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A Descriptive study of Namibian Child Sex Offenders

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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Abstract

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

The sexual abuse of children is a worldwide traumatic event with potential for adverse long-term physical and psychological consequences. There has been a plethora of research in the Western societies that examined offenders of child sexual abuse. Due to a number of methodological limitations, the findings of these studies cannot be used to effectively explain African offenders of child sexual abuse. This study employed a quantitative non-experimental, descriptive research approach method to examine the demographic and criminological characteristics of adult men who sexually abused children in Namibia. The data were collected by reviewing 183 files of Namibian male offenders incarcerated for child sexual abuse. Binary logistic regression was used to measure the dependent variable, (number of victims sexually abused) against the independent variables (i.e., number of times sexually abuse, tertiary education attainment, being single and sexual activities) to predict single or multiple offending. The general strain theory provided the theoretical framework for the study. The results revealed that the independent variables were significant predictors of multiple sexual offending. Understanding factors that can predict multiple-victim offending not only assist to measure offending progression but also support the development of separate risk assessment instruments relevant for different types of offenders. This study can lead to positive social change by educating parents and schools about strategies used by opportunistic child sex offenders which could led to increased awareness and ultimately greater self-protection for children.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my sons, Temwa and Taveya. It is my greatest hope that this study serves as a reminder to you to embrace the gift of curiosity and dedicate your lives towards serving and improving mankind. I wish for you to reach your full potential and live the best life imaginable.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Child sexual abuse (CSA) is defined as the involvement of a child in sexual activity which the child is not developmental prepared for or comprehend to give informed consent (World Health Organization, 2006). In the Namibian context, CSA includes insertion of the penis of a person into the female genital, anus, or mouth of another person and genital stimulation (Hubbard, 2006). CSA is considered a global social concern with devastating ramifications (Drury et al., 2017). Africa is estimated to record the highest (34.4%) prevalence rate of CSA (Pereda et al., 2009). The dearth of research in Africa to address the matter exacerbates the situation. This is believed to have been caused by a range of equally critical competing social problems that are impacting children in Africa such as hunger, poverty and harmful traditional practices (i.e., child marriages and genital mutilation) (Lachman et al., 2002; Lalor, 2004).

Despite these challenges, there has been increasing effort to confront this growing scourge in Africa (Aborisade & Shontan, 2017; Ebuenyi et al., 2018; Mwangi et al., 2015; Tetteha & Markweib, 2018). Efforts directed towards understanding the perpetration of child sexual abuse have been hamstrung by methodological limitations. Studies have demonstrated variability among offenders of CSA in terms of characteristics such as age, education, ethnicity, relationship with victim, psychosocial and psychosexual background (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Henshaw et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2016). Difference among offenders of CSA was also reported in manner of execution of sexual offenses such as strategies used to select and groom children, motivation and level of sexual interest in children (Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017; Garofalo et al., 2018; Mwangi

et al., 2015; Ward et al., 2018). Irrespective of the heterogeneity of sex offenders child sexual abuse is a serious social problem that requires attention. Increased understanding of this forensic population will facilitate provision of effective treatment and greater protection of the children (Johnson et al., 2016).

In this chapter, I provided background information on child sex offenders. The problem statement showcased the need for the study. The purpose of the study is to provide an explanation of the objectives of the study. Following this, I presented the research questions, theoretical framework and nature of the study. The chapter concluded with the operational definitions of terms, assumptions, delimitations, limitations of the study, significance of the study, and the chapter summary.

Background

Epidemiological studies have attempted to determine the prevalence of CSA. The global prevalence rate of CSA is estimated to range from 8-31% for girls and 3-7% for boys (Barth et al., 2013). In Namibia, it is estimated that over one-third of rape victims are under the age of 18 years (Hubbard, 2006). Stories of sexual abuse against children are a regular feature in the Namibian media (Katjangua, 2018). There is a paucity of research in Namibia that focuses on understanding sexual offending. Additionally, previous studies show that a large portion of CSA offenders is male. For example, Hassan et al. (2015) reported that 97% of offenders in their study were male, thus suggesting the need to understand this group of sex offenders. While African research on CSA is noted to be at infant stage, there is growing investigation into the phenomenon (Ebuenyi et al., 2018; Tetteha & Markweib, 2018). In particular, researchers have looked at factors that

contribute to CSA in Africa (Ward et al., 2018; Kidman & Palemo, 2016 & Mwangi et al. 2015). Analyses of African studies on CSA have shown that African offenders of CSA display different demographic and criminal characteristic compared to those in the Western countries (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2016). These studies suggest that African offenders of CSA may present with different criminogenic factors.

Problem Statement

CSA contributes to the development of a range of psychological, behavioral, and physiological complaints and disorders (Sanjeevi, et al., 2018), thus highlighting the social importance of understanding the nature and scope of this problem. Global research on child sex offending is constrained by a number of limitations. How CSA is defined has considerable impact on the research outcome. For instance, scholars have found different prevalence rates based on how the term CSA was defined and subsequently operationalised (Karkoskova & Ropovik, 2019; Tanaka et al., 2017; Kloppena et al., 2016 & Stoltenborgh, 2011). For instance, the legal definition of child sexual abuse in Namibian is limited to contact sexual behavior. Conversely, in Botswana CSA include both contact and noncontact sexual behavior (Ramabu, 2021). In addition, although generally CSA is defined as sexual activities between adult and a person under the age of consent, there is no universal definition of age of consent. To illustrate, in Namibia age of consent is 16 years Hubbard (2006), while in the United States age of consent varies from 16 to 18 years depending on the laws of the particular state (Koon-Magnin & Ruback, 2013).

To further illustrate, how the definition of CSA impacts research outcome. Studies that have defined a victim of sexual abuse as younger than 18 years reported higher prevalence (i.e. Karkoskova & Ropovik, 2019) than those that use younger age demarcations (i.e. Pereda et al., 2016). Scholars also found that other factors such as research method used to collect data, gender, and culture do contribute to the difference in prevalence rates (Zalcberg, 2017; Ward et al., 2018). These methodologically limitations make generalization of data beyond the group being studied difficult. Furthermore, studies conducted on CSA are predominately Western (Cooper & Holgersen, 2016; Sawrikar & Katz, 2018). While these studies may still be useful in providing insightful information into the phenomenon, foreign generated knowledge cannot adequately explain human behavior in cultures where it has not been developed (Berry, 2016). Therefore, it is important to generate knowledge on the child sex offender population that appreciates the unique culture and historical background of the Namibian people and how this can influence child sex offenders. This underscores the importance of developing knowledge on offenders of CSA in Namibia.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to provide demographic and criminological characteristics of adult men who sexually abuse children in Namibia. The dependent variable, number of victims was measured against the independent variables chosen based upon empirical literature (i.e., age, victim gender, prior criminal history, ethnicity, educational, relationship status, age of the victims, location of the offense, place where incident took place, offender-victim relationship, access to the victim, and type of sexual

activities conducted) to predict factors that contributed to single or multiple offending. The study was quantitative non-experimental, descriptive in nature. The researcher used archival data collected from case management documentations such as the Criminal Profile Report and the Assessment of Offender Risk Factors and Inventory of Offender Needs and Reintegration Concerns, as well as official court and police documentations such as the warrant of committal and court rolls. The goal of the study was to determine descriptive data of adult men who have sexually offended against a child. To the knowledge of the researcher, there is no Namibian study that have examined the demographic and criminological characteristics of child sex offenders. Therefore, the study will contribute to the development of knowledge on CSA in Namibia.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study was designed to examine the descriptive profile of child sex offenders in Namibia. The research questions were:

RQ1: What are the general characteristics of male child sex offenders in Namibia?

RQ2: What are the criminological characteristics of the Child sex offenders in Namibia?

RQ3: What are the characteristics of victims of child sexual abuse in Namibia?

RQ4: What kind of relationship existed between the offender and the victim?

RQ5: Do offenders with single victims have different demographic and criminological characteristics compared to those with multiple victims?"

H_04_1: There is not a significance difference between offenders with single versus those with multiple victims.

H_14_1: There is a significance difference between offenders with single versus those with multiple victims.

Theoretical Framework

The concept that adverse experience in childhood can have long term harmful effects on the psychological and behavioral development is well accepted among scholars. The general strain theory (GST) postulates that offending occurs because the individual is challenged with a number of strains (Agnew, 2006). Due to the strains experienced, the individual loses the ability to obtain valued goals, such as economic success, status, or respect. These strains instigate negative emotions, such as disappointment, depression, anger, and frustration (Agnew, 1992). Consequently, this stimulates the urge to cope, and crime is a possible response. Crime is therefore viewed as intended to eliminate, seek revenge, escape from, or lessen the strain (Agnew, 2001). GST emphasise three likely coping strategies for responding to strain, namely: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral (Agnew, 1992). The GST recognises that not all strains experienced by an individual will lead to delinquency. It, therefore, describes strains that are perceived as severe, persistent, and unjust as having the highest propensity to stimulate criminal coping. In addition, the theory also recognises that certain personality traits such as low self-control, criminal attitude and exposure to an environment that endorses criminal behavior as key ingredients for criminal coping.

Other researchers have tested and proved the basic notion underlining the GST theory. For instance, studies found past victimization, anger, depression, poor parental supervision, and low self-control as mediators for delinquency (Hartinger-Saunders et al., 2019; Wemmersa et al., 2018). This theory has also been used to explain sex offending (Ackerman & Sacks, 2012). The relevance of the GST theory has been proved in collective societies, particularly the Asian society (Gao et al., 2016; Oh & Connolly, 2019; Solakoglu et al., 2018). The study by Adekoya (2017) provided support for the usefulness of GST in the African context. The GST is ideal for the study because it delineated how strains experienced in society contribute to delinquency. The theory highlights strains that are essential for human survival (e.g., such as need for food, shelter, safety, close ties to family, and status/respect). Since these needs are universal, the absence of any of them can cause significant strain to an individual in the society in which they live in.

Due to its historical experience characterised by war, economical and racial oppression, as well as the current problem of high employment, corruption, Namibian people are exposed to poverty, family disruption, prejudice, discrimination, fragile moral standards, and protective factors. These strains provide fertile grounds for the development of delinquent and criminal coping. The theory was ideal for the study because it explained how strains experienced by adult men may contribute to child sexual offending. Therefore, the theory was used to address the research questions and interpret the results. Chapter 2 provides a more detailed explanation of the theory.

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study was a quantitative non-experimental, descriptive.

In the study, archival data from official records were used to describe the demographic

(e.g., age at time of offending, location, relationship status etc.) and criminological

characteristics (e.g., prior convicted offences, sexual activities performed, age of victim

etc.) of adult men who sexually abused children and were incarcerated in the Namibian

Correctional Service   facilities. Quantitative methodology was suitable for the study

because it allowed for a theory to be tested by using empirical techniques by examining

the relationship between the variables (Burkholder et al., 2016). Furthermore, the

research topic is amenable to quantitative approach because it enables quantifiable data

on adult men who sexually abuse children to be collected for analyses statistically.

Descriptive statistics was utilized to analyze descriptive data such as age at time of

commission of the crime, age at time of arrest, location of the offense. While binary

logistic regression was performed to examine variables that predict single and multiple

offending.

Definitions

The following terms are essential to clarify in this research:

Child: The study adopts the Namibian legal definition of a child. According to the

Children's Status Act, 2006 (Act 6 of 2006), a child is a person who is under the legal age

of majority. The Child Care and Protection Act 3 of 2015 declares the majority age to be

18 years. Therefore, a child will be defined as a person under 18 years.

Child molester: is defined as a person who has had sexual contact with children. The term ''child molester'' reflects behaviors, specifications of which vary among jurisdictions (Feelgood & Hoyer, 2008).

Child sexual abuse (CSA): refers to unlawful sexual interaction with a child who does not understand, cannot consent or is developmental immature to engage in sexual activities (World Health Organization, 2006).

Child sex offender: describe an adult male who is incarcerated in the Namibian correction for child sexual related offences.

Gender of the offender or victim: in this study gender is referred to as male or female based on the biological sex assigned at birth.

Pedophilia: According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013), an individual is said to suffer from a pedophilic disorder when that individual experiences recurrent, intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviors involving sexual activity with prepubescent child or children, generally 13 years old or younger for a period of at least 6 months.

Sexual behaviors: Non-consensual sexual activities such as vaginal and anus penetration, fondling of genitals, exposing children to pornography (Putnam, 2003).

Victim: Is defined in this study as a child who has been sexually abused
 (Ebuenyi et al., 2018).

Assumptions

I identified several assumptions. The first assumption was that the information obtained is accurate. This assumption needed to be considered because the study used

archival data obtained from case management, police and court document contained in offenders' case management files.. The second assumption was that the data collected exist in the documentation identified to be reviewed. In the Namibian Correctional Service, case management documents were used to capture offenders' personal data and information relating to their crime and criminogenic factors. I am familiar with the documentations that were reviewed and thus was certain that they contained the data required for the study. The third assumption was that the identified variables will address the research questions. The variables identified were study selected by reviewing previous studies on male child sex offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017; Falkenbach et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2016; Martschuka et al., 2018). The fourth assumption was that the descriptive data provided useful information about offenders.

<div align="center">**Scope and Delimitation**</div>

The scope of the study included adult men incarcerated for sexual offending against a minor under the age of 18 years of age. Without devaluing the importance of understanding other types of sex offenders, child sex offenders were selected due to the seriousness and urgency of the problem in Namibia. The majority of sexual offences committed in Namibia are against children under of 18 years (Hubbard, 2006). In addition, there is lack of research in Namibia that aimed to understand male child sex offenders. The GST was selected for the study on the basis that it provided explanation on how strains experienced by individuals can lead to offending. Delimitations is crucial for maintaining control of the study. The study involves using a population which is

classified as vulnerable or protected. This classification calls for special precaution to safeguard the research participants' rights, welfare and dignity, in accordance with the Ethical Principles of Psychologists (American Psychological Association, 2010). The researcher sought and obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the study (02-13-23-0609328). The purpose of seeking approval was to ensure that the study met the ethical guidance required for conducting an ethical study. Information on child sex offenders was drawn from the offenders' case management files, court and police records, thus informed consent was obtained from the Commissioner-General and not the offenders themselves (see Appendix A).

Limitations

The purpose of the study was to draw a descriptive profile of adult male child sex offenders in Namibia. This study was limited to Namibian child sex offenders; therefore, results may not be similar to other male adult child sex offenders in other geographic locations due to different experiences such as factors leading to offending. Other limitations and challenges included access to the files, ensuring the confidentiality of a protected population and time constrain due to coding. To address concerns related to confidentiality, numbers were assigned to the cases instead of using the offenders' names during coding. Finally, research bias in the interpretation of results may impact conclusions drawn from the findings of the study. This limitation was addressed because the study was supervised by an objective party. In addition, the researcher used previous literature on child sex offenders to guide the interpretation of the study.

Significance

The only comprehensive study that was ever conducted in Namibia on sexual abuse was done in 2005 by Hubbard (2006). Aside from the fact that the study has been conducted many years ago, it did not have a particular focus on CSA. Therefore, a paucity of empirical information on child sex offenders still exists in Namibia. Findings derived from the study yield several benefits to society. To begin with, the study is unique because it addresses an under-researched population by focusing on Namibian adult male who commit sexual offences against children. This provided data on the kind of adult males that are likely to commit sexual offences against children. In addition, the findings of the study considered the differences and similarities between Namibian child sex offenders and those from other parts of the world. Furthermore, the results of this study contributed to the field of forensic psychology, particular police psychology. The descriptive data on male child sex offenders could assist law enforcement officers to identify demographic variables of an unknown male child sex offender when conducting investigations on CSA cases (Bartol & Bartol, 2012). The findings of the study will build a body of knowledge that will be applied to design evidence-based treatment programs for CSA. Moreover, the findings of the study will be used for preventative effort. For instance, to inform society especially parents to identify individuals who are at high risk of sexually exploiting children and identify situations in which children may be most vulnerable. Finally, the results will inform scholars of areas that may require further investigation. Therefore, the study will provide information that open doors for future research inquiries.

Summary

The study was quantitative non-experimental descriptive in nature. While this research design is associated with a number of limitations, it was the most appropriate method that could have addressed the research questions. This study provided valuable information on CSA that could be used for investigative, corrective, and preventative efforts. The GST theory provided the theoretical underpinning of the study. This theory explained how strains contribute to offending in general. The GST provides the basis for interpreting the research findings. Chapter 2 provided a comprehensive explanation of the GST theory. It also provided a thorough background of the literature, including a review on the prevalence of child sexual abuse. The main topics that were discussed included methodological limitations faced when studying child sexual offending, characteristics of child sex offenders, the relationship between pedophile, child molesters and child sexual abuse, and research on pedophile and child sexual abuse.

Chapter 2: Review Literature

CSA is widely considered to be a serious public health dilemma that has

devastating effects on the psychological well-being and development of children that can

persist into adulthood (Graya & Rarick, 2018). CSA is defined by the World Health

Organization, (2006) as the 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, or else that violates the laws or social taboos of society. CSA

has been associated with a range of detrimental consequences including, increased risk of

depression, self-harming behaviors, substance abuse, unhealthy sexual behavior, suicidal

tendencies (Almuneef, 2019), post-traumatic stress disorder, substance use disorders,

attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (Greene et al., 2016; Pe´rez-Fuentes et al., 2013).

