

Childhood Sexual Abuse : Event, Fact or Structure

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In attempting to develop a different approach to understanding various areas of human life psychologists have been commenting on the range of discourses, many contradictory, which dominate social practices (e.g. Gergen, 1985, Harre, 1984, Moscovici, 1984, Sampson, 1986). These processes contribute to the production of each human subject, to the construction of individual identity and emotional life, and construct the meanings imputed to interpersonal exchanges, including relations between men and women and between adults and children. In order to make sense of the complexities of human behaviour, we need to take apart both the commonplace notions and the dominant, accepted explanations of cause-effect relationships. In any particular discourse, because of dominant sociocultural

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forms of understanding, attention tends to focus on certain specifics with a noticeable lack of attention to attendant phenomena. Where perceptible, the gaps are likely to be a fruitful locus for the study of contradictions. In a social constructionist view, where any discussion about the world is seen as "an artefact of communal interchange" (Gergen, 1985, p.266), psychological inquiry itself may be evaluated. This approach forces us to re-examine dominant systems of thought and to reflect on widespread conceptions of knowledge, which leads to insights concerning the purposes of knowledge, and how it is transformed.

Crucial to understanding complex behaviours is a dissection of the conflictual and often confusing definitions of the notions involved. Such work has been done on, for example, falling in love (Averill, 1985), subjectivity, racism and gender (Henriques, Hollway, Urwin, Venn and Walkerdine, 1984), and the person (Gergen and Davis, 1984). The work of unpacking the meaning of "racism" for example could relate to problems resulting from contradictions concerned in attempts to be nonracist in racist society. Such concepts are understood by the individuals concerned and others of similar background in particular forms which are rooted in the ways in which such concepts are socially construed and expressed. This has to do with practices of childrearing, messages conveyed by the media and through formal and informal education, for instance. I argue here

that notions concerning the traumatic effects of childhood sexual abuse may be approached usefully in the same way, reflecting on the psychological (and popular) literature on this subject.

A growing body of academic literature reports the extent to which child sexual abuse is prevalent (e.g. Herman, 1981, Russell, 1983), and an even more extensive literature speaks of the gravity of the effects of experience of incest and child sexual abuse (e.g. Kempe and Kempe, 1984, Russell, 1986). Along with widespread discussion of the incest taboo, it is evident that it is commonly transgressed. There are also notions concerning the innocence of childhood, often contradicted in experience and in practice, together with a pervasive view that child sexual abuse may be the result of seductive behaviour in children. It is generally held that "normal" adults do not have a sexual interest in children (just as it is held that heterosexuality is "normal" and rape is deviant). There is an over-riding normative preoccupation with sex and sexual practices while there are a multitude of conflictual definitions for what this is and the role it plays in social structure, social groups and in individual relationships (Weeks, 1981). Simultaneously, and arising out of these ideas, there is a highly emotive loading to individuals' acknowledgement of the experience, which makes it difficult to discuss: thus there is a charged silence in the midst of vociferous talk. The silences are important aspects of the discourse.

Specialised treatment units, conferences and educational programmes are set up aimed at preventing further increases in occurrences of sexual abuse. At the same time, there is discussion about the rapid rise in incidence in these phenomena and almost monotonous repetitive, sensational reporting of certain (extreme) forms of child sexual abuse in the media. There is a seepage of discourse from the burgeoning professional literature via the media into more common everyday thought, which parallels the way in which psychoanalytic ideas have been adopted in fragmentary and naive form by large numbers of laypersons (Berger, 1965, Moscovici, 1961, cited in Moscovici, 1984). There is a sense in which all this discourse creates the phenomenon - the impulse as well as reactions to it. In terms of a cognitive constructionist model, every aspect of the discourse serves to perpetuate and shape the phenomena and its repercussions.

In the last decade it has become widely accepted that a large number of women in western society report childhood experience of sexual molestation or abuse. This may be either intrafamilial or extrafamilial, and in many instances both have occurred (e.g. Finkelhor, 1984, Kempe and Kempe, 1984). In 1981 Herman reviewed five surveys and found that 20 to 33% of some 5000 adult women reported childhood sexual encounters with adult males. Although there are problems in comparing these surveys, there was consistency in these reports concerning largely middle class and/or educated women. More recently, using intensive interviews and a

large, broadly representative sample of adult women in San Francisco, Russell (1983) reported that 38% had had under age 18 experiences of this nature, and 28% had at least one such experience before the age 14 years. Estimates today range between 12% and 44%, depending on the sample studied and on the definition of sexual abuse which is used. My own small study among women students at the University of Cape Town revealed a prevalence of 44%. The overall picture reflects a widespread phenomenon at all levels of variously grouped contemporary western populations of women.

