

Prevailing Situation of Violence against Children in Pakistan

Final Report

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Acronyms

AKH	Agha Khan Hospital
PCCTS	Parent-Child Conflict Tactic Scale
PCCTC	Parent Child-Conflict tactics scale
DG Khan	Dera Ghazi Khan
FATA	Federally administrator tribal areas
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
FIR	First information report
ICRW	International Centre for Research on Women
KPK	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa
LHWs	Lady Health Workers
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGOs	Non-Governmental organizations
NWFP	North West Frontier Province
PCMS	Perception of Child Maltreatment Scale
SPARCPK	Society for the protection of the rights of the child
WHO	World Health Organization

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Executive Summary

Violence *per se* appears to be globally pervasive, yet there is variance in its prevalence, intensity, and direction. The biggest victims are the powerless and the marginalized sections of society like women and children. They are especially vulnerable to this menace due to their inability to fight back. Since the middle of the twentieth century gravity of the situation has been gradually recognized nationally and internationally. Thereby, the issue of violence against children has emerged as a serious human rights and public health concern. Exposure of children to violence has been found to have myriad of negative implications on the development of their cognitive, social, and physical health.

The prevalence of violence against children can be found in different spheres of life such as domestic, school, workplace, and community. It is widely acknowledged that the appropriate and need-based actions to reduce violence against children cannot be taken until the accurate statistics on the issue have not been collected. The study in hand was an effort to assess the frequency and magnitude of different types of violence committed against children including psychological, physical, sexual, neglect, and labor. The children under study were in the age group of 5-12 years. Effort has been made to check an association between types of violence against children and their socio-demographics. This study was carried out in the four provinces of Pakistan (Punjab, Sindh, Kyber Puktunkawa, and Balochistan) and the federal capital Islamabad.

The data was collected through the triangulation of quantitative and qualitative approaches. Keeping in view the objectives, for quantitative data two standardized tools, “Perception of Child Maltreatment Scale” (PCMS) and “Parent-Child Conflict Tactic Scale” (CCTS), were adapted. Given the socio-cultural realities of Pakistani society, the said tools were partly amended. Quantitative data was collected from 948 children, of whom 475 were in-school setting and 473 were out-of-school, with about equal proportion of boys and girls. To supplement this data 36 focus group discussions (FGDs), each with 5-6 children, were arranged. The quantitative data was processed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 21). Descriptive statistics were used for the analysis. The qualitative data gathered through the FGDs was transcribed verbatim in Urdu (in case these were in Sindhi, Balochi, and Pushto) and then translated into English. The data was manually processed using the standard procedure of coding.

The analysis of the data about the violence against children has been presented under four main spheres of life: (i) domestic, (ii) in school, (iii) at workplace, and (iv) in community. In the sphere of domestic life, of the five types of violence experienced by children, psychological was on top (84 %), followed by physical (74 %), child neglect (73 %), and child labor (42 %). Sexual violence in the domestic sphere was reported by only three percent of the children. Some of the children experienced different types of violence simultaneously. In school premises, reportedly about two thirds of the children were the victims of psychological as well as physical violence. Sexual violence was experienced by two percent of the cases. Among the children, who were working as domestic servants, garbage collectors, mechanics or were doing some other forms of child labor, physical violence appeared to be on top (reported by 71 %), followed by psychological violence (reported by 65 %), and then by sexual abuse (reported by 12 %) at their workplace. The children also faced psychological (46 %), physical (44 %) and sexual violence (10 %) at the hands of community members including neighbors, relatives, shopkeepers, strangers, and peer groups.

On the whole, the results indicated that the psychological violence and physical violence were the highest in all four settings. Though reported by different proportions, these two types of violence remained on top. The children claimed less physical assault cases in school as compared with other settings such as home, workplace or community. The highest frequency of physical violence was reported to be at work place, followed by community, while school and home were found to be relatively safe places for children. The out of school children were found to be more vulnerable to violence in all spheres of life as compared to in-school children. In general, a greater proportion of the girls were exposed to psychological violence as compared with boys, while a greater proportion of the boys encountered physical violence as compared with girls.

The findings strengthened the impression that no community in Pakistan was free of violence as all selected districts had a substantial percentage of children experiencing some form of violence. For instance, though the children from Punjab had less cases of domestic and school violence, yet there was the highest percentage of out-of-school children reporting violence at workplace and in community. Similarly, if the children living in KPK, Sindh, and Baluchistan reported less frequency of violence at workplace, then, there were high percentages of cases of violence in domestic, school, and community settings.

The gravity of the situation, as reflected in the present study, demands the introduction of comprehensive, integrated, and national-level interventions to curb various types of violence against children. The interventions should include both child-centric legislation as well as non-legislative child centered community programs. The child centric legislation would help to legally protect the children from violence perpetrated by teachers, employers, parents, peer groups, and strangers. The non-legislative community programs may include peer-mentorship, awareness campaigns about the harmful consequences of child violence, and impressing upon reporting the cases of violence against children.

It is quite pertinent that the community be made aware that no child be out of school and all the working children be given education through non-formal school system. Counseling of parents and children about the zero tolerance of violence against children is very crucial. There is a need to develop a mechanism for inculcating non-violent parent-child relationship culture. Building on such a foundation, extensive awareness campaigns ought to be launched to convince the parents, teachers, and other stakeholders that violence does not help reforming a child, nor is an effective way in improving the learning process. They must realize that violence against children is unnecessary and counterproductive. The vulnerable children must not be left at the mercy of perpetrators.

Gravity of the situation requires developing a mechanism for arbitration between educational institutions and employers so that every child gets education. In totality society at large must provide necessary social support to all victims, irrespective of the severity of violence. As a matter of principle, no institution or individual, no matter how close or culturally sanctified he/she may be, is allowed to commit violence against children under any pretext or under any justification. In this connection children themselves be legally empowered to lodge a complaint against the perpetrators.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The Convention on the Rights of the Child, drafted by the United Nations, defines violence against children as “all forms of physical or mental violence, injury and abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse” (Pineiro, 2006, p.33). Pakistan is signatory to a number of national and international treaties/conventions which enshrine to promote child rights and adhere to protect children from all forms of violence (Sadruddin, 2011).

Commitment to such treaties/conventions is very much in line with the constitution of Pakistan, which guarantees some fundamental rights to its citizens, inclusive of children (Government of Pakistan, 2010). For example, article 25(1) of the constitution of Pakistan states: “all citizens are equal before law and entitled to equal protection of law.” Specifically for the children there is an undertaking that “The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of five to sixteen years in such manner as may be determined by law” (Article 25a). So far as the protection from violence and elimination of the exploitation are concerned, it has been enunciated in the constitution that “No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment” (Article 37a). To ensure that the children are free to be able to avail schooling, the constitution stipulates: “No child below 14 years of age shall be engaged in "any factory or mine or any other hazardous employment” (Article 11). This age limit to work is incongruous with the International Labor Organization (ILO) Convention No.59 of 1937 (having binding force in Pakistan) which sets 15 years age limit for employment in industrial undertakings. The same age limit was followed by the subsequent ILO Convention No.138 of 1973 requiring the child to be minimum of 15 years or the age of completion of compulsory schooling before being put to work.

Notwithstanding that the constitution of Pakistan has some provisions for protecting child rights, most of the legislation seems to be sketchy and outmoded. The supervision, monitoring, and implementation procedures for the laws appear to be weak and deficient, thereby the constitutional provisions have often been ignored. Hence, despite many efforts and claims by Government of Pakistan, the rights of children appear to be violated in the country and they continue to experience a myriad of problems related to their survival, health, and quality of life (Elisabeth Solberg, 2009). Among the relevant issues, incidence of violence against children remains to be critically high and a persistent challenging part of their daily existence. Children are exposed to different forms of

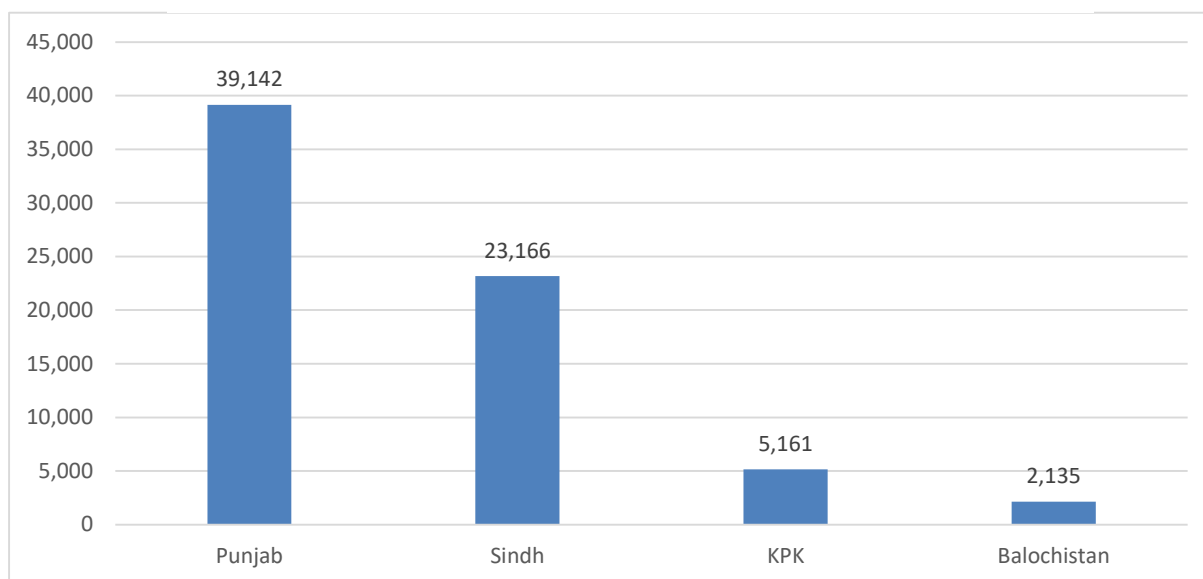
violence, including: (i) verbal and psychological, (ii) physical and sexual, (iii) neglect and deprivation, and (iv) economic exploitation (Ahmad, 2004; Carpenter, 2006).

Magnitude of violence against children in Pakistan

In Pakistan, the magnitude of violence against children is difficult to measure basically because of the underreporting of cases (Gilligan & Akhtar, 2006). The children and their parents often do not report violence due to: (i) fear of reprisals, (ii) avoiding stigma and re-victimization, (iii) cultural beliefs, (iv) legitimization of violence, (v) slow judicial processes, (vi) perceived impunity for perpetrators, (vii) lack of awareness of available services, and (viii) fear of getting the offender in trouble (Andersson et al., 2010).

There is lack of country-wide mechanism for managing record and maintaining database related to cases of violence against children. In fact, there is paucity of authentic and nationally representative studies on the subject. The research that does exist is usually by the institution based independent researchers who primarily focus on the theoretical dimensions of the issue. In this connection there are examples of some organizations and individuals, who have mobilized their resources to assess the magnitude of violence against children (SPARCPK, 2014). Being micro level studies they do not reflect the extent of violence against children at national level. For example, Madadgar National Helpline (2014) reported a total of 69,604 incidents of violence against children (≤ 15 years) for the period January 2000 to December 2013 (see Figure 1). The province wide distribution of the cases shows that the highest number was from Punjab followed by Sindh, then by KPK, and Baluchistan. The reason for comparatively higher numbers of incidents in Punjab and Sindh may be due to relatively better reporting standards and larger weighted population (SPARCPK, 2014).

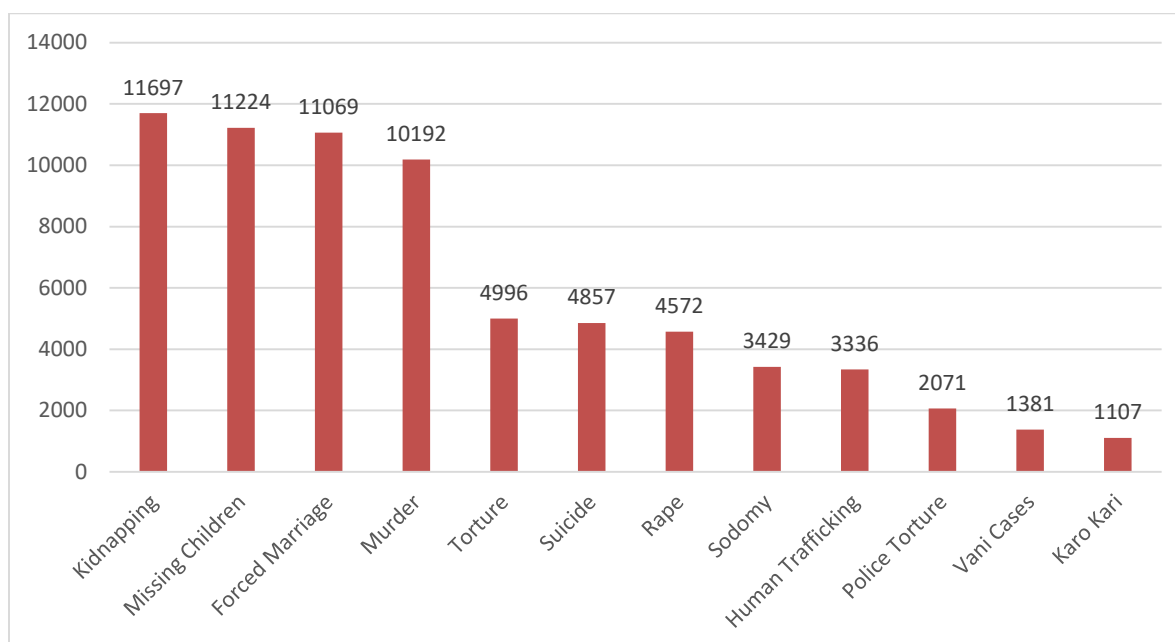
Figure 1: Incidence of violence against children: Province-wise break down -- Jan. 2000 to Dec. 2013 (N=69604)



Among the various forms of violence against children, the annual incidence of physical and sexual abuse ranged from 1.57 to 3.18 per 100,000 in Pakistan (Hyder & Malik, 2007). Physical and sexual abuse against children include kidnapping, rape, sodomy, torture, and murder (Hyder & Malik, 2007). According to Madadgar National Helpline (2014), 11,697 children were kidnapped, 10,192 children were murdered, 4,572 raped, 3,429 children experienced sodomy, and 4,996 were tortured during 2000 to 2013 (see Figure 2). Moreover, the data showed that 11,069 children were forcibly married. The data showed that traditional practices such as Vani (child marriage) and Karo Kari (honor killing) were still being practiced in some regions as 1,381 and 1107 cases had been reported during year 2000 to 2013 respectively.

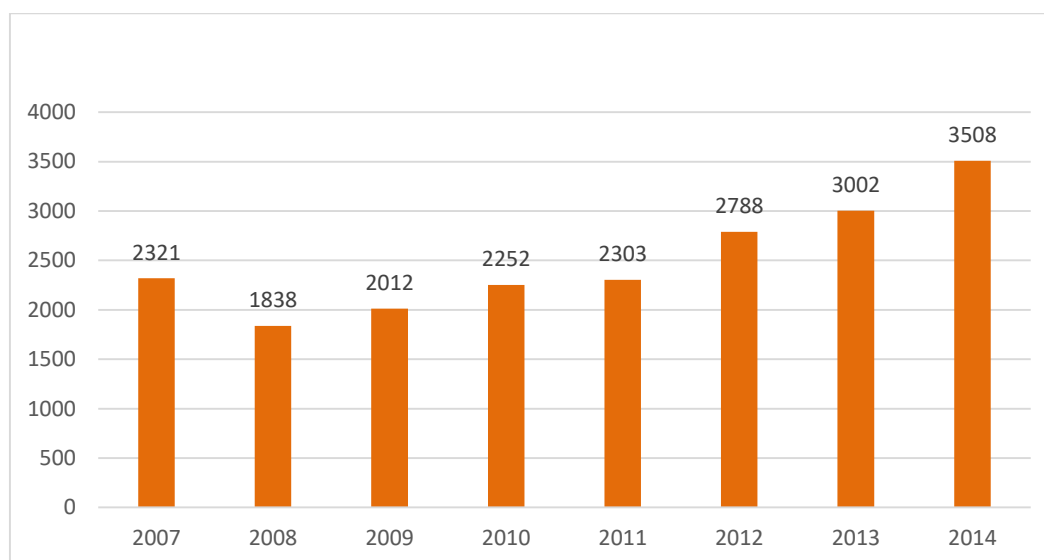
Sexual abuse against children is also prevalent in Pakistan, but due to underreporting the exact magnitude is not known. On the basis of newspaper reports, a non-governmental organization Sahil has estimated that a total of 20,024 children have been sexually abused between the years 2007 and 2014. A total of 2,321 sexual abuse cases were reported in 2007, which was 21% decrease in the year 2008. One of the reasons for this decrease was less coverage of violence incidents in newspapers as the 2008 elections took priority in media reporting (Sahil, 2011).

Figure 2: Reported cases by type of child abuse – Jan. 2000 to Dec. 2013



The trend analysis by Sahil showed an increase in sexual abuse cases from 2007 to 2014 (see Figure 3). In 2014, out of 3,508 sexual abuse cases, 2,054 cases were from Punjab, followed by 875 cases reported from Sindh, 297 from Baluchistan, 152 from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, 90 from Federal Capital Islamabad, 38 from Azad Jammu Kashmir, 1 case from Gilgit Baltistan and 1 case from FATA (Sahil, 2014). Moreover, the urban-rural divide shows that 67% of the cases were reported from rural areas, whereas 33% were reported from the urban areas. Among the reported cases in 2014, 74% were registered with the police, 7% were unregistered, whereas in 28 cases police refused to register an FIR. The empirical anecdotes revealed that the incidence of sexual abuse among girls was higher (71%) than among the boys (29%) (Sahil, 2011 and 2012). It was also reported that children aged 6-10 years and 11-15 years were highly vulnerable to sexual abuse (Sahil, 2011 and 2012).

Figure 3: Child Sexual Abuse cases reported by Sahil from 2007 to 2014

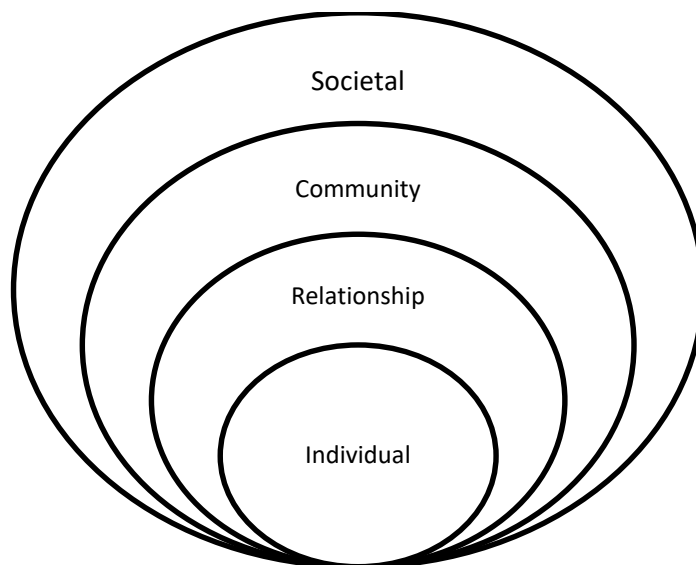


Determinants of Violence against Children

Various individual, familial, institutional, community and societal factors are associated with violence experiences of children (Heise, 1998). In Pakistan, there is a dearth of literature on determinants of violence against children. Small sampled empirical investigations in urban areas have been undertaken, but there are many gaps in the methodology whereby generalizations cannot be made for the entire population.

