n.d.). *CDA empowers child-abuse victims through 'Aria's Story'*. <https://moey.gov.jm/cda-empowers-child-abuse-victims-through-%E2%80%99aria%E2%80%99s-story%E2%80%99>
- Ministry of Education, Youth, & Information. (2017, November 1). *Work of parenting support commission key in addressing crime – Senator Reid*. <https://moey.gov.jm/work-parenting-support-commission-key-addressing-crime-%E2%80%93-senator-reid>
- Ministry of Justice. (2007). *The Child Care and Protection Act*. <https://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/Child%20Care%20and%20Protection%20Act.pdf>

Ministry of Justice. (2009a). *The Child Pornography (Prevention) Act*.

<https://moj.gov.jm/laws/child-pornography-prevention-act>

Ministry of Justice. (2009b). *The Sexual Offences Act*.

<https://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/Sexual%20Offences%20Act.pdf>

Ministry of Justice. (2020). *Victim support*. [https://moj.gov.jm/programmes/victim-](https://moj.gov.jm/programmes/victim-support)

[support](https://moj.gov.jm/programmes/victim-support)

Moon, K., Brewer, T., Januchowski-Hartley, S., Adams, V., & Blackman, D. (2016). A

guideline to improve qualitative social science publishing in ecology and

conservation journals. *Ecology and Society* 21(3), 1-13.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.5751/ES-08663-210317>

Morgan, P. (2019). Incest, violation and trauma in Caribbean narratives. *Caribbean*

Journal of Criminology, 1(4), 60–89.

Morrison, S., Bruce, C., & Wilson, S. (2018). Children’s disclosure of sexual abuse: A

systematic review of qualitative research exploring barriers and facilitators.

Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 27(2), 176-794.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2018.1425943>

Morse, A., & McEvoy, C. (2014). Qualitative research in sport management: Case study

as a methodological approach. *The Qualitative Report*, 19(31), 1-13.

Moser, A., & Korstjens, I. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part

3: Sampling, data collection and analysis. *European Journal of General Practice*,

24(1), 9-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375091>

Muers, S. (2017). *Culture comes first: Putting culture and values at the centre of public*

policy. <https://www.centreforpublicimpact.org/putting-values-centre-public-policy/>

Murray, L., Nguyen, A., & Cohen, J. (2014). Child sexual abuse HHS public access. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 23(2), 321-337. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chc.2014.01.003>

National Institutes of Health. (2019, January 7). *Vulnerable and other populations requiring additional protections*. United States Department of Health & Human Services. <https://grants.nih.gov/policy/humansubjects/policies-and-regulations/vulnerable-populations.htm>

National Parenting Support Commission. (2018, February 13). *The NPSC supporting and educating parents*. <https://jis.gov.jm/npsc-supporting-educating-parents/>

Nurse, A. (2018). Coaches and child sexual abuse prevention training: Impact on knowledge, confidence, and behavior. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 88(2018), 395-400. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2018.03.040>

Nurse, A. (2017). Knowledge and behavioral impact of adult participation in child sexual abuse prevention: Evaluation of the protecting God's children program. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, 26(5), 608-624. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2017.1328475>

Onwuegbuzie, A., Frels, R., & Hwang, E. (2016). Mapping Saldaña's coding methods onto the literature review process. *Journal of Educational Issues*, 2(1), 130-150. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/jei.v2i1.8931>

Ose, S. (2016). Using Excel and Word to structure qualitative data. *Journal of Applied*

Social Science, 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1936724416664948>

Oshima, K., Jonson-Reid, M., & Seay, K. (2014). The influence of childhood sexual abuse on adolescent outcomes: The roles of gender, poverty, and revictimization.

Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 23(4), 367-386.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2014.896845>

Palaganas, E. C., Sanchez, M. C., Molintas, M. P., & Caricativo, R. D. (2017).

Reflexivity in qualitative research: A journey of learning. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(2), 426-438.

Palinkas, L., Horwitz, S., Green, C., Wisdom, J., Duan, N., & Hoagwood, K. (2015).

Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, 42(5),

533–544. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y>

Palmer, D., & Feldman, V. (2017). Toward a more comprehensive analysis of the role of

organizational culture in child sexual abuse in institutional contexts. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 74(2017), 23-34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.08.004>

Palmer, G., Palmer, R., & Payne-Borden, J. (2012). Evolution of counseling in Jamaica:

Past, present, and future trends. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 90, 97–102.

Palusci, V., & Ilardi, M. (2019). Risk factors and services to reduce child sexual abuse recurrence. *Child Maltreatment*, 0(0), 1-11.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559519848489>

Pasura, D., Jones, A., Hafner, J., Maharaj, P., Nathaniel-DeCaires, K., & Johnson, E.