It is also allied with impaired social functioning ensuing from deleterious attachments

(Collin-Vézina et al., 2013), physical health problems (Ortiz et al., 2016) and high risk of

sexually transmitted infection (Brennan et al., 2007).

Globally, the prevalence of CSA is estimated to range from of 8-31% for females

and 3-17% for males (Barth et al., 2013; Stoltenberg, 2011). The rapid pace in the growth

of CSA incidence rates has led to increased interest in understanding child sexual abuse,

pedophilia, and other forms of child sex-related crimes (Aborisade & Shontan, 2017). In

Namibia, there has been increased concern and public awareness about child sexual

abuse, as the mass media is saturated with reports on child sexual abuse (Amakali, 2019).

Nevertheless, despite the apparent increasing cases of sexual assault on children in the

country, very little is known about the offenders, usually men, that sexually offend

against children. Understanding CSA has significant implications on investigation, assessment, and development of effective rehabilitation programs.

In the light of the above, the present study aimed to draw a descriptive and criminological profile of child sex offenders in Namibia, including understanding their demographic characteristics, offence, and relationship with victim, as well as the characteristics of the victims. In this chapter, the researcher highlighted the current literature that exists on child sexual abuse and the limitations, specifically explaining African male, child sexual offending behavior. The chapter begins by providing an overview of the literature search strategies and the conceptual framework that guided the study. GST by Robert Agnew (1992) provided the theoretical basis for the study. GST represents one of the leading theories in criminology over the past decade (Hartinger-Saunders et al., 2019). This theory was discussed in detail, including studies that supported its main tenets. The chapter proceeded to provide the prevalence of child sexual abuse and draw attention to methodological issues affecting prevalence rate. Next, the chapter provided a thorough presentation of the characteristics of child sex offenders and how they are related to pedophilia. Finally, the researcher summarized and concluded the chapter by highlighting ways in which the study could contribute to the current gaps in the literature.

Literature Search Strategy

The process of conducting the literature review involved the search of multiple online sources and search engines accessible through the Walden University Library. Databases were retrieved by tracing resources relating to the field of psychology. The

search engines utilised included the following databases: EBSCO, Google Scholar, SAGE Journals, PsycARTICLES, PsycBOOKS, PsycINFO, SocINDEX and Thoreau multidatabase to search for published articles and journals that were relevant to the research topic. To conduct initial searches, the following key terms were used in Thoreau multidatabase: *child sexual abuse, child sex offenders,* and *prevalence*. This led to the identification of germane published articles and journals using Google Scholar and key terms: *international epidemiology, systematic review, meta-analysis, Africa* and *sub-Saharan*. Subsequently, the key terms *cultural/ethnic, pedophilia, child molester, childhood victimization, risk factors, characteristic, delinquency* and *general strain theory* were used to allocate published articles and journals. The term *pedophile* and *child molester* were used interchangeably with the child sex offender to expand the search findings. The search was mainly restricted to publications since the year 2016, unless there was limited information.

Theoretical Framework

GST was developed by Robert Agnew in 1992 as a response to shortcomings identified in the classical strain theory (Piquero & Sealock, 2000). Classical strain theory was developed in 1938 by Robert K. Merton (Murphy & Robinson, 2008). The theory posits that crime and delinquency are caused by economic deprivation. Based on the classic theory, individuals engage in crime due to the lack the economical means to attain their goals (Murphy & Robinson, 2008). In the 1980s, Agnew began to question the basic tenets of the classical strain theory (Piquero & Sealock, 2000). He argued that there are broader and more general sources of strain, other than economic strain (Piquero &

Sealock, 2000; Yıldız & Solakoglu, 2019). Agnew defined strains as events and

circumstances in which individuals are ostracised (Agnew, 2002). GST recognises that

not all strain will result in delinquency. Agnew (2002) highlighted strains that are

perceived as severe and unjust as more likely to stimulate criminal coping as

"criminogenic" strains.

Agnew expanded on the version of strain theory and developed GST (Agnew,

1992). GST postulates that crime and delinquency occur due to the presence of negative

affect (Agnew, 1992). Agnew characterised negative affect as fear, disappointment,

depression, anger, and frustration resulting from multiple domains such as environmental,

behavioral, and negative life events (Agnew, 1992). According to Agnew (1992), the

negative affect stimulates the need to cope, and crime or delinquency occurs as a

corrective measure when the individual lacks or has weak pro-social mechanisms, which

is a behavior intent to encourage positive outcome and benefit others (Kidron &

Fleischman, 2006). Based on the GST, crime or delinquency occurs as a means to remove

or escape from, seek revenge, or lessen strain (Agnew, 2001).

GST hinges on three types of strains (Agnew, 1992). The first strain results from

an inability to achieve positively valued stimuli, such as employment, status, or respect

(Agnew, 1992). The disconnection between aspirations and expectations is thought to

cause negative affect and thus puts the individual at risk of delinquency (Piquero &

Sealock, 2000). The second strain occurs due to the loss or removal of positive stimuli,

such as divorce, retrenchment, or death (Agnew, 1992). This type of strain is anticipated

to lead to delinquency when an individual attempts to inhibit, seek to avenge, or cannot

manage the loss (Piquero & Sealock, 2000). Finally, the third strain takes the form of the existence of negative stimuli such as physical or sexual abuse, neglect, or poverty (Agnew, 2001). Delinquency resulting from this strain may be due to the individual's attempt to avoid the negative stimulus or to seek revenge against the source of the stimulus (Piquero & Sealock, 2000). Agnew considers victimization to be an important predictor for delinquency. Past studies have demonstrated the link between history of being victimised and criminal offending (Drury et al., 2017; Hartinger-Saunders et al., 2019; Wemmersa et al. 2018).

Agnew (1992) recognised that negative emotions resulting from strains can manifest in both conventional and non-conventional behaviors; the former refers to normal or socially accepted behavior and the latter refers to abnormal or atypical behavior. Agnew highlighted three coping strategies for responding to strains: cognitive, emotional and behavioral. Cognitive coping strategies involve the individual devaluing the strain, minimizing the negative outcomes, or accepting responsibility for the strain (Craig et al., 2017). For example, studies found that self-blame is a likely response for women who experienced childhood sexual abuse (Silver et al., 2022; Tsong & Ullman, 2018). Emotional coping strategies include maladaptive activities such as substance use and inappropriate sexual behavior (Iratzoqui, 2018; Piquero & Sealock, 2000). Oraka and Solakoglub (2017) examined alcohol consumption among Turkish adolescents through the lens of general strain theory. Results of ordinal logistic regression analysis revealed that adolescents responded to strain emerging from school, economics, and peers, by consuming alcohol (Oraka & Solakoglub, 2017). In this study alcohol was used to

alleviate negative emotions (Agnew, 2015). Behavioral coping strategies can be expressed by dismissing or escaping from the strain; offending exemplifies behavior that falls in this category (Piquero & Sealock, 2000). For example, an adult man may engage in sexual activity with a minor as a way of dealing with stress or anxiety emerging from a discorded relationship with an adult female partner. Offending is often an aftermath of accumulative and persist strains (Agnew, 2001). For example, adverse childhood experiences such as physical, emotional, or sexual abuse were found to contribute significantly to offending pathways of serious criminal violence including sexual aggression (Drury et al., 2017). Recently Agnew (2013) has made some amendments to his original proposals in relation to criminal coping. He argued that despite having a predisposition for offending, not all individuals will resort to crime. Agnew identified three factors that are required for criminal coping. Firstly, the individual must be criminally inclined (Agnew, 2013), this implies biological predisposition to criminality. Agnew (2001) contends that an individual who is criminally inclined may display personality traits such as low self-control and may endorse beliefs that are favourable to crime. Secondly, the individual must experience strain that inherently stimulates crime as a way to cope such as abuse (Agnew, 2013). Thirdly, the context in which the individual is experiencing the strain must be appropriate for criminal coping (Agnew, 2013); for instance, an individual who experiences strain in an environment where violence is normalised such as gang affiliation or criminal family is more likely to gravitate towards offending. According to GST, these factors must co-exist for offending to occur (Agnew, 2013).

Previous Research on GST

Studies testing GST have proved its basic tenets. For example, a study conducted in the United States by Hartinger-Saunders et al., (2019) examined GST empirically by using longitudinal data collected from the Buffalo Longitudinal Study of Young Men. The survey measured the trajectory of individuals, family and neighbourhood factors associated with victimization and offending. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis revealed that direct victimization was associated with guilt through a mediated relationship involving past offending. The researchers also found a significant but negative indirect connection between past victimization and guilt through offending. The findings suggest that victimized youth may initially engage in criminal behavior due to anger associated with the experience of being victimized and thus helps them to feel less guilty about their delinquent behavior. In addition, the researchers found neighbourhood strain and parental monitoring as a significant predictor of delinquency. The findings support the proposition made by GST by highlighting strain such as victimization, poor parental supervision, low self-control, and feeling of guilt as mediators for delinquency.

Wemmersa et al., (2018) examined re-victimization, particularly poly-victimization and its relations with offending. In addition, the researchers examined negative emotions, such as anger, depression, and posttraumatic stress, resulting from victimization. By utilizing a sample of 1,400 youths 12–17 years old in Canada, Wemmersa et al found that anger, depression, and posttraumatic stress played a significant role in the mediating relationship between victimization and delinquency. The

research provided evidence for the GST as it showed how anger facilitated the relationship between victimization and delinquency among adolescents.

GST singled-out child abuse as a severe form of strain expected to lead to delinquency (Agnew, 2013). GST has been utilized to explain various forms of criminal behavior. Nevertheless, few studies have applied GST to explain sexual offending. Ackerman and Sacks (2012) used a sample of 3, 506 registered sex offenders to examine whether the GST can explain sexual and non-sexual recidivism. Ordinary Least Square was applied to predict recidivism for sex, violent, drug, property offences, as well as overall recidivism. The theory was found relevant in testing recidivism for the different crimes. However, the results showed that registration and community notification laws (RCNLs) may be ineffective in reducing re-offending relating to sexual offending. The results bring to question the effectiveness of registration and community notification laws in reducing sexual re-offending. GST has been tested in a non-Western culture, and it is extensively applied to the Asian societies (e.g., Gao et al., 2016; Oh & Connolly, 2019; Solakoglu et al., 2018). Agnew (2011) noted that GST may be applied to other societies because most of the strains highlighted are universal as they relate to basic human needs, such as needs for food/shelter, security, close ties to family, and status/respect.

Prior studies that used the GST were predominately Western. Unique cultural context may impact how GST is applied to other cultures. Collectivistic oriented cultures place greater value on social harmony and obedience to parents (Lin, 2011; Lin & Mieczkowski, 2011). The values emphasised in a particular society influence events and circumstances to be characterised as major strains. For example, maltreatment may be

culturally defined as it depends on the particular culture's tolerance and value for harsh disciplinary practices (Gao et al., 2016). Cultures that value harsh disciplinary measures such as strict parental discipline are less likely to view maltreatment by a parent as a major strain. This was substantiated by studies conducted in collective cultures, such as Asia, which concluded that harsh and very strict parental discipline was weakly correlated to delinquency (Bao et al. 2014; Lin & Mieczkowski, 2011). Additionally, some cultures may encounter strains as favourable to delinquent and criminal coping due to their unique historical experience (i.e. Namibian, South African societies and black American) (Agnew, 2006). Such cultures are more likely to be exposed to poverty, family disruption, prejudice, and discrimination.

GST has also been applied in an African context to explain the connection between socioeconomic strain and offending. In testing the key proposition of the GST, Adekoya (2017) attempted to investigate how socioeconomic strain influenced the development of crime, and its impact on economic growth in Nigeria. The researcher analysed data from 1970 to 2013 using an autoregressive distributed lag. The results showed that socioeconomic strain contributed to criminal behavior which ultimately negatively impacted economic growth. Such findings suggest a need to study and control socioeconomic strains that impact offending. The study also provided support for the usefulness of GST in African context.

Namibian, like many African societies, has endured violence through exposure to war which was based on economical and racial oppression. The Namibian society suffered oppression initially by the German colonialism (1884-1915) and subsequently by

the imposition of the Apartheid during reign of South Africa (1919-1990). The exposure

to war and conflict is speculated to have contributed to perceived emasculation resulting

in the development of crimes such as intimate, sexual related crimes, intimate partner

abuse and homicide. In addition, war caused destruction in the structure of the society

leading to the breakdown of the existing protective factors such having strong family ties,

and value for traditional moral standards. This psychological vulnerability is speculated

to have made criminal coping a likely response for some men. Today, many Namibians

are faced with a number of strains such as unemployment, and poverty which often

manifest through alcoholism and depression. Therefore, GST is deemed as a suitable

theory for the study as it attempts to explain how exposure to strains may lead to

offending.

Prevalence of Child Sexual Abuse

The earliest study of child sexual abuse appeared in France in the late 1880s by

Ambroise Tardieu, a French physician who called attention to the plight of children who

were sexually abused (Colton, 2012). Following his demise, Tardieu's work was attacked

by scepticism and it was claimed that his reports were a reflection of the children's

fantasies (Colton, 2012). It took almost hundred years (1978 and 1984) for the public

awareness on CSA to resurface strongly through the publication of five books that

documented the prevalence of CSA (Colton, 2012). This signifies human beings'

reluctance to address pertinent issues that challenges their morals. Nevertheless, the

landmark documents led to an explosion in the discussion on CSA as illustrated in the

media, and in formal research publications (Colton, 2012). Interest in the matter also

increased among professionals, particularly those in the medical, mental health, social service, and legal fields (Colton, 2012). Today, CSA is receiving attention greater than at any other point in history. Over-time Western research on CSA has progressed from descriptive to investigating more complex aspects of the phenomenon. For example, studying methods of selecting and "grooming" the vulnerable children, use of artificial intelligence to detect CSA, and risk and protective factors associated with child sex offending (Kissos et al., 2021; Martschuka et al., 2018 & Scoglio et al., 2021). In Africa, however, research on CSA is still in its infancy and there is a paucity of descriptive data from most African countries (Badoe, 2017). The earliest study on the matter was recorded in 1984 by Westcott et al. (1984) who studied 18 cases of child sexual abuse at a hospital in Cape Town, South Africa. CSA is now recognized as a serious social problem in Africa, and there is growing interest to understand this phenomenon (Ebuenyi et al., 2018; Kidman & Palemo, 2016; Tetteha & Markweib, 2018).

Epidemiological studies indicate that CSA is pervasive and a world-wide phenomenon. Meta-analysis on CSA which included 65 articles from 22 countries revealed that about 19.7% of females and 7.9% of males experienced sexual abuse before age 18 (Pereda et al., 2009b). This prevalence was comparable to prevalence rate reported by Stoltenborgh (2011), which combined prevalence figures of CSA reported in 37 publications published between 1980 and 2008 and was drawn from 22 countries. Results of this meta-analysis study revealed a global prevalence rate of 18.0% for females and 7.6% for males. In a more recent study, Barth et al., (2013) examined the international prevalence of CSA while considering the geographical region, type of abuse, level of

country development and research methods used in the study. The researchers conducted a systematic review on prevalence estimates of CSA that includes studies that have used participants that were sexually abused as far back as 50 years. Barth et al., (2013) retrieved data from 55 studies published between 2002 and 2009 that reported CSA in children below 18 years of age. The results of random effects meta-analysis and meta-regression revealed that prevalence estimates ranged from 8 to 31 % for females and 3 to 17 % for males (Barth et al., 2013).

Studies revealed that Africa has the highest prevalence rate of CSA (Pereda et al., 2009b; Stoltenborgh et al., 2011). A prevalence rate of 34.4% was reported for Africa while the lowest rate (9.2%) of CSA was for Europe (Pereda et al., 2009b; Stoltenborgh et al., 2011). Alarmingly, CSA has only recently been recognised as a social problem in many African countries (Badoe, 2017). The lack of empirical data to support CSA in Africa is attributed to a range of competing social problems affecting children including diseases, poverty, hunger, large number of orphaned children, corruption, and poorly developed child protective systems (Lachman et al., 2002; Lalor, 2004). In addition, substantial effort in Africa is directed to ensure the protection of children from harmful traditional practices, particularly child marriages and female genital mutilation that violates their human rights (Sibandaj, 2022). Despite this, there is increasing effort to understand CSA in Africa.

A cross-sectional survey study was conducted in Kenya by Mwangi et al., (2015) examining sexual violence before age 18. The study was conducted among 2683 respondents in two groups: minors aged 13–17 and adults aged 18–24 years who

retrospectively reported their sexual abuse; each group had approximately equal numbers

of male and females. The researchers found females reported having experienced some

form of sexual abuse before age 18 more frequently than men (31.9% in adult females

compared to 17.5% of adult males). Specifically, they noted that the most common type

of sexual abuse reported was unwanted sexual touching (UST) followed by unwanted

attempted sex (UAS), physically forced sex, and pressured sex.