For understanding and assessing the determinants of violence against children, Heise's (1998) ecological model has been widely used as a theoretical framework. This framework proposes that violence against children occurs at four levels: (i) individual, (ii) relationship, (iii) community, and (iv) societal. At the individual-level, biological and personal history factors such as age, education, and history of violence experiences increases the likelihood of becoming a victim of violence. At the relationship-level, the theory proposes to examine close relationships that may increase the risk of experiencing violence, including a child's parents, siblings, extended family and friends or peers. At the community-level, a child may be exposed to violence in school, at workplace, and in the neighborhood. At the society-level, broader social factors such as health, economic, education and social policies create a climate that encourages and sustains violence against children in a given society.

Figure 4: The four level framework for child violence (Adapted from Heise, 1998)



Individual factors

There are individual factors, which contribute to higher risk of violence against children including their age, gender, socio-economic status, parental socio-demographic characteristics. For example, studies from various countries show that young children were more exposed to physical violence compared with adolescents, a greater proportion of whom experienced psychological violence (UNICEF, 2006).

It is important to understand that many individual factors strongly influenced by relationship, community and societal factors in the context of determining violence against child. Other socio-demographics of the child including birth order and geographic area where child lived also contributed to the risk of experiencing violence (Khan, 2003).

Relationship factors

The relationship of child with parents, siblings, extended family, and friends or peers also determines child's exposure to violence. Children are more exposed to violence in domestic sphere because of their close and frequent contact with these relations (Khan, 2000). Parents exhibit verbal and physical violence for the sake of controlling, disciplining and correcting children (Malik, Bhutto, Shaikh, Akhter, & Butt, 2006). Additionally, neglect by parents represents the failure to

perform parental duties including those of supervision, nurturance and protection, contributing to indirect violence (Din, Mumtaz, & Ataulhjan, 2012).

Community factors

At the community-level a child may be exposed to violence in school, at workplace, and in the neighborhood. There was considerable literature from Pakistan outlining the critical problems of unregulated child labor in the country (Ahmed, 2012; de Silva, 2007; Hou, 2009; Hussain & Kashif, 2013; Nafees et al., 2012). Though definite statistics were unavailable, interviews from small populations highlighted that children working long hours in hazardous work conditions are more exposed to violence (Hussain & Kashif, 2013). Educational institutions are also the places where violence against children is prevalent. The corporal punishment is largely accepted and approved in schools particularly in religious schools (Solberg, 2009) and for children with disabilities and from ethnic minorities and other marginalized groups (UNICEF, 2006).

Societal factors

At the society-level broader social factors such as health, economic, education, and social policies are creating a climate that encourages and sustains violence against children. Literature from South Asian countries reported that there was very little health awareness in the relevant country about what constitutes violence and how to seek medical attention (Hyder & Malik, 2007). There is no mandatory screening for child abuse in both private and public hospitals in Pakistan, which in a way absolves the perpetrators of the crime (Solberg, 2009). There are no independent reporting and monitoring bodies within the community neighborhood or in schools to assess violence and to provide support for child victims (Lys, 2006). Additionally, overall societal acceptance of violence and socio-cultural patterns of behavior also play an important role (UNICEF, 2006).

Violence against Children: Consequences and Implications

Violence against children has both immediate and long-term consequences on child's personality, health, education, and wellbeing. It is widely recognized that children, who suffer from any form of violence are often hampered in their development, suffer from learning difficulties, and perform poorly at school (UNICEF, 2014). Most of these children also experience low self-esteem and suffer from depression, which often puts them at risk of deviant behavior and self-harm. Literature asserts that witnessing violence itself can also cause distress in children (Maker, et al., 2005). The children who grow up in violent households or communities often internalize the observed

behavior as a way of resolving disputes, thereby often following the pattern of violence and abuse against their own spouses and children when they become adult. Apart from the tragic effects of violence on individuals and families, violence against children carries serious social and economic costs in both lost potential and reduced productivity (UNICEF, 2014).

Though recognition of the pervasive nature of violence against children and its impact has garnered much attention in the last two decades, yet child violence remains largely undocumented and underreported (Hyder & Malik, 2007). This reality is attributed to a lack of awareness and social acceptance of violence (Niaz, 2013). Consequently, the lack of adequate data on violence against children is compounding the problem and fueling misconceptions about violence and the issue continues to remain a marginal phenomenon (UNICEF, 2014).

Despite the fact that violence against children is a major social and public health issue in Pakistan, only few scientific and authentic researches are available, particularly there is lack of reliable national-level statistics to confirm the magnitude of the issue (Hyder & Malik, 2007). In addition, the appropriate and need-based actions to reduce violence against children cannot be taken until the accurate statistics on violence against children has been reported (Barth, Bermetz, Heim, Trelle, & Tonia, 2013; Gershoff, 2002; Pinheiro, 2006; SSRG, 2013). Therefore, to reduce violence against children particularly in developing countries like Pakistan, as a first step, there is need to document its magnitude and its determinants. In this backdrop, the aim of the study in hand is to investigate the magnitude and determinants of violence against children in selected districts of four provinces and federal capital of Pakistan.

Chapter 2: Methods

The objective of the study was to assess the magnitude and determinants of violence against children in Pakistan. This research focuses on violence experienced by children: (i) in family, (ii) at workplace (such as workshops, tea-stalls, roadside hotels, industrial units, and domestic work places), and (iii) in schools (i.e. public elementary schools).

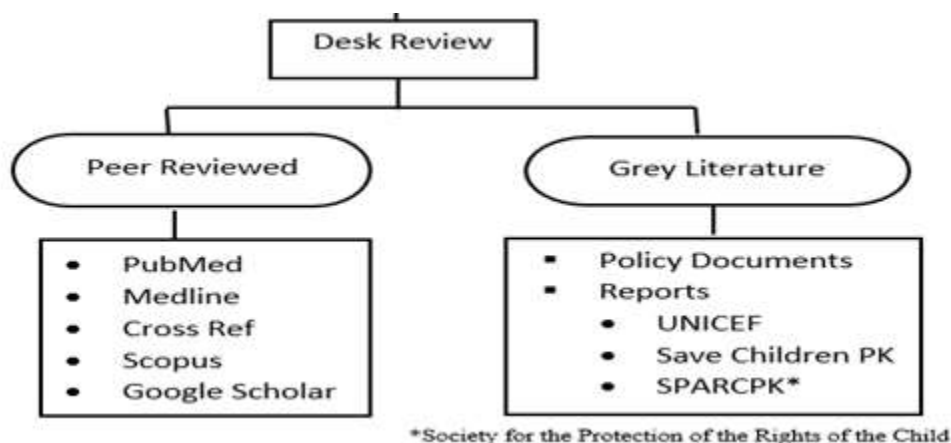
Nature of Data

For this study, we examined secondary data collected through desk review of existing literature on prevalence of violence against children in Pakistan. Additionally, we also collected primary data to fill in gaps, if any, in knowledge about violence against children. Primary data were collected from children using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Secondary data: Desk review

We conducted a desk study to review the already available information on violence against children in Pakistan as grey literature and indexed scientific authentic publications. Figure 1 indicates the sources that were used for desk study.

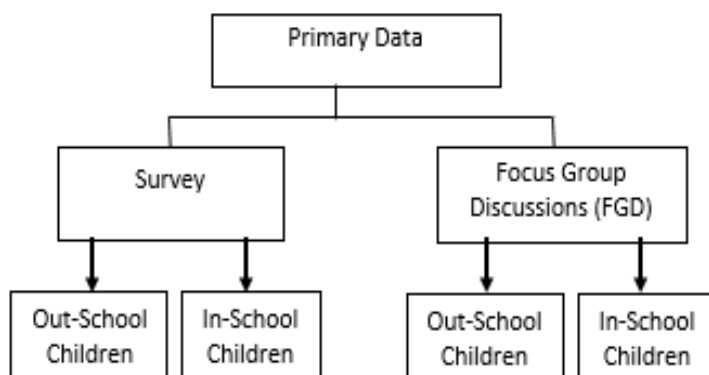
Figure 5:Desk Study Scheme



Primary data

Primary data is collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods. For quantitative data, survey was conducted with in-school and out-school children of 5-12 years of age. For qualitative data, focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted with in-school and out-school children (see Figure 2).

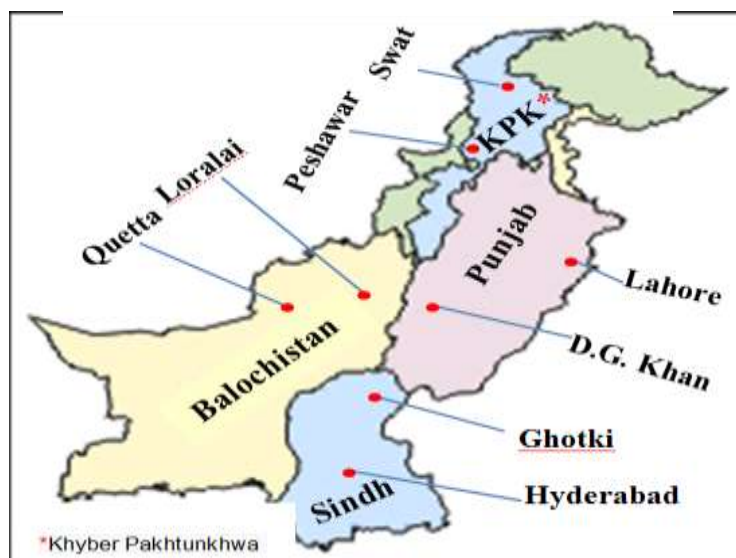
Figure 6: Field Data Collection Scheme



Study Setting

Data were collected from selected districts of four provinces and Federal Capital (Islamabad) of Pakistan, as shown in Figure 7. From each province two districts were selected through simple random sampling technique. Sample from FATA, AJK and Gilgit Baltistan was not included due to accessibility and security issues in these areas. Therefore, this study may not be considered as a nationally representative study.

Figure 7: Selected Districts/Cities for Data Collection



Respondents

Respondents for this study were children in their middle childhood period (5-12 years of age). A number of studies on violence against children have focused on adolescent age group (13-18 years) (Hyder & Malik, 2007). Despite being most at risk of child abuse and neglect, middle childhood period (5-12 years) is largely ignored with respect to violence research in Pakistan (Unicef, 2006). To fill this gap, this research targets violence against children during their middle childhood period.

Sample Size and Sampling Technique

To get a representative sample for this study, the formula given by Cochran (1963) was used. This formula was based on 43% prevalence rates of violence against children reported by International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW) and Plan International (ICRW, 2015).

According to the Cochran formula, the calculated sample size was 377. To correct for the difference in design, the sample size was multiplied by the design effect. So, after adding the design effect, the sample was 753. Moreover, keeping in view the sensitive nature of the study, we assumed 26% non-response rate, so the final sample size was 949 before going to field.

$$N_0 = Z^2pq / e^2$$

$$N_0 = (1.96)^2 \times 0.43 \times 0.57 / (0.05)^2 = 377$$

$$\text{Calculated sample size} + \text{Design Effect} = 753$$

$$\text{Total sample size} = 753 + 26\% \text{ non-response rate}$$

$$\text{Total sample size} = 949$$

To collect data from each selected district, a proportionate formula was used to get a sample from each selected district. Proportionate sample size was calculated through:

$$nh = (N_h/N) \times n$$

To calculate the proportionate sample size, firstly the estimated population of children for age group 5-14 in these districts/cities was calculated. As per the Pakistan Labor Force Survey 2012-13, the population of age group 5-14 in Pakistan was 27 percent. Accordingly, 27 percent of children out of total population were calculated and then employed the aforementioned proportionate formula. The detail is given in Table 1.

For this study, data were collected from both in-school and out-of-school children. To select in-school children, a list of public schools at primary level for selected districts was obtained from School Educational Department, Government of the Punjab, Sindh, KPK, and Baluchistan. From the list 2-4 public schools were randomly selected using of simple random technique through “lottery method”. After selection of schools, we contacted the principals of schools and made appointments for data collection from 5-12 years children in these schools.

Variables	In-School Children (N=475)		Out-of-School Children (N=473)		Total (N=948)
	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=237)	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=235)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Punjab	113 (47.5)	113 (47.7)	113 (47.5)	113 (48.1)	452 (47.7)
Lahore	90 (37.8)	90 (38.0)	90 (37.8)	90 (38.3)	360 (38.0)
DG Khan	23 (9.7)	23 (9.7)	23 (9.7)	23 (9.8)	92 (9.7)
KPK	62 (26.1)	67 (28.3)	63 (26.5)	61 (26.0)	253 (26.7)
Peshawar	42 (17.6)	44 (18.6)	22 (9.2)	21 (8.9)	86 (9.1)
Swat	20 (8.4)	23 (9.7)	41 (17.2)	40 (17.0)	167 (17.6)
Sindh	35 (14.7)	29 (12.2)	35 (14.7)	36 (15.3)	135 (14.2)
Hyderabad	20 (8.4)	19 (8.0)	20 (8.4)	21 (8.9)	80 (8.4)
Ghotki	15 (6.3)	10 (4.2)	15 (6.3)	15 (6.4)	55 (5.8)
Balochistan	16 (6.7)	16 (6.8)	16 (6.7)	16 (6.8)	64 (6.8)
Quetta	12 (5.0)	12 (5.1)	12 (5.0)	12 (5.1)	48 (5.1)
Loralai	4 (1.7)	4 (1.7)	4 (1.7)	4 (1.7)	16 (1.7)
Islamabad	12 (5.0)	12 (5.1)	11 (4.6)	9 (3.8)	44 (4.6)

Keeping in view the sensitive nature of the study and ethical considerations, we kept the names of school anonymous. We approached out-of-school children in the nearby areas of the selected schools using purposive sampling technique. The children who had either dropped out of school or had never been enrolled in school were recruited as “out-of-school” children in this study. Teachers and community leaders were used as gatekeepers to get access to these children. Keeping in view the objective of the study, the gender-wise segregated data for nuanced analysis was collected in order to get a holistic picture of violence against children in Pakistan (see Table 2).

Universe	Gender	Punjab		Sindh		Baluchistan		KPK		Islamabad	Total
		Lahore	D.G. Khan	Hyderabad	Ghotki	Quetta	LoraLai	Peshawar	Swat		
In-School Children	Girls	90	23	20	15	12	4	41	21	238	238
	Boys	90	23	20	15	12	4	41	21	238	238
Out-of-School Children	Girls	90	23	20	15	12	4	41	21	237	237
	Boys	90	23	20	15	12	4	41	21	235	235
Total		360	92	80	60	48	16	164	84	44	948

To understand the phenomena of violence against children in a holistic way, we also collected data through Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) to assess the determinants and causes of violence against children. For this purpose 32 FGDs (four in each district) were conducted in eight selected

districts. In each district 2 FGDs were conducted with in-school girls and boys and 2 FGDs out-of-school girls and boys (see Table 3). In each FGD, 6-8 children participated.

Universe	Gender	Punjab		Sindh		Baluchistan		KPK		Islamabad	Total
		Lahore	D.G. Khan	Hyderabad	Ghotki	Quetta	Loralai	Peshawar	Swat		
In-School Children	Girls	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9
	Boys	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9
Out-of-School Children	Girls	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9
	Boys	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9
Total		4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	36

Tools of Data Collection

For quantitative study, structured questionnaire (interview schedule) was used as tools of data collection. Interview schedule consisted of two sections. First section deals with socio-demographic characteristics of children and their parents and second section measures the magnitude and different forms of violence against children (see Annex 1). For measuring violence against children, two standardized scales “Perception of Child Maltreatment Scale” (PCMS) and “Parent-Child Conflict Tactic Scale” (CCTS) were used.

The PCMS comprises of five subscales with 34 items. According to the objectives of the study and socio-cultural realities of Pakistani society, we used three subscales with 14 items from PCMS. These subscales were (i) subscale ‘sexual abuse’ with four items (ii) six items for subscale ‘child neglect’, and (iii) four items for subscale ‘child labor’.

CTSPC scale has three subscales: (i) non-violent violence, (ii) psychological aggression, and (iii) physical assault. For this study, we used (i) psychological aggression, and (ii) physical assault subscales. The subscale ‘physical assault’ further comprised of three categories including minor assault, severe assault and very severe assault. After adaptation and modifications, the final questionnaire had five subscales with 34 items to assess psychological aggression, child neglect, physical assault, sexual violence and child labor. Three-point Likert scale (0= never 1=sometime 2=often) was used to measure the frequency of violence against children during past three years.

For all types of violence except sexual abuse, the category ‘sometimes’ denotes violence perpetrated at least once in a month on regular basis during the past three years, while the category ‘often’ refers violence against children occurred at least once in a week regularly during past three years. For assessing sexual violence, the project used dichotomous scale, never experienced sexual violence (coding=0) and experienced sexual violence (coding=1).

In this study, a child was categorized as “experienced violence” if he/she has experienced any of psychological, physical, sexual, child neglect, and child labor related violent behavior/s sometime or often during his/her lifetime. A child was categorized as “not experienced violence” if he/she had never experienced psychological, physical, sexual, child neglect and child labor related violent behavior/s during his/her lifetime.

For qualitative study, FGD guide was used. The main themes for FGD guide (see Annex 2) were extracted from the review of literature, particularly the reports of UNICEF, SPARCPK, Human Rights Commission of Pakistan, and other relevant reports published by national and international organizations. After pretesting, 3 more topics such as: (i) role of mass media in increasing violence, (ii) barriers of reporting violence, and (iii) drug addiction of parents/siblings (names of topics) were included in the FGD guide.

Field Researchers and Training Workshop

For the collection of field data, four field teams comprised of both male and female researchers were hired. The field researchers were fluent in native language and knew the cultural sensitivities of their respective provinces. Before going to field, two-days training was organized for all field researchers. The main purpose of the training was to get them familiar with the study objectives, methods and tools of data collection. Various mock exercises were done during the training on how to interview respondents and conducting FGDs.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Univariate and bivariate tables/graphics were made for the presentation of the data. The data was presented as frequency and percentages. Firstly, we presented the frequency and percentages of different forms of psychological, physical, sexual, child neglect related violent behaviors

experienced by children. Secondly, the “overall psychological/physical/sexual/child neglect/child labor violence” experience was calculated if child has experienced any of these violent behaviors sometime or often during past three years of his/her life. Thirdly, we measured the violence at domestic (by mother and/or father), school (teacher), workplace (employer/co-worker) and others (by neighbors, relatives, religious teacher, and/or strangers) levels.

The qualitative data gathered from FGDs was transcribed verbatim in Urdu (in case these were in Sindhi and Pushto) and then translated into English. During the process of verbatim translation, the colloquial style of language, pauses, fluency, and quotes of the participants were made part of transcriptions. Furthermore, an attempt was paid to capture the intended context of participants’ expression. Anonymity of the participants and discussants was duly considered during the process of transcription by the use of pseudonyms to the names and places mentioned by the participants during discussion.

At second stage, data was manually analyzed by initiating the coding and category assignment (see table 4). At this stage, both the inductive as well as deductive code development was deployed. In this regard, deductive codes were derived from the available review of literature whereas inductive codes were developed directly from the collected data. The research team analyzed the entire coded and categorized data to identify and remove discrepancies. At third stage, inductive themes were derived from the data. At the last stage, the salient findings of the study were discussed in the light of the themes inferred from the collected data and the themes derived from the secondary sources.