(2012). Competing meanings of childhood and the social construction of child sexual abuse in the Caribbean. *20*(2), 200-214.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0907568212462255>

Patterson, C. (2019, June 18). *National plan of action for integrated response to children and violence approved*. Jamaica Information Service. <https://jis.gov.jm/national-plan-of-action-for-integrated-response-to-children-and-violence-approved/>

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Pérez-González, A., Guilera, G., Pereda, N., & Jarne, A. (2017). Protective factors promoting resilience in the relation between child sexual victimization and internalizing and externalizing symptoms. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *72*, 393-403.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.09.006>

Perpetrada, V., & Ninos, C. (2018). Perpetrated against children and adolescents. *Journal of Nursing UFPE Online*, *12*(6), 1696-1704.

Pirelli, G., Wechsler, H., & Cramer, R. (2019). *The behavioral science of firearms: A Mental health perspective on guns, suicide, and violence* (1st ed.). Oxford University Press.

Porter, N. (2018). Ending harassment by starting with retaliation. *Stanford Law Review*, *71*(49), 1-13.

Pottinger, A. M. (2012). Children's exposure to violence in Jamaica: Over a decade of research and interventions. *West Indian Medical Journal*, *61*(4), 369-371.

Pryce, D., & Grant, L. (2020). The relative impacts of normative and instrumental factors

of policing on willingness to empower the police: A study from Jamaica. *Journal of Ethnicity in Criminal Justice*, 18(1), 19-42.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/15377938.2019.1681046>

Pulido, M., Dauber, S., Tully, B., Hamilton, P., Smith, M., & Freeman, K. (2015).

Knowledge gains following a child sexual abuse prevention program among urban students: A cluster-randomized evaluation. *American Journal of Public Health*, 105(7), 1344-1350. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2015.302594>

Radford, L., Allnock, D., & Hynes, P. (2015). *Preventing and responding to child sexual abuse and exploitation: Evidence review*.

[https://www.unicef.org/protection/files/Evidence_Review_SEA_\(Radford_et_al\).pdf](https://www.unicef.org/protection/files/Evidence_Review_SEA_(Radford_et_al).pdf)

Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network. (n.d.). *The criminal justice system: Statistics*.

<https://www.rainn.org/statistics/criminal-justice-system>

Ravitch, S. M., & Carl, N. M. (2016). *Qualitative research: Bridging the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological (1st ed.)*. SAGE Publications.

Rawat, P. S. (2014). Patriarchal beliefs, women's empowerment, and general well-being.

Vikalpa, 39(2), 43–55. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0256090920140206>

Reid, S., Reddock, R., & Nickenig, T. (2014). Breaking the silence of child sexual abuse in the Caribbean: A community-based action research intervention model. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, 23, 256–277.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2014.888118>

Resnik, D. (2015, December 1). *What is ethics in research and why is it important?*

<https://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/resources/bioethics/whatis/index.cfm>

- Ridder, H. (2017). The theory contribution of case study research designs. *Business Research, 10*, 281-305. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40685-017-0045-z>
- Rock, L. (2013). Research on child sexual abuse: Caribbean and international perspectives. In *Understanding Child Sexual Abuse*, edited by A.D. Jones. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Roger, K., Bone, T., Heinonen, T., Schwartz, K., & Slater, J. (2018). Exploring identity: What we do as qualitative researchers. *The Qualitative Report, 23*(3), 532-546.
- Rogers, A., Ha, T., Stormshak, E., & Dishion, T. (2015). Quality of parent-adolescent conversations about sex and adolescent sexual behavior: An observational study. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 57*(2), 174-178.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2015.04.010>
- Ross, L. E. (2017). An account from the inside: Examining the emotional impact of qualitative research through the lens of “insider” research. *Qualitative Psychology, 4*(3), 326–337. <https://doi.org/10.1037/qup0000064>
- Rudestam, K., & Newton, R. (2015). *Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and process (4th ed.)*. SAGE Publications.
- Rudolph, J., Zimmer-Gembeck, M., Shanley, D., & Hawkins, R. (2018). Child sexual abuse prevention opportunities: Parenting, programs, and the reduction of risk. *Child Maltreatment, 23*(1), 96-106. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559517729479>
- Runarsdottir, E., Smith, E., & Arnarsson, A. (2019). The effects of gender and family wealth on sexual abuse of adolescents. *International Journal of Environmental*

Research and Public Health, 16(1788), 1-9.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16101788>

Safou-Mat, G. (2015). *Violence in the home: An overview of the Caribbean within the global context*.