Mwangi et al. (2015) also examined characteristics of the offenders based upon

the child sexual abuse committed and found that most offenders were known to the

victims, and not strangers. However, the exact nature of the relationship between the

offender and the victim varies considerably when gender and age are considered. For

females in the minor's group (13-17 years), the offenders of UST were most likely be a

friend or classmate (27%), while for males in the minor group (13-17), the offender of

UST were most likely to be intimate partners (35.9%). With regard to UAS, the most

common offender for female victims were a relative (28.9%), whereas for male victims ,

the offenders were most likely to be a friend or classmates (31.0%). The variance in the

type of relationship was found to be less pronounced in the adult group (18-24). This

shows that the most common offender of UST, UAS, and pressured/forced for both

females and males was an intimate partner. It was discovered that in both groups, the

offender was more likely to be older than the victim and that the sexual assault most

likely to have been committed in the afternoon or evening. In terms of location where the

sexual assaults were committed, the research found that, sexual assault is likely to occur

to victims traveling on foot, at school, or home. Of importance is the unique issue related

to CSA in Kenya. As walking is the main mode of movement in Kenya for getting to school by children. This finding is key to understanding the high rate of CSA occurring while traveling on foot. Studies in the Western countries suggest that the majority of child sex offenders gain accessibility to their victims mainly through employment positions such as teachers, bus drivers for children, coaches, professional child caretakers etc. (Falkenbach et al., 2019).

Additionally, Western studies show that the internet is increasingly being used as a platform to access and entice victims for CSA (Henshaw et al., 2018). The findings by Mwangi et al., (2015) are significant, as traveling on foot to school is less common in Western countries, such as the United States, which highlights the importance of regional research on CSA. Conversely, in Africa it may be difficult to access victims through the internet, as fewer children have access to the internet in comparison to the children in Western countries. This shows that some unique differences exist between offenders of CSA in the Western countries compared to those in Africa. It is, however, noteworthy that access to the internet is also gathering momentum in Africa and the use of the internet as a tool to facilitate CSA is not a far-off possibility.

There are very few studies that examined child sexual abuse in sub-Saharan Africa. For instance, Kidman and Palemo (2016) used nationally representative data on female adolescents aged 15 to 17 years from 13 countries. The researchers found that about 10% of adolescent females have experienced some form of sexual abuse during their lifetime. Multilevel logistic models were applied to test whether a relationship existed between orphan-hood and parental absence and sexual violence. Results of this

analysis indicated that paternal orphaning (OR 1.36) was significantly associated with experience of sexual abuse. The results also showed a statistically significant relationship between sexual abuse and double orphaning (OR 1.47). Regression analysis failed to reveal a significant relationship between maternal absence and sexual abuse (Kidman & Palemo, 2016). Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed that paternal absence due to death or father not living with in the same home as the child increases risk for childhood sexual abuse among girls. The study also found that orphan-hood was a significant predictor of CSA in Africa. While some of the factors outlined in the study such as parental absence has also been identified as significant predictor of CSA in Western studies; orphanage as a predictor of CSA may be unique to African society. This finding suggests that the absence of a father in the home is a significant predictor for CSA. The rate of orphan-hood was found to range by as much as 15-44% across different countries with higher rates of orphan-hood being recorded in countries with higher rates of HIV/AIDS infections such as Zimbabwe (Kidman & Palemo, 2016). The relationship between orphan-hood and child sexual violence in Africa may be mediated by the high rates of HIV/AIDS on the continent. The role that HIV/AIDS plays as a pathway to vulnerability to CSA may be a phenomenon which is particularly unique to Africa but less pronounced in other parts of the world.

Generally, large scale studies on the sexual abuse in sub-Saharan Africa have been confined to the Republic of South Africa due technical skills and financial constraints experienced in other sub-Saharan countries. Collecting nationally representative data, the Optimus Study, a cross-sectional study in which nationally

represented data was collected and used to assess the extent and impact of child sexual abuse in South Africa. The sample comprised of 9 717 adolescents (ages 15 - 17 years) recruited from various South African schools (Ward et al., 2018). Based upon the data collected, the researchers estimated the lifetime prevalence of both contact and non-contact CSA based on self-report to be 36.8% for males and 33.9% for females, respectively. This result revealed that at least one in every three adolescents (35.4%) reported experiencing some form of sexual abuse at some point in their lives (Ward et al., 2018). Further, the researchers found that the risk of CSA was the same for both genders (Ward et al., 2018). However, a distinction was found between boys' and girls' experiences of sexual abuse. Specifically, the researchers found that girls were more likely to experience contact abuse, such as forced and penetrative sexual abuse, while boys were more likely to experience non-contact abuse, such as forced exposure to sexual acts or material (Ward et al., 2018).

Ward et al. (2018) examined the number of times participants experienced certain acts of sexual abuse during the course of their lifetime and found about 40% of participants were sexually abused more than once in their lifetime. This finding indicates that child sexual abuse is often persistent over the course of children's life. Moreover, the researchers found that residing in a rural area, not having a flush toilet, being disabled, parental substance misuse, poor relationships with parents, and poor parental supervision as some of the factors that put children at greater risk of CSA (Ward et al., 2018). This study is particularly relevant in the sense that it identifies risk factors for CSA that may be uniquely related to Africa. For instance, most homes in the USA and Europe have

indoor plumbing, thus this risk factor is distinctive to South Africa and many other African countries. This demonstrates the unique cultural and developmental factors which underscore the importance of this research.

In spite of recognition of CSA as a big concern in Namibia, it is alarming that very few studies have been conducted in this area. The only comprehensive study that was ever conducted in Namibia on sexual abuse was done in 2005 by Hubbard (2006). The researcher examined 409 national police statistics on rapes and attempted rapes cases committed during the period of 2001-2005. The data included both children and adults. The researcher recorded an overall estimated rape prevalence of 48 per 100 000 (Hubbard, 2006). Another salient factor of this research is that an increase in rape cases between the period of 2003 and 2005 was noted. During this period about 1100-1200 cases of rape and attempted rape were reported per year, which translates to a rate of 60 cases per 100 000. Furthermore, males recorded about eight per 100 000 victims of rapes and attempted rapes, whereas female recorded about 110 per 100 000 victims of rapes and attempted rapes (Hubbard, 2006). This is indicative of the gendered nature of rape. This finding is in line with other studies (i.e., Barth et al., 2013; Mwangi et al., 2015). Finally, it was estimated that over one-third of victims of rape were under age 18 (Hubbard, 2006). The researcher reported that prevalence rates of CSA found in Namibia were significantly higher compared to Western countries such as the USA and Canada (Hubbard, 2006).

There is much debate concerning evidence for the purported increase in the incidences of child sexual abuse (Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). Some authors argued that

the increase in the recorded rates of CSA is a reflection of greater willingness to report

allegations of child sexual abuse than actual increases in incidence rates (Hubbard, 2006;

Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). Retrospective studies on CSA demonstrate that

incidences of CSA may be under-reported (Ebuenyi et al. 2018; Mwangi et al., 2015).

There is therefore a consensus that incidences of CSA are underestimated because only a

fraction of the cases are reported to the police or relevant authorities (Ebuenyi et al.,

2018). This is because CSA is often approached with secrecy and shame due to social

stigma (Ebuenyi et al., 2018) and other forms of secondary victimisation that the victims

may be exposed to (Aborisade & Vaughan, 2014). Prevalence rates on CSA vary

considerably due to differences in methodology, which hinders comparison of results.

Methodological Issues

Globally, the body of literature on men who sexually offend against children is

plagued with a number of methodological difficulties. One issue is the lack of uniform

definition and subsequent operationalization of the term CSA. For instance, the law in

Namibia, defines statutory rape laws as sexual activities with a minor under the age of 16

years with an adult who is at least three years older (Hubbard, 2006). The Namibian legal

definition of rape does not consider non-contact sexual acts such as exposing or flashing,

showing pornography, or making a child touch himself or herself or the offender.

Conversely, in Botswana CSA is considered as sexual activity, both contact and

noncontact acts, with a person under the age of 18 years (Ramabu, 2021). In the United

States, CSA may occur when an older person engages in sexual activity with a minor who

is under the age of consent (Budd & Bierie, 2018). The age of consent in the United

States varies from 16 to 18 depending on the laws of the particular state (Koon-Magnin & Ruback, 2013). While in Canada CSA is considered a sexual activity between a person under the age of 16 and an individual more than 5 years older (Vaillancourt-Morel et al., 2016).

How the concept of CSA is operationalized has significant implications for its users. Researchers that define a victim of sexual abuse as younger than 18 reported higher prevalence than those that use younger age demarcation. As a case in point, Karkoskova and Ropovik (2019) conducted a study that assessed the prevalence and characteristics of child sexual abuse. The researchers utilized the Child Sexual Abuse Questionnaire on a sample of 2186 Slovak adolescents. The sample reported a mean age of 18.6 years. The findings of the study report a prevalence of non-contact form of CSA of 40.6% and 17.7% for girls and boys, respectively (Karkoskova & Ropovik, 2019). On the other hand, Pereda et al., (2016) applied the Victimization Questionnaire to a sample of 1,105 community adolescents in Spain. The sample presented a mean age of 14.52 years. Analysis of the results revealed that about 8.8% of the sample experience some form of CSA before age 13 years. The results also revealed that child sexual victimization was more prevalent among girls (14.2%) and in older adolescents (10.6%). The research by Karkoskova and Ropovik, (2019) and Pereda et al., (2016) provided evidence that different operationalization of CSA can lead to the difference in prevalence rates.

Researchers have also noted variations in terms of prevalence rates based on the categorization of sexually abusive behavior (Finkelhor et al., 2013). Generally, studies

that adopt more inclusive definitions that include a range of both physical and non-physical sexual contact tend to report higher prevalence rates (Stoltenborgh, 2011). On the other hand, research studies that use narrower definition of CSA produced lower prevalence rates (Tanaka et al., 2017).

Using a systematic review approach, Kloppena et al. (2016) examined the prevalence rate of CSA in the Nordic countries reported in 26 peer-reviewed journals published between 1990 and 2014. They examined three categories of CSA: penetrating abuse, contact abuse, and abuse including noncontact. The results showed distinct prevalence rates for all categories of abuse. Studies that defined CSA more broadly, showed a prevalence rate ranging between 3–23% for boys and 11–36% for girls. The prevalence rates for contact abuse were 1–12% for boys and 6–30% for girls. Penetrating abuse produced prevalence rates of between 0.3–6.8% forboys and 1.1–13.5% for girls. These findings demonstrate that sexual behaviors constituted as illegal under the definitions of CSA also impact prevalence rates.

Methodological differences, particularly methods used to collect data is another reason for the differences in prevalence results across studies. Interviews and questionnaires are the most preferred methods of data collection on the experience of sexual abuse among researchers (Barth et al 2013; Mwangi et al., 2015 & Pereda et al., 2009a). Some researchers noted higher prevalence rates when questionnaires are utilized, as seen in Ward et al., (2018). Ward et al., (2018) utilized both interview and questionnaire methods to capture the experience of child sexual abuse among a sample of 9 717 adolescents between the ages of 15 and 17 years. The results revealed that

participants who participated in the interviews yielded a lower prevalence rate (16.8%)

than those who completed the questionnaire (35.4%). Conversely, some studies produced

results that contradict this finding. For instance, Pereda et al., (2009b) reported a higher

prevalence rate of CSA using face to-face interviews than using questionnaires. The

impact of the different methods of collecting data on prevalence rate remains unclear.

Nonetheless, method variations is considered another possible factor contributing to the

inconsistent results in this field.

Gender is also thought to influence prevalence estimates of CSA. Studies have

consistently found a higher prevalence rate of CSA among girls than boys (Pereda, et al.,

2016; Tanaka et al., 2017). The disparity in gender may be better explained by

underreporting of cases by male CSA due to social stigma (Graya & Rarick, 2018). In

addition, Graya and Rarick (2018) argued that research questions pertaining to CSA may

not be tailored to adequately capture the experiences of boys. Only a few studies have

attempted to address this gap in the CSA research. An example includes a study by

Zalcberg (2017) that examined the reporting patterns of Israeli Haredi males who were

sexually abused and perceived themselves as a victim. Snowball sampling culminated

into the selection of 40 Heredi men ranging in age from 18 to 44 years old. The

researchers used in-depth interviews to collect data. Results of the study indicated that the

majority of the participants (65%) did not disclose the sexual experience prior to the

interview. Some of participants reported that they did not report the incidents because

they did not regard their experience at the time as sexual abuse. As for the participants

that comprehended the sexual interaction as abuse, the majority of them chose not to

disclose the incident to anyone. Only a small number of participants revealed that they disclosed the sexual abuse immediately to their parents or an adult (i.e. religious or educational figures, teachers, or friends). The majority of the participants that disclosed the incident, only did so years after the abuse had occurred (Zalcberg, 2017). The researchers cited rigid attitudes towards sexuality and stereotypes about sexual abuse as some of the factors that contributed to delayed disclosure of the incidents.

In another qualitative study, Gagniera and Collin-Vézinab (2016) explored the experiences of male CSA survivors when disclosing their abuse. The sample size of 17 adult men was drawn from the original sample size of 68 participants who formed part of a larger Canadian study on CSA disclosure conducted between May 2011 and July 2012. The men ranged in age from 19 to 67, with the mean age of 47. Secondary data was analysed by means of two qualitative methodologies, the phenomenological method and interpretive description approach. The result of these analyses revealed that the majority of the men in the study reported sexual abuse that occurred in childhood only in adulthood. Gagniera and Collin-Vézinab (2016) cited orthodox beliefs associated with male homophobia and fear of being labelled as future child abusers as some of the factors that propagated delay in the disclosure of sexual abuse. The researchers also noted some positive disclosure experiences included feeling listened to, safe and believed. Overall, the researcher noted both positive and negative responses ensuing from disclosing of experience of CSA.

Differences in culture is also noted to contribute to the disparity in CSA prevalence rates. In collective cultures such as in many countries in Africa, family ties

tend to takes priority over the well-being of the individual (Haboush & Alyan, 2013). As such, family members are more likely to discount the reporting of sexual abuse. This is done in effort to guard the family against the shame associated with reporting the case (Back et al., 2003). In addition, taboo surrounding girls losing their virginity prior to marriage and boys' homosexual fears contribute to the lack of willingness to disclose the abuse (Kenny & McEachern, 2000b). Being mindful of these factors and their negative impact on victims' willingness to report CSA, Africa still presents a significantly high rates of CSA compared to other collective societies such as in Asia that reports a relatively lower CSA rates (Pereda et al, 2009b; Stoltenborgh et al., 2011). For instance, a meta-analysis by Ma (2018) explored the estimated prevalence of childhood sexual abuse in China using data retrieved from 36 articles. The study consisted of 125 independent samples and 131,734 participants. The meta-analysis revealed an estimated prevalence of CSA (9.1 %) for men and (8.9%) for women. An African study conducted by Madu and Peltzer (2000) investigated CSA in Northern Province, South Africa by using a sample of 414 high school students. The results of the study revealed a prevalence rate of 56% in males and 53% in females (Madu & Peltzer, 2000). This study revealed that aside from cultural factors, there are other external factors that may be contributing to high prevalence of CSA in Africa. Studies identified orphan-hood due to HIV/AIDS infections, walking to school and not having a flush toilet as some of the pertinent factors that contribute to CSA in Africa (Mwangi et al., 2015; Kidman & Palemo, 2016; Ward et al., 2018). This demonstrates that African societies may be faced with unique predictors of CSA.

Characteristics of Child Sex Offenders

Child sexual abuse is a widespread problem with potential of resulting in lifelong psychological, physical, and mental health problems for victims (Almuneef, 2019). While CSA is prevalent in every society, the true magnitude of the problem is difficult to determine. Statistical data on CSA is limited by the fact that many cases remain unreported, and consequently unrecorded (Ebuenyi et al. 2018). As a result, most victims of child abuse do not receive timely assessment, intervention, and treatment (Nyangoma et al., 2019). As such understanding the characteristics of CSA will have significant implications for the investigation, treatment of sexual offenders, and the prevention of sexual offending (Seto, 2008).

Studies have attempted to understand the demographic and offending characteristic of child sex offenders. Such information is paramount to forensic psychologists, particularly those in the domain of police investigation, as it may aid with the development of descriptive profiles of child sex offenders which is useful when profiling child sex offender suspects. Australian researchers, Henshaw et al. (2018), conducted a study that compared the demographic, offending, and mental health characteristics of offenders charged for online Child Exploitation Material (CEM) (n = 456), contact sexual activities ($n = 493$) and offenders with a history of both CEM and contact sexual activities (dual offenders, $n = 256$). Results of univariate analysis of the demographics showed that the age at index for CEM, contact offenders and dual offenders ranged from 15–79 years (M = 40.89, SD = 13.93) and age at first offence ranged from 10–78 years (M = 37.29, SD = 15.05). The former age refers to the age of

engagement in sexual misconduct and the latter age denotes the age of first commission of sexual offence. Contact offenders were found to be older (42.72 years) at index offence compared to both CEM (39.91 years) and dual offenders (39.19 years). Similarly, contact offenders were also found to be significantly older (38.75 years) than dual offenders (34.02 years) and CEM (37.56 years) at first offence. Moreover, results of univariate analysis indicated that the vast majority (61.46%) of contact offenders had less than secondary education compared to dual (57.42 %) and CEM 36.4% offenders. At least 39.91% of CEM offenders had completed secondary and higher education levels, whereas only 33.59% of dual offenders and 27.79% of contact offenders had attained secondary or higher-level education.