Table 4: Summary of the main findings of the determinants of violence against children in Pakistan		
Violence against children in home and family		
1	Child related	-Age -Birth order -Gender
2	Family related	-Parental literacy and occupation -Childhood experiences of violence by parent -Witnessing domestic violence -Abuse of elder siblings -Threat of sexual abuse from extended relatives living together
3	Social and cultural	-Patriarchal attitudes -Socio-economic despair -Poverty and accommodations in slum areas -Regular beatings from parents a cultural norm -Substance abuse
Violence against children in school		

1	Child and family related	-Poor academic grades -Tacit approval of parent
2	Peer related	- Abuse by senior students -Threat of sexual assault against girl students
3	Social and cultural	-Acceptance of corporal punishment -Discrimination by teacher based on socio-economic status of child
Violence against children at place of work		
1	Family related	-Poverty of family and fathers menial jobs -Parents fears for daughters keep them out of school and in workforce
2	Social and cultural	-Sexual harassment at workplace -Domestic employers -Harassment from coworkers
Violence against children in community		
1	Social and cultural	-Verbal violence as a norm -Traditional beliefs for honor killing -Traditional beliefs for child marriage -Street violence -Living in conflict zones -The role of media -Religious instructors -Harassment in local neighborhood and market -Absence of reporting bodies and structural support to prevent violence

Ethical Considerations

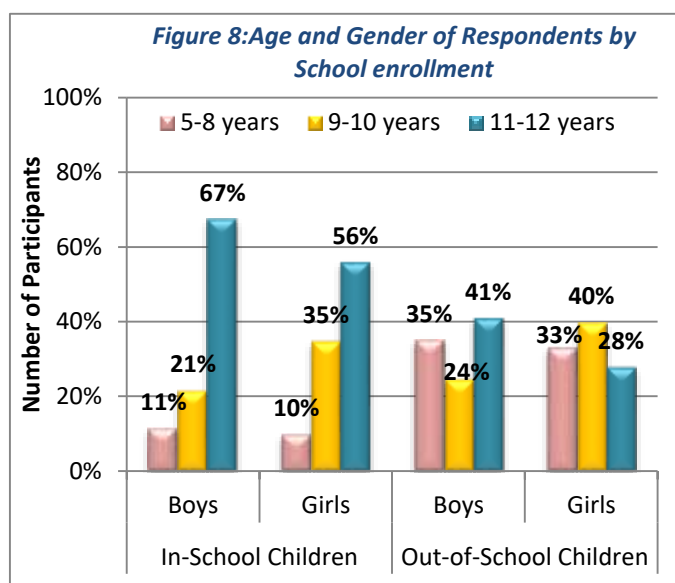
Keeping in view the sensitivity of the topic under investigation, ethical issues were thoroughly addressed by following World Health Organization's (WHO, 2001) guidelines for researching violence. Informed consents of interviewees and discussants were obtained prior to data collection from the parents, owners of shops, principals of schools. Parents, guardians, employers and school principals were also briefed about the nature, scope and objectives of the study. At each stage of the research process, confidentiality of information and anonymity of participants was ensured. The observance of ethical considerations was impressed upon the field research team and its implementation was ensured.

Chapter 3: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Children

There were total 948 respondents who participated in this study. Of which, 475 were in-school and 473 were out-of-school children. Among them, there were 476 boys and 472 girls. The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are as follows.

Age and Gender of children

Figure 8 presents the age and gender of children by school enrollment of children. A majority (N=454, 48%) of the children were in age group of 11-12 years followed by age group of 9-10 years (N=284, 30%) and 5-8 years (N=210, 22%). A majority of the in-school boys (N=160, 67% vs. N=97, 41%) and in-school girls (N=132, 56% vs. N=65, 28%) were in age group of 11-12 years as compared to out-of-school boys and girls.



Educational and Employment Status of Children

Among 473 out-of-school children, a majority of them (N=337) were engaged in child labor. Among these children, about 85% boys and 91% girls were never enrolled in school, however 14.7% boys and 8.9% girls have dropped out of school at primary level. On the other side, among the 475 in-school children, none of them were engaged in child labor (Table 5).

The previously conducted studies described that a majority of the out-of-school children were often engaged in child labor and involvement in work makes the children more susceptible to drop-out from school (Alderman, Orazem, & Paterno, 2001; Guarcello, Lyon, & Rosati, 2014). During FDG, a majority of drop-out children reported that they dropped out from school due to poor performance in exams or absentees. They reported that they wanted to study but they could not find time to complete their homework. They reasoned that their employer as well as parents did not consider study as important as work. Few participants reported that their parents forced them to do work so they could contribute some money in family income. The relationship between child

labor and out-of-school children is critical for achieving both Education for All (EFA) and child labor elimination goals (Guarcello, et al., 2014; ILO, 2013).

Table 5: Educational and Employment Status of Respondents (N=948)					
Variables	In-School Children (N=475)		Out-of-School Children (N=473)		Total (N=948)
	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=237)	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=235)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Enrolled in school					
Not enrolled	-	-	203 (85.3)	214 (91.1)	417 (43.9)
Currently in School	238 (100.0)	237 (100.0)	-	-	475 (50.2)
School Drop Out	-	-	35 (14.7)	21 (8.9)	56 (5.9)
Level of Education					
3-4 years schooling	27 (11.4)	23 (9.7)	-	-	50 (10.6)
5-6 years schooling	51 (21.6)	80 (33.9)	-	-	131 (27.8)
7-8 years schooling	158 (66.9)	133 (56.4)	-	-	291 (61.7)
Employment Status					
Employed	-	-	198 (83.2)	139 (59.4)	337 (71.4)
Not Employed	-	-	40 (16.8)	95 (40.6)	135 (28.6)
Occupation of Children					
Domestic Servants	-	-	53 (26.6)	61 (44.2)	114 (33.8)
Garbage Collector	-	-	55 (27.6)	41 (29.7)	96 (28.5)
Beggars	-	-	37 (18.6)	27 (19.6)	64 (19.0)
Other *	-	-	54 (27.1)	9 (6.5)	63 (18.7)
Child work hours					
2-6 hours	-	-	47 (24.1)	31 (23.0)	78 (8.2)
7-12 hours	-	-	148 (75.9)	104 (77.0)	252 (76.4)

* Others (workshop or factory worker, waiters, street vendor, etc.)

Province and District-Wise Distribution of Children

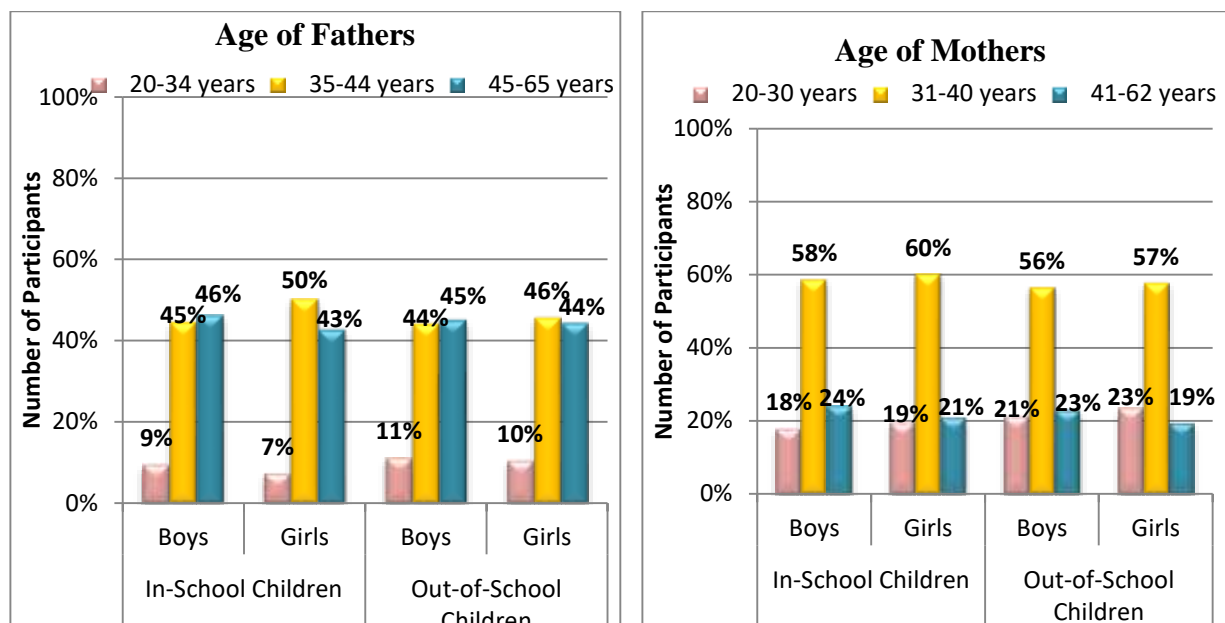
The children from four provinces (Punjab, Sindh, Balochistan, and KPK) and Federal Capital Islamabad participated in this study. Table 6 presents the province and district-wise detail about respondents. There were total 948 respondents, of which 475 were in-school children and 473 were out of school children. A majority (N=452) of the respondents belong to province Punjab, followed by KPK (N=253), Sindh (N=135), Balochistan (N=64), and Islamabad (44).

Table 6:Province and District-Wise Detail about Respondents (N=948)					
Variables	In-School Children (N=475)		Out-of-School Children (N=473)		Total (N=948)
	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=237)	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=235)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Punjab	113 (47.5)	113 (47.7)	113 (47.5)	113 (48.1)	452 (47.7)
Lahore	90 (37.8)	90 (38.0)	90 (37.8)	90 (38.3)	360 (38.0)
DG Khan	23 (9.7)	23 (9.7)	23 (9.7)	23 (9.8)	92 (9.7)
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Peshawar	42 (17.6)	44 (18.6)	22 (9.2)	21 (8.9)	86 (9.1)
Swat	20 (8.4)	23 (9.7)	41 (17.2)	40 (17.0)	167 (17.6)
Sindh	35 (14.7)	29 (12.2)	35 (14.7)	36 (15.3)	135 (14.2)
Hyderabad	20 (8.4)	19 (8.0)	20 (8.4)	21 (8.9)	80 (8.4)
Ghotki	15 (6.3)	10 (4.2)	15 (6.3)	15 (6.4)	55 (5.8)
Balochistan	16 (6.7)	16 (6.8)	16 (6.7)	16 (6.8)	64 (6.8)
Quetta	12 (5.0)	12 (5.1)	12 (5.0)	12 (5.1)	48 (5.1)
Loralai	4 (1.7)	4 (1.7)	4 (1.7)	4 (1.7)	16 (1.7)
Islamabad	12 (5.0)	12 (5.1)	11 (4.6)	9 (3.8)	44 (4.6)

Parents' Age of Respondents

Figure 9 presents the age of fathers by in-school and out- of-school group of children. A majority (N=437, 46%) of the fathers of the children were in age group of 35-44 years, followed by 45-65 years (N=422, 44%). Figure 9 presents the age of mothers by in-school and out- of-school group of children. A majority (N=550, 58%) of the mothers of the children were in age group of 31-40 years, followed by 41-62 years (N=205, 21%).

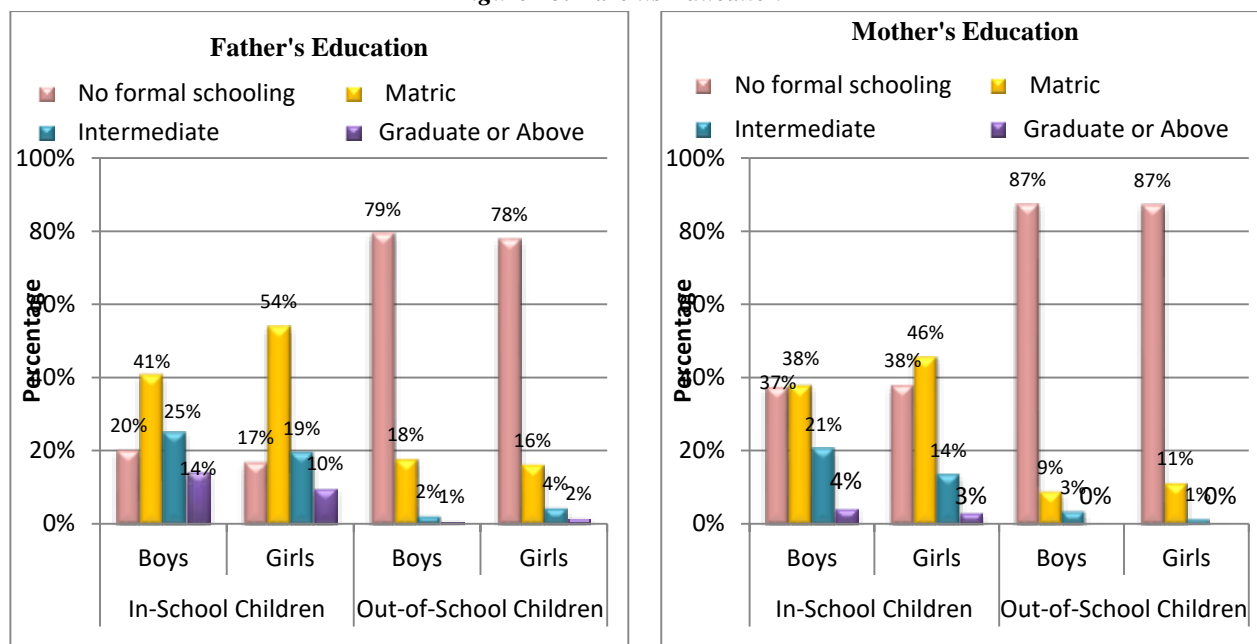
Figure 9: Age of Parents



Educational Level of Children' Parents

Figure 10 shows the fathers' education by in-school and out-of-school children. It presents that a majority of the fathers of children (N=460, 48.5%) had no formal schooling. Of which, a significant proportion were of the fathers of out-of-school boys (N=189, 79% vs. N=48, 20%) and out-of-school girls (N=183, 78% vs. N=40, 16.9%) as compared to in-school boys and girls respectively. Likewise, a majority of the mothers of children (N=592, 62.4%) had no formal schooling. Of which, a significant proportion were of the mothers of out-of-school boys (N=205, 87.2%, vs. N=90, 38%) and out-of-school girls (N=208, 87.4% vs. 89, 37.4%) (Figure 10). It is widely reported that the parents with no formal schooling were less likely to send their children to school and engaged them child labor (Bruns & Rakotomalala, 2003; Guarcello, et al., 2014; UNICEF, 2014). Previous research found that out-of-school children are involved in child labor and are more prone to suffer violence as compared to in-school children (Dalal, 2008; Guarcello, et al., 2014; Runyan, Wattam, Ikeda, Hassan, & Ramiro, 2002). Therefore, there is need to introduce adult literacy programs and to run awareness raising campaigns to put every child into school (Bruns & Rakotomalala, 2003; Guarcello, et al., 2014; ILO, 2013; UNICEF, 2014).

Figure 10: Parents Education



Employment Status of Children' Parents

Figure 11 illustrates the employment status of fathers. It shows that a majority of the fathers were doing unskilled jobs (N= 389, 41%), followed by skilled jobs (N=267, 28%). A significant percentage (N=251, 26.5%) of fathers were unemployed. The nuanced analysis as presented in figure below revealed that a majority of the fathers of out-of-school boys (N=123, 51.7% Vs. N=89, 37.4%) and out-of-school girls (N=103, 43.8% Vs. N=74, 31.2%) were doing unskilled jobs as compared to fathers of in-schools boys and girls respectively. Similarly, the fathers of out-of-school boys (N=75, 31.5% Vs. N=28, 11.8%) and out-of-school girls (N=97, 41.3% Vs. N=51, 21.5%) were unemployed as compared to fathers of in-schools boys and girls respectively.

Figure 11: Employment Status of Parents

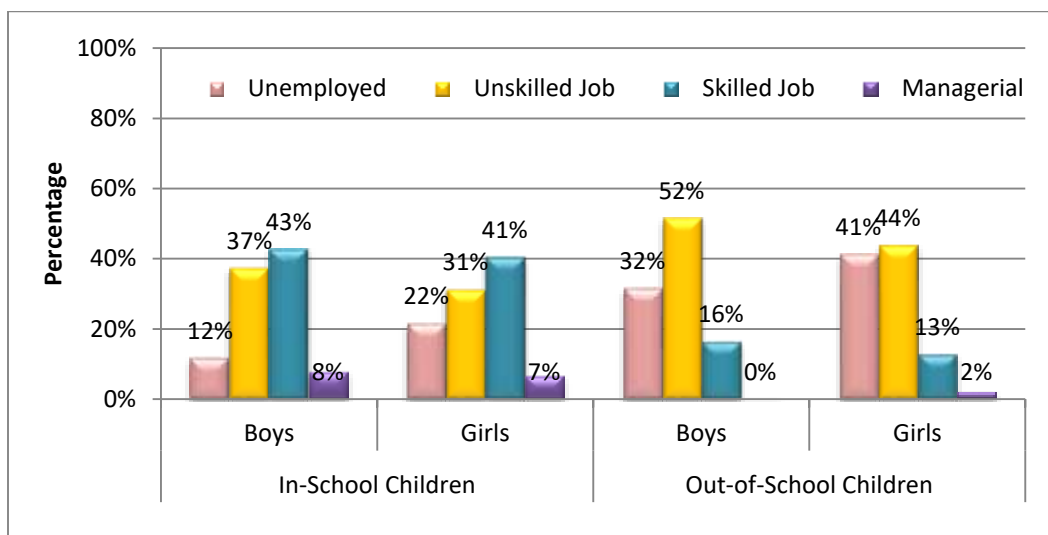
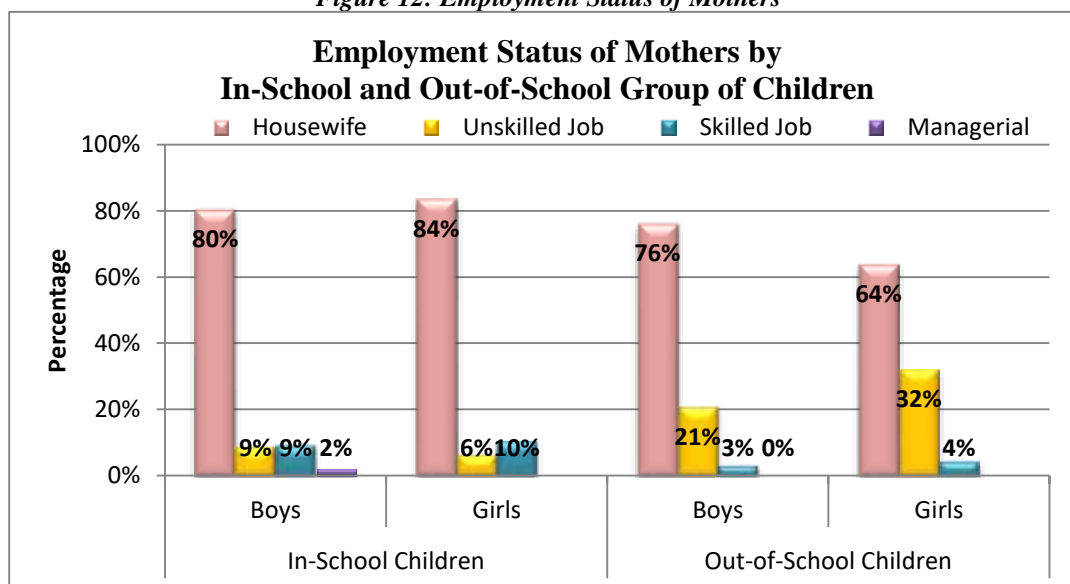


Figure 12 shows the employment status of mothers. It shows that a majority (N=720, 75.9%) of the mothers were housewives, followed by mothers who were doing unskilled jobs (N=160, 16.9%). The findings revealed that a significant percentage of mothers of out-of-school girls (N=75, 31.9% Vs. N=15, 6.3%) and out-of-school boys (N=49, 20.6% Vs. N=21, 8.8%) were involved in unskilled jobs as compared to mothers of in-school girls and boys.