[https://www.academia.edu/13807308/CRIME AND VIOLENCE IN THE CARIBBEAN?auto=download](https://www.academia.edu/13807308/CRIME_AND_VIOLENCE_IN_THE_CARIBBEAN?auto=download)

Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers (3rd ed.)*. SAGE Publications.

Salihi, H. M., Wilson, R. E., King, L. M., Marty, P. J., & Whiteman, V. E. (2015).

Socio-ecological model as a framework for overcoming barriers and challenges in randomized control trials in minority and underserved communities. *International Journal of MCH and AIDS*, 3(1), 85–95.

Samms, K., & Cholewa, B. (2014). Exploring the context of child sexual abuse in Jamaica: Addressing the deficits. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, 23, 115-127.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2014.870948>

Sanjeevi, J., Houlihan, D., Bergstrom, K., Langley, M., & Judkins, J. (2018). A review of child sexual abuse: Impact, risk, and resilience in the context of culture. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, 27(6), 622-641.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2018.1486934>

Sarniak, R. (2015, August). *9 types of research bias and how to avoid them*.

<https://www.quirks.com/articles/9-types-of-research-bias-and-how-to-avoid-them>

Sargeant, J. (2012). Qualitative research part II: Participants, analysis, and quality

assurance. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 4(1), 1–3.

<https://doi.org/10.4300/JGME-D-11-00307.1>

Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H.,

& Jinks, C. (2018). Saturation in qualitative research: Exploring its

conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality and Quantity*, 52(4), 1893–

1907. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8>

Sawrikar, P., & Katz, I. (2017). The treatment needs of victims/survivors of child sexual

abuse (CSA) from ethnic minority communities: A literature review and

suggestions for practice. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 79(2017), 166-179.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.06.021>

Schönbucher, V., Maier, T., Mohler-Kuo, M., Schnyder, U., & Landolt, M. (2012).

Disclosure of child sexual abuse by adolescents: A qualitative in-depth study.

Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 27(17), 3486-3513.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260512445380>

Seelke, C. R. (2016, October 13). *Trafficking in Persons in Latin America and the*

Caribbean. Congressional Research Service.

<https://fas.org/sgp/crs/row/RL33200.pdf>

Seth, R., & Srivastava, R. (2017). Child sexual abuse: Management and prevention, and

protection of children from sexual offences (POCSO) act. *Indian Pediatrics*,

54(1), 949-953. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13312-017-1189-9>

Shafe, S., & Hutchinson, G. (2014). Child sexual abuse and continuous influence of

cultural practices: A Review. *West Indian Medical Journal*, 63(6), 634-637.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.7727/wimj.2013.246>

Shenton, A. K., & Hayter, S. (2004). Strategies for gaining access to organisations and informants in qualitative studies. *Education for Information*, 22(3–4), 223–231.

<https://doi.org/10.3233/EFI-2004-223-404>

Sheykhjan, T. (2015, July 16). *International perspectives for research on child abuse and neglect*.

<https://eric.ed.gov/?q=drugs+AND+child+AND+society&ff1=subChildren&id=E586148>

Sikkens, E., Van San, M., Sieckelinck, S., Boeije, H., & De Winter, M. (2017).

Participant recruitment through social media: Lessons learned from a qualitative radicalization study using Facebook. *Field Methods*, 29(2), 130-139.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X16663146>

Simon, M. K. (2018). *Dissertation and scholarly research: Recipes for success*.

Dissertation Success.

Singh, A., Garnett, A., & Williams, D. (2013). Resilience strategies of African American women survivors of child sexual abuse: A qualitative inquiry. *The Counseling Psychologist* 41(8), 1093-1124.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000012469413>

Smith, A. (2017, February 23). *CDA empowers child-abuse victims through 'Aria's story*.

Jamaica Information Service. <https://jis.gov.jm/cda-empowers-child-abuse-victims-arias-story/>

Smith, D. (2016). Prevalence of intimate partner violence in Jamaica: Implications for prevention and intervention. *International Journal of Child, Youth and Family*