The most common criticism of these studies relates to the circumscribed population samples, the way information has been gathered, or because sexual abuse is either too narrowly or too broadly conceptualised. There is little comment which indicates the need for a closer examination of the nonparticipating and self-excluding sections of the populations studied: the silent majority. Of Russell's original random sample of 2000 households only 50% responded, and 19% refused to participate in the study once they understood its focus. Of course it is extremely difficult to devise a study involving unwilling or unavailable subjects!

It has been suggested that there has been an increase in the phenomenon over the past two or three decades, but no information is provided from other historical or social contexts to justify this claim. Some hold that the problem has simply become more visible. However, another kind of

explanation not yet offered might be that the phenomena in question have become more "public" for certain groups of women, e.g. those with some access to feminist thinking which advocates the need to expose these phenomena. For most groups of women this option could seem pointless (e.g. Fine, 1983/1984): what do women gain by such disclosures of personal experience? More importantly, what may be lost through such selfdisclosure?

Until the early 1970's the prevalent view on child sexual molestation was that girls invent these events. The idea was that they do not really take place except in the female imagination, or that women distort real events to minimise taking responsibility for what is viewed as seductive behaviour. Although fashionably less explicit, this view is still widely prevalent in many health care environments. It also dominates in courts of law. Women and children are thus effectively silenced in the more common situations. In this context, silence is self-protective and pragmatic, and can be seen to be a meaningful adaptive strategy.

Following the early work of Schachter (1964), recent studies on the social construction of emotions (Armon-Jones, 1985, Harre, 1986) suggest that widespread notions of complicity, negligent irresponsibility, or the idea that "people get what they deserve" (the 'just world' hypothesis) all play a part in the construction of the emotional responses, at the time and in later years. The complex feelings attached to such experience contribute to this silencing; they also contribute to the perpetuation of the idea stigma and of

passive victims.

The area is difficult to research because of the fraught issues which surround sexuality, privacy, the sanctity of childhood and the family, and even more so because of the stigmatization anticipated and experienced by women following sexual abuse.

Apart from prevalence studies, the psychological outcome studies which have appeared in the literature largely fall into various combinations of the following groups:

- (a) the elements which are researched are individual children, families and women,
- (b) the knowledge which is pursued involves detail of identified child sexual abuse, ways to identify unknown cases, and lists concerning the traumatic effects of child sexual abuse,
- (c) a prominent goal is the isolation of important ameliorating and exacerbating variables within these situations, to enable the prediction of traumatic effects,
- (d) a second goal is the relative effectiveness of a range of intervention strategies, aimed at individuals and families.

These studies adopt a convention of epistemology which seeks particular effects following certain events. Very little attention is focused on the context within which the experiences occur, although it is the social context which lumps these phenomena with the meanings and feelings which

shape the subjective experience.

In the case of sexual molestation of children, all concerned can be seen to be caught up in adversarial problems because of dominant social constructions of sexuality, childhood and trauma. In the discourse of trauma, a victim identity is created for the child (usually female), an assailant identity for the man, rescuer identities for the health professionals, and crusader roles for the media. Each leads to its own set of distortions.

The discourse contributes to the structuring of significant aspects of experience. The discourse of the "victim" is particularly problematic in a situation where, for instance, the helping institutions set up to intervene can be seen as part of the problem; they offer no really effective remedies but perpetuate notions of damage and practices of protection. In fact the "remedies" may have to be devised and fought for by those who are "victims", redefined as active agents. Furthermore, there is considerable confusion about what precisely constitute the "traumatic effects" so widely mooted, either within the childhood experience of sexual abuse or in its consequences. The child is studied extensively, as an individual or within the family unit, and a great deal of energy and effort are put into this endeavour with the aim of diminishing these effects. Most studies of the effects of childhood sexual abuse report on sequelae during childhood and adolescence for the child and her family. An inconsistent picture of a broad range of

consequences emerges. The overall picture is one of a kind of derailment of a "natural" developmental process (Riley, 1983) into any of several routes of "deviance" as a result of particular events.

In retrospective studies seeking to uncover longer-term effects of childhood sexual abuse in later years, it is not surprising that the picture gains little clarity. Commonly reported are behaviours such as truancy, delinquency, promiscuity, illegitimate pregnancy, and early marriage (Steele and Alexander, 1981). Aside from the point that the depiction of these complex behaviours as "problems" is a moral judgement rather than one a psychological disability (McIntosh, 1978), such choices are also made by adolescents and young adults (male as well as female) without a history of childhood sexual abuse (Ennew, 1986).