Figure 12: Employment Status of Mothers

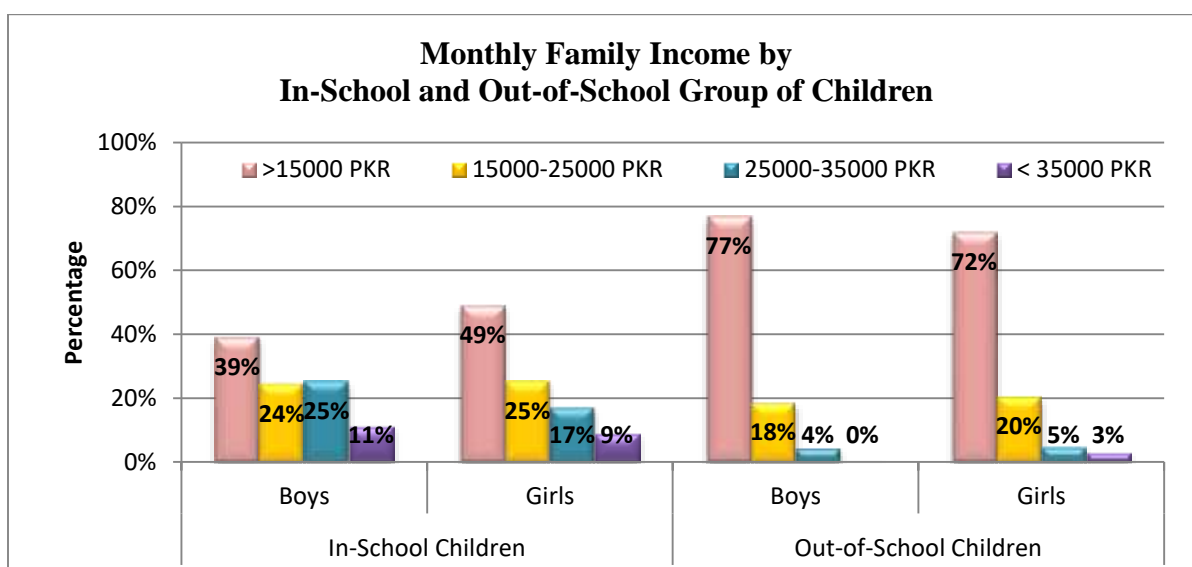


Monthly Family Income of Respondents

Globally, family income is recognized as a significant predictor to send the children either in-school or keep them out-of-schools. In present study, a majority (n=561, 59.2%, it includes 183

out-of-school boys and 169 out-of-school girls, plus 93 in-school boys and 116 in-school girls) of the respondents belong to very poor families having income of less than 15000 PKR per month (Figure 13). The present study described that family income played a decisive role to keep the children in-school or out-of-schools. As, a majority of the children with less than 15000 PKR per months were out-of-schools boys (N=183, 76.9% vs. 93, 39.1%) and girls (N=169, 71.9% vs. N=116 (48.9%) as compared to in-school boys and girls respectively (Figure 13).. The previously conducted studies reported that most of the children were out of school due to poverty (Guarcello, et al., 2014; Rumberger & Lim, 2008; Zhang, 2003). Some children get involved in child labor in order to contribute some money in family and were more expose to violence (ILO, 2013; Pinheiro, 2006). The scholarly literature furthers highlighted that some children tried to manage school with work , but often they failed due to absentees from schools, poor academic performance and ultimately dropped out (Guarcello, et al., 2014; Zhang, 2003).

Figure 13: Monthly Family Income



Children Witnessing Interpersonal Violence between Parents and Parental History of Childhood Violence

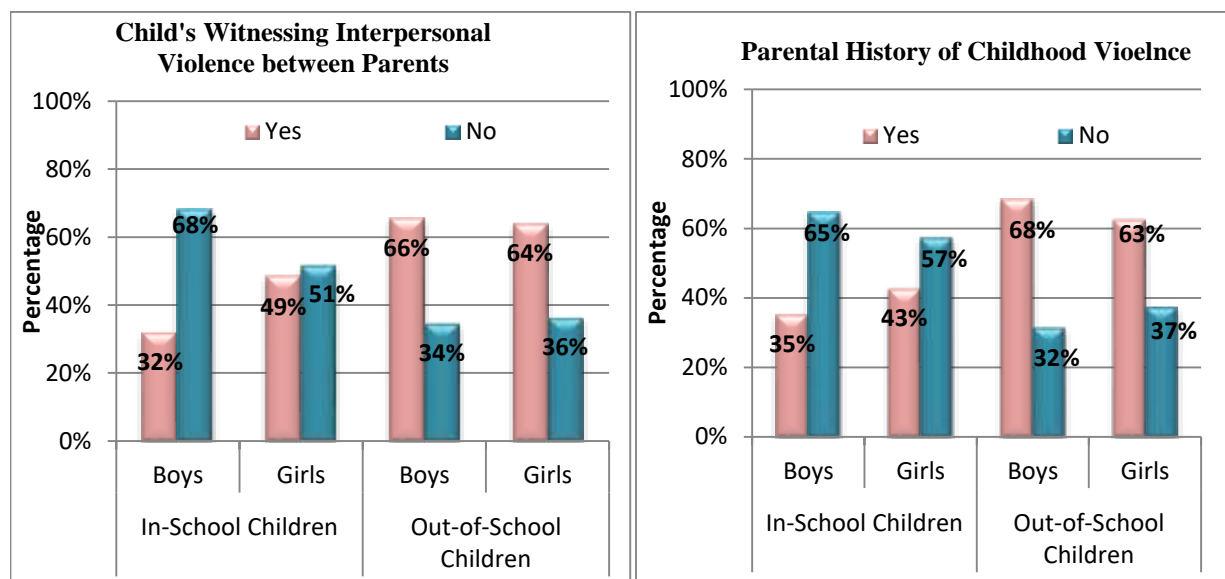
The scholarly literature stated that the children who witnessed interpersonal violence between parents or whose parents shared their childhood stories of violence were more prone to experience violence and they had lower self-esteem to resist violence (Kitzmann, Gaylord, Holt, & Kenny, 2003). Moreover, it has reported that the children who witnessed violence developed feeling of

acceptance of violence and replicate violence during their adulthood (Kitzmann, et al., 2003), thus, the parents who had history of violence may replicate violence on their children. In order to explore the association of parental history of violence and interpersonal violence between parents, the children participated in present study were asked “whether they witnessed interpersonal violence between their parents or not”, and “whether their parents shared their childhood violence experiences with children.

The findings revealed that the out-of-school children witnessed more interpersonal violence between their parents as compared to in-school children. A significant percentage of out-of-school boys (N=156, 65.5% vs. N=76, 31.9%) and girls (N=150, 63.8% vs. N=115, 48.5%) witnessed interpersonal violence between their parents as compared to parents of in-school children. The findings of parental history of violence revealed that parents of out-of-school children experienced more childhood violence as compared to the parents of in-school children (Figure 14). The parents of out-of-school boys (N=163, 68.5% vs. N=84, 35.3%) and girls (N=147, 62.6% vs. N=101, 42.6%) experienced more childhood violence as compared to parents of in-school children.

This was interesting to note that almost similar percentage of children reported that they witnessed interpersonal violence between their parents (N= 497, 52.4%) and their parents had history of childhood violence (N=495, 52.2%). The same percentage of violence might align with theory which argued that the perpetrator’s history of prior aggression, history of violence victimization is a significant risk factor for domestic violence against women and children (Tolan, Gorman-Smith, & Henry, 2006). It is considered that childhood experiences of being victims or witness of violence had an influence on becoming perpetrators of violence later in the life (Brookmeyer, Fanti, & Henrich, 2006; Finkelhor, Turner, Ormrod, & Hamby, 2009; Singer & Flannery, 2000).

Figure 14: Interpersonal Violence between Parents and Parental History of Childhood Violence



Familial Structure and Position of Children in Family

A majority of the children reside in joint family structure. Of which, the percentage of out-of-school boys (N=158, 66.4% vs. N=123, 51.7%) and girls (N=170, 72.3% vs. N=131, 55.5%) were little more as compared to in-school boys and girls. Table 7 shows that a majority (N=824, 86.9%) of the households were headed by fathers. A majority of the children had 3-4 siblings (N=307, 32.4%) or 5-6 siblings. (N=301, 31.8%). A significant percentage (n=441, 46.5%) of the respondents had 2-3 birth order among their siblings. A substantial percentage of the respondents were living with their parents (N=876, 92.4%).

Table 7: Structure of Family and Position of Respondent in Family (N=948)					
Variables	In-School Children (N=475)		Out-of-School Children (N=473)		Total (N=948)
	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=237)	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=235)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Type of Family					
Joint	123 (51.7)	131 (55.5)	158 (66.4)	170 (72.3)	582 (61.5)
Nuclear	115 (48.3)	105 (44.50)	80 (33.6)	65 (27.7)	365 (38.5)
Head of the Family					
Father	190 (79.8)	209 (88.2)	219 (92.0)	206 (87.7)	824 (86.9)
Mother	16 (6.7)	19 (8.0)	9 (3.8)	23 (9.8)	67 (7.1)
Other	32 (13.4)	9 (3.8)	10 (4.2)	6 (2.6)	57 (6.0)
No. of Siblings Including Yourself					
1-2	40 (16.8)	27 (11.4)	20 (8.4)	13 (5.5)	100 (10.5)
3-4	92 (38.7)	90 (38.0)	64 (26.9)	61 (26.0)	307 (32.4)
5-6	64 (26.9)	77 (32.5)	82 (34.5)	78 (33.2)	301 (31.8)
7-12	42 (17.6)	43 (18.1)	72 (30.3)	83 (35.3)	240 (25.3)

Your birth orders among siblings					
1	73 (30.7)	54 (22.8)	13 (5.5)	40 (17.0)	199 (21.0)
2-3	112 (47.1)	113 (47.7)	61 (26.0)	107 (45.5)	441 (46.5)
4-5	32 (13.4)	51 (21.5)	78 (33.2)	62 (26.4)	210 (22.2)
6-11	21 (8.8)	19 (8.0)	83 (35.3)	26 (11.1)	98 (10.3)
Living currently					
Parents	238 (100.0)	235 (99.2)	209 (87.8)	194 (82.6)	876 (92.4)
Guardian	0 (0.0)	2 (.8)	14 (5.9)	22 (9.4)	38 (4.0)
Employer	-	-	11 (4.6)	19 (8.1)	30 (3.2)
*Other	-	-	4 (1.7)	0 (0.0)	4 (.4)

*other street children

Drug Addiction by Parents, Siblings, and Respondents

A significant percentage (N=373, 39.3%) of children reported that their fathers were cigarette smoker (Table 8). Of which, a majority of them were fathers of out-of-school boys (N=111, 46.6% vs. N=78, 32.8%) and girls (N=125, 53.2% vs. N=53, 24.9%) as compared to in-school boys and girls. Similarly, among the children with addicted fathers or siblings, relatively more children belonged to out-of-school group.. It is well established that if father, sibling or mother smoke, it is more likely that children in the family also smoke (Kandel, Griesler, & Hu. (2015)). The present study highlighted that about 3.5% children were smokers or were taking drugs. A significant percentage of these children belonged to out-of-school group. For reducing smoking among children, it is important to reduce smoking among parents at first. So, smoking prevention efforts should focus on parental smoking cessation, while improving parents and children involvement in constructive activities.

Table 8: Drug Addiction by Parents, Siblings, and Respondents (N=948)					
Variables	In-School Children (N=475)		Out-of-School Children (N=473)		Total (N=948)
	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=237)	Boys (N=238)	Girls (N=235)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Smoking by Father					
Yes	78 (32.8)	59 (24.9)	111 (46.6)	125 (53.2)	373 (39.3)
No	160 (67.2)	178 (75.1)	127 (53.4)	110 (46.8)	575 (60.7)
Smoking by Mother					
Yes	5 (2.1)	3 (1.3)	9 (3.8)	18 (7.7)	35 (3.7)
No	233 (97.9)	234 (98.7)	227 (96.2)	217 (92.3)	911 (96.3)
Drug Addiction by Father					
Yes	3 (1.3)	2 (0.8)	14 (5.9)	15 (6.4)	34 (3.6)
No	233 (97.9)	233 (98.3)	215 (91.1)	209 (88.9)	890 (94.1)
Drug Addiction by Siblings					
Yes	2 (0.8)	2 (0.8)	7 (2.9)	11 (4.7)	22 (2.3)
No	233 (97.9)	233 (98.3)	215 (91.1)	209 (88.9)	890 (94.1)
Self-Taking of Drugs					
Yes	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	11 (4.6)	19 (8.1)	33 (3.5)
No	238 (100.0)	234 (98.7)	227 (95.4)	216 (91.9)	915 (96.5)

Chapter 4: Domestic Violence against Children

Domestic violence against children is a serious public health and human right issue, associated with different health, family and social consequences in both industrialized and developing countries (Gilbert et al., 2009; Pinheiro, 2006; SSRG, 2013; UNICEF, 2014). Historically, domestic violence has been framed and understood exclusively as a women's issue, yet the last two decades highlighted that it has become a challenging for the children as well (Bragg, 2003; SSRG, 2013; UNICEF, 2007). Domestic violence against children is a “pattern of coercive and assaultive behaviors that include physical, sexual, verbal, and psychological attacks, negligent behavior and economic coercion in form of child labor that adults use against children (Gilbert, et al., 2009; Pinheiro, 2006).” Globally, the reliable statistics about violence against children in domestic sphere are not available; however, as per a report of UNICEF (2007) around 275 million children suffered different types of violence in domestic sphere (UNICEF, 2007).

It is reported that the children are often in great danger in the place where they should be safest: within their families and home (Dubowitz et al., 2001; Pinheiro, 2006). Unfortunately, the ‘home’ has been recognizing a regime of terror for children as they face violence at the hands of somebody close to them and whom they consider trustworthy (Pinheiro, 2006). Within domestic sphere, the violence against children by their parents is one of the most common form of child abuse that occurs at home (Dubowitz, et al., 2001).

Violence against children can have profound impact and damaging consequences on core aspect of emotional, behavioral, cognitive, and physical health as well as social development throughout life in childhood (Chan et al., 2012; Finkelhor, Turner, Ormrod, & Hamby, 2009; Gilbert, et al., 2009; UNICEF, 2007). The consequences of violence against children may vary depending on child's age, the duration and severity of the abuse, the child's instinctive resilience adopted by children, and co-occurrence with other maltreatment or adverse exposures (Pereda, Guilera, Forns, & Gómez-Benito, 2009). It is recognized that violence against children not only has negative impacts on individual child victims, but also has far-reaching costs for society as it diverts billions of dollars from social spending, slows the economic development of a country, and erodes nations' social and human capital (SSRG, Save the Children, & Plan International, 2014).

Despite the current laws and policies to manage domestic violence in several countries, the prevalence of such abuse remains high in both developing and industrialized economies. This is

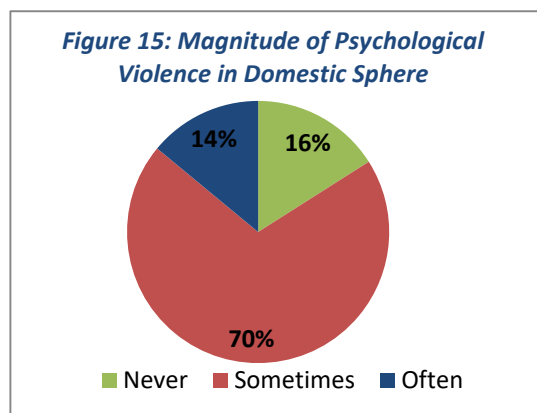
because it is often goes underreporting because of the stigmatizing and re-victimization of the children (Jewkes, Dartnall, & Sikweyiya, 2012; Sumner et al., 2015). In addition, children did not report violence as the perpetrator of the violence is often from their families and they coerced or threatened the child to keep quite (Dubowitz, et al., 2001). Another significant barrier of reporting violence against children is the social approval of some forms of punishment by taking it as a tool of disciplining the children (Gershoff, 2002). Like other developing countries, in Pakistan violence against children has been accepted as normal life phenomena. Such beliefs normalize and legitimize violence in a society (Dunlap, Golub, Johnson, & Benoit, 2009; Pinheiro, 2006).

It is widely acknowledged that the appropriate action to curb violence against children in domestic sphere cannot be taken until the accurate statistics on domestic violence has not been reported (Barth, Bermetz, Heim, Trelle, & Tonia, 2013; Gershoff, 2002; Pinheiro, 2006; SSRG, 2013). Therefore, in order to propose some need-based strategies to reduce domestic violence against children, the present study tried to assess the prevalence of physical assault, psychological assault, sexual assault, child neglect and child labor in domestic sphere.

Psychological Violence by parents

Psychological abuse occur in every region around the globe and it is regarded as one of the least spoken-about forms of violence against children in domestic sphere (Beazley, Bessell, Ennew, & Waterson, 2006; Pinheiro, 2006). It is often ignored as it does not leave any visible marks on the children (Pinheiro, 2006; WHO, 2009). Yet, the concern about it has been increasing in scientific community because of its devastating effects on child development (SSRG, 2013; WHO, 2009). It has noted that psychological abuse hurt the child to an extent that it may results in feelings of isolation, sense of step daughter or son, lower self-esteem or even depression later on in life (Beazley, et al., 2006; SSRG, 2013; Wang & Liu, 2014). It is considered that children cannot enjoy quality life with higher self-esteem unless the magnitude of psychological violence reduces in family/domestic sphere (WHO, 2009). In order to reduce psychological violence in domestic sphere in Pakistan, as a first step, there is need to assess magnitude of psychological abuse in domestic sphere.

Figure 15 shows the magnitude of psychological violence in domestic sphere in Pakistan. The findings revealed that a majority of the children (84%) experienced psychological violence at home perpetrated by their mothers and fathers. Among them, a majority of the children faced psychological violence ‘sometimes’ in past three years, while 14% children experienced psychological violence ‘often’



in their homes. A study conducted in a developing country ‘Uganda’ reported that 77% of the children experienced emotional/psychological violence at home (Naker, 2005). Nonetheless, a study conducted in a highly developed country ‘Canada’ if reported a substantial percentage (49%) of children experienced psychological aggression at home, then, the children living in a developing country like Pakistan are o more vulnerable to psychological abuse at home because of absence of effective and comprehensive violence prevention mechanism (Clément, 2013).

The most reported mode of psychological violence in domestic sphere was ‘shouting/yelling/screaming at child (76%)’ followed by ‘calling the child dumb, lazy, or mentally retarded (63%)’ and ‘threatening to spank or hit the child (63%)’ (see Table 9). A study conducted in Southeast Asia reported the similar results as verbal attacks such as bad name-calling were reported high in family sphere (Beazley, et al., 2006). A study conducted in Canada reported the similar psychological aggression such as shouting or screaming at child, or calling-names or threatening the child, using the insulting or embarrassing words (Clément, 2013). Likewise, shouting or screaming at children was reported the most prevalent form of psychological abuse in Chile, Egypt, India, the Philippines, and the USA (Sadowski, Hunter, Bangdiwala, & Muñoz, 2004).