Henshaw et al. (2018) used multivariate analysis to look at the offending characteristics of CEM, dual and contact offenders. Results of offending frequency showed that compared to both contact (11.5) and CEM (5.10) offenders, dual offenders reported a greater number (12.69) of offences. A similar trend was observed when the total number of sexual offences committed were analysed. Dual offenders committed more sexual offences (6.88) than contact (5.03) and CEM (1.68) offenders. Furthermore, the results indicated that CEM offenders had a greater propensity to display high rates of sexual deviance and low rates of antisocial traits, while contact offenders displayed the opposite pattern. Conversely, dual offenders displayed both high sexual deviance and antisocial traits. Finally, in comparison dual and contact offenders, CEM offenders were more likely to meet the clinical diagnosis of pedophilia. This showed that CEM, contact, and dual offenders are different from each other in terms demographics, offending, and

mental health characteristics. Specifically, the results of the study indicated that CEM may be a unique brand of sex offender category that requires special intervention (Henshaw et al., 2018).

In a cross-cultural study between Spain and the United Kingdom, Burgess-Proctora et al. (2017) examined the criminological characteristics and personality traits of child molesters. The researchers used a forensic sample of size 112, comprising of 76 English and 36 Spanish child molesters. The NEO-Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) was utilized to assess personality, whereas, criminological characteristics were assessed in areas related to prior convictions, the relation between the offender and victim, age range of victims and the victim's gender. Results of the criminological characteristic showed that the child molesters from the two cultures had an average age of (44.88) years. The British child molesters were slightly younger (43.76) years, than the Spanish child molesters (47.22) years. Chi-square analysis was employed to compare criminological characteristic of the Spanish and British child molesters. The majority (60.7%) of the child molesters reported no history of incarceration, whereas (39.3%) had history of incarceration.

Burgess-Proctora et al.'s (2017) study, found that the majority (59.8%) of the participants offended against a family member. This is regarded as intra-familial sex offending which refers to individuals who sexually victimize a child with whom familial offender–victim relationship exists (Falkenbach et al., 2019). About 40.2% of the child molesters had victims outside their family (Falkenbach et al., 2019). This is referred to as extra-familial sex offending. The concept denotes individuals who sexually victimize a

child with whom an offender–victim relationship does not exist (Falkenbach et al., 2019).

Burgess-Proctora et al. (2017) further showed that the vast majority (75.9%) of the

victims were female between 11 to 17 years. About 19.6% of the child molesters

victimized a male child, while 4.5 percent had victims of both sexes. Overall, the

researchers did not find significant differences in the criminological characteristics of the

Spanish and British child molesters in terms of prior convictions, age and sex of their

victims, or the offender's relation to their victim. The results, therefore, suggest that the

criminological characteristic between the two cultures may be comparable, in spite of the

cultural differences. Conversely, difference t-test analysis revealed differences in

personality traits existed between the Spanish and British child molesters. The Spanish

child molesters scored significantly higher on the NEO-FFI dimensions on Openness,

Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness traits than the British child molesters. This

difference is attributable to the collectivistic nature of the Spanish culture where

supremacy is placed on group conformity, obedience, and in-group unity (Hofstede,

2001), whereas this is less the case with the British culture. In conclusion, the results

suggested that cultural differences can explain personality traits between child molesters,

while criminological characteristics may not be culturally dependent.

Johnson et al (2016) utilised the Static-99 and investigated whether there were

significant differences between intra-familial and extra-familial child sex offenders. The

researchers used a sample comprising of 178 adult males and 14 adult females.

Demographic characteristics of the sample revealed that the ages of the sample ranged

from 18-68 years. The majority of the sex offenders were white (85.9%), followed by

black (5.1%) and Latino (5.1). The vast majority of the sex offenders were single (37.5%), whereas 31.3% were married and 15% were divorced at the time of commission. In relation to educational level, the majority (60%) of the sex offenders reported to have attained high school education. At least 34.9% reported being unemployed and 43.8% were either employed on a full or part-time basis. In relation to the kinds of sexual offences committed, the majority (86.5%) committed contact offences, while 13.5% had committed non-contact sexual offences.

Johnson et al. (2016) found the majority (86.5%) of the offenders victimised against a female, while only 6.3 percent victimised a male child. The majority (42.2%) of the victims were pubescent children (11- 14 years old), while 26.0% percent of victims were pre-pubescent children (10 years and younger) and 24.5% were post pubescent children (above 15 years). Furthermore, the majority (57.8%) of the sex offenders had offended against victims with whom they did not have a relationship, while 29.2% offended against victims a child with whom they have a relationship and 13.0% victimized their biological child. Finally, most (78.7%) of the sex offenders were convicted for multiple offenses and while (21.2%) were convicted for one offence only. T-test analysis compared Static-99 scores between intra-familial and extra-familial offenders. The results indicated that intra-familial sex offenders (M = 1.40, SD = 1.23) had significantly lower risk factors when compared to extra-familial sex offenders (M = 1.97, SD = 1.17). The results of the study also showed that biological offenders tended to offend against younger victims (Johnson et al., 2016).

In a qualitative study, Aborisade and Shontanan (2017) used a sample of 29 African participants to explore and describe the motives and mechanisms adopted by child sex offenders in perpetrating sexual abuse on the underage victims. The sample was drawn from offenders in Maximum Prisons, within Lagos Nigeria. Results of the self-report data of the participants, revealed that the age of first offence was between 26-30 years. The participants reported an index age of 22.1 years. About 20.69 % of the participants had no education, 41.38 had primary school education and 34.48% had secondary school education. While only 3.45 percent report to have post-secondary education. Additionally, the majority of the participants were married at the time of committing the offense. With regard to the victim, a significant number of the victims were pre-adolescent (68.97%). Analysis of sexual histories of the offender showed that the majority of the participants were not sexually abused as children, with only four (13.79%) indicating history of childhood sexual abuse. The offenders were exclusively heterosexual in orientation. Furthermore, the majority (65.52%) of the participants were intra-familial offenders, whereas only 13.79% were extra-familiar offenders and 20.69% were mixed-type offenders (this group of offenders victimized both within and outside the family setting). While the study by Aborisade and Shontanan (2017) provides useful information on the demographic profile of child sex offenders in Africa, the study utilised a small sample size and it does not provide sufficient descriptive data to allow for comparison of findings across jurisdiction (Smallbone & Wortleystu, 2001).

Demographic Differences between Euro- American and African Child Sex Offenders

The previous literature presented revealed that African child sex offenders may present with different demographic characteristics and sexual histories from their counterparts in Western societies. For instance, the African study by Aborisade and Shontanan (2017) reported a lower age of first commission (26-30 years), whereas a European study revealed a mean age of 44.88 for child sex offenders (Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017). In addition, the African sex offenders reported a lower level of education attainment by sex offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017). The studies conducted in Western societies revealed that a significant number of child sex offenders had attained secondary school educational qualification (Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2016). Further, the result of the African study indicated that the majority of the participants were married at the time of committing the offense, suggesting that these offenders were in adult sexual relationships at the time of the commission of the crime (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017). Conversely, the Western studies reported that the vast majority of child sex offenders were either single or divorced at the time of the commission of the crime (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016).

With respect to the characteristic of the victims, there was a high degree of consistency among studies that females were predominantly victims of child sexual abuse (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). In addition, all of the studies reviewed showed that the majority of child sex offenders were

inter- familiar (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). This showed that most offenders of child sex offenders abused female victims. African child sex offenders largely offended against pre-adolescent children (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017), whereas Western child sex offenders mostly offended against pubescent and post- pubescent children (Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). Comparison between demographic characteristic of African and Western child sex offenders suggests that African chid sex offenders may present unique demographic characteristics. Therefore, there is a need to understand Namibian child sex offenders in order to gain perspective on their demographic profile. Such knowledge will bridge the current gap in the criminological literature.

Other Characteristics of Child Sex Offenders

Some studies attempted to understand the characteristics of child sex offenders in terms of developmental risk factors. Developmental psychopathology is a subfield in psychology that is concerned with the study of the origins of behavioral maladaptation (Sroufe & Rutter, 1984). With this outlook, researchers have identified childhood antecedents associated with adult disorders conceptualized as risk factors or developmental risk factors (Sigre-Leirós et al., 2016). Literature demonstrated that adverse childhood experiences contribute significantly to the offending pathways of serious criminal violence including sexual aggression (Lee et al., 2002). Using a sample from the forensic population, Drury et al. (2017) applied the Adverse Childhood Experience (ACE) theory to explore the relationship between early-life social adversities and paraphilia in serious sex offenses. The researchers used archival data obtained from

225 federal sex offenders with either a history of sexual offences or were serving a sentence for an offence of sexual nature at the time that the study was being conducted. The sexual offences ranged from: rape, sodomy, oral copulation, sexual abuse, lustful and lascivious acts with child, possession of child pornography, production of child pornography, sexual exploitation of a minor/child, and violation of the Sex Offender Registration and Notification Act (SORNA). Descriptive statistics were performed to show the endorsement of ACEs and paraphilias for the sample. Results revealed that the majority (36%) of the participants had endured paternal abandonment in childhood, followed by sexual abuse (27%) and then verbal/emotional abuse (24%). The vast majority (57%) of the participants met the clinical diagnostic criteria for pedophilia, whereas 35% of the offenders met the diagnostic criteria for paraphilia not otherwise specified. Furthermore, 45% of the participants displayed symptoms indicative of pornography addiction, while only 26 % of the participants met the clinical criteria for exhibitionism and approximately 21% of the participants met the criteria for voyeurism. Analysis of bi-nominal regression revealed that early history of arrest and having more numbers of arrests was associated with greater arrest for crimes such as kidnaping, rape, and murder. Lastly, negative binomial regression models were performed to assess the effects of ACEs and paraphilias on serious criminal violence. This analysis revealed a positive association between sexual sadism and serious criminal violence. Moreover, a negative association was revealed between pornography addictions and serious criminal violence. The findings of the study revealed that history of parental neglect, physical, verbal, and emotional abuse, and childhood sexual victimization were significant

predictors of maladaptive behaviors, particularly paraphilia. These findings support the implementation of early treatment of victims of childhood sexual abuse in an effort to prevent the development of sexual offending (Drury et al., 2017).

In the realm of personality pathology, psychopathy is one of the most important clinical constructs in the criminal justice system (DeLisi, 2009). Empirical evidence has linked psychopathic traits to antisocial behavior, including sexual offending (DeLisi, 2009). Garofalo et al (2018) examined similarities and differences in personality levels and psychopathic traits of child molesters, non-sexually violent offenders, and samples from the community. The researchers used a forensic sample of 138 male participants which was comprised of 74 child molesters, 64 non-sexually violent offenders, and 238 participants from the community. The community sample was used to serve as the control group. The community sample consisted of 238 male adults who were recruited by means of a snowball sampling technique. Garofalo et al. (2018) applied the Severity Index of Personality Problems-Short Form to assess personality functioning in the self- and interpersonal domains such as self-control, identity, responsibility, social concordance, and relational capacities. Psychopathic traits were assessed by using the Levenson Self Report Psychopathy scale, Multivariate results revealed that non-sexually violent offenders displayed greater levels of personality deficiency across all scales of the SIPP-SF in realms related to self-control, identity integration, responsibility, relational capacities, and social concordance compared to child molesters and community participants. Moreover, non-sexually violent offenders presented higher levels of psychopathic traits across interpersonal, affective, and behavioral domains than child

molesters and community sample. In contrast, compared to non-sexually violent

offenders and the community sample, child molesters displayed significant impairment in

personality areas that centred around issues of self-control, identity integration,

responsibility, and relational capacities. Overall, the findings of this study suggested that

child molester's personality is largely normal but exclusively impaired towards child

sexual offending (Marshall et al., 2001). Thus, confirming previous studies that indicate

that child sex offenders are unique, as they present with lower levels of personality

pathology than other violent offenders.

Some studies have attempted to understand child sex offenders by examining their

modus operandi (MO). The term modus operandi is commonly used by law enforcement

to describe behavior displayed by offenders that enable them to execute the crime (Bartol

& Bartol, 2012). When applied to sex offenders, the term modus operandi is used to

describe victim characteristics, patterns of behaviors displayed by the offenders prior,

during, and after commission of the crime, as well as methods used to avoid detection

(Smallbone & Wortley, 2001).

Martschuka et al. (2018) examined strategies applied to secure the compliance of

child victims by comparing the MO of institutional and non-institutional sex offenders.

They used a sample of 59 child sex offenders who were referred for prosecution in three

Australian states. Of 59 cases, six were cases of institutional abuse, one of which

involved crossover offending. Group-based qualitative analysis was applied to compare

the modus operandi in cases of institutional and non-institutional abuse. This involved

matching the age and gender of victim, and patterns of offending behaviors of

institutional cases with non-institutional cases. Martschuka et al.'s (2018) study noted the

victims' age ranged from 5 to 16 years at time when they were first abused. The majority

of the offenders were male family members or friends, priests, an employer and one

female schoolteacher. The results demonstrated that the common strategy applied in both

institutional and non-institutional settings was physical or emotional isolation (100%) to

gain access to the victim. Another strategy commonly used was coercion in form of either

threats of, or actual violence (60%) or non-coercion (i.e., affection and love; 30%). These

strategies were employed to ensure that the victim kept the abuse a secret. Another

widely used strategy was the progression from physical contact to sexual contact (70%).

This strategy may have assisted in testing victim compliance and whether they would

maintain secret (Colton et al., 2012).

Martschuka et al.'s (2018) also revealed that trust development was found to be a

systematic strategy (50%) applied to expedite the abuse. Some offenders used time and

effort to groom their victims. Others used the trust that comes inherently with the position

they held within the family or the institution to abuse the victim (McAlinden, 2012).

Some differences were noted in strategies used by institutional and non-institutional

offenders. Compared to institutional offenders, non-institutional or crossover offenders

were found to use a reciprocity method to ensure victim submission. This involved

providing gifts and money and over time the strategy changed to threats to hold back

incentives or hurt the victim's family to secure victim submission. Finally, victim

characteristics such as young age, family situations, psychological vulnerabilities, and

inebriation were noted to be some of the factors that increased a victim's vulnerability to

being abused. The findings of the study revealed that child sex offenders use multiple strategies and modify them in the course of the abusive relationship to secure continuing submission of their victims. Understanding MO applied by child sex offenders is critical as such knowledge can provide useful information for preventing, investigating, sentencing, treating, and supervising this population (Smallbone & Wortley, 2004). Although the majority of child sexual offenders are adult men, there is growing literature on women, adolescent, and elderly child sex offenders. Studies revealed that female child sex offenders constituted less than three percent of child sex offender population (Cortoni et al., 2010). It is also estimated that one-third of sexual offenses against children are committed by boys between the ages of 12 to 15 years (Pratt et al., 2007). By studying literature on risk factors associated with CSA and characteristics of child sex offenders and their victims, the researcher was able to identify demographic and criminological variables to include in the study and that would address the research questions at hand. In addition, the researcher also considered variables in the Static-99 and included some of them in the study.

The Relationship between Pedophile, Child Molesters, and Child Sexual Abuse

The term pedophiles or child molesters are frequently used to describe an individual who has engaged in a sexual activity with a child (Bartol & Bartol, 2012). While these terms overlap (e.g., a child molester can be a pedophile or vice versa), the terms are not interchangeable (Feelgood & Hoyer, 2008). Pedophiles have sexual preference for children but may not act upon them (i.e., the person may not molest a child) (Gerwinna et al., 2018). On the other hand, child molesters may not have sexual

preference towards children, but molests a child (Feelgood & Hoyer, 2008). The view that pedophilia and child molesters are synonymous is misleading, as it supports the notion that all pedophiles are criminals and a danger to society (Parr & Pearson, 2019). Many studies show that the majority of child sex offenders who are incarcerated do not meet the clinical diagnosis for pedophilic disorder (Seto, 2008; Walker, 2020).

Pedophile

Child sexual abuse may or may not be a signal of pedophilia. Pedophilia is a term used to describe an individual who has a sexual interest for prepubescent children (Blagden et al., 2018; Schiffer et al., 2017). Pedophile is a clinical mental health diagnosis which falls under the sexual disorders category, more specifically, sexual paraphilia. The American Psychiatric Association, 2013) defines pedophilic disorder as an individual who is sexually attracted to prepubescent children, usually 13 years old or younger. This sexual interest is evident through recurring intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, and behaviors (APA, 2013). These symptoms should be present for at least six months (APA, 2013). Having a sexually preference for children does not merely qualify an individual for pedophilic disorder, the individual should be experiencing noticeable distress or interpersonal difficult due to the condition (Houtepen et al., 2016). Therefore, individuals who do not show symptoms of emotional distress and have never acted on their sexual urges are regarded as having a pedophilic sexual orientation but not pedoaphilic disorder (APA, 2013).

Pedophilia is conceptualised as distinct from hebephilia, which denotes sexual interest in pubescent children that show early signs of sexual development but are

sexually immature (estimated ages 11-14) (Stephens et al., 2018). While there is evidence

indicating that hebephilia show a different sexual arousal patterns from paraphilia

(Blanchard et al., 2009), the term pedophilia is generally used to describe individuals who

are sexually attracted to children under the age of consent (Parr & Pearson, 2019). Both

padophilia and hebephilia are regarded as mental disorders rather than criminal offenses

(Parr & Pearson, 2019). Padophilia does not become a legal problem until the individual

acts upon the sexual urges. Literature describes different types of pedophilia. In the case

of exclusive type the individual is sexually attracted to children only, while in the case of

non-exclusive type the is sexually attracted to both children and adults (Burgess-Proctora,

2017). Pedophilia also differs in the extent of sexual deviant interest, such as intra-

familial child sexual abusers and extra-familial child sexual abusers (Aborisade &

Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017). Furthermore, pedophiles may be identified by

their preference to female, male, or both males and females, referred to as heterosexual,

homosexual and bisexual, respectively (Burgess-Proctora, 2017). Pedophiles are often

directed by the need to satisfy their sexual urges or the need for intimacy (Garofaloa et al.