In attempting to establish the long term consequences of such childhood experience in data obtained from adult women, the problems are compounded by the range of intervening variables over the subject's life since the childhood experience, further compounded by variables antecedent to the experience of molestation. Browne and Finkelhor (1986) recently exhaustively reviewed the literature; they present a coherent critique of the problems involved, but this is from within the framework of logical positivist research. In the same epistemological vein, there have been calls for more rigorous empirical studies of the effects of childhood sexual abuse. These calls are aimed at prioritizing the current list of covariables. Factors such as family support

and stability, "good" early mothering, the degree of trust in the relationship before and at the time of the sexual encounter, whether the abuser is a familiar or an authority figure, are some examples of these. The number of "critical covariabes" purported to exacerbate or ameliorate the effects of the experience seem to proliferate with each new approach. Without a sound theoretical framework which takes account of the social and historical context, it is clear that advances in understanding will be marginal (Sampson, 1986).

These studies, while nibbling at the edges of the phenomenon, seem to fall through the central core without seeing what it is. In close-focus study of individuals and family units, looking for pathologies or deviance with the hope of showing these as "causes" or as "consequences", the problems involved are insurmountable. From a certain perspective the events seem similar, but the facts which may be more fruitfully observed are likely to be of a quite different order. This issue was well recognised by researchers such as Durkheim, Claude Bernard, and Freud (Mestrovic, 1985). The context of constructed meanings in terms of social representations (Moscovici, 1984) is ignored.

There are major problems in these conventional studies. Firstly, the empirical literature shows a widespread assumption of traumatic effects (Giovannoni and Becerra, 1979). It is rarely commented that there is inconsistent evidence for this assumption (but see Freud, 1984). The

expectation of such effects can all too easily become a self-fulfilling prophecy. This especially when subjects who present themselves for assistance often do have such a history. The silent invisibility of the nonpresenters tends to be overlooked, and the likelihood that many conceal or do not recognise their histories of such experience is forgotten.

Secondly, absent from these empirical studies of child sexual abuse is a critical examination of the concepts of trauma and traumatic effects. "Emotional trauma" is rarely discussed in a specific way. The notion that some children and adults are reported to be unaffected by the experience of sexual abuse is not popular (Henderson, 1983, Watters, 1983) and is unusual within the current literature. If disturbance is not evident, the dominant view is that vulnerability effects will emerge later in response to some specific triggering event or context (Browne and Finkelhor, 1986). This relates directly but inaccurately to psychoanalytic theory but it is conspicuous that the detailed psychoanalytic work which should inform this idea is absent. The Freudian notion of trauma, and the development of this complex concept, is discussed in Laplanche and Pontalis (1973) and will not be dealt with here, suffice to say that there is little connection between the theoretical concept and the way in which the notion of traumatic effects is used in the empirical literature.

Thirdly, what aspects are absent or de-emphasised? Comparatively little is written about the males who have

been involved in all these situations. Where attempts have been made to study the males concerned, conclusions suggest either that the men concerned are "immature", "inadequate", or that psychopathology is present. What notions of maturity, adequacy and normality mean is not discussed in such reports.

Fourth, little attention is given to the notion of "resilience". This is the most interesting question in this area of study, but victim-oriented research places a particular meaning upon silence. This is commonly attributed to guilt, and is regarded as unhealthy. Given the survey figures mentioned, it seems that large numbers of children quietly continue their lives, apparently unaffected. How can this be? It seems to contradict the widespread view that sexual abuse is a hugely traumatic experience. When "effects" are not visible, what exactly are we talking about?

Within the framework which expects traumatic effects, it could be held that women with this history experience at least problems with sexual functioning in intimate relationships (Becker, Skinner, Abel and Treacy, 1982). It might be that many conceal this, or consider their sexual functioning as not out of the ordinary. It is equally possible that women privately attribute current experience which seems problematic to such childhood experience, but seek no assistance or remedy. We need to remind ourselves that we are talking about some 40% of the adult female population and conceivably more. Most do not come into

contact with mental health professionals and we have no data in these respects. We also have no "normative" baselines with which to make the necessary comparisons in such research: what is "normal sexual functioning" for a woman in our society? It has been argued that there are multiple and contradictory norms in this area of human behaviour (Gagnon and Simon, 1973).

If one takes the dubious view that a homosexual orientation is a "sexual problem", there is research which suggests that there is a higher incidence of childhood experience of sexual abuse among lesbian women (Gundlach, 1977). However, there are other ways in which to understand this finding - for instance, the compelling need to make sense of seemingly out of the ordinary aspects of ones life, particularly if one feels pressed to justify "deviance". This is not discussed.

Some have examined the possibility that the effects for many women are to be found in a particular personality structure - what might be termed a defect or a deficiency which, although not a form of psychopathology as delineated today, has pervasive and subtle effects on day to day living. Examples might be a difficulty in what is regarded as the appropriate expression of anger, or inordinate suspiciousness or low self esteem. In this framework, several studies have made use of personality tests such as the MMPI (Meiselman, 1980, Scott and Stone, 1986), projective instruments such as the Rorschach (Owens, 1982), the Clinical Analysis Questionnaire (Sarbo, 1984), and the

Personal Orientation Inventory (Wetmore, 1982). Although specifically studying women who are known to have childhood histories of sexual abuse, the findings have not been especially useful. The over-riding impression is that these instruments are "too coarse" to provide a clear picture of long term effects on personality. It is conspicuous, however, that here again the prevailing notion is one of expected traumatic effects. The methods and the kinds of observation involved reflect implicit assumptions which obscure the picture rather than clarifying it (Danziger, 1985).