Table 9:Prevalence of Different Forms of Psychological Violence in Domestic sphere (N=948)					
Variables	Violence perpetrated by Father		Violence perpetrated by Mothers		Overall Psychological Violence by Fathers and/or Mothers (N= 948)
	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Shouted, yelled or screamed at child					
Never	170 (35.7)	224 (47.5)	192 (40.3)	181 (38.3)	225 (23.7)
Sometimes	211 (44.3)	211 (44.7)	185 (38.9)	221 (46.8)	557 (58.8)
Often	95 (20.0)	37 (7.8)	99 (20.8)	70 (14.8)	166 (17.5)
Called child dumb, lazy, mentally retarded					
Never	232 (48.1)	242 (51.3)	225 (53.6)	211 (44.7)	352 (37.1)

Sometimes	149 (31.3)	166 (35.2)	132 (27.7)	186 (39.4)	422 (44.5)
Often	95 (20.0)	64 (13.6)	89 (18.7)	75 (15.9)	174 (18.4)
Threatened to send away or kicked out of class					
Never	308 (64.7)	315 (66.7)	326 (68.5)	300 (64.1)	515 (54.3)
Sometimes	113 (23.7)	119 (25.2)	104 (21.8)	128 (27.4)	335 (35.3)
Often	55 (11.6)	38 (8.1)	46 (9.7)	40 (8.5)	98 (10.3)
Threatened to spank or hit child					
Never	240 (50.4)	261 (55.3)	269 (56.5)	321 (49.3)	352 (37.1)
Sometimes	163 (34.2)	170 (36.0)	149 (31.3)	188 (40.1)	486 (51.3)
Often	73 (15.3)	41 (8.7)	58 (12.2)	50 (10.7)	110 (11.6)
Locking child in a room alone as a form of discipline/isolate child					
Never	357 (75.0)	362 (76.7)	361 (75.8)	352 (74.6)	602 (63.5)
Sometimes	70 (14.7)	73 (15.5)	77 (16.2)	83 (17.6)	298 (31.4)
Often	49 (10.3)	37 (7.8)	38 (8.0)	37 (7.8)	48 (5.1)
Took away child privileges					
Never	313 (65.8)	324 (68.6)	352 (73.9)	306 (64.8)	525 (55.4)
Sometimes	118 (24.8)	111 (23.5)	86 (18.1)	124 (26.3)	337 (35.5)
Often	45 (9.5)	37 (7.8)	38 (8.0)	42 (8.9)	86 (9.1)

In this study, psychological violence was perpetrated mostly by mother than fathers. Nevertheless, the fathers exerted more psychological violence on sons than daughters, while the mothers were found to exert slightly more psychological violence on daughters than sons. For instance, within the second most prevalent form of psychological violence, the mothers were found to call dumb/lazy/mentally retarded to their daughters more than sons, while the fathers called dumb/lazy/mentally retarded to their sons more than their daughters. A study conducted in Southeast Asia and the Pacific reported that the mothers were reported to use more verbal abuse on children as compared to fathers (Beazley, Bessell, Ennew, & Waterson, 2006).

Psychological abuse was found to be closely linked with children's assessment of their self-worth. It severely damaged the children's attachment to the perpetrator of the violence. During FGD, the children reported that the physical abuse perpetrated by their parents sometimes evoked profound feelings of distrust in parent child relationship and a sense of step daughter or sons overcome on them. An 11 years girl from Sindh reported:

My mother says I am so stupid and lazy. She often says I am worthless. It seems sometimes that I am her step-daughter. It annoys me to the extent that I want to run away from my home.

A 12 years boy from Punjab shared:

I go with my father at work. I try my best to do work accurately in order to please my father. But alas!, he points out my flaws, shouts at me, and often called me 'Hadharam (referring mis-serve or useless)'. I do not know if my father just hates me or what!

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Psychological Violence in Domestic Sphere

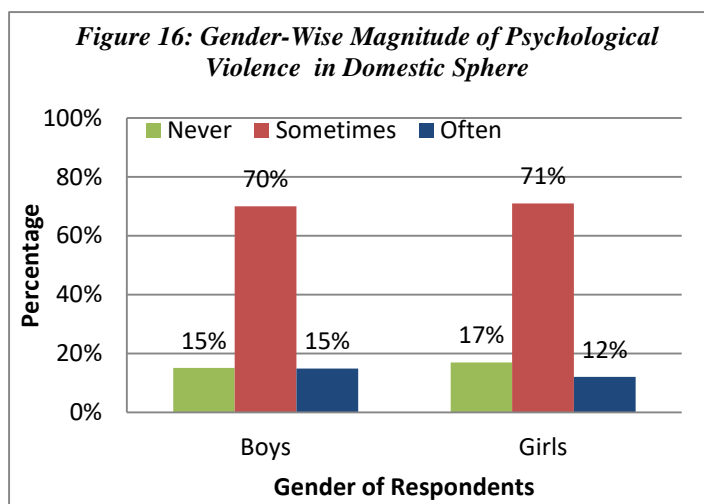
Figure shows gender-wise magnitude of psychological violence in domestic sphere. It depicts that a majority of both boys and girls faced psychological violence at home. Nonetheless, the boys experienced slightly more (85%) psychological abuse at home as compared to girls (83%). The analysis of FGD revealed that both girls and boys experienced verbal abuse by their parents at least once in a week. The boys reported that their fathers often abuse them in front of their relatives, while some boys complaint that their fathers never taunt their sisters in front of relatives. A boy from Punjab commented:

I do not know why my father discriminates me. He abuses me but not my sisters. Thank God, my mother is at my side. She often stopped my father by saying that i will get mature with the passage of time.

This study revealed that the mothers shouted on girls more as compared to boys. Two sisters reported: “our mother never asked our brothers to do households chores and even did not ask them to serve water/food for us.” Most of the girls reported that their mother shouted on them when they refused to give water/food to our brothers. A girl from Baluchistan reported:

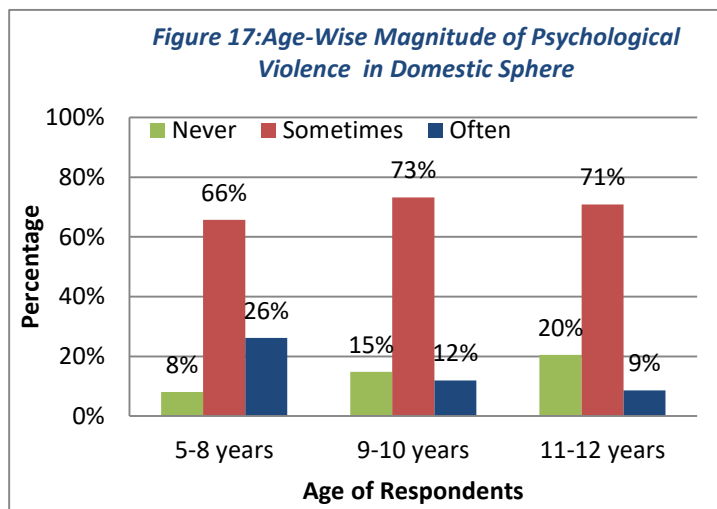
My parents love my brother more than me, especially my mother. Whenever, he came back home, my mother asked me to serve him water/food. If I got late in serving, she shouted at me, called me dumb or lazy. It hurts me. I feel as I am not her child?

Figure 17 illustrates the age-wise magnitude of psychological violence in domestic sphere. The findings revealed that the severity of psychological violence decreased with increase in age of children. The younger children (5-8 years) were found to suffer more (92% vs. 85% and 80%)

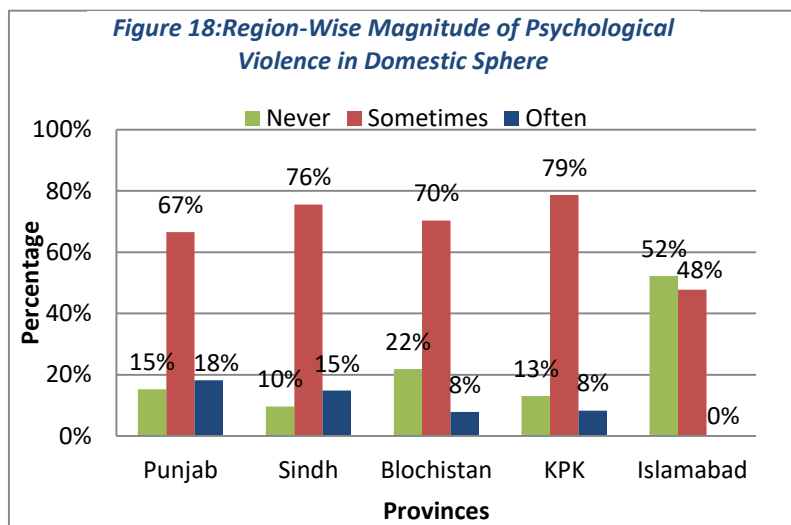


psychological violence as compared to elder children of age group 9-10 and 11-12 years respectively. A study conducted in Fiji reported contradictory results as the study found that children experienced more emotional punishment as they grew older (Beazley, et al., 2006). The analysis of the FGD data revealed that the elder children got used of listening

verbal abuse by their parents and they started ignoring it. One child stated: “we need more affection from parents in young age. But when they scold us we felt so bad.



With regard to children region of residence, the children lived in Sindh (91%) followed by KPK (87%) and Punjab (85%) was found to suffer more psychological abuse perpetrated by their mothers and fathers at home (Figure 18). In addition, the figure illustrates that the children from Islamabad faced less psychological abuse at home as compared to the



children lived in other areas of Pakistan. One of the reasons of psychological abuse in family sphere reported in this study was poverty and instability in communities. A 12 years child from KPK, whose father was a daily wage earner, described that:

My parents are always worried that we might not have food to eat or that the Taliban will further destabilize our community. They take out their frustration and anxiety on me and my brothers/sisters by abusing us at home.

Psychological violence is reported to have long term consequences for children such as to lower their self-esteem or decrease the level of confidence. The FGD with children revealed that they

felt a loss of confidence and estrangement when they became victims of verbal abuse by their parents. A child from an FGD in Punjab described how his parents used verbal violence against him and his siblings:

My parents often abuse me and call me 'Paagal (referring mentally retarded)' even in front of guests. They threaten me to throw in front of hungry dogs, if I will not behave properly in front of guests. I often scared when they talk like this. I lose my confidence in front of guests.

The children who experienced both type of psychological and physical violence in domestic sphere reported that psychological violence is worse than physical violence. They said that physical injuries may heal within days but the taunting comments/words remained for years. They reported different reasons of this but the most reported reason was the 'reiteration of those words by their siblings, relatives, or friends'. A boy from Punjab said,

"It is better that my father gives me two canes, instead of calling me 'Jaahil (referring uncivilized or illiterate)' and 'Paagal (mentally retarded)' in front of my cousins. Now, my cousin called me with this name in family gathering. It's so embarrassing for me"

Another Boy from KPK while sharing the similar story further added and commented, "They [referring to his parents] torture me with words. I feel so bad. It is better that I die than live this way." A previously conducted study reported that psychological abuse left a pain and anxiety among many children and the humiliation of verbal attack lower their self-esteem (Harper & Stockham, 2005).

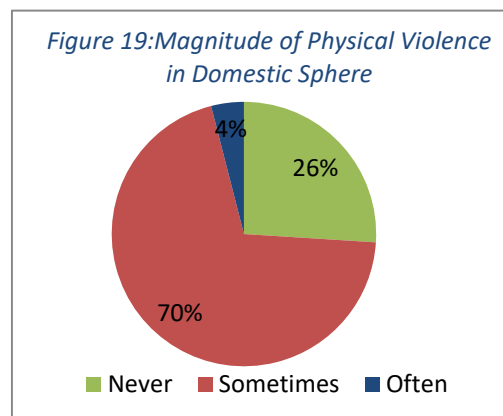
It has reported that the children has greater risk of being abused verbally/emotionally if their parents have little understanding of its side effects on child psychological development and well-being (Pinheiro, 2006; WHO, 2009). Therefore, there is dire need of some national level actions for raising awareness among parents about the effects of psychological violence on child development and parent-child interaction.

Physical Violence by Parents

Physical violence against children in the domestic sphere or home is widespread in all regions of the world (Pinheiro, 2006; SSRG, 2013). It has reported a source of both visible injuries and invisible injuries (Gershoff, 2002; Lansford et al., 2010). The invisible injuries refer to psychological distress among children such as depression, unhappiness and anxiety, and feelings of hopelessness in children (Gershoff, 2002). Though every country around the globe introduced

anti-corporal punishment laws, yet the widespread social approval of corporal punishment has fostered interest in assessing the prevalence and its different forms in domestic sphere (Lansford & Dodge, 2008; Pinheiro, 2006).

Figure 19 presents the magnitude of physical violence in domestic sphere in Pakistan. It shows that a majority of the children (74%) experienced physical violence perpetrated by their parents at home. Of which, a substantial percentage (70%) of respondents experienced physical violence ‘sometimes’ in their lives, while only 4% of respondents faced physical violence ‘often’ in their lives. A recently conducted study in China reported



that a substantial percentage (51%) of children of 3-15 years of age (though a little lower than our study) suffered physical punishment by their parents at home (Wang & Liu, 2014). Similarly, a study conducted in Central African Republic reported that a significant percentage of children (49.1 %) faced corporal punishment in their lives (Mande, 2013).

The most prevalent form of physical violence was ‘slapping the child on the hand, arm or leg’ (53%), followed by ‘slapping the child on the face, head, or ears’ (47%), ‘hit the child on the bottom with something like a belt, a stick or some other hard object’ (46%), and ‘pulled hair, pinched or twisted the ear’ (45%) (Table 10). The findings revealed that the respondents suffered more minor physical violence as compared to severe and very severe form of physical violence (Table 10). Similar form of physical violence, particularly slapping was reported as the most prevalent form of physical assault in previously conducted studies around the world (Clément, 2013; Lansford, et al., 2010; Naker, 2005; Wang & Liu, 2014).

Likewise, the analysis of FGD revealed that minor physical assault such as slapping and pushing by parents was a common and regular occurrence at home. It is considered that the children cannot be controlled without regular reprimands and beatings, otherwise, they become disobedient or deviant. A child from Sindh narrated:

It is common in my family to beat and abuse children. When I ask from my mother why you and father beat me, she often replied that we beat you to get you disciplined and to make you upright.

Another 12 years old boy while justifying his parents' behavior narrated:

My mother is usually tired or sick. When we (all 6 children in the house) make trouble, she slaps us or hits us with a slipper. My father also beats us when he returns from work. This is because he is tired and we make too much noise.

Another 10 years old girl from Baluchistan shared:

My mother almost slap me daily, this usually happens when we (I and my three younger brothers) play and do not sit still. Our mother usually scolds and beats us, if we sleep late in the night.

The findings revealed that the mothers perpetrated more violence against their children as compared to fathers, as shown in Table 10. Moreover, the mothers were found to perpetrate more violence on daughters than sons, while fathers perpetrated more physical violence on sons as compared to daughters. For instance, within the most prevalent form of physical violence, the mothers were found to 'slap the child on arm, hand or ear' more (42% on girls and 36% on boys vs. 30% on girls and 36% on boys) than fathers. A study conducted in three countries i.e. Cambodia, Viet Nam, and Philippine reported that the mothers punished the children more than fathers (Beazley, Bessell, Ennew, & Waterson, 2006). The study conducted in China also reported that that mothers (53.7% vs. 48.3%) perpetrated more physical violence on children as compared to fathers (Wang & Liu, 2014). One of the most cited reasons of this behavior of mothers was that the mothers spend more time at home and have more contact with children as compared to fathers, thus, to maintain discipline at home they perpetrated more violence on children than fathers (Beazley, et al., 2006; Durrant, 2005).

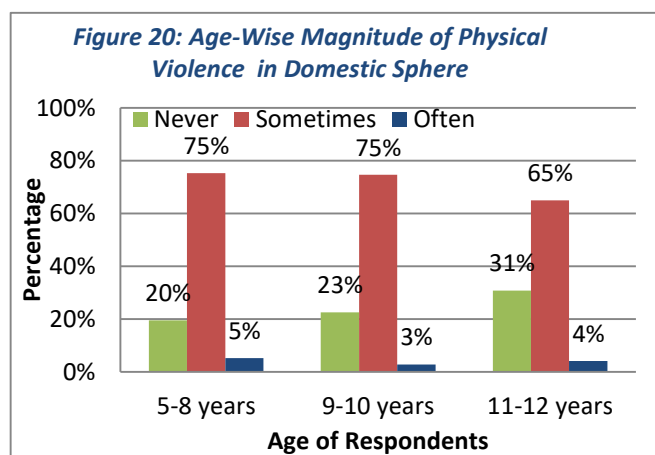
Table 10: Prevalence of Different Forms of Physical violence in Domestic Sphere (N=948):					
Variables	Father		Mother		Overall Physical Violence Perpetrated by Father and/or Mother (N= 948)
	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Minor Physical Violence					
Spanked child on the bottom with hand					
Never	322 (67.6)	352 (74.6)	324 (68.1)	323 (68.4)	551 (58.1)
Sometimes	93 (19.5)	109 (23.1)	89 (18.7)	106 (22.5)	310 (32.7)
Often	61 (12.8)	11 (2.3)	62 (13.0)	41 (8.7)	84 (8.9)
Hit child on the bottom with something like a belt, a stick or some other hard object					

Never	322 (67.6)	341 (72.2)	311 (65.3)	291 (61.7)	505 (53.3)
Sometimes	83 (17.4)	90 (19.1)	102 (21.4)	135 (28.6)	345 (36.4)
Often	71 (14.9)	41 (8.7)	63 (13.2)	46 (9.7)	98 (10.3)
Slapped child on the hand, arm, or leg					
Never	300 (63.0)	327 (69.3)	297 (62.4)	271 (57.4)	445 (46.9)
Sometimes	104 (21.8)	116 (24.6)	103 (21.6)	140 (29.7)	391 (41.2)
Often	72 (15.1)	29 (6.1)	73 (15.3)	59 (12.5)	107 (11.8)
Pulled hair, pinched or twisted the ear					
Never	327 (68.7)	363 (76.9)	301 (63.2)	307 (65.0)	518 (54.6)
Sometimes	81 (17.0)	90 (19.1)	102 (21.4)	108 (22.9)	335 (35.3)
Often	68 (14.3)	19 (4.0)	73 (15.3)	57 (12.1)	95 (10.0)
Shook child					
Never	339 (71.2)	357 (75.6)	330 (69.3)	317 (67.3)	553 (58.3)
Sometimes	73 (15.3)	88 (18.6)	84 (17.6)	113 (24.0)	313 (33.0)
Often	64 (13.4)	27 (5.7)	62 (13.0)	41 (8.7)	82 (8.6)
Severe Physical Violence					
Slapped child on the face or head or ears					
Never	305 (64.1)	330 (69.9)	320 (67.2)	297 (62.9)	497 (52.4)
Sometimes	117 (24.6)	109 (23.1)	90 (18.9)	125 (26.5)	352 (37.1)
Often	54 (11.3)	33 (7.0)	66 (13.9)	50 (10.6)	9 (10.9)
Hit child on some other part of the body besides the bottom with something like a belt, hairbrush, a stick, or some other hard object					
Never	330 (69.3)	336 (77.5)	318 (66.9)	307 (65.2)	551 (58.1)
Sometimes	87 (18.3)	79 (16.7)	94 (19.8)	123 (26.1)	301 (31.8)
Often	59 (12.4)	27 (5.7)	63 (13.3)	41 (8.7)	96 (10.1)
Threw or knocked child down					
Never	363 (76.3)	379 (80.3)	371 (78.1)	325 (69.0)	614 (64.8)
Sometimes	69 (14.5)	61 (12.9)	69 (14.5)	101 (21.4)	272 (28.7)
Often	44 (9.2)	32 (6.8)	35 (7.4)	45 (9.6)	62 (6.5)
Hit child with a fist or kicked hard					
Never	365 (76.7)	365 (77.3)	364 (76.6)	319 (67.7)	610 (64.3)
Sometimes	66 (13.9)	80 (16.9)	64 (13.5)	110 (23.4)	256 (27.0)
Often	45 (9.5)	27 (5.7)	47 (9.9)	42 (8.9)	82 (8.6)
Very Severe Physical Violence					
Grabbed the child around the neck and choked					
Never	392 (82.4)	417 (88.3)	414 (87.0)	413 (87.5)	747 (78.8)
Sometimes	59 (12.4)	39 (8.3)	38 (8.0)	42 (8.9)	168 (17.7)
Often	25 (5.3)	16 (3.4)	24 (5.0)	17 (3.6)	33 (3.5)
Burned or scalded the child on purpose					
Never	436 (91.6)	427 (90.5)	434 (91.2)	422 (89.4)	806 (85.0)
Sometimes	21 (4.4)	35 (7.4)	22 (4.6)	44 (9.3)	121 (12.8)
Often	19 (4.0)	10 (2.1)	20 (4.2)	6 (1.3)	19 (2.0)
Threatened the child with knife or gun					
Never	425 (89.3)	434 (91.9)	423 (88.9)	421 (89.4)	800 (84.4)
Sometimes	40 (8.4)	26 (5.5)	27 (5.7)	37 (7.9)	127 (13.4)
Often	11 (2.3)	12 (2.5)	26 (5.5)	13 (2.8)	21 (2.2)
Tried to cut the child with a sharp object					
Never	453 (95.2)	446 (94.7)	442 (92.9)	442 (93.6)	852 (89.9)
Sometimes	12 (2.5)	18 (3.8)	20 (4.2)	24 (5.1)	83 (8.8)
Often	11 (2.3)	7 (1.5)	14 (2.9)	6 (1.3)	13 (1.4)

In addition, this study found that the mothers perpetrated more violence on daughters than sons. For instance, within the most prevalent form of physical violence, the mothers were found to slap more to daughters (42% vs. 36%) than sons, while the fathers slapped their sons more (36% vs. 30%) than their daughters. The similar findings were found in a previously conducted study in Fiji which reported that the mothers punished daughters more (28% vs. 12%) as compared to sons (Beazley, et al., 2006). The parents considered corporal punishment as an essential tool to discipline child and to train them to behave properly in family and society (Clément, 2013; Lansford, et al., 2010). With regard to gender of the children, 14% of mothers and 13% of fathers believed that corporal punishment is was necessary to teach girls, while 19% of mothers and 8% of fathers considered it important for boys. (Lansford et al., 2010). In addition, a study conducted in Quebec country, 15% of the fathers and 10% of the mothers considered slapping as an acceptable act for disobedient children (Clément, 2013).