2018; Houtepen et al., 2016).

Child Molesters

In the criminal investigation field, the term child molester is a legal one used to

denote an individual who has sexually abused a child. The specific behaviors that

constitute sexual abuse and the definition of who is a child are legally based and vary

across jurisdictions. For instance, in Namibia, behaviors that constitute sexual abuse

include the insertion of the penis into the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person; or the

insertion of any other part of the body of a person or of any part of the body of an animal

or of any object into the vagina or anus of another person, or (c) cunnilingus or any other

form of genital stimulation; "vagina" includes any part of the female genital organ

(Hubbard, 2006). In some jurisdictions, such as Botswana, child sexual behavior includes

non- contact acts (i.e., coercing the child to watch or participate in pornographic

materials). The term "child molester" is not indicative of a mental or psychological

condition (Feelgood & Hoyer, 2008), rather it is suggestive of presence of

psychopathological factors (Garofaloa et al., 2018; Houtepen et al., 2016). Child

molesters who offended against a child tend to be criminally motivated rather than having

a mere attraction to children (Miller, 2012). Child molesters often also engage in sexual

acts with adults, whereas pedophiles usually only engage in sexual acts with children

(Laajasalo et al., 2020). Generally, sex offenders have a lower recidivism compared to

other offenders. For instance, Laajasalo et al., (2020) studied the recidivism rates of

Finnish child sex offenders incarcerated in 2010 (n = 361). The offenders were followed

over a period of seven years. The results revealed a recidivism rate of (34%) for other

types of offenders and (1%) for sex offenders. This finding contradicts popular beliefs

that child sex offenders have a high rate of reoffending.

Research on Pedophiles and Child Sexual Abuse

Studies on pedophiles and child molesters have looked at their sexual

development, neuropsychology, and cognitive functioning. The reviewed literature noted

some differences between child molesters and pedophiles (Gerwinna et al., 2018). Sigre-

Leirós., et al (2016) examined the association between parenting styles experienced in

childhood and adolescence and different types of sexual offending. The researchers

utilised 114 sexual offenders comprising of rapists, pedophilic child molesters (n = 20),

non-pedophilic child molesters (n = 43) and (n = 51) nonsexual offenders. The

participants completed a battery of tests including the My Memories of Upbringing

(EMBU), Brief Symptom Inventory, and the Socially Desirable Response Set Measure.

Although the EMBU assesses various parental styles (i.e., emotional warmth, rejection,

and overprotection), significant statistical differences were only found with respect to the

emotional warmth dimension. According to Sigre-Leirós et al. (2016), this signifies the

impact of early emotional parental attachment on sexual offending. The results showed

that pedophiles tend to perceive their fathers as emotionally warm compared to the non-

pedophiles (OR = 1.12). On the hand, pedophiles compared to non-pedophiles perceived

their mothers as less emotionally warm (OR = .80). In addition, rapists perceived their

fathers as less emotionally warm than the non-sex offenders (OR = .85). These findings

points to the existence of a relationship between maternal parenting style and pedophilic

behavior. Overall, the findings showed that developmental experiences, particularly

parenting style are relevant predictors of sexual offending behavior.

In a neuropsychological study, Massau et al. (2017) examined the executive

functioning of pedophilia and nonpedophilic (child molester). The researchers utilised a

sample of 207 male participants consisting of 45 pedophiles who had sexually offended

against a child and 45 pedophiles who had not sexually offended against a child, 19

offenders who sexually offended against a child but did not display pedophilic

preference, and 49 men served as a control group. This group was neither pedophilic nor

reported a history of sexual or criminal offenses. Massau et al. (2017) used the

Cambridge Neuropsychological Test Automated Battery (CANTAB) to examine

executive functioning in domains such as impulsivity, planning skills, set shifting, and

memory. The results showed that child molesters display greater deficiencies in the

ability to suppress their impulses compared to pedophiles who did not sexually offend.

This finding demonstrates that pedophiles may not experience difficulties with response

inhibition. Child molesters also displayed deficiencies in strategic working memory

usage compared to pedophiles and the control group. Moreover, only child molesters

displayed impairments in strategy use ability. Compared to the child molesters and the

control group, pedophiles who had sexually offended displayed greater cognitive

flexibility and set-shifting abilities. The study made a significant contribution to

understanding the differences between these groups of sexual offenders, as it

demonstrates that executive dysfunctions are associated with offense status.

Some studies attempted to explore cognitive styles of sex offending behaviors.

For instance, Sigre-Leirós et al (2016) employed 50 rapists, 59 child molesters

(comprising of 19 pedophiles and 40 non-pedophiles), and 51 nonsexual offenders to

exam the association between the early maladaptive schemas and different types of

sexual offending behavior. A schema may be described as one's mental construction of

the world and self which helps the individual to explain and react to life events (Young,

2011). The participants were required to complete the Young Schema Questionnaire, the

Brief Symptom Inventory, and the Socially Desirable Response Set Measure. Sigre-

Leirós et al.'s (2016) study used multinomial logistic regression which indicated that

compared to the group of non-pedophiles, pedophiles maintained defectiveness and subjugation schema. This schema is associated with deficiency in interpersonal functioning and impaired self-worth and self-concept (Sigre-Leirós et al., 2016). These cognitive errors may be accompanied by unacceptable sexual desires. According to Sigre-Leirós et al. (2016) the cognitive errors related to unacceptable sexual desires are relevant to pedophile, especially when considering that pedophilia involves sexual interest in prepubescent children which is an intolerable and indictable social phenomenon. Subjugation reflects undue surrendering of control to others in an effort to avoid the wrath of their anger or risk of abandonment (Sigre-Leirós et al 2015). Conversely, non-pedophilic child molesters displayed sustained social isolation, difficulties in developing their personality, and a heightened sense that a high standard of behavior is required to avoid disapproval schema. Compared to non-sex offenders, rapists held more strongly to the approval-seeking schema and punitiveness schema. In essence, these findings provided support for the role of cognitive schemas play in creating vulnerability for sexual offending. The understanding the differences between pedophiles and child molesters is fruitful in informing psychological theories of offending as well as illuminating the etiological pathways for different sex offenders. Moreover, such knowledge can help practitioners identify suitable treatment options for certain offender groups (Garofaloa et al., 2018).

Summary and Conclusion

One of the emerging themes from the literature review, is that differences may exist between offenders of CSA in the Africa and those from Western societies. Studies

have reported differences in accessibility to victim and factors that place children at risk

of being sexually abused (Henshaw et al., 2018; Mwangi et al., 2015). Another major and

persistent problem in the study of child sexual offending is methodological constraints.

Research illustrated how factors such as the operationalisation of the term child sexual

offending, methods employed during research, gender and cultural issues impact

prevalence of CSA. These methodological constrains make it difficult to generalise

findings obtained from studies to the other population where the sample was not drawn

from. In view of the above, the researcher sought to understand Namibian male adults

who convicted and incarcerated for child sexual abuse offences.

Chapter 2 provided literature review on child sexual offending and demonstrated

the existing gap in the research and literature pertaining to CSA and child sex offenders.

By doing so, I demonstrated the uniqueness of the present study. The research aims to

have a positive impact investigation and treatment of the offenders. The research also

aims to contribute to the welfare of African children. The next chapter will provide an

explanation of the methodological and procedural aspects of this study. This includes

introduction, research design, procedures, sampling method, and the analytical

procedures that will be used to examine the data in this study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Child sexual abuse is major problem in Namibia, and the dearth of research on the matter fuels the conundrum. The purpose of this study was to understand the criminological and descriptive characteristics of adult child sex offenders. This chapter included an explanation of the research design and rationale under pinning the research design. It addresses the research questions, variables and sampling including sampling strategies, type, and sampling frame. The chapter concluded by discussing the threats to validity, and ethical considerations.

Research Design and Rationale

The study used a quantitative non-experimental, descriptive study. Demographic information on the male child sex offenders was gathered looking at age at the time of commission of the crime, age at time of arrest, location of the offense, place where the incident took place, ethic group, employment status, education level, and relationship status at time of the crime. Other variables which aimed to collect information that described the criminological characteristics of the offender included prior criminal history (measured by prior convictions and offences), gender of the victim, age of the victim, whether the victim was known to the offender, nature of the sexual activity performed, how access to the victim was gained, number of victims and number of times sexual victimization. The dependent variable, which is the number of victims was measured against the independent variables (i.e., age at time of commission of crime, age at the time of arrest, location of the offence, place where the incident took place, prior conviction and offences , ethnicity, employment status at the time of arrest, educational

level, relationship status, gender of the victim, age of the victims, whether the victim was known to the offender, nature of the sexual activity performed, how access to the victim was gained, number of victims and number of times sexual victimization. This analysis was used to determine variables that predicted single or multiple offending.

In this study, the researcher examined the criminological and demographic characteristics of adult Namibian men who have sexually offended against a child. The result will be provision of descriptive data on the kind of adult males that are likely to commit sexual offences against children. The purpose of the study was to draw a descriptive profile of male offenders who sexually abuse children in Namibia. This study utilized archival data from official records to describe the characteristics of adult men that sexually abuse children in Namibia. Further analysis examined factors that predicted single and multiple offending. As directed by the research focus, the study is quantitative in nature. This research topic is amenable to quantitative approach because it enables quantifiable data about adult men who sexually abuse children to be collected and processed using statistical analysis. Therefore, the outcome of the study was expressed in a numerical format. The use of quantitative design allowed for inferences to be drawn from a sample population and applied to the larger population; allowing for data to be collected in a quick and cost-effective manner (Babbie, 2017). This process is known as generalizability and it is an essential component of quantitative studies (Babbie, 2017).

Weaknesses associated with the research design included time and resources constraints. Substantial time was required to review the case management files of male offenders that have offended against children. In addition, the researcher was required to

travel to various towns in order to access case management files of offenders incarcerated for child sexually offending. There was an observable logical flow between the research problem, and research design. The research design allowed descriptive data to be collected about sex offenders, ultimately contributing to the literature on the characteristic of adult child sex offender and victims. According to Newman and Covrig (2013), a good study should demonstrate a strong coherent and consistent relationship between the construct model underpinning the study, the research problem and design.

Methodology

Population

The target population for this study are adult men who have committed sexual offences against a child in Namibia. The population of male child sexual offenders is disproportionally higher than female child sex offenders (Hassan et al., 2015). This signified the importance of studying this population. The researcher used archival data obtained from male sex offenders serving a sentence for an offence of sexual nature at the time that the study was being conducted. At the time of the data collection the Namibian Correctional Service had a total d a population of 215 child sex offenders.

Sampling Procedures and Size

A total of 215 offenders were incarcerated for child sexual abuse. Of this number, 30 offenders were still undergoing admission process into the correctional facility and thus did not have case management files. The files of these offenders were not reviewed as they did not contained the information needed for the study. Non-Namibian adult men child sex offenders and young males under 18 years were also excluded from the study.

Only adult Namibian men child sex offenders with case management files and were convicted and found guilty of child sex offending from the years of 2000 were included in the study as this offenders are likely to still be incarceration. Consequently, 183 offenders meet the inclusive criteria for the study. Due to the relatively small population size, the researcher reviewed all the files of child sex offender incarcerated in the correctional facilities that meet the requirement for the study. As a result, it was not necessary to employ sampling methods.

Procedures for Gaining and Using Archival Data

Prior to conducting research, the researcher secured approval from the IRB to conduct the study. Subsequently approval was sought from the Commissioner –General of the Namibia Correctional Service to access the case management files of adult men incarcerated for sexual offending against a minor under the age of 18 years of age from the year 2000. The researcher reviewed a number of case management documentations such as the Criminal Profile Report and the Assessment of Offender Risk Factors and Inventory of Offender Needs and Reintegration Concerns. These documents contained comprehensive information that pertaining to the offender, the crime and factors underpinning the offence (i.e. nature of the offence, criminal history and patterns of offending, social and employment/education background). Other relevant documents that I reviewed included the warrant of committal and court rolls. These documentations contained information about the offender and the crime as noted in police and court records. The outlined documentation were deemed to be the best source of data as they contained official information about the offender and their crime as recorded by

correctional officials, police officers and the court. The Offender Management System was used to identity child sex offenders in the Namibian Correctional Service.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Instrumentation

The target population for this study was adult men incarcerated for committing for sexual offences against a child. Appendix B depicts the format for how data was collected. The variables were identified by drawing from literature on demographic and criminological characteristics of adult male child sex offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017; Falkenbach et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2016; Martschuka et al., 2018). The researcher identified 17 variables that were collected and were divided into two domains related to the demographic and criminology characteristics of the child sex offenders (table 1).

Table 1

Demographic and Criminology Characteristic Variables

Research Domains	*Demographic Characteristic*	*Criminological Characteristics of the Offender*
	Age at the time of the crime	Prior convicted offences
	Age at the time of arrest	Type of crime
	Location of the offence	Nature of sexual activity/ies performed
Variables	Place where the incident took place	How access to the victim was gained
	Ethnic group	Gender of victim/s
		Age of victim/s

Employment status at the time of arrest	Whether the victims was known to offender
Level of education	Number of victim(s)
Relationship status at the time of crime	Number of times sexual victimization occurred

Studies conducted in African and Western countries revealed a difference in age among CSA offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Henshaw et al., 2018; McPhail et al., 2018). This is suggestive that age is salient factor to consider in understanding the demographic characteristic of child sex offenders. Some studies found child sex offending can be explained in terms of ethnicity or race. For instance, Lee (2020) attributed the commission of child sexual offences by black individuals in America to the presence of antisocial personality traits, whereas for Whites to pedophilic interests. Burgess-Proctora et al., (2017) revealed that as a group, child sex offenders tended not have prior conviction. However, some studies revealed results that contradicts these findings (Smallbone & Wortley, 2001); this suggests that prior conviction is an important factor to study when trying to understand male child sex offending. Studies have also attempted to understand the educational level of men that sexually offend against children (Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2016). African and Western studies revealed contradicting results on the relationship status of adult men child sex offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017; Johnson et al., 2016; McPhail et al., 2018). Thus, relationship status is a salient factor to investigate.

With respect to the characteristic of victims, studies revealed that gender is a pertinent factor in explaining child sex offending (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). Studies revealed the existence of a differences between the age of the victims of African and Western child sex offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). The majority of the studies revealed that sex offenders often victimise children known to them (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). The sexual activities that define sexual abuse differs across jurisdictions (Budd & Bierie, 2018; Koon-Magnin & Ruback, 2013; Ramabu, 2021; and Vaillancourt-Morel et al., 2016, thus studying the type of sexual offending that was engaged is pertinent. Examining the behavioral patterns and strategies employed by the CSA offenders to gain access to the victim is critical to child protection research (Martschuka et al., 2018). Examining the number of victims is critical to research that aim to understand the characteristics of child sex offenders (Henshaw et al., 2018). A study by McKillop et al., (2016) found difference between single and multiple victim offenders. Multiple victim offenders were reported to have been younger at time of their first sexual abuse incident, were more likely to first abuse male and non-familial children. These findings are suggestive that single and multiple sexual offenders are somewhat dissimilar. Therefore, it is vital to examine factors that predict single and multiple offending.

Operationalization of Constructs

The variables that measured age at time of commission of the crime age at time of arrest, location of the offense, place where the incident took place, ethic group,

employment status, education level and relationship status at time of commission of the crime provided demographic information on the male child sex offenders. While variables such as prior criminal history (measured by prior convictions and offences), gender of the victim, age of the victim, whether the victim was known to the offender, nature of the sexual activity performed, how access to the victim was gained, number of victims and number of times sexual victimization occurred aimed to collect information that described the criminal characteristics of the offenders. These variables attempted to predict factors that were likely to lead to child sexual abuse. The variables that measured victim characteristics included gender (i.e., the biological sex of the victim), this was a dichotomous variable. Age of the victim was intended to capture the biological age of the victim. "Is the victim known to the offender" measured the offender-victim relationship.

The variables were measured using various levels of measurements; all variables relating to age were continuous data and they were measured by ratio scale of measurement. Ethic group, employment, educational level, location of the offense, place where incident took place, prior conviction, prior offence/s, relationships status of the offender at time of commission of the crime, gender of the victim, whether the victim was known to the offenders, nature of sexual activity/ies performed, how access was gained to the victim were categorical data measured by nominal scale. The variables such as number of victim and number of times sexual victimization occurred were continuous data measure by nominal scale of measurement.

Data Analysis Plan

The data collected for the study was entered into IBM Statistical Package for

Social Sciences (SPSS) software Version 25 (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero,

2015). I collected the data directly from the files, thus the possibility of having missing

data was significantly reduced. Nevertheless, due to the small sample size, the researcher

did not eliminate responses with missing data as this would result in fewer responses

being analyzed. The researcher used imputation to deal with missing data (Frankfort-

Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015).

Research Questions:

RQ1: What are the general characteristics of male child sex offenders in Namibia?

RQ2: What are the criminological characteristics of the Child sex offenders in

Namibia?

RQ3: What are the characteristics of victims of child sexual abuse in Namibia?

RQ4: What kind of relationship existed between the offender and the victim?

RQ5: Do offenders with single victims have different demographic and

criminological characteristics compared to those with multiple victims?"