- Studies*, 7(3/4): 343–363. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18357/ijcyfs73-4201616089>
- Smith, D., Cooke, W., & Morrison, S. (2019). A discussion on sexual violence against girls and women in Jamaica. *Journal of Sexual Aggression*, 0(0), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13552600.2019.1643505>
- Sparkes, A., & Smith, B. (2014). *Qualitative research methods in sports, exercise, and health from process to product*. Routledge.
- Ssenyonga, J., Hermenau, K., Nkuba, M., & Hecker, T. (2018). Reducing violence against children by implementing the preventative intervention interaction competencies with children for teachers (ICC-T): Study protocol for a cluster randomized controlled trial in Southwestern Uganda. *Trials*, 19(435), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-018-2827-9>
- Starman, A. (2013). The case study as a type of qualitative research. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies*, 1, 28-43.
- Sutton, J., & Austin, Z. (2015). Qualitative research: Data collection, analysis, and management. *CJHP*, 68(3), 226-231. <https://doi.org/10.4212/cjhp.v68i3.1456>
- Tat, M., & Öztürk, A. (2019). Ecological system model approach to self-disclosure process in child sexual abuse. *Current Approaches in Psychiatry*, 11(3), 363-385. <https://doi.org/10.18863/pgy.455511>
- Teicher, M., & Parigger, A. (2015). The maltreatment and abuse chronology of exposure (MACE) scale for the retrospective assessment of abuse and neglect during development. *PloS ONE*, 10(2), 1-37. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117423>

- Teicher, M., & Samson, J. (2016). Annual research review: Enduring neurobiological effects of childhood abuse and neglect. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 57(3), 241-266. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpp.12507>
- Tener, D. (2018). Perspectives on adolescent sexual relations with older persons: A systematic review of the literature. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838018772287>
- Tener, D., & Murphy, S. (2015). Adult disclosure of child sexual abuse: A literature review. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 16(4), 391-400. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014537906>
- Todahl, J., Brown, T., Barkhurst, P., Maxey, V., & Simone, A. (2019). Pathways to child abuse prevention: Seeking and embedding public opinion. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 00(0), 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519845714>
- Turiano, N. A. (2014). Archival data analysis introduction. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 79(4), 323-325. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091415015574188>
- United Nations Children's Fund. (2010). *Child sexual abuse in the Eastern Caribbean*. https://www.unicef.org/Child_Sexual_Abuse_Publication.pdf
- United Nations Children's Fund. (2020). *Health promotion*. <https://www.unicef.org/jamaica/health-promotion>
- United States Department of Justice. (2016, October 19). *National strategy for child exploitation prevention and interdiction*. <https://www.justice.gov/psc/national-strategy-child-exploitation-prevention-and-interdiction>

United States Department of State. (2018). *Child protection compact partnership between the government of the United States of America and the government of Jamaica.*

<https://www.state.gov/child-protection-compact-partnerships/>

Veenema, T., Thornton, C., & Corley, A. (2015). The public health crisis of child sexual abuse in low and middle income countries: An integrative review of the literature.

International Journal of Nursing Studies, 52(4), 864–881. <https://doi-org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2014.10.017>

Wadsworth, P., Krahe, E., & Searing, K. (2018). An ecological model of well-being after sexual assault. *Family and Community Health*, 41(1), 37-46. <http://doi-org/10.1097/FCH.0000000000000168>

<http://doi-org/10.1097/FCH.0000000000000168>

Walden University. (2019). *Research ethics and compliance: Red flag issues.*

<https://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec/frequently-asked-questions/red-flag-issues>

Walden University. (2020). *Institutional Review Board.*

<https://academicguides.waldenu.edu/doctoralcapstoneresources/phdces/irb>

Walsh, K., Zwi, K., Woolfenden, S., & Shlonsky, A. (2015). *School-based education programmes for the prevention of child sexual abuse.*

http://www.cochrane.org/CD004380/BEHAV_school-based-programmes-for-the-prevention-of-child-sexual-abuse

Wang, S. P. (2015). *Crime and violence in the Caribbean.* American University.

https://www.academia.edu/13807308/CRIME_AND_VIOLENCE_IN_THE_CARIBBEAN

- Wilson-Harris, N. (2019, November 10). *Toddlers at risk - Victim support body puts parents on notice as sex-abuse victims, perpetrators get younger*. The Gleaner. <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/lead-stories/20191110/toddlers-risk-victim-support-body-puts-parents-notice-sex-abuse>
- World Health Organization. (2020a). *Global status report on preventing violence against children*. <https://www.who.int/teams/social-determinants-of-health/violence-prevention/global-status-report-on-violence-against-children-2020>
- World Health Organization. (2018). *Recognizing adolescence*. <http://apps.who.int/adolescent/second-decade/section2/page1/recognizing-adolescence.html>
- World Health Organization. (2020b). *The ecological framework*. <https://www.who.int/violenceprevention/approach/ecology/en/>
- Yuce, M., Karabekiroglu, K., Yildirim, Z., Sahin, S., Sapmaz, D., Babadagi, Z., Turla, A., & Aydin, B. (2015). The psychiatric consequences of child and adolescent sexual abuse. *Archives of Neuropsychiatry*, 2015(52), 393-399. <https://doi.org/10.5152/npa.2015.7472>
- Yin, R. (2014). *Case study research. Design and methods (5th ed.)*. SAGE Publications.
- Yoon, E., Chang, H., & Adams, K. (2018a). Interrelations of patriarchal beliefs, gender, collectivism/individualism, and mental health. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09515070.2018.1511520>
- Yoon, E., Adams, K., Hogge, I., Bruner, J., Surya, S., & Bryant, F. (2015). Development and validation of the patriarchal beliefs scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*,