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Physical Violence in Domestic Sphere

Figure 20 presents the age-wise magnitude of physical violence in domestic sphere. It highlights that the younger children experienced more (80% vs. 78% and 69%) physical violence as compared to young children of age group 9-10 years and 11-12 years respectively. The FDG analysis revealed a reason for this high vulnerability of younger children is the inability of young



children to assess the mood of parents and resist violence. It has observed that the children between the ages of 11 and 12 were at lesser risk of physical and sexual violence because they have developed violence avoiding strategies. A 12 year old child from KPK, who was working as garbage collector, shared:

“When I was younger, I could not anticipate when somebody could commit violence against me. But now, I can understand the mood of the person, and I run away before anyone tries to hit me.”

Another 11 years old child shared, *“Now, I am able to assess the mood of my parents. Whenever I realize that they can beat me for some mistake. Either I leave the home for few hours or shifted the blame towards my younger brothers and sisters. My brothers and sisters know if they say something about me I will beat them. So they bear physical punishment given by parents silently.”*

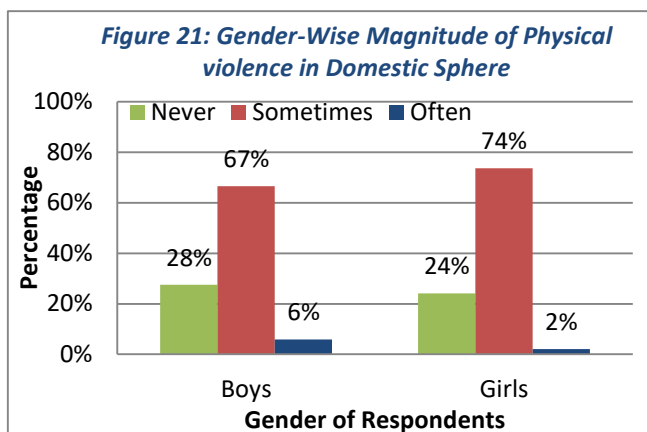


Figure 21 shows the gender-wise magnitude of physical violence in domestic sphere. The girls suffered more (76% vs. 63%) physical violence as compared to boys. However, the boys experienced physical violence slightly more often (6% vs. 2%) than girls. A study conducted in Cambodia revealed that among the children aged 7-10, girls were found to suffered more physical violence as compared to boys. The Cambodian study found that 68% of girls and 63% of boys had experienced “mild” corporal punishment and 15% of girls and 4% of boys severe corporal punishment by their family members in their household (Lansford, et al., 2010). In a study conducted in Southeast Asia and Pacific, the girls were found to suffer more physical assault from parents and older siblings as compared to boys (Beazley, et al., 2006).

The FDG analysis revealed that the girls were expected to shoulder domestic responsibilities for the home and for the care of younger siblings particularly brothers. It was common that the girls were beaten up or were verbally abused due to not fulfill these responsibilities according to the expectations of their parents. An 11 year old girl participant from Sindh described:

I frequently face physical violence at home than my three younger brothers. This is my responsibility to take care of them and also do household tasks. I am humiliated and beaten up when I do not cook well or take care of my younger brothers and sisters according to my mother’s expectations.

A participant from Punjab reported:

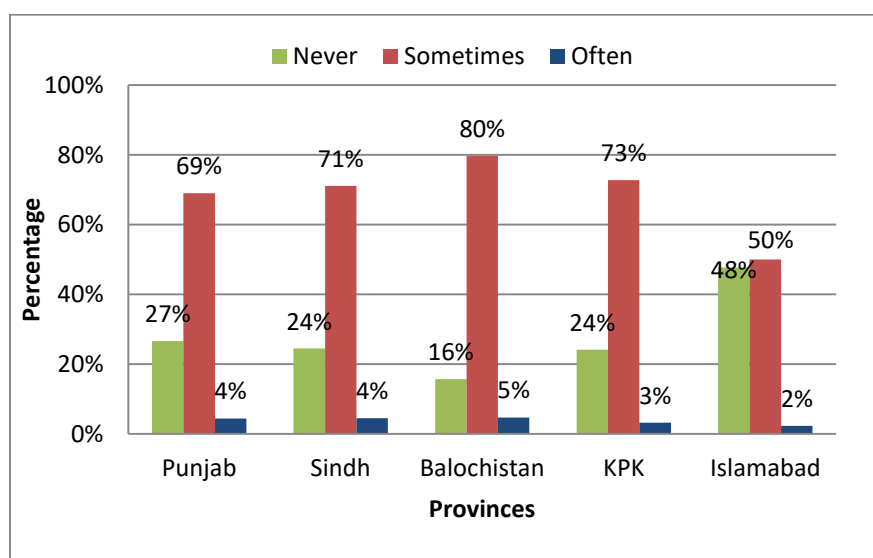
My mother loves my brother more than me. Whenever we do some mistake my mother punish me not my brother. Like, once we broke a vase by mistake. My mother slapped twice on my face while saying that it is my duty to take care household items. She did not say anything to my brother.

A number of similar stories have been shared by girls' participants during the FGDs. The overall analysis revealed that girls were beaten due to household responsibilities, while boys were beaten due to their naughty attitude in neighborhood or community. This difference can be assessed by following narration, given by 12 years old child from KPK:

During fighting with my friend over a cricket match, accidentally I broke his arm. His father made a complaint to my father. Then my father beat me with stick.

Figure 22 shows the province-wise magnitude of physical violence in domestic sphere. The figure depicts that the respondents who lived in Baluchistan experienced more physical violence (85% vs. 76%, 75%, 73%, and 52%) as compared to children lived in other parts of the country. Though almost half of the respondents (52%) who lived in Islamabad experienced physical violence in domestic sphere, yet this percentage was lowest as compared to rest of the areas of Pakistan.

Figure 22: Province-Wise Magnitude of Physical violence in Domestic Sphere



The high prevalence of physical violence in all areas of Pakistan highlights a need of some national level comprehensive actions to reduce physical violence in domestic sphere. Though there is a growing momentum to enact legal bans on all forms of corporal punishment, yet this is not enough, there is need to raise awareness among communities about the side effects of physical violence on children (Elizabeth T. Gershoff & Bitensky, 2007; SSRG, 2013).

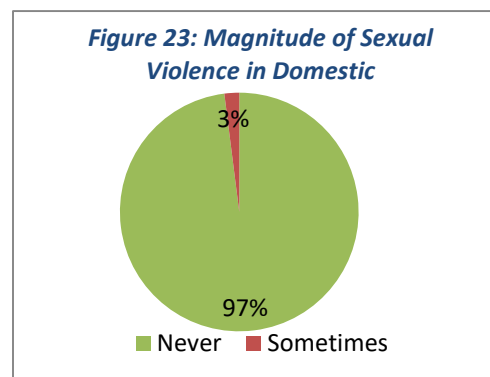
It is also considered that the physical punishment given by parents creates a distance between children and their parents, particularly with mothers. It is because as child considers parents as a source of pain he/she adopts negative coping strategy and starts to avoid interaction with them (Harper & Stockham, 2005). Therefore, there is need to highlight the importance of safe, stable and nurturing relationships between children and parents through media and community programs (WHO, 2009). In addition to it, there is need to create an enabling environment for the effective implementation of prohibiting laws of corporal punishment through public education, research, monitoring and advocacy (Beazley, et al., 2006; WHO, 2009).

Sexual Violence by Parents

Home is usually regarded a safe territory for children, yet the prevalence of sexual abuse within domestic sphere depicts harsh reality of family worldwide (Bricknell, 2008; Finkelhor, 2009; Pereda, et al., 2009). It is reported that much of the sexual violence in childhood is inflicted by the family members or other people either residing in the home or visiting the home (Barth, et al., 2013; SSRG, 2013; Sumner, et al., 2015). The victims of sexual abuse often did not report violence due to fear of stigma, shame and re-victimisation by society (Deb & Modak, 2009; Sumner, et al., 2015). Therefore, it is difficult to determine the prevalence of child sexual assault in any society around the world, particularly in domestic sphere due to ‘privacy’ of families (Corrigall, Greal, Rintoul, & Schwartzkoff, 2006). This study made an effort to capture the sexual violence in domestic sphere by asking four questions to the children of age group 5-12 years.

In present study, about 3% of respondents experienced sexual violence perpetrated by fathers in domestic sphere (Figure 23). A trend study children during 1995 to 2005 conducted in Australia found that children aged 0–14 years suffered more (37% vs. 17%) sexual assaults as compared to the children above 15 years of age (Bricknell, 2008). A study conducted in USA reported 9% child sexual abuse

(Rosenberg & Wilcox, 2006). There is paucity of research on magnitude and forms of sexual assault under 12 years of age children within domestic sphere in Pakistan, so we could not compare our findings. The reported cases might not depict the actual prevalence of sexual assault. Because of sensitive nature of the issue, children were hesitant to disclose violence. Previous research in other developing countries also provided evidence that because of fear of re-victimisation by



perpetrator on the discourse of sexual violence, children did not report violence to others (Corrigan, et al., 2006; Deb & Modak, 2009). Table 11 shows that a few children in age group of 5-12 years suffered different forms of sexual abuse from their fathers.

Table 11: Sexual violence perpetrated by fathers and mothers (N=948)					
Variables	Father		Mother		Overall Sexual Violence Perpetrated by Father and/or Mother violence (N= 948)
	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Showed pornography					
Never	468 (98.3)	468 (99.2)	476 (100%)	476 (100%)	936 (98.7)
Sometimes	8 (1.7)	4 (.8)	-	-	12 (1.3)
Unwanted kiss/touched child in a sexual way					
Never	467 (98.3)	469 (98.8)	476 (100%)	476 (100%)	936 (98.8)
Sometimes	8 (1.7)	3 (.6)	-	-	11 (1.2)
Unwanted touch private parts of the child					
Never	463 (97.3)	468 (99.2)	476 (100%)	476 (100%)	931 (98.2)
Sometimes	13 (2.3)	4 (.8)	-	-	17 (1.8)
Tried or Forced child to have sex with them					
Never	464 (97.5)	467 (98.9)	476 (100%)	476 (100%)	931 (98.2)
Sometimes	1 (0.01%)	5 (1.1)	-	-	6 (1.6)

Table 11 shows the gender wise magnitude of sexual violence in domestic sphere. The boys suffered more sexual abuse by their fathers than girls. Cambodian study reported little lower rates for female (4.4%) than male (5.6%) children. Contrarily, a study conducted in Australia reported that female children suffered more sexual abuse than male children.

During FGDs with children, two boys revealed that their fathers often touch their private parts in the absence of mothers at home. The analysis further revealed that their fathers perpetrated physical and verbal abuse on the refusal of young boys to touch their private. A boy from Sindh reported, “*My father touched my private parts whenever I am alone at home. He beat me severely when I try to stop him to do so.*”

Another boy from KPK revealed:

I do not have any sister and my mother died few years back. We are two brothers. My father is addicted. He forced us (referring himself to his brother) to do whatever he wants. He touched us in a bad way. On resistance, he did not let us to eat anything for few days.

During FGDs, the girls were hesitant to answering question related to sexual violence perpetrated by their fathers. It was observed that they were hiding the information. On probing and building a good rapport with them, they started sharing some incidents. A 12 years girl from Punjab who was living with her step-father shared that her step-father often came in her room and asked her to sit on her lap. She further reported:

She touched my private parts, kissed me. He kept doing until he heard the voice of the mother. Ongoing back, he stared at me with anger. My father often beat my mother, I afraid of him. I never shared this sexual abuse with my mother.

It shows that sexual abuse is usually followed by or is together with verbal and physical abuse. As the stories from FGDs found that the fathers who perpetrated sexual abuse also showed anger and physical violence against children. Due to fear of fathers, the children often did not share sexual abuse experiences with anyone.

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Sexual Violence in Domestic Sphere

Table 12 shows that the children from Balochistan (6%) reported to suffer more sexual abuse at home by their fathers, followed by Sindh (4%). Moreover, the older children (11-12 years) suffered more sexual abuse (4% vs. 2%) in their lives by their fathers as compared to younger children in age group of 5-10 years. Previously conducted study reported that the children in age group 0–14 years suffered more (37% vs. 17%) sexual assaults as compared to the children above 15 years of age (Bricknell, 2008). However, there is lack of research on assessing the prevalence of sexual assault within the age group of 0-14 years of children in Pakistan.

Variables	Never	Sometimes
Gender		
Boys	96.0%	4.0%
Girls	97.9%	2.1%
Age		
5-8	98.1%	1.9%
9-10	97.9%	2.1%
11-12	95.8%	4.2%
Provinces		
Punjab	97.6%	2.4%
Sindh	95.6%	4.4%
Balochistan	93.8%	6.3%
KPK	97.2%	2.8%
Islamabad	97.7%	2.3%

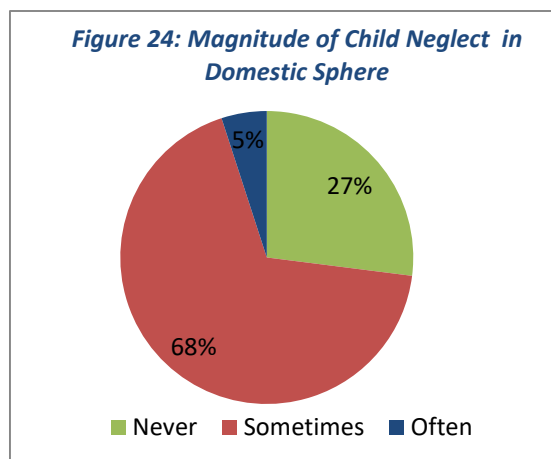
Sexual abuse has myriad adverse effects on children including low self-esteem, a feeling of worthlessness, an abnormal or distorted view of sex, mistrustful of adults or family members, and can become suicidal (Corrigall, et al., 2006). There is need to raise awareness in communities about preventive strategies such as to respect children's privacy and such fathers should not allow doing the activities of bathing, changing, and toileting (Rosenberg & Wilcox, 2006). Sexual violence is more harmful than other forms of violence. As due to social taboos and stigmas, people do not like to report sexual abuse thus could not seek medical or rehabilitation services. The government of Pakistan and some civil society organization has running awareness campaign against sexual abuse in Pakistan. Yet, there is still need of comprehensive and integrated social and medical strategies. It is also important to integrate preventive strategies into routine programs of health sector and also to build linkages between clear social services to achieve maximal benefit for various health measures. (Sumner, et al., 2015).

Child Neglect by Parents

Child neglect by parents is regarded as the most common type of child maltreatment within domestic sphere around the globe (Blumenthal, 2015; Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2013; Runyan, Wattam, Ikeda, Hassan, & Ramiro, 2002). Child neglect refers the failure to provide a child with necessary care and protection (DePanfilis, 2006; Hildyard & Wolfe, 2007). It mainly categorizes into four forms: physical, medical, education, emotional (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2013; DePanfilis, 2006). It may include inadequate shelter, shortage of food, scarcity of clothing, lack of medical care, lack of appropriate supervision of a child for and extended periods of time (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2013). Emotional and physical related neglect was more common in domestic sphere. It is widely acknowledged that reporting of child neglect may protect the child by getting help from the family (DePanfilis, 2006).

Figure 24 reports the magnitude of child neglect in domestic sphere. Almost three-quarter of respondents (73%) confronted child neglect in their lives, of which a majority of respondents (68%) experienced child neglect 'sometimes' in their lives at their homes. A previously conducted study in USA reported almost a similar percentage of children (61%) who experienced child

neglect. (Rosenberg & Wilcox, 2006). A trend study conducted in UK reported 6-41% lifetime experiences of neglect during childhood (Radford et al., 2011). Likewise, a study conducted in Canada found that a substantial percentage (34%) of respondents experienced childhood neglect (Public Health Agency of Canada, 2010).



In this study, the most prevalent form of child neglect was ‘depriving the child from recreation/enjoyment as a punishment’ (58%), followed by ‘depriving the child from food as a form of discipline’ (42%), and then ‘allowing the child to wander streets without adult supervision’ (41%) (see Table 13). The findings presented in Table illustrates that the mothers exhibited more child neglect acts to discipline the child as compared to fathers. Previously conducted studies reported the high prevalence of same kind of neglect in domestic sphere (Radford, et al., 2011; Runyan, et al., 2002).

During FGDs, a close discussion with children revealed that most of the time the mothers threaten the child ‘from depriving the food’ not only as to discipline the child but to cover the actual shortage of food at home. It was because the most of the respondents/participants in this study belong to lower socio-economic status. A 12 years old girl having four sisters and one brother from KPK shared:

My father is addicted. My mother works as domestic worker. We often do not have much food at home. When my mother just simply said the truth about it, they start weeping and quarrel with each other. So, my mother often said that she did not bring food today as a punishment. Every day, she quotes a new excuse such as ‘our rude behavior with each other’ or ‘rude behavior with mother’ you.