H_04_1: There is not a significance difference between offenders with single versus

those with multiple victims.

H_14_1: There is a significance difference between offenders with single versus

those with multiple victims.

Descriptive statistics analyzed included the age at time of commission of the

crime, age at time of arrest, location of the offense, place where the incident took place,

ethic group, employment status, education level, relationship status at time of

commissioner of the crime, prior conviction, prior offences, gender of the victim, age of

the victim, offender/victim relationship, nature of the sexual activity performed, how

access was gained to the victim, number of victim and number of times sexual

victimization. Binary logistic regression was used to examine the variables that predict

single or multiple offending. The dependent variable, number of victims was measured

against the independent variables (i.e., age at time of commission of the crime, age at

time of arrest, location of the offense, place where the incident took place, ethic group,

employment status, education level, relationship status at time of commissioner of the

crime, prior criminal conviction, gender of victim, age of victim, offender/victim

relationship, sexual activity performed, how the offender gained access to the victim? and

number of times sexual victimization occurred. Odds ratio was utilised to interpret the

results of binary logistic regression.

Threats to Validity

Researchers must demonstrate effort to identify and eliminate threats to internal

and external validity. Internal validity directs that outcomes observed in the study are not

accounted by other possible factors (Fredericks et al., 2019). External validity is

concerned with the extent to which findings of a study can be generalized (Burkholder &

Crawford, 2016). Some internal validity related to the study includes mortality. The

researcher collected data once off and there was no follow-up. Moreover, data on adult

male sex offenders were collected directly from the files and not the sex offenders

themselves. Therefore, the threat of mortality and maturation was significantly reduced.

To ensure confidentiality, the files were coded by number instead of the name of the offender.

Ethical Procedures

The purpose of the study was to examine the descriptive information about male, child sex offenders in Namibia. The study made use of a population classified as vulnerable or protected. The APA (2010) requires special precaution for the protection of the research participants' rights. I sought and received approval to conduct the study from the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB) prior to the collection of data. The approval was relevant as it signifies that the study met acceptable ethical guidance and that the benefit of the study outweighed the risk of harm. Data was not collected directly from the participants but from official records, and as a result an agreement letter (Appendix A) was obtained from the Commissioner-General of the Namibian Correctional Service instead of the offenders themselves. The agreement letter provided information about the objectives of the research study, the procedures involved and possible benefits of the study. Challenges associated with the study included ensuring the confidentiality of a protected population. This ethical concern was eliminated by using coding instead of the participants' names. Names of all sex offenders selected to participate were removed and replaced with a number. The number assigned to each participant was entered into a computer database in SPSS for analysis. This ensured confidentiality and anonymity as it would be difficult to match the data collected to a specific individual. The data collected was only accessible to the researcher and it will be kept in an external memory device with a secured password for five years. After the five-year period has lapsed, the

information will be erased using a software to destroy the information (e.g., WipeFile).

Moreover, the use of secondary data possessed a challenge because there was a

possibility that the files did not contain the specific information required to answer the

researcher questions. This challenge was addressed by verifying with officials whether

the information required in the study can be obtained in the case management files and

court reports of adult man child sex offenders. Other ethical concerns related to dual

roles, because the research was conducted at the researcher's workplace. The APA

recognises that it may not always be possible to avoid dual roles (APA, 2010). Given

that, the APA permits for dual roles where such relationship does not compromise the

individual's ability to function objectively (APA, 2010). The researcher's job position in

the Namibian Correctional Service did not compromise the researcher's ability to act

impartially. This is was because the two roles were independent of each other. In

addition, the researcher was mindful of concerns related to conflict of interest. An

example of conflict of interest was using information obtained in one setting and

applying it to another. In this regard, the researcher declared that the information

collected on sex offenders was only going to be used for the sole purpose of the study.

Summary

Chapter 3 provided a detailed explanation of the methodology used for this study.

This quantitative study was designed to develop a descriptive profile of adult male child

sex offenders in Namibia. Descriptive and binary logistic regression was applied to

analyse the research questions. In Chapter 4 the researcher discussed in detail relevance

statistical data obtained from the study.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of the study was to assess the demographic and criminological

characteristics of Namibian adult men who sexually abuse children. The study also

examined the characteristics of victims of child sexual abuse. The research questions (and

hypotheses) were as follows:

RQ1: What are the general characteristics of male child sex offenders in

Namibia?

RQ2: What are the criminological characteristics of the Child sex offenders in

Namibia?

RQ3: What are the characteristics of victims of child sexual abuse in Namibia?

RQ4: What kind of relationship existed between the offender and the victim?

RQ5: Do offenders with single victims have different demographic and

criminological characteristics compared to those with multiple victims?"

H_04_1: There is not a significance difference between offenders with single versus

those with multiple victims.

H_14_1: There is a significance difference between offenders with single versus

those with multiple victims.

These research questions were addressed by means of descriptive analysis

and through a regression model which contained the dependent variable, (i.e., number of

victims sexually abused) and independent variables (i.e., age at time of commission of

crime, place of incident, prior convictions, type of prior crime committed, employment

level, educational level, relationship status, gender of the victim, age of the victims,

whether the victim is known to the offender, nature of sexual activities, how access to the victim was gained, and number of times sexually abused) which were used to explore variables that predicted single or multiple offending. This chapter begun with the discussion on the purpose of the study, research questions and data collection. It proceeds with a presentation of the results of descriptive and binary logistic regression analysis. Tables and figures were utilized to help visualize the results of the study.

Data Collection

Archived data on Namibian adult child sex offenders was collected from case management files of offenders incarcerated in the Namibian Correctional Service from the year 2000. A total of 215 offenders were incarcerated for child sexual abuse. Of this number, the files of 30 offenders were not reviewed as their files did not contain the archived data required for the study. This is because the offenders were still undergoing admission process at the various correctional facilities. Two cases of child sexual abuse were excluded from the study because they exceeded the scope of the study. In one case, the sexual abuse escalated to murder and in another case, the sexual activity was performed on a corpse. Consequently, a total of 183 files of sex offenders met the requirements for the study. Due to the small population size, the entire (N = 183) files were reviewed for the study. Seventeen offenders had multiple victims and accounted for a total of (N = 214) victims. To protect the identity of the participants, single number codes were assigned to each case. The data were collected from Windhoek, Hardap, Walvis-bay, Evaristus Shikongo, Elizabeth Nepemba, Divundu and Oluno correctional facilities. Data collection commenced on 31 March and concluded on 17 April 2023.

Results

Demographic Characteristics

Table 2 (below) summarized the demographic characteristics of the population. The age of the offenders both at time of commission of the crime and arrest ranged from 18 to 69 years. The average age at time of commission of crime was 30.63 years (SD=10.71) and at time of arrest was 30.89 years (SD=10.77). In two cases, the age of arrest was missing and was therefore replaced with the mean age of the offenders. The majority of the offenders were Nama/Damara (31%: N=57) followed by Owambo, (28.4%; N= 52), then Caprivians (18%; N=33) and Herero, (8.7%; N=16).

Table 2

Age and Ethnicity of Child Sex Offenders

Variable	N	%	Min	Max	SD
Age					
At commission of crime			18	69	10.71
At arrest			18	69	10.77
Ethnicity					
Nama/Damara	57	31.1			
Ovambo	52	28.4			
Caprivian	33	18.0			
Herero	16	8.7			
Kavango	11	6.0			
Baster	6	3.3			
Colored	2	1.1			
Himba	3	1.6			
San	2	1.1			
White	1	.5			

As shown in Table 3 (below), most offenders resided in the Zambezi region

(Katima Mulilo) (18%; N=33), followed by Ohangwena region (Eenhana) (12.0%; N=22)

and Otjozondjupa region (Gobabis) (10.9%; N=20). Although, most offenders were from

the Nama/Damara ethnic group, these offenders were not geographically clustered.

Offenders who identify as Caprivian appeared to be clustered in their home region,

resulting a higher number of offenders recorded in the Zambezi region. The north-eastern

part of the Namibia reported to have the highest incidence of child sexual abuse, in

particular Katima Mulilo and Eenhana.

Table 3

Regions and Towns in Which Child Sex Offenders Resided.

Region (Municipality)	N	%
Zambezi Region		
Katima-mulilo	32	17.5
Ohangwena Region		
Eenhana	22	12.0
Omaheke Region		
Gobabis	17	9.3
Otjozondjupa Region		
Otjiwarongo	12	6.6
Grootfontein	5	2.7
Otavi	2	1.1
Okahandja	1	.5
Erongo Region		
Swakopmund	8	4.4
Omaruru	5	2.7
Karibib	3	1.6
Walvis Bay	2	1.1
Kunene Region		

Outjo	7	3.8
Kamanjab	3	1.6
Opuwo	3	1.6
Khorixas	2	1.1
Hardap Region		
Mariental	6	3.3
Rehoboth	3	1.6
Maltahohe	1	.5
Gibeon	1	.5
Omusati Region		
Outapi	11	6.0
Karas Region		
Keetmanshoop	6	3.3
Karasburg	3	1.6
Luderitz	1	.5
Khomas Region		
Windhoek	8	4.4
Oshana Region		
Ondangwa	5	2.7
Ongwediva	1	.5
Oshakati	1	.5
Kavango East Region		
Rundu	6	3.3
Oshikoto Region		
Tsumeb	6	3.3

A greater number of the offenders was employed (57.4%; N=105) compared to those who were unemployed (41.5%; N=76). However, the employed offenders were mainly engaged in low-income earning jobs such as farm labourer, cattle herding, trading, and construction work. The majority of the offenders had primary school education (44.3%; N=81), 33.3% (N=61) had secondary school education and 3.3% (N=6) had tertiary level education. Additionally, (14.8%, N=27%) of the offenders

reported having no education. A greater proportion of the population were not married or

involved in any stable intimate relationship (45.5%; N=87) while (24%; N=44) of the

population were married or cohabiting and (22.4%; N=41) were involved in intimate

relationship.

Table 4

Employment, Education level and Relationship Status of Child Sex Offenders

Variable	N	%
Employment		
Employed	105	57.4
Unemployed	76	41.5
Unknown	2	1.1
Education		
Primary	81	44.3
Secondary	61	33.3
Tertiary	6	3.3
No education	27	14.8
Unknown	8	4.4
Relationship		
Single	87	47.5
Married/cohabiting	44	24
Divorced	4	2.2
In a relationship	41	22.4
Unknown	7	3.8

Criminal History of Child Sex Offenders

Table 5 (below) shows the criminal histories of offenders. Of the 183 offenders,

(80.3%; N=148) were first time offenders while (19.1%; N=35) had previous convictions.

Out of the offenders with a prior convictions, the majority (71.4%; N=25) were convicted

one time, and while (3.8%; N=7) have been convicted two times and only (1.1%; N=2)

were convicted three times. The top three most common offences committed by sex offenders included rape (6.0%; N=11), theft (4.3%; N=8) and properties offences (3.8%; N=7). Of the 35 offenders with prior conviction, seven had more than one prior convicted offences.

Table 5

Criminal Histories of Child Sex Offenders

Variable	N	%
Prior conviction		
No	147	80.3
Yes	35	19.1
Number of prior convictions		
One	25	13.7
Two	7	3.8
Three	2	1.1
Four	1	.5%
Types of offences		
Sex offence/s	11	6.0
Theft	8	4.3
Property	7	3.8
Assault	6	3.3
Murder	3	1.6
Escape	3	1.6
Others	8	4.1

Table 6 (below) shows the criminological characteristics of the offenders. The majority of the offenders obtained access to the children by luring them to their houses through promises of giving them money or something nice. Consequently, the offenders' house (place of residency) was reported as the most common place where sexual abuse occurred (41.6%; N=89), followed by the victim's house (20.6%; N=44), and while

traveling on foot (18.7%; N=40) (i.e. in the bushes, while playing outdoors). A very small

percentage (6.5%; N=14) of the sexual abuse occurred at school. With regard to the

number of victims sexually abuse, most offenders had a single victim (90.7%; N=166)

and a significantly small population (9.3%; N=17) had multiple victims. The majority of

the offenders had sexually abused their victims once (72.4%; N=155) and the minority

(20.9%; N=45) had sexually abused their victims multiple times.

Table 6

Criminological Characteristics of the Child Sex Offenders

Variable	N	%
Place of incident		
Offenders' home	89	41.6
Victims' home	44	20.6
Traveling on foot	40	18.7
Unknown	18	8.4
School	14	6.5
Others	9	4.2
Number of victims		
One	166	90.7
Two	13	7.1
Three	1	.5
Four	1	.5
Five	1	.5
Ten	1	.5
Number of times sexual abuse		
Once	155	72.4
Twice	25	11.7
Third	13	6.1
Fourth	3	1.3
Fifth	2	.9
Sixth	2	.9
Unknown	14	6.5

As depicted in Figure 1, below, the most common sexual behaviors engaged by the

offenders was vaginal penetration (86.9%; N=186) and anal penetration (8.4%; N=18),

which was exclusive for male victim. Other sexual behaviors engaged by the offenders

included insertion of fingers inside the vagina (1.9%; N=4), fondling of genitals (.9%,

N=2) and rubbing and touching outside of clothing (.9%, N=2)

Figure 1

Sexual Activities Engaged by the Child Sex Offenders
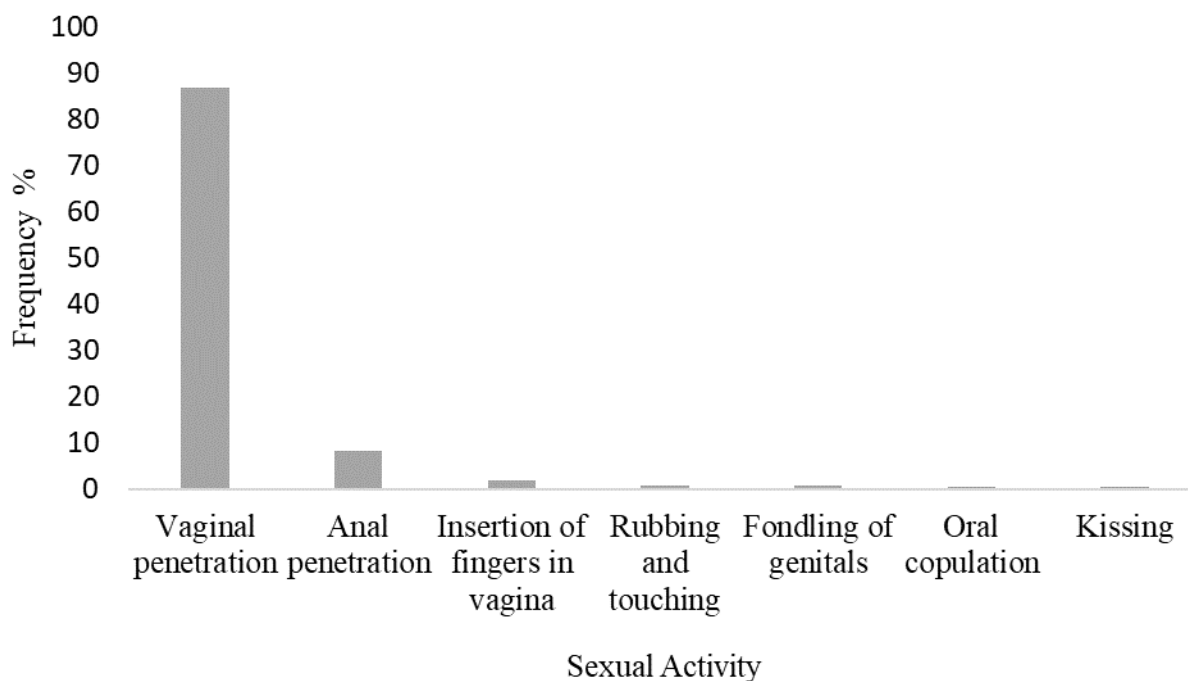
Victim Characteristics

Figure 2 shows the distribution of the victims by gender. Females accounted for

91.1% (N=195) of the victims and males accounted for 8.9% (N=19). The age ranges of

victims were from 1-17 years for females and 3-17 years for males. On average female

victims were slightly younger (11.12 years; SD=3.93) than males (12.63 years;

SD=2.94). The exact ages of one female victims could not be determined, the court rolls indicated that the victim was under the age of 16. Therefore, the age of this victim was replaced by the mean age of the victims in this analysis.