62(2), 264–279. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000056>

Yoon, S., Voith, L., & Kobulsky, J. (2018b). Gender differences in pathways from child physical and sexual abuse to adolescent risky sexual behavior among high-risk youth. *Journal of Adolescence*, 64(2018), 89-97.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2018.02.006>

Zeller, H. (2017, August). *Child sexual abuse primary prevention strategies: A literature review*. State of Iowa. <https://pcaiowa.org/content/uploads/2019/02/2017-csap-literature-review.pdf>

Zhang, W., Chen, J., & Liu, F. (2015). Preventing child sexual abuse early: Preschool teachers' knowledge, attitudes, and their training education in China. *SAGE Open*, 5(1), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015571187>

Zhang, Y. (2018). Using Bronfenbrenner's ecological approach to understand academic advising with international community college students. *Journal of International Students*, 8(4), 1764-1782. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1468084>

Zollner, H., Fuchs, K., & Fegert, J. (2014). Prevention of sexual abuse: Improved information is crucial. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 8(1), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1753-2000-8-5>

Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Date:

Time:

Location of interview:

Participant #:

As you already know, the focus of this interview is to collect data for a qualitative case study designed to explore whether cultural norms influence the enforcement of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention policies from the perspective of law enforcement and child welfare workers. My purpose in talking with you today is to learn more about your experiences and beliefs on CSA prevention policies and whether cultural norms in Jamaica influence enforcing these policies. Your responses to the interview questions will be crucial, so your genuine responses to the questions is necessary to fully explore the research problem. This interview should last about 45 to 60 minutes and will involve me asking you 16 questions and follow-on questions as deemed necessary. The interview will be audio recorded, and I will also be taking notes throughout the interview so I may accurately document your responses.

At this time, I would like to remind you of your written consent to participate in this study. Every effort will be made to protect your identity and your responses will remain confidential. Your participation in this interview is completely voluntary. If at any time you need to stop, take a break, need clarification on a question, or return to a previous question, please let me know. You may also withdraw your participation at any time without consequence. You will receive a draft of the interview transcript for your

review and approval. I request that you review the transcript as quickly as possible and clarify any discrepancies. Do you have any questions or concerns before we begin? Then with your permission, we will begin the interview.

Appendix B: Interview Questionnaire

General interview questions

1. How long have (did) you reside in Jamaica?
2. What is your current profession?
3. How would you define cultural norms?
4. How would you define child sexual abuse?

Research interview questions:

5. What are your thoughts on the increasing cases of child sexual abuse committed against female adolescents in Jamaica?
6. As a **(participant)**, what experience do you have implementing child sexual abuse prevention policies?
7. What prevention policies and resources are available for child sexual abuse victims and their families?
8. From your perspective, what cultural norms influence the implementation of child sexual abuse prevention policies?
9. How do cultural norms influence the pervasiveness of child sexual abuse when the perpetrator is a relative?
10. What do you perceive to be the most significant cultural challenge as a **(participant)** in the implementation of child sexual abuse prevention policies?
11. How are child sexual abuse prevention policies perceived in your community?
12. What are your thoughts on patriarchal beliefs surrounding the sexual abuse of female adolescents?
13. Based on your experience, what cultural norms increase female adolescents' risk of becoming a victim of sexual abuse?
14. In your opinion, what cultural norms promote a culture of silence and prevent individuals from disclosing sexual abuse?

15. In your opinion, how are victims of child sexual abuse treated following the disclosure of sexual abuse?
16. Before concluding this interview, is there anything else you would like to share that you believe will better help me explore whether Jamaican cultural norms influence the enforcement of child sexual abuse prevention policies?

*** If participant wishes to discontinue study, ask if they would be willing to share why:

Thank you very much for your participation and I appreciate your support for this research. Do you have any questions and concerns before we conclude the interview? **(If yes, address the participant questions and concerns)**. If not, thank you again for participating in this important research. Should you have any follow-on questions or wish to obtain a copy of the research findings, please do not hesitate to contact me at valeta.wilson-james@waldenu.edu.