Table 13: Prevalence Different Forms of Child Neglect In Domestic Sphere (N=948)					
Variables	Father		Mother		Overall Child neglect by Father and/or Mother violence (N= 948)
	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	Boys (N= 476)	Boys (N= 476)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Allowed child to wander streets without adult supervision					
Never	312 (65.5)	343 (72.7)	316 (66.7)	341 (72.7)	552 (58.2)
Sometimes	111 (23.3)	96 (20.3)	109 (23.0)	84 (17.9)	319 (33.6)
Often	53 (11.1)	33 (7.0)	49 (10.3)	44 (9.4)	77 (8.1)

Threatened child to marry someone					
Never	379 (79.6)	370 (78.4)	372 (78.2)	368 (78.0)	651 (68.7)
Sometimes	51 (10.7)	80 (16.9)	60 (12.6)	66 (14.0)	229 (24.2)
Often	46 (9.7)	22 (4.7)	44 (9.2)	37 (7.8)	67 (7.1)
Provided child inadequate food (necessary for normal physiological development)					
Never	349 (73.3)	347 (73.5)	348 (73.1)	343 (72.7)	596 (62.9)
Sometimes	86 (18.1)	99 (21.0)	85 (17.9)	101 (21.4)	282 (29.7)
Often	41 (8.6)	26 (5.5)	43 (9.0)	28 (5.9)	70 (7.4)
Allowing child to sleep overnight alone without adult supervision					
Never	359 (75.4)	380 (80.5)	351 (73.7)	356 (75.4)	621 (65.5)
Sometimes	63 (13.2)	71 (15.0)	90 (18.9)	104 (22.0)	275 (29.0)
Often	54 (11.3)	21 (4.4)	35 (7.4)	12 (2.5)	52 (5.5)
Depriving child from food as a form of discipline					
Never	339 (71.2)	333 (70.6)	327 (68.7)	338 (71.6)	546 (57.6)
Sometimes	89 (18.7)	106 (22.5)	107 (22.5)	103 (21.8)	333 (35.1)
Often	48 (10.1)	33 (7.0)	42 (8.8)	31 (6.6)	96 (7.3)
Depriving child recreation/enjoyment as a punishment					
Never	277 (58.3)	295 (62.5)	274 (57.6)	260 (55.1)	393 (41.5)
Sometimes	143 (30.1)	131 (27.8)	146 (30.7)	172 (36.4)	484 (51.1)
Often	55 (11.6)	46 (9.7)	55 (11.6)	31 (6.6)	71 (7.5)

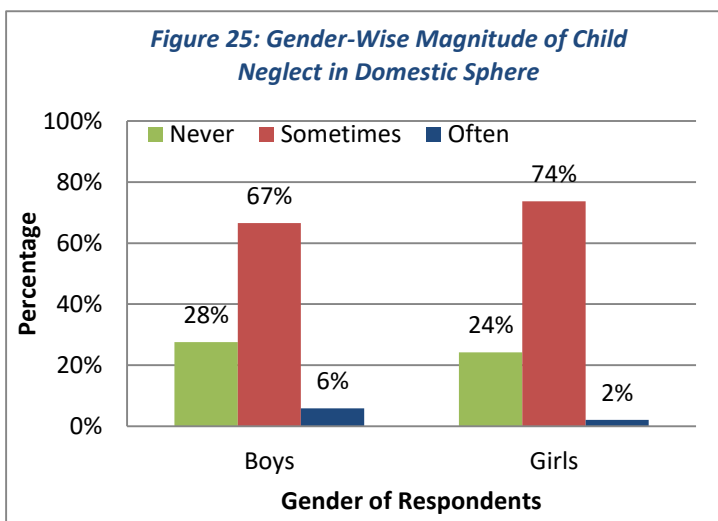
During FGDs with children, some boys reported that their elders allowed them to wander at street without their supervision. The analysis also revealed that it often happened with the children living in joint family with more than 10 household members who shared one or two rooms with difficulty. In such circumstances, the male children are encouraged to move out into the neighborhood streets, to make more space for the mother and sisters to perform household duties like cooking, washing and cleaning. A boy from Baluchistan shared, “*due to lack of space at home, my parents encouraged me and my male cousins to play outside the house*”. This behavior sometimes made them more vulnerable to street exposure and violence. Twelve years old boy who spent most of his time in the neighborhood streets shared:

My mother tells me to go away. It is because there are so many children in the house all the time. We boys get together and have fun. We spent whole day in the street and come back home at dinner time. During playing games with other street children, we often had fight with each other. Now, I hit back the street children like a Ressler or a Boxer and street children are afraid of me.

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Child Neglect in Domestic Sphere

The gender-wise analysis revealed that a majority of both boys and girls suffered child neglect in their childhood. However, the girls suffered slightly more (76% vs. 73%) child neglect as compared to boys.

Majority of the parents in Pakistan have low literacy and erratic jobs with unpredictable pay. Children in the



FGDs described that parents who had difficult and contractual jobs had less quality time to offer to their children. Consequently, children in such families suffered from parental neglect and girls faced added pressure to bear domestic responsibilities. A girl child of 13 years of age, whose mother was domestic worker and worked till evening and father was a truck driver, shared that:

“My father and my mother are busy with work. We are alone at home most of the time. Once my sister got burned from the stove and my brother fell from chair, but nobody cares! Our parents reached at home in the evening and just enquired about the injury. But, they did not stay at home next day, as job is important for them.”

Similarly, the lack of awareness and low literacy of parents especially of the mother had influence on the training and understanding of children. Children who had illiterate parents suffered from neglect in areas of education, personality development and remaining ignorant about their protection against violence. A girl child from KPK, whose parents had no formal schooling while sharing her experiences, narrated:

“My mother wanted me to go to school. Teacher has a big danda (stick) at school. He used to beat me for not doing homework. But there is nobody at home to help me with homework. Finally, I decided to leave the school.”

Figure 26 presents the age-wise magnitude of child neglect in domestic sphere. The children in younger age reported to suffer more (83% vs. 76% and 67%) child neglect as compared to elder children in age group of 9-10 years and 11-12 years respectively. During FGDs, children revealed that parents usually neglect them as they considered them enough mature to take care of themselves. An 11 years girl from Sindh shared:

My mother asked to me to sleep alone in a room as now i got older. My uncle often comes there and touches my private parts. I did not speak about it to my mother or father because of shame and also a threat given by my uncle. I do not want to sleep alone. But my family does not understand this. They said you cannot sleep with us (referring to her mother and father).

The province-wise analysis revealed that a majority of the children in all provinces except Islamabad experienced child neglect ‘sometimes’ in their life by parents. The respondent from KPK (81%) and Sindh (83%) reported more child neglect as compared to other provinces of Pakistan (Figure 27)

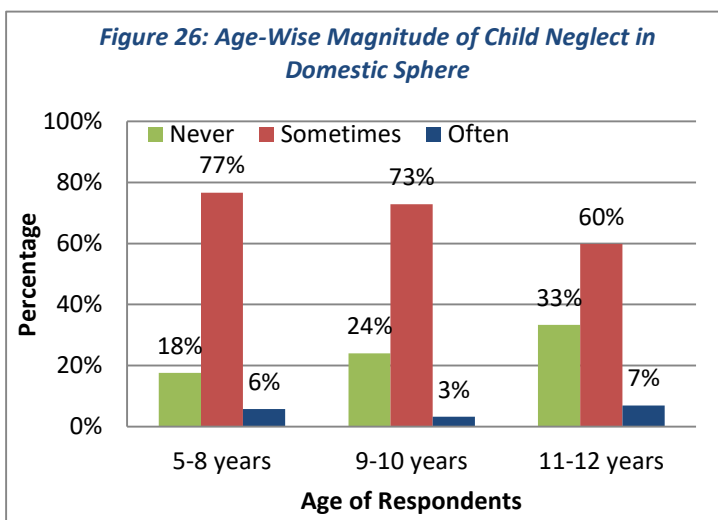
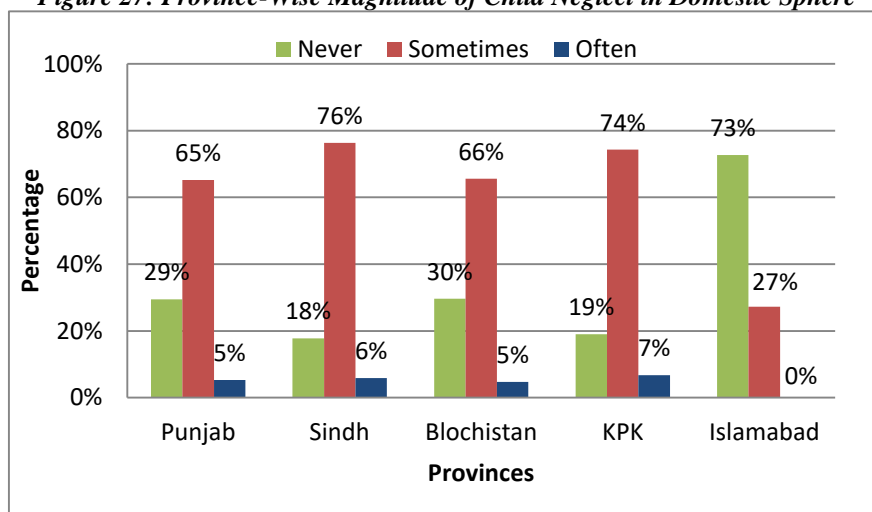


Figure 27: Province-Wise Magnitude of Child Neglect in Domestic Sphere

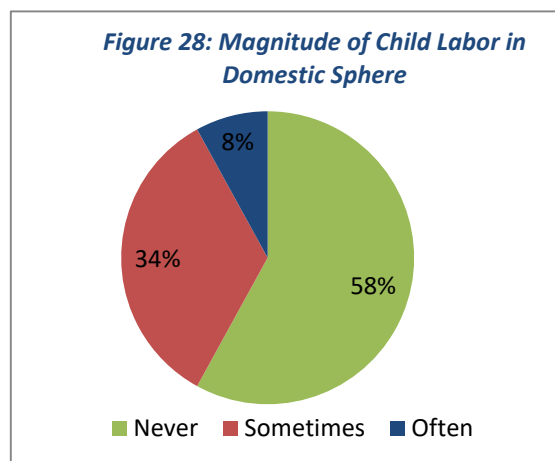


Child neglect increase the risk of emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and interpersonal difficulties in children (Hildyard & Wolfe, 2007; McCormack, 2012). It is also associated with increased juvenile delinquency, adult criminal activity, substance abuse, and domestic violence (DePanfilis, 2006; Hildyard & Wolfe, 2007). However, neglect is not only an individual or a family problem it is a community issue as well (McCormack, 2012). Child neglect also results in poor relationship between the caregivers and children (Runyan, et al., 2002). Thus, there is a need of some community level campaign to raise awareness about the consequences of child neglect. Additionally, it is important to introduce some programs in community for supportive child-parent relationships (Blumenthal, 2015; DePanfilis, 2006). Moreover, there is need to increase community connections for welfare of the children and economic stability in the society (DePanfilis, 2006; SSRG, 2013).

Child Labor in Domestic Sphere

Child labor in domestic sphere refers to the “situations where domestic work is performed by children below the relevant minimum age (for light work, full-time non-hazardous work) in hazardous conditions or in a slavery-like situation” (ILO, 2004, p.5). Moreover, child labor is also considered if child is involved in labor below 18 years of age. Around 17.2 million children between the 5 to 17 years are engaged in paid or unpaid domestic work in the home of a third party or employer around the globe (ILO, 2013a). Among them, 65% are girls of 5 to 11 years age (ILO, 2013a). Household chores undertaken by children in their own homes are regarded as socialization process and an integral part of family life (ILO, 2002, 2004). However, in some cases, there might be concerns over certain situations where these workloads might interfere with the children’s schooling, personal development, and health (ILO, 2002, 2004). Child labor at home and drop-out from schooling are interlinked (ILO, 2013b). For introducing cultural based preventive strategies to protect children from domestic workload, as a first step there is need to assess prevalence and nature of child labor within domestic sphere. This study made an effort to assess the magnitude of child labor in domestic sphere.

Figure 28 shows the magnitude of child labour in domestic sphere. It depicts that a substantial percentage (42%) of respondents were forced for child labour by their parents. A majority of the respondents (34%) experienced child labour ‘sometimes’ in their lives. The FGD analysis revealed that the children had understanding about the difference to work at home and to work for someone else for money. Almost all children used to



perform household chores; however, most of the children did not consider it as a labour. The children considered it labour if they were doing it at someone else home, at workshops, or factories. During FGD, the children highlighted their familial poverty as one of the main reasons of child labour. It was also revealed that the poor parents preferred to send their children at work rather than to school. Most of the children who want to study particularly girls were often physically abused by their parents for not completing the household chores or work. A girl from KPK shared:

I want to study, but due to lack of resources my parents often discouraged me. Whenever I tried to do my homework, my mother abuses me and asks me to help her in household chores and also forced me to work as domestic servant.

A boy from Punjab shared:

Being a nomadic, it is very difficult to take admission in school. Fortunately, due to my friend I got admission in government primary school. But my father beat me, he asked me to leave school and forced me to do work. I now worked in a workshop; my father wasted all my earning in gambling. I often frustrated from my life, but get myself normal for my sisters and my mothers.

A girl from Baluchistan who dropped out from school due to child labor shared:

My mother always kept me busy in embroidery work at home; I did not get time to complete my school homework. On complaining to my father or mother, they replied that money is more important than study. I started getting poor grades in school, felt so embarrassed, so I left school.

The most prevalent form of child labour was forcing the child to act as domestic servant at home (31%), followed by forcing the child to act as domestic servant or labourer for money (32%) (Table 14). During FGD, both male and female children angrily reported that their parents asked them to

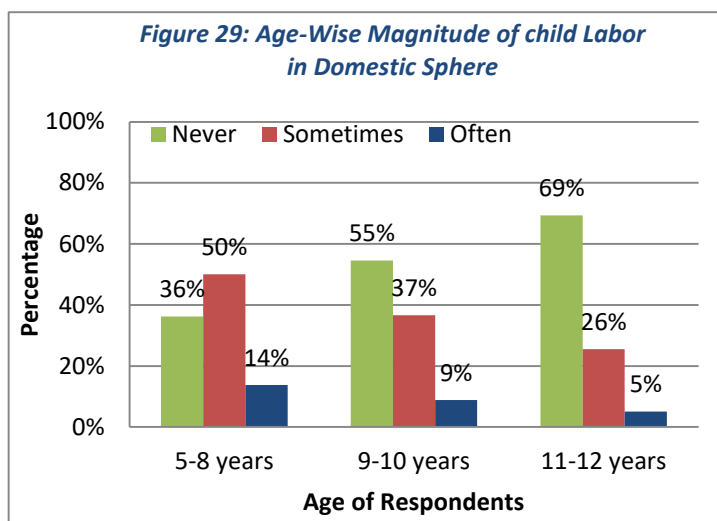
do household chores to an extent that children felt them as domestic servants at home. Few of the participants during FGD revealed that their parents forced them to work at other's home as domestic servant particularly in nearby affluent areas. On asking the reason of this, most of the children reported that their parents compelled them to do it for the welfare of the family, while some reported that their addicted fathers forced them to work as labourer so they bought drugs with our money. A boy from Balochistan said:

My father is addicted. He asked me to work and with my wage he buys drug. If I refuse, he beats me and my mother.

Table 14: Child labour perpetrated by father and mother (N=948)					
Variables	Father		Mother		Overall domestic violence (N= 948)
	Boys (N= 476)	Girls (N= 472)	Boys (N= 476)	Boys (N= 476)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Engaging child in manual labour beyond their physical capacity					
Never	381 (80.0)	374 (79.2)	363 (76.3)	368 (78.0)	661 (69.7)
Sometimes	85 (17.9)	84 (17.8)	79 (16.6)	73 (15.3)	233 (24.6)
Often	10 (2.1)	14 (3.0)	34 (7.1)	31 (6.6)	54 (5.7)
Forcing child to act as domestic servant at home					
Never	365 (76.7)	346 (73.3)	383 (80.5)	356 (75.4)	634 (66.9)
Sometimes	84 (17.6)	96 (20.3)	64 (13.4)	83 (17.6)	260 (27.4)
Often	27 (5.7)	30 (6.4)	29 (6.1)	33 (7.0)	54 (5.7)
Forcing child to act as domestic servant for money					
Never	373 (78.4)	331 (70.3)	388 (81.5)	351 (74.4)	642 (67.7)
Sometimes	72 (15.1)	88 (18.7)	68 (14.3)	87 (18.4)	230 (24.3)
Often	31 (6.5)	52 (11.0)	20 (4.2)	34 (7.1)	75 (7.9)
Forcing child to engage for money in harmful/dangerous, humiliating or degrading labour					
Never	386 (81.1)	365 (77.3)	396 (83.2)	371 (78.6)	687 (72.5)
Sometimes	63 (13.2)	78 (15.5)	43 (9.0)	61 (12.9)	194 (20.5)
Often	27 (5.7)	29 (6.1)	37 (7.8)	40 (8.5)	67 (7.1)

Association of Children's Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Child Labor in Domestic Sphere

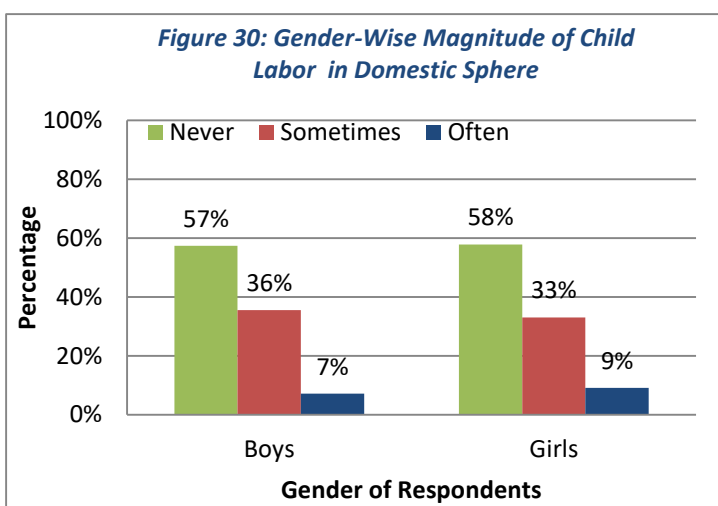
The age-wise magnitude of child labor in domestic sphere revealed that the children in younger age experienced more child labor (64% vs. 46% and 33%) in domestic sphere as compared to elder children in age group of 9-10 years and 11-12 years respectively (Figure 29). The FGD analysis revealed that the children in younger age were involved in household work



and they took it as a tough labor, yet most of the children above age 9 were forced to work as domestic servants or to work in factories or workshops. The analysis further revealed that the young children usually stayed at home and completed household chores on directives of their parents. An 8 years girl from Punjab shared:

My two brothers and my parents went for work. I and my younger sister age of two years stayed at home. My mother asked me to complete all household chores. I mop the house, wash utensils and clothes. I also sometimes cut vegetables and just yesterday my mother taught me to cook Daal (referring lentils).

Figure 30 shows the magnitude of child labor in domestic sphere by their parents. It reveals that the same percentage of boys and girls experienced child labor in domestic sphere at home by parents. The FGD analysis revealed that both the girl and boys had little difference in working as a child labor. The parents forced both male and female children to work either



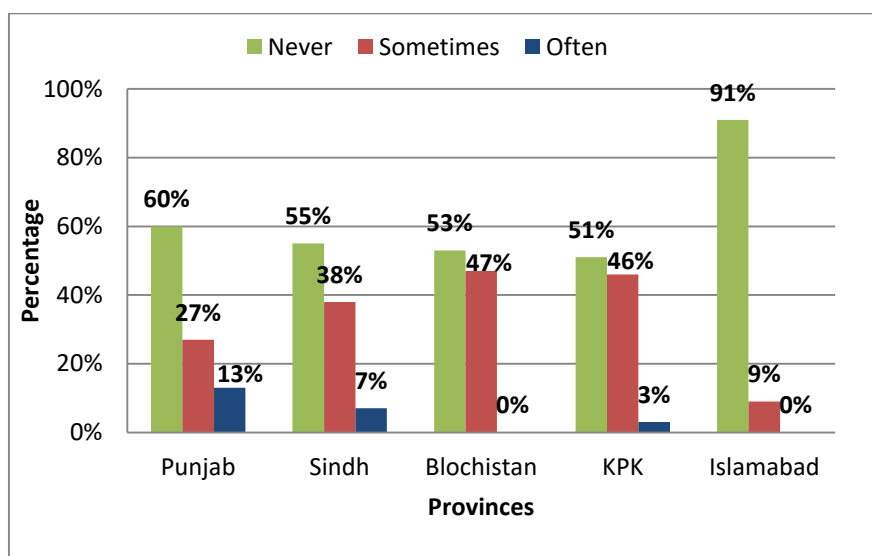
within domestic sphere or outside the home. The analysis revealed parents forced boys to join

some workshops or factories where they could learn some skills, whereas they forced girls to work as domestic servants. A 10 years old boy from Punjab shared:

We are nomadic. I have two sisters and one brother. My parents dropped me and my brother to a nearby workshop daily where we help our Master (employer) in repairing motor bikes. He also trains us and gives us 50 rupees daily. While, my two sisters work as domestic servant to nearby Khotess (referring big buildings). My father said that my sisters cannot learn to repair bikes; otherwise we may have good earning a day.