Figure 2

Gender distribution of the victims
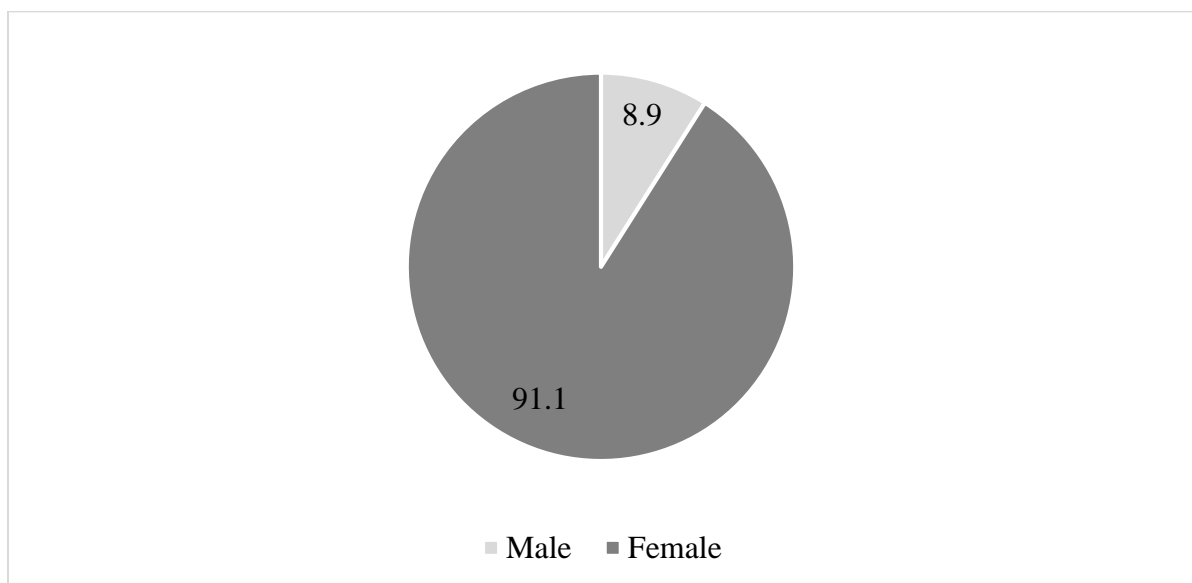
Table 7

Victim Characteristics

Variable	N	%	Min	Max	SD
Age					
Female	194	90.7	1	17	3.93
Male	19	8.9	3	17	2.94
Victim Known					
Yes	186	86.9			
No	22	10.3			
Unknown	6	2.8			

With regard to whether the victims were known to the offenders, most (86.9%; N=186) victims were sexually abused by someone known to them and only a small proportion (10.3%; N=22) were sexually abused by strangers. The offender gained access to the victim through various relations the most common include neighbour (32.2%; N=69), followed by family (28.5%; N=61) and employment (12.6%; N=27) (e.g., teachers, school cleaner and cattle herders).

Table 8

Relationship between the Child Sex Offenders and the Victims

Relationship	N	%
Neighbour	69	32.2
Relative	61	28.5
Through profession/work	27	12.6
Abducted	20	9.3
Family friend	15	7
Stranger	14	6.5
Boyfriend	6	2.8
Unknown	2	.9

Statistical Assumptions

To confirm the reliability of the results from statistical analyses, it was necessary to not violate binary logistic regression assumptions. These assumptions include a dichotomous dependent variable, one or more independent variables, independence of observations, and mutually exclusive and exhaustive categories for the dependent and independent variables. To examine variables that predicted single or multiple offending, binary logistic regression was performed. The model comprised of the dependent variable, the number of victims coded as 1 for single and 2 for multiple. This variable was tested against 13 independent variables (i.e., age at time of commission of crime, place of incident, prior convicted offences, ethnicity, level of employment, level of educational, relationship status, gender of the victim, age of the victims, whether the victim was known to the offenders, sexual behaviour performed, how access to the victim was gained, and number of times sexually abused). The test for collinearity showed a multicollinearity among two variables, age at time of commission of the crime and age at time of arrest. As a result, the variable age at time of arrest was excluded as a predictor. A preliminary analysis showed tolerance ranging from .756 to .956 suggesting that the assumption of multicollinearity was met. An inspection of standardized residual values revealed that there were six outliers.

Binary Logistic Regression

Binary logistic regression was performed to examine variables in the model that predicted single and multiple offending. The null hypothesis was there was no difference

between offenders with single versus those with multiple victims. The alternative

hypothesis was that the full model containing all independent variables predicted single

and multiple offending. The results for the full model were statistically significant, $\chi 2$

(13, N = 183) = 47.30, p = .001, indicating that the set of predictor variables reliably

distinguished single and multiple offending. The factors in the model accounted for

between 22.9% (Cox and Snell R 2) and 49.5% (Nagelkerke R 2) of the variance in the

dependent variance and correctly classified 93.4% of the cases. Tertiary education (p =

0.09, β = 5.10, OR =160) and being single (p = 0.012, β = 2.19, OR = 8.90) were

significantly and positively related to multiple offending. This suggested that a high level

of education and being single increases the risk of multiple offending. The effect size for

tertiary education was large while being single yielded a small effect size. Further

analysis showed a significant and positive prediction with sexual activities (p = 0.012, β

= .34, OR =1.40) and the number of times victims were sexually abuse (p = 0.049, β =

.49, OR =1.64). This demonstrated that sexual activities and offenders who have sexually

abused their victims numerous times are more likely to have multiple victims. Although

these two predictors of multiple offending were statistically significant, the effect size

(ORs) for each was relatively small.

The Hosmer-lemeshow goodness-of-fit test, $\chi 2$ (8, N = 183) = 4.21, p = .838

substantiated the validity of the model. Therefore, the null hypothesis that the full model

containing all the independent variables could not predict single and multiple child sexual

offending was rejected. The alternative hypothesis that the full model containing all the

independent variables can predict single and multiple child sexual offending was

accepted. Table 8 shows the regression coefficients (β), Wald statistics (W), odds ratios

(OR), and 95% confidence intervals for odds ratios for the predictors of single and

multiple offending.

Table 9

Logistic Regression Predicting Multiple Child Sex Offending

	B	SE	Wald	df	P	OR	95%	
							LL	UL
Tertiary Educational	5.10	1.95	6.78	1	.009	160	3.51	731
Single	2.9	.87	6.38	1	.012	8.90	1.63	48.53
Sexual activities	.34	.131	6.38	1	.012	1.40	1.08	1.82
No. of times sexual abuse occurred	.49	.25	3.88	1	.049	1.64	1.00	2.68

Summary

The researcher conducted descriptive and binary logistic regression analysis to

address the research questions. The results showed that the offenders of child sexual

abuse were on average, 30 year old single males with no prior convictions, mostly

employed, had attained primary school level education and reside in rural areas of

Namibia. Female victims were more likely to be sexually abused than males and most

sexual offenders were known to the victim. Neighbours were the most likely offenders of

sexual abuse. Finally, result of binary logistic regression showed tertiary education, being

single, sexual activities, and the number of times sexual abuse occurred were significant

predictors of multiple sexual offending. Chapter 5 discussed the implications of these findings, explored the possible implications for social change, and concluded with making recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Historically, studies conducted on CSA have predominately focused on Western sex offender populations (Cooper & Holgersen, 2016; Sawrikar & Katz, 2018). Therefore, there is a shortage of research on African child sex offenders. This is in part due to a range of equally critical competing social problems that are impacting children in Africa such as poverty, poor health and education services, child marriages and genital mutilation (Lachman et al., 2002; Lalor, 2004). Moreover, in Africa offenders of child sexual abuse are often shielded by traditional values that view child sexual abuse as a private matter (Nyangoma et al., 2019). This constitutes obstacles for the victim and has a negative impact on the number of CSA cases reported to the police for investigation. Despite these challenges increasing effort to understand CSA and offenders of such crime has been noted in Africa (Aborisade & Shontan, 2017; Ebuenyi et al., 2018; Mwangi et al., 2015; Tetteha & Markweib, 2018). Prior to this study, no other research focused on understanding child sex offending in Namibia, specifically considering the unique experiences of Namibian child sex offenders.

In this quantitative study, I examined the descriptive and criminological characteristics of adult men who have committed sexual offences against children in Namibia between the years 2000 and 2023. I also examined the characteristics of victims of child sexual abuse. Binary logistic regression analysis examined factors that predicted multiple sex offending among adult males. Results revealed that the common profile of a Namibian offender of child sexual abuse was that of a single 30-year-old male with a low level of education and no history of offending. The study also examined aspects of

offender modus operandi related to victim- offender relationship, sexual behavior

employed, and victim characteristics. These results showed that offenders were largely

extra-familial child sex offenders who were acquainted with the victims. Vaginal and

anal penetration were the most common form of sexual activities engaged against female

and male children, respectively. Most offenders had single victims and had one sexual

encounter with the victim. Moreover, more females victims were sexually abused

compared to the male children and were found to be slightly younger than male victims.

Lastly, factors such as tertiary education, being single, sexual activities and number of

times sexual abuse occurred were found to predict multiple sexual offending.

Interpretation of the Findings

Demographic Characteristics

With respect to the demographic characteristics of offenders, the mean age at time

of commission of the crime and arrest was 30 years. Most of the offenders were reported

less than 12 months after committing the sexual abuse which led to the arrest and

subsequent imprisonment of the offender. This age was comparable to the results

reported in another African study by Aborisade and Shontanan (2017). Conversely,

Western studies reported a higher mean age for child sex offenders at time of offending.

For instance, Burgess-Proctora et al., (2017) and McKillop et al., (2016) reported a mean

age 44.88 (SD =11.05) and 45.6 (SD = 11.59), respectively. This highlights the fact there

are cultural differences between African child sex offenders and Western child sex

offenders that include differences in demographic characteristics. This is important to

recognize because it implies that typologies created and used for Western offenders may not be helpful in investigations in Africa (or at least not Namibia).

Moreover, demographic results of the study revealed that the majority (31%; N=57) of child sex offenders belonged to the Nama/Damara ethic group. This is consistent with the data represented below on this group accounting for 46% of incarcerated offenders. Nama/Damara constitute 12.3% of the Namibian population (Namibian census, 2011) but 46% of offenders incarcerated in the correctional facilities (Department of Namibian Correctional Service, 2023). One way of explaining this occurrence is through the lens of historical oppression and intergenerational trauma. Although all Namibians endured racial, social and economic discrimination, it can be argued that these experiences might have affected the Nama/Damara ethnic group differently from the other ethnic groups. Some of the negative ramification of social oppression that might have aggravated criminal thinking and tendencies among the Nama/Damara population include generational poverty resulting from the dispossession of land and fragile family relations due to the disruption of social ties (Kagoyire et al., 2023). It can further be argued that the factors engrained by the apartheid system may be perpetuated by modern society. Given their average age (30 years), the child sexual offenders reported in the study did not physically live through the colonial era. Literature on intergenerational trauma posits that an individual may exhibit effects of the trauma experienced by their family members from previous generations (Leslie et al., 2023). This trauma may be transmitted through suppressed parental emotions that are unconsciously displaced onto children through child rearing (Kagoyire et al., 2023).

Consequently, children are exposed to psychological factors associated with trauma and their experiences may be akin to feeling like going through the traumatic events themselves (Kagoyire et al., 2023). The staggering disproportionate representation of the Nama/Damara ethic group amongst offenders of criminal activities is a phenomenon that requires a deeper and closer examination. This is not only because of its profound impact on members of this ethic group but also its potential long-term societal ramifications. Further studies are therefore encouraged to investigate this phenomenon.

Analysis of the relationship status of the offenders suggested that perhaps the sexual desire to have sex may have led the men to sexually abuse their victims as the majority of them were single or not engaged in an intimate relationship at the time of committing the crime. This finding dovetails with findings from Western studies (Falkenbach et al., 2019; Johnson, 2016; McPhail et al., 2018 & Smallbone & Wortley, 2001), which show the typical profile of a child sex offenders to be that of a single male. This result is however in contradiction to the findings from an African study (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017) which found child sex offenders to be predominantly married individuals. This implies that Namibian sex offenders may present a unique profile even from their African counterparts. This emphasizes the need for comparison evidence on some demographic characteristic (such age, marital status, educational level) of African child sex offenders.

Lastly, results on education level, revealed that most offenders had low levels of educational attainment. Other African studies also revealed similar results (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017; Tetteh &Markwei, 2018). This result showed that African child sex

offenders might be less educated than their Western counterparts who reported higher education attainment (Falkenbach et al., 2019; Johnson, 2016 & Smallbone & Wortley, 2001).The low educational attainment among Namibian child sex offenders may be due to factors such as poor access to school (i.e., walking all distances to get to school), unfavorable learning conditions and learning disability causing individuals to drop out of the education system at an early stage.

Criminological Characteristics

With respect to criminological characteristics of child sex offenders, the results reinforce previous studies that revealed that offenders are likely to be first time convicts (80.3%) (Burgess-Proctora et al., 2017). A lack of prior convictions demonstrates that the establishment of sex offender registries may not be a useful strategy of managing these offenders. Sex offender register as a supervision strategy is only effective at managing known sexual offenders but not helpful for those without a known history of sexual offending (Laajasalo et al., 2020). It is worth noting that researchers seem to agree that the number of legal convictions for offenders does not accurately reflect the number of child victims due to underreporting of incidences and subsequent low convictions of CSA (Graya & Rarick, 2018; Nyangoma et al, 2019 & Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). Consequently, the population of sex offenders used for the study is presumed not to be a true representative of child sex offenders in Namibia but only indicative of those incarcerated in the correctional facilities.

Biderman and Reiss (1967) coined the term "dark figure of crime" to refer to the disparity between the true incidences of criminal offending that occurs in society and

those documented in the criminal justice system and victimization surveys (Biderman & Reiss, 1967). Studies noted that the concept of dark figure is particularly pronounced for sexual offending due to the sensitive nature of the crime (Drury et al., 2017). Some studies have directed effort to producing estimates of dark figure for sex offenders, but the results have been largely inconsistent (Lovell, 2020; Bouchard & Lussier, 2015 & Lisak & Miller, 2012). Therefore, despite the obvious limitations in determining the true population of sex offenders in a society, official statistics on sex offenders are still useful in providing a glimpse into the magnitude of the problem. Studying detected child sex offenders can provide relevant information necessary for treatment to reduce the risk associated with recidivism.

Furthermore, some scholars argue that due to the under reporting of sexual abuse by victims, sex offenders are likely to have unknown sexual criminal offences (Drury et al., 2023). As a result, detected criminal offense recidivism rates may under-estimate the sex offender's true offense risk (DeLisi et al., 2009). As such there is a need to increase the accuracy of existing recidivism assessments. For instance, Hanson and Thornton (2000) proposed that the Static-99 can be improved by adding components that assesses dynamic risk factors. They suggested that factors such as repetitive victim choice (same age and sex), range and sex of victims, antisocial cognition may be indicators of sexual deviance. On the other hand, they suggested that early onset of sex offending may be indicative of persistence. Hanson and Thornton (2000) argued that including the elements on sexual deviance and persistence to the Static-99 would improve its accuracy and increase prediction of sex offense recidivism.

Although a significantly low number of offenders had prior convictions (19%), they were mostly convicted for rape (6%). This finding contradicts studies that revealed that child sex offenders are less likely to have previous convictions of sexual offences (Lee et al., 2020; Henshaw et al., 2018 & Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). Considering that the majority of sex offenders are first time offenders, it is suggested that greater efforts to curb CSA should be directed towards reducing criminogenic factors associated with child sex offending and addressing factors that make children susceptible to this crime, as well as improving the investigation of such cases to increase chances of conviction as opposed to managing convicted sex offenders

The criminal justice system should encourage early reporting of child sex crimes (Liang & Ming, 2018). This could break the circle of offending by either reducing repeat victimization or series offending (Liang & Ming, 2018). Moreover, understanding behavioral patterns and strategies adopted by child sex offenders may be helpful in the investigation of child sex crimes (Liang & Ming, 2018 & Martschuka et al., 2018). Additionally, interviewing suspects is fundamental in informing criminal investigations. As a result, it is crucial that law enforcement officers use evidence-based approaches to gather information to support the prosecution case. For instance, interview skills such as reflective listening, rolling with resistance and establishing discrepancies has been found to be effective in increasing suspect engagement and enhancing information-gathering (Humann et al., 2023). This is imperative for successful prosecution of child sexual abuse

crimes which will reinforce the community's disapproval of the crime, provide temporary relief to society and may led to mandatory treatment of the offender (Humann et al., 2023).

With regard to number of victims, the results showed that serial child sex offending is uncommon (Falkenbach et al., 2019; Day, 2016 & Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). Given that CSA is generally underreported and in light of the "dark figure of crime" concept these results should be interpreted with caution. The result support studies that found that most offenders had a single sexual engagement with the victim. On the other hand, the finding contradicts findings that suggesting the propensity of child sexual offenders to have multiple engagements with the victim such as Burgess-Proctora et al., (2017). To explain the single sexual engagement by the offender, it is postulated that the crime may have occurred as a result of opportunistic behavior, lack self-control and impulsivity (Liang & Ming, 2018). Most sexual incidences were noted to have taken place when there was absence of adequate parental guidance (e.g., when children were playing outdoor, walking by themselves and defecating in the bushes). This seems to substantiate the argument for the opportunistic nature of the crime. Moreover, literature revealed that extra-familial child sex offenders are more likely to have single sexual engagement with victims than intra-familial CSA offenders (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017).

Pertaining to the modus operandi, most sexual incidences were reported to have occurred in the offenders' house. Western studies found activities such as sporting

associations, scouts, and schools as most common location for sexual abuse (Falkenbach, 2019 & Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). This may suggest that factors that makes children vulnerable to be preyed upon by sexual offenders might be culture-specific.