Thus far there has been no suggestion that there may be interesting discussion deriving from the very fact that, even though women with this history are themselves likely to attribute consequences to the experience (Gold, 1986), they are not in fact distinguishable from women without this history.

Attempts to study what are termed the effects of widespread childhood sexual abuse of females may be futile. It is my contention that female children are reared in a social climate in which there is a pervasive expectation of the likelihood of molestation. This constitutes a fundamental aspect of female experience in our sociohistorical context (Riger et al, 1978, Riger and Gordon, 1981, Estep et al, 1977). In other words, the social construction of female identity is marked on the one hand by reality experiences in a range of forms and, on the other hand, by a gamut of prohibitions, rules and conventions which govern and inhibit

our behaviour in efforts (frequently futile) to avoid, prevent or deny this reality. The cumulative effects of these rules and conventions could be argued to constitute a significant configuration of what Harre (1984) might call the "female mind".

In 1985 Stanko writes: "Cast in a mould constructed within male-dominated society, women's experiences of sexual and physical violation take on an illusion of normality, ordinariness" (page 9). Hanmer and Saunders (1983) note that fear is maintained by the media, informal accounts and the personal experience of women and their friends. This leads to decreased public participation, paradoxically increased dependency on men, and heightened vigilence. It is not only within the context of westernised patriarchal society that this holds. Ardener (1981), Ortner and Whitehead (1981), and Sanday (1981) have written about a range of social contexts in which women's lives are dominated by fear of the possibility of sexual assault. This curtails freedom of movement and limits access to resources.

The possibility of sexual abuse is a "material reality of women's lives not just a psychological, attitudinal, or ideological one" (MacKinnon, 1982). A certain degree of paranoid behaviour is part of the psychological-cum-ideological constitution of what it is to be female. This renders girls and women structurally vulnerable, while we observe the rules, conventions and practices regarded as appropriate to our structural position.

The three women depicted in the film A QUESTION OF SILENCE have broken through certain of the boundaries which contribute to the maintenance of the structures of gender appropriate behaviour. They break the rules - the rules concerning violence and compliance, concerning defence of self through verbal explanation, concerning normal and deviant behaviour, and concerning the male-constituted and dominated system of justice which they flout (with laughter) in the final courtroom scene. They enjoy the collusive silence of other women, who both witnessed the murder of the boutique owner and who witness the courtroom scene, but do not come forward as witnesses in the conventions of the judicial practices. Structurally these women are "supposed to be" dominated and intimidated by their material situation in the social order (by husband, by the state and its court, by the public prosecutor, by the woman who represents the social order in her role as their advocate) as well as intrapsychically through the "internalization" of the material situation. Many women (not necessarily feminists) viewed this film with a sense of exhilaration, whereas many men (including those who hold a feminist perspective) left the film with a sense of disturbance and unease.

The social construction of the category women involves subjects designated female accepting and participating in a set of socially subordinate positions. In conventional developmental psychology, social learning and socialization processes are seen to shape females into particular roles. When women do not "fit" this is perceived as deviant or

abnormal or pathological. The contradiction between the assertion that women are socialized into their more or less normative roles of subordination and subjugation, and the active struggles of women against these structures is a significant one (Sayers, 1986). Increasingly there is a conscious recognition among women of a range of conflictful experience and ideas within the social construction "female" (Hollway, 1984, Wetherell, 1982). For numbers of women this awareness has brought about an active effort to effect changes in social structures and social practices, for the benefit of women and for members of other oppressed groups. The depiction of women purely as victims is myth. It reflects a major contradiction in women's experience of themselves: many women do see themselves as passive, helpless, at times, in accord with the myth. At other times women's experience is of their capacity to act effectively on the world. The socially mediated forces which establish and elaborate the construction of what is and what is not traumatic for women, enforcing protection, self restriction, paranoid fears and a sense of vulnerability, constrain women's sense of effective agency in significant ways. It seems crucial to uncover the structures which heighten the significance of sexual molestation in a context in which this is daily experience.

A counterpart is the myth of male violence (Walkowitz, 1982): this is not all there is to being male and to male/female relating. Things are much more complicated. In a general atmosphere of male-female and adult-child relating

which is permeated with practices and their connotations of protection/ownership, vulnerability/abuse, and male-active female-passive, the case of child sexual abuse is a reflection of normative patterns rather than singular events with singularly harmful consequences.

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