Offenders got access to the victim through their relation as neighbors (41.6%) people who live in the same neighbourhood as the child) and relatives (20.6%) (Uncles, cousins and distant relatives) residing in the same house as the victim. The latter finding is significant as it reveals that dwelling sharing with distant relatives may be a potent risk factor for child sexual abuse in Namibia. This finding aligns with results obtained by Nyangoma et al. (2019) & Ezekiel et al. (2017) who revealed that room sharing between adults and children presented an opportunity for adults to sexually abuse children in Uganda and Tanzania. Sexual abuse involving offenders who are known to the victims, makes reporting of the offenders extremely difficult for the children (Nyangoma et al., 2019). Moreover, cultural factors such as general disregard of children's discourse and protection of family reputation militate against disclosure and reporting of the crime to the police. Acquaintance sexual abuse demonstrates violation of trust (Nyangoma, et al, 2019), causing severe and chronic psychological scars. Individuals with a history of childhood sexual abuse may resort to maladaptive coping mechanisms such as substance use, social withdrawal, and risky sexual behaviors (Greene et al., 2016; Ullman et al., 2014; Collin-Vézina et al., 2013; & Pe´rez-Fuentes et al., 2013). Studies have showed that these maladaptive coping mechanisms place these individuals at further risk of sexual victimization (Scoglio, 2021). While offenders used some form of deception to convince the children to enter their rooms, the strategies used were generally non-violent.

According to Lasher et al. (2015) offenders who know their victims tend to use non-coercive manipulation strategies to access their victims.

With regard to sexual activities engaged by the offenders, the most common sexual activities engaged by offenders were vaginal and anal rape for female and male children respectively. This finding collaborates with other African studies Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017 & Ezekiel et al. 2017). Scholars reported that male child sexual offenders who predominately sexually abuse females and engage in vaginal rape tend to demonstrate conventional sexual behavior (Lee et al., 2020 & Schaaf et al., 2019). This might be explained by traditional and religious views about sexuality shared by offenders. The sexual behaviors reported in the current study were found to be similar to those displayed by black individuals in the United States of America (Lee et al., 2020). Penetrative sex acts are described to be more severe and demonstrative of aggressive sexual behavior than other forms of sexual acts (Fix et al., 2017 & Young et al., 2011). Studies have postulated that demonstration of penetrative sexual behaviors among child sex offenders is indicative of criminality rather than deviant sexual arousal towards children (Lee et al., 2020; Schaaf et al., 2019 & Henshaw et al., 2018). This demonstrated that CSA in Namibia may be due to the presences of antisocial attitudes associated with general criminality instead of sexual deviance towards children. Therefore, sexual abuse of children may be symbolic displacement of aggression and violence which is speculated to have been facilitated by the existence of antisocial cognitions (Ferretti, 2021). Further studies should expand on the current study by examining the personality of child sexual

offenders in Namibia. Additionally, investigation on criminal thinking patterns and attitudes of child sex offenders is warranted.

Victim Characteristics

The results on victim characteristics align with the broad literature on child sexual victimology. The study confirmed the gendered nature of child sexual abuse (Burgess-Proctora & Kubiak, 2017; Pereda, et al., 2016 & Tanaka et al., 2017). One possible explanation of this is the patriarchal nature of the Namibian culture which places women at risk for sexual victimization (Haboush & Alyan, 2013). Additionally, physical vulnerability of females may be another reason why females are targeted for sexual abuse. On the other hand, Smallbone and Wortley (2001) argued that high rates of sexual abuse among females may be attributed to the fact that females are more likely to disclose sexual abuse experiences than males (Smallbone & Wortley, 2001). As a result, sexual abuse of boys may be significantly underestimated than that of female victims (Smallbone & Wortley, 2001).

Generally, offenders in the current study abused prepubescent children aged 11 years. The mean age for the victims was comparable to the age reported in a Western studies conducted by (e.g., Lee, 2020, Johnson et al., 2016 & McKillop et al., 2016). Namibian offenders largely offended against pre-adolescent children, whereas Western child sex offenders mostly offended against pubescent and post- pubescent children (Burgess-Proctora, 2017 & Johnson et al., 2016). An African study by Aborisade and Shontanan (2017) reported a lower age range for victims (6-8) years. These finding demonstrates the need to examine possible differences in criminological characteristics

amongst African child sex offenders. Noticeable differences were found between offenders with male and female victims. For instances, offenders who abused males had slightly older (12.63 years) victims than those with female (11.12 years) victims. In the current study, the offender with the highest (10) number of victims had sexually abused male children and had multiple sexual engagements with each victim. The offender's work (educational setting) was deemed to have facilitated the commission of the crime due to the availability and easy accessibility to the victims. Shona and Tewksbur (2021) cited that vocational child sex offenders are more likely to target male or a mixture of both gender. Additionally, vocational child sex offending is generally viewed to be opportunistic in nature (Shona & Tewksbur, 2021). While examination of the differences between offenders who target female and male victims goes beyond the scope of the study, the findings provide a hint for need for further investigation in this realm.

Predictors of Single and Multiple Sexual Offending

The findings of the study revealed that offenders with multiple victims can be distinguished from those single victims. The results of the current study revealed high education attainment, being single, number of times victims were sexually abused and sexual activity engaged as significant predictors of multiple offending. Factors such as low level of education, being single and having a criminal past are historical (static) risk factors that predict recidivism. There is a limited number of studies that examined factors that predict multiple victim offending. For instance, McKillop et al. (2016) found that offenders with multiple victims have higher levels of sexual drive than those with single victims. The high level of sexual drive is viewed as causing them to engage in repetitive

sexual behaviors (McKillop et al., 2016). Understanding factors that can predict multiple-victim sexual offending supports the development of separate risk instruments suitable for the different type of offenders (McKillop et al., 2016). The study demonstrated how these findings are unique and that there are differences between offenders with single and multiple victims.

Theoretical Framework

In accordance with the GST, the results of the study found that criminal delinquency is motivated by the presence of a number of strains (Agnew, 1992). Although, the majority of the offenders were employed (57.4%), they generally engaged in low-income earning jobs such as farm, manual labourer, cattle herding and casual construction work. This finding was expected given the offenders' low educational attainment. Therefore, economic hardships may have been possible strains for the offenders of child sexual abuse. Low socioeconomic status can increase the risk in developing psychological traits (e.g., impulsivity, anger; poor self-control) associated with criminality (Buncha et al., 2018; Wemmersa et al., 2018; Craig, 2017). Moreover, most offenders were not married or involved in intimate relationship at the time of commission of the crime. Therefore, sexual abuse may be due to sexual urges or difficulties maintaining adult relationships. The accumulative strain of economic pressure and complications associated with adult relationships is speculated to have caused feelings of hopelessness and despair. Moreover, these emotions might have stimulated a sense of vulnerability which arises from social expectations of masculinity and lack of opportunities or capacity to fulfil those expectations (Sasman, 2007). This is consistent

with the GST postulation of crime as a behavioral coping strategy motivated by the need to either dismiss or escape from strains being experienced (Piquero & Sealock, 2000). In addition, the lack of psychological capacity due to low level of education might have aggravated a criminal response.

Literature described child sex offenders precipitated by strain as regressed. Regressed child sex offenders are not inherently motivated by children's physical or psychological characteristics but by sexual gratification and easy access to victims (Lehmann et al., 2014). Therefore child sexual abuse may be due to offenders' inability to adequately deal with strains (Miller, 2012) and may experience temporary departure from attraction to adults (Robertiello & Terry, 2007). Regressed child sex offenders tend to primarily abuse female children whom they have easy access to and thereby recognized as opportunistic crime (Robertiello & Terry, 2007).

As theorized by GST, the mere presence of strains is not adequate to drive criminal coping. Thus, individuals who resort to criminal coping are postulated to have antisocial trait. The sexual behavior displayed by the offenders is suggestive of the presence of antisocial cognitions which are speculated to have facilitated the sexual abuse when the opportunities arose (Ferretti, 2021). In conclusion, the findings have revealed low level of education, poor socioeconomic status and difficulty maintaining adult relationships as possible strains contributing to CSA. This is in line with accumulative criminological literature that have identified low educational attainment, low economic status and instable intimate relationship as criminogenic factors. The results of the study contributed to the literature that supports the utility of the GST. More significantly, they

provide evidence for the relevance of GST in explaining child sex offending in Namibia. The researcher hopes that future research continues to examine GST and its utility as a predictor for sexual abuse and criminality in general.

Limitations

Some limitations to the present study warrant mention. One limitation was the use of archival data which deprives the opportunity to seek further elaboration on the data provided. Another limitation related to the statistics, given the high rates of undetected or unreported sexual crimes, the current population was unlikely an accurate representation of all adult males who engage in child sexual offending. Lastly, the results of the study have limited scope of generalization to other jurisdictions due unique characteristics and circumstances of the Namibian experience. Despite the limitations, the study provides novel knowledge on offenders of child sexual abuse in Namibia.

Recommendations

The present findings have numerous important implications for intervention, preventative measures, investigation, and future research. With respect to rehabilitation program development, it is suggested that effective correction-based programs should aim to address general antisocial traits associated with child sexual abuse. Pertinent areas of focus should be stress and anger management, cognitive restructuring (Lee et al., 2020). Vocational skills training is also deemed critical, as it will empower the offenders with skills that could increase their likelihood of being employed or to earn a decent living post incarceration. Ultimately, this would decrease strains associated with finance.

Deliberation on the establishment of sex offender registration has been receiving a great deal of attention in Namibia.

The results obtained from the current study indicated that most child sex offenders have no history of sexual abuse. This seem to suggest that sex offender registration may not be an effective prevention strategy. It is therefore, suggested that developmental and early intervention programs may be effective in reducing the rate of CSA. Programs designed to address criminogenic factors associated with child sexual abuse should consider assisting men to overcome perceived sense of powerlessness and manage aggression that may trigger criminal response to stress. It is well established that parents are in a unique position to play an important role in CSA prevention strategies. The nature of parent-child relationships can positively affect children's self-protection skills (Liang & Ming, 2018; Masilo, 2018; Xie, et al., 2016). Parents who have a close relationship with their children are more likely to identify warning signs of CSA and respond to their child's disclosure of CSA in a supportive and sensitive manner (Xie, et al., 2016). This may diminish children's negative emotions such as self-blame, isolation and anger (Liang & Ming, 2018.

Additionally, parents' involvement may serve as an important catalyst for the children's treatment and recovery process. Xie, et al., (2016) proposed comprehensive preventative programs for parents portioned in three levels. The primary prevention education focus on what behaviors constitute CSA, the risk factors for CSA, and how to talk about sex-related issues and CSA prevention with children from a cultural context. It

is suggested that the secondary prevention level of CSA include content relating to how to identify warning signs of CSA and respond to a child's disclosure of CSA, as well as how to report the matter to the police. Finally, Xie, et al., (2016) recommend that tertiary prevention education for parents must concentrate on long-term support for the children's recovery following sexual abuse.

From the modus operandi of the offenders, it is important for children to understand common strategies used by child sex offenders in gaining access to the children. For instance, it is suggested that children be educated not to accept food, money or gifts from other people and not to comply with requests to follow men to foreign places. The current study found these tactics to be effective to lure victims for purposes of committing sexual abuse. Thus, these may be fundamental self-protective strategies for children that should be reinforced by parents (Liang & Ming, 2018). Moreover, parents should be taught about the importance of ensuring adequate adult supervision for children when playing outside and designate adult supervision for children traveling on foot.

In addition, it is evident from the findings of the study that there is need for awareness campaigns to publicize the dangers that children face at home, neighborhood and at school instead of over-relying on concept of "stranger danger". With respect to risk assessment, the study found that Namibian and Western child sex offenders are not comparable from a criminological standpoint as differences exist in domains such as age of offenders, education attainment, sexual behavior, and high risk areas for sexual abuse. This suggests that current risk assessment measures may not be transferable in to

Namibian child sex offenders. This justifies the importance of developing risk assessment measures standardized for the local population.

The study provided useful data for law enforcement officers to begin to build a body of knowledge on the descriptive profiles of child sex offenders. Given the "dark figure" of CSA crime, it is suggested that criminal justice systems increase their view on child sexual abuse beyond reported cases (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017). Additionally, the findings of the study suggest that there is a dire need for more studies to be conducted to conceptualize child sex offenders in order to broaden knowledge concentrated in developing literature on crime prevention and offender treatment (Aborisade & Shontanan, 2017). Future research is further recommended to address the limitations of the current study.

In order to effect positive social change there is a dire need to change the discourse on "stranger danger" and aggressively teach the community of the potential dangers at home. Efforts to address CSA will not be effective if they are grounded on misinformation. Moreover, CSA can only be addressed if communities adopt holistic workable approaches that target different key players such as policy makers, law enforcement, correctional services, school, parents and children. The recommendations above provide a guide on how key players could contribute to the prevention of CSA and commit to the promotion of child well-being.

Conclusion

This quantitative study examined the demographic and criminological characteristics of adult male child sex offenders. The findings revealed the overall profile of Namibian child sexual offenders was that of a single 30-year-old male with low education attainment and no previous criminal conviction. Data on demographic and criminological characteristic of Namibian child sex offenders were compared to their Western counterparts. It was found that the Namibian and Western offenders were not criminological comparable in terms of sexual activities engaged during commission of the crime and high risk places. This study also found differences between Namibian and child sex offenders from other African countries. For instance, most Namibian child sex offenders were found to be single whereas child sex offenders from other African countries were predominately reported to be married. This suggests that child sex offenders are a heterogeneous group. With respect to the modus operandi, most offenders were found to extra-familial and to largely target female victims. Offenders mostly engaged in vaginal and anal rape for female and male children respectively. Binary logistic scores for offenders with multiple victims can be distinguished from those with single victim in terms of relationship status, educational level and number of sexual engagement with the victims.

The study provides novel perspective on CSA in Namibian and contributes to international literature on victimology and child sexual offenders. Child sex offending in Namibian appeared to occur as a form of regression resulting from offenders' inability to effectively deal with strains. The research has brought to light an area that may help

treatment providers on most suitable rehabilitation for Namibian child sex offenders. The study also provides insight on preventive measures to be employed by parents and children. The negative ramifications of CSA on the victims continue to exist long after the court proceedings have ended and the offenders have served their prison terms. The experience of sexual abuse alters the victims' view of themselves and the world, which results in a lifelong battle for the victims to rebuild healthy personalities and relationships. The study hopes to have contributed to the accumulative efforts to address this serious social problem and make the world a safer place for children.

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Appendix A: Research Permission

Republic of Namibia

Namibian Correctional Service

Ministry of Home Affairs, Immigration, Safety and Security

Enquiries: D/COMM JM Amupadhi
Tel No: (+264 61) 284 6111
Fax No: (+264 61) 238469
13281
My Ref: 6/2/1   Your Ref:

Office of the Commissioner-General
Namibian Correctional Service
Private Bag
Windhoek
Namibia

07 March 2023

COMM Emma Nafuka
PO Box 50023
Bachbreacht
Windhoek

Dear COMM Nafuka

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF NAMIBIAN CHILD SEX OFFENDERS

1. Kindly be informed that approval to conduct research in the Namibian Correctional Service at the Windhoek, E. Shikongo, Hardap, Divundu, E. Nepemba, Walvis Bay and Oluno the Correctional Facilities is granted.

2. Please note that you are required to produce this letter when conducting the study as proof of authorization.

3. You are therefore advised to make relevant arrangements with the Officers in Charge of the above-mentioned correctional facilities, for access to any documentation or secondary information that may be required for your research.

4. Take note that the information or data collected should not be used for any other purpose, but for this academic research only.

5. Upon completion of your study, you are required to submit a copy of your final research project to the Directorate: Performance Assurance, Monitoring and Evaluation at the Namibian Correctional Service Headquarters. The Head of Directorate Commissioner LK. Uukelo can be reached at +264 61 2846101 or email address at Lovisa.Uukelo@ncs.gov.na

Yours Sincerely,

RT HAMUNYELA
COMMISSIONER-GENERAL

All official correspondence must be addressed to the Commissioner-General,
Namibian Correctional Service

Appendix B: Data Collecting Sheet

Name of Assessor: _____   Date: _____

Entry Code: _____

Question Number	Risk Factor	Codes	Score
1	Age at time of commission of the crime		18-100+
2	Age at time of arrest		18-100+
3	Location where the incident took place	City, town, village	
4	Place where incident took place	Inside home Offender's home Traveling on foot Playing School Other location	0 1 2 3 4 5
5	Prior convicted offence/s	Yes No	0 1
	If Yes	Number of prior arrests :_____	0-100+
6	If Yes, type of crime	Property offence/s Theft Robbery Kidnap Sex offending Murder Illicit substance Others:_____	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	Ethic group	Ovambo Himba Herero Kavango San	0 1 2 3 4

		Nama/Damara	5
		Baster	6
		White	7
		Colored	8
		Caprivian	9
		Others:_____	10
8	Employment status at time of arrest	Employed	0
		Unemployed	1
		Unknown	2
9	Level of educational	Grade: _____	
		No education	0
		Unknown	1
		Primary	2
		Secondary	3
		Tertiary	4
10	Relationships status at time of commission of the crime	Single	0
		Married/Cohabiting	1
		Divorced	2
		Separated	3
		Unknown	4
		In a relationship	5
11	Gender of victim	Male	0
		Female	1
		Unknown	2
12	Age of victim		0-18
13	Is the victim known to the offenders?	Yes	0
		No	1
		Unknown	2
14	sexual activity/ies performed	Vaginal and anus penetration	0
		Insertion of fingers in the vagina	1
		Kissing	2
		Rubbing and touching outside of clothing	3
		Forcing children to watch Pornography	4

15	How did the offender gain access to the victim	Through their profession	0
		Father	1
		Stepfather	2
		Boyfriend	3
		Relative	4
		Family friend	5
		Neighbor	6
		Stranger	7
		Abducted	8
		Unknown	9
16	Number of victim(s)	_____	0-100+
17	Number of times sexual victimization occurred.	No: _____	0-100+