Figure 31 shows the province-wise magnitude of child labor in domestic sphere. The figure presents that the children living in KPK, Balochistan, and Sindh were more in child labor by their parents as compared to Punjab.

Figure 31: Province-Wise Magnitude of Child Labor in Domestic Sphere



The analysis of FGD revealed that most of the children did not want to work and wanted to continue their study. But due to poverty or the bad habits of the fathers, the children were forced to do work. Therefore, there is need to develop a long-term national policy action to reduce child labor and to introduce non-formal school system and targeted anti-poverty programs in Pakistan. Moreover, there is a need to introduce non-legislative community and social programs, particularly the programs which mediate between education institutions, parents and the employers to facilitate school attendance, and to provide social support to children (Gamlin, et al., 2015).

Association of Individual and Familial Characteristics of Respondents with all forms of Domestic Violence

A growing body of research links both individual (age, study in-school or out-of-school, birth order of child among siblings/family size etc.) and family characteristics (education of parents, family income, employment status of parents, type of family, interpersonal violence history of parents etc.) with reported and unreported violence against children all around the world (Berger, 2005; Pinheiro, 2006; SSRG, 2013). This study made an effort to explore different individual and family characteristics with violence against children.

In this study, age of children was significantly associated with all forms of domestic violence except sexual violence (Table 15). The children in younger age (5-8) years were found to be more vulnerable to psychological violence, child neglect, physical violence and child labor as compared to older children (9-10 years). The previously conducted studies reported that younger children usually suffered more violence as compared to elder children (Bricknell, 2008). In the present study, the FDG analysis revealed that because of inability of young children to assess the mood of parents and resist violence, they experience more violence. It has also observed that the elder children were relatively at lesser risk of violence as compared to younger one because older children knew and learnt violence avoiding strategies (Bricknell, 2008).

In the presents study, the type of family either nuclear or joint family were found to be significantly associated with all types of domestic violence (Table 15). The children lived in joint families suffered more child abuse as compared to children lived in nuclear families. The findings are consistence with previously conducted study which reported that all forms of domestic violence including sexual violence during childhood is inflicted by the family members or other people either residing in the home or visiting the home (Barth, et al., 2013; SSRG, 2013; Sumner, et al., 2015).The analysis of FGD revealed that the girls were restricted to their homes in Pakistani society which often considered as a safe place for children including girls. Yet, the findings show that they were not safe from sexual abuse or the threat of sexual harassment within the home. The safe confines of home have multiple male relatives who can sexually victimize girls due to joint family dynamics and extended families living together under one roof or in closely located houses. A 10 year old girl from an FGD in Baluchistan shared her experience of being inappropriately accosted by her cousin-brother:

My house is shared by my three uncles and their families. My elder cousin-brother touches me inappropriately, whenever he finds me alone. I cannot share this with anyone as they will not believe.

Another 12 years girl from Punjab shared:

My house is shared by my aunt, two uncles, and grandparents. Whenever, my aunt and grandparents quarrel with my mother. She got angry. Then, she spit-out her anger by beating and abusing us (referring herself and her two brothers, and one sister).

The children relation with school either in-school or out-of-school were found to be significantly associated with all forms of domestic violence (Table 15). In our study the out-of-school children reported to suffer more violence as compared to in-school children. The findings are consistent with previously conducted studies in both developed and developing countries which reported that the school children faced less domestic violence by parents as compared to out-of-school children (Pineiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002; SSRG, 2013).

Similarly, the educational status of fathers was found related to all forms of violence except sexual violence against children (Table 15). The fathers having no formal schooling perpetrated more violence against children as compared to educated fathers. The education of mother was found a significant determinant of violence against children including child neglect, child labor, psychological and physical violence. The mother having no formal schooling perpetrated more violence against children as compared to educated mothers. The findings are aligned with previously conducted studies which reported that the child abuse and neglect was very closely associated with low education of parents (Pineiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002)

Globally, the economic indicators such as employment status of father, employment status of mother and family income were found related to violence against children (Pineiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002). This study found that the employment status of fathers was significantly related to all forms of violence except sexual assault and child neglect (Table 15). The unemployed fathers perpetrated more psychological violence on children as compared to fathers with job. Contrarily, the fathers of children with unskilled jobs, followed by unemployed fathers, perpetrated more physical violence and sexual violence as compared to children with skilled or managerial jobs. Similarly, the employment status of mothers was also significantly related to all forms of

violence expect sexual assault. The mothers with unskilled jobs followed by housewives were found to perpetrate more physical violence, child neglect and child labor. In addition, the monthly family income was highly associated with physical violence, child neglect, and child labor. The children from poor families (with less than 15000 PKR monthly income) suffered more physical violence, child neglect and child labor as compared to children from relatively better income families (family income above 15000 PKR). A previously conducted study reported that the child abuse and neglect is very closely associated with parental unemployment and familial poverty (Berger, 2005; Pinheiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002)

In the present study, the drug-addicted fathers were found to perpetrate all forms of violence against children expect sexual assault (Table 15). Similarly, the addicted mothers perpetrated more physical violence, child neglect and child labor. The previously conducted literature on the same issue reported that the perpetrator's habit of alcoholic and drug addiction is one of the significant risk factors for domestic violence against women and children (Tolan et al 2006). During FGD, the children whose parents were addicted reported that the level of parental neglect and violence increased when parents were under the influence of intoxicants. A child from Punjab shared that:

Mostly my father just cuffs us over the head, but when he is drunk in the evening his hand becomes heavy and he hits us very hard. My mother too is scared of getting beaten up and thus she does not intervene to stop him.

A child from Sindh who had a drug addicted father described his nightly routine in his house:

My father takes charas (heroin) in the evening after work. After a while, he gets violent and starts beating my mother. If I try to stop him, I also get beaten.

Large family size has been reported as a risk factor for violence against children around the globe (Berger, 2005; Wang & Liu, 2014). This study found the similar result as it had noted that the children having more than 7 siblings experienced more psychological abuse, physical violence, child neglect and child labor as compared to children having less number of siblings (Table 15).

Parental history of childhood violence was significantly associated with perpetrating violence against children (Table 15). The children of parents with history of parental violence experienced more psychological, physical, sexual and child neglect violence than children with no parental history of violence between parents. Previously conducted studies reported that the perpetrator's

history of prior aggression, history of violence victimization is a significant risk factor for domestic violence against women and children (Tolan et al 2006). It is considered that childhood experiences of being victims of violence had an influence on becoming perpetrators of violence later in the life (Finkelhor, et al., 2009; Singer & Flannery, 2000). During FGDs, the children shared the similar experience. They reported that the parents who had experienced violence in their childhood were found to inflict relatively more violence against their own children. Most of the participants shared that their parents had experienced violence as children. One child shared her father's history of violence at the hands of her grandfather:

“Whenever my father hits us, he reminds us of how he was similarly disciplined by his father. He [referring to his father] usually says that violence is reason that he turned out good. His father hit him whenever he strayed and he learned important lessons in this way”.

Table 15: Association of Individual and Familial Characteristics of Respondents with all forms of Domestic Violence										
Determinants	Psychological violence		Child neglect		Physical violence		Sexual violence		Child labor	
	Never experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)	Never experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)	Never experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)	Never experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)	Never experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)
Age of Respondents										
5-8 years	17 (8.1)	193 (91.9)	37 (17.6)	173 (82.4)	41 (19.5)	169 (80.5)	206 (98.1)	4 (1.9)	76 (36.2)	134 (63.8)
9-10 years	42 (14.8)	242 (85.2)	68 (23.9)	216 (76.1)	64 (22.5)	220 (77.5)	278 (97.9)	6 (2.1)	155 (54.6)	129 (45.4)
11-12 years	93 (20.5)	361 (79.5)	151 (33.3)	302 (66.7)	140 (30.8)	314 (69.2)	435 (95.8)	19 (4.2)	315 (69.4)	139 (30.6)
(p value ⁻)	.000***		.000***		.003**		.154		.000***	
In/out School Children										
In School Children	121 (25.5)	354 (74.5)	169 (35.7)	305 (64.3)	181 (38.1)	294 (61.9)	466 (98.1)	9 (1.9)	386 (81.3)	89 (18.7)
Out School Children	31 (6.6)	442 (93.4)	87 (18.4)	386 (81.6)	64 (13.5)	409 (86.5)	453 (95.8)	20 (4.2)	160 (33.8)	313 (66.2)
(p value ⁻)	.000***		.000***		.000***		.037*		.000***	
Type of Family										
Joint	80 (13.7)	502 (86.3)	136 (23.4)	445 (76.6)	134 (23.0)	448 (77.0)	558 (95.9)	24 (4.1)	302 (51.9)	280 (48.1)
Nuclear	71 (19.5)	294 (80.5)	120 (32.9)	245 (67.1)	110 (30.1)	255 (69.9)	360 (98.6)	5 (1.4)	243 (66.6)	122 (33.4)
(p value ⁻)	.020*		.001***		.015*		.017*		.000***	
Education of father										
No formal schooling	45 (9.8)	415 (90.2)	89 (19.3)	371 (80.7)	66 (14.3)	394 (85.7)	444 (96.5)	16 (3.5)	171 (37.2)	289 (62.8)
Matric	62 (20.3)	243 (79.7)	101 (33.2)	203 (66.8)	97 (31.8)	208(68.2)	297 (97.4)	8 (2.6)	225 (73.8)	80 (26.2)
Intermediate	32 (26.7)	88 (73.3)	43 (35.8)	77 (64.2)	53 (44.2)	67 (55.8)	117 (97.5)	3 (2.5)	100 (83.3)	20 (16.7)

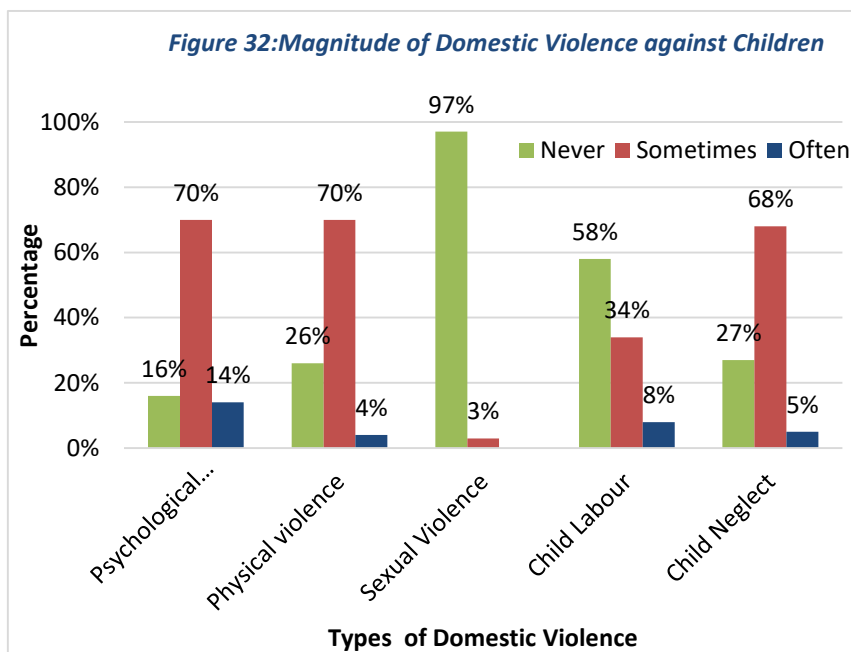
Graduate or Above	13 (20.6)	50 (79.4)	23 (36.5)	40 (63.5)	29 (46.0)	34 (54.0)	61 (96.8)	2 (3.2)	50 (79.4)	13 (20.6)
(p value [~])	.000***		.000***		.000***		.897		.000***	
Education of mother										
No formal schooling	70 (11.8)	522 (88.2)	118 (19.9)	474 (80.1)	97 (16.4)	495 (83.6)	571 (96.5)	21 (3.5)	258 (43.6)	334 (56.4)
Matric	55 (22.4)	190 (77.6)	91 (37.3)	153 (62.7)	96 (39.2)	149 (60.8)	242 (98.8)	3 (1.2)	197 (80.4)	48 (19.6)
Intermediate	22 (23.9)	70 (76.1)	39 (42.4)	53 (57.6)	40 (43.5)	52 (56.5)	88 (95.7)	4 (4.3)	76 (82.6)	16 (17.4)
Graduate or Above	5 (26.3)	14 (73.7)	8 (42.1)	11 (57.6)	12 (63.2)	7 (36.8)	18 (94.7)	1 (5.3)	15 (78.9)	4 (21.1)
(p value [~])	.000***		.000***		.000***		.253		.000***	
Employment status of father										
Unemployed	30 (12.0)	221 (88.0)	56 (22.3)	195 (77.7)	53 (21.1)	198 (78.9)	242 (96.4)	9 (3.6)	132 (52.6)	119 (47.4)
Unskilled job	58 (14.9)	331 (85.1)	111 (28.6)	277 (71.4)	75 (19.3)	314 (80.7)	376 (96.7)	13 (3.3)	198 (50.9)	191 (49.1)
Skilled job	59 (22.1)	208 (77.9)	73 (27.3)	194 (72.7)	98 (36.7)	169 (63.3)	262 (98.1)	5 (1.9)	184 (68.9)	83 (31.1)
Managerial	5 (12.2)	36 (87.8)	16 (39.0)	25 (61.0)	19 (46.3)	22 (53.7)	39 (95.1)	2 (4.9)	32 (78.0)	9 (22.0)
(p value [~])	.011*		.097		.000***		.559		.000***	
Employment status of mother										
Housewife	128 (17.8)	592 (82.2)	207 (28.8)	512 (71.2)	197 (27.4)	523 (72.6)	695 (96.5)	25 (3.5)	454 (63.1)	266 (36.9)
Unskilled job	10 (6.3)	150 (93.8)	24 (15.0)	136 (85.0)	20 (12.5)	140 (87.5)	156 (97.5)	4 (2.5)	43 (26.9)	117 (73.1)
Skilled job	14 (22.6)	48 (77.4)	23 (37.1)	39 (62.9)	27 (43.5)	35 (56.5)	62 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	45 (72.6)	17 (27.4)
Managerial	0 (0.0)	6 (100.0)	2 (33.3)	4 (66.7)	1 (16.7)	5 (83.3)	6 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (66.7)	2 (33.3)
(p value [~])	.001***		.001***		.000***		.435		.000***	
Family income										
>15000	79 (14.1)	482 (85.9)	126 (22.5)	434 (77.5)	144 (20.3)	447 (79.7)	540 (96.3)	21 (3.7)	283 (50.4)	278 (49.6)
15000-25000	37 (17.6)	173 (82.4)	72 (34.3)	138 (65.7)	57 (27.1)	153 (72.9)	205 (97.6)	5 (2.4)	126 (60.0)	84 (40.0)
25000-35000	25 (20.7)	96 (79.3)	36 (29.8)	85 (70.2)	49 (40.5)	72 (59.5)	120 (99.2)	1 (.8)	92 (76.0)	29 (24.0)
<35000	11 (19.6)	45 (80.4)	22 (39.3)	34 (60.7)	25 (44.6)	31 (55.4)	54 (96.4)	2 (3.6)	45 (80.4)	11 (19.6)
(p value [~])	.217		.001***		.000***		.348		.000***	
Drug Addiction Father										
Yes	42 (11.3)	331 (88.7)	69 (18.5)	303 (81.5)	72 (19.3)	301 (80.7)	357 (95.7)	16 (4.3)	169 (45.3)	204 (54.7)
No	110 (19.1)	465 (80.9)	187 (32.5)	388 (67.5)	173 (30.1)	402 (96.9)	562 (97.7)	13 (2.3)	377 (65.5)	198 (34.4)
(p value [~])	.001**		.000***		.000***		.076		.000***	
Drug Addiction Mother										
Yes	3 (8.6)	32 (91.4)	2 (5.7)	33 (94.3)	3 (8.6)	32 (91.4)	34 (97.1)	1 (2.9)	13 (37.1)	22 (62.9)
No	149 (16.4)	762 (83.6)	254 (27.9)	656 (72.1)	242 (26.6)	669 (73.4)	883 (96.9)	28 (3.1)	51 (58.3)	380 (41.7)

(p value ⁻⁻)	.218		.004**		.017*		.942		.013*	
Drug addict siblings										
Yes	3 (5.4)	53 (64.6)	3 (5.4)	53 (94.6)	5 (8.9)	51 (91.1)	54 (96.4)	2 (3.6)	11 (19.6)	45 (80.4)
No	149 (16.7)	741 (83.3)	253 (28.5)	636 (71.5)	240 (27.0)	650 (73.0)	863 (97.0)	27 (3.0)	533 (59.9)	357 (40.1)
(p value ⁻⁻)	.024*		.000***		.003**		.821		.000***	
Your birth orders among siblings										
1	47 (23.6)	152 (76.4)	63 (31.7)	136 (68.3)	56 (28.1)	143 (71.9)	193 (97.0)	6 (3.0)	138 (69.3)	61 (30.7)
2-3	75 (17.0)	366 (83.0)	130 (29.5)	311 (70.5)	124 (28.1)	317 (71.9)	426 (96.6)	15 (3.4)	259 (58.7)	182 (41.3)
4-5	19 (9.0)	191 (91.0)	44 (21.1)	165 (78.9)	37 (17.6)	173 (82.4)	204 (97.1)	6 (2.9)	98 (46.7)	112 (53.3)
6-11	11 (11.2)	87 (88.8)	19 (19.4)	79 (80.6)	28 (28.6)	70 (71.4)	96 (98.0)	2 (2.0)	51 (52.0)	47 (48.0)
(p value ⁻⁻)	481		481		481		481		481	
No. of siblings										
1-2	30 (30.0)	70 (70.0)	45 (45.0)	55 (55.0)	37 (37.0)	63 (63.0)	96 (96.0)	4 (4.0)	81 (81.0)	19 (19.0)
3-4	48 (15.6)	259 (84.4)	93 (30.3)	214 (69.7)	94 (30.6)	213 (69.4)	297 (96.7)	10 (3.3)	200 (65.1)	107 (34.9)
5-6	51 (16.9)	250 (83.1)	79 (26.3)	221 (73.7)	61 (20.3)	240 (79.7)	292 (97.0)	9 (3.0)	165 (54.8)	136 (45.2)
7-12	23 (9.6)	217 (90.0)	39 (16.3)	201 (83.8)	53 (22.1)	187 (77.9)	234 (97.5)	6 (2.5)	100 (41.7)	140 (58.3)
(p value ⁻⁻)	.000***		.000***		.001**		.897		.000***	
Interpersonal violence between parents										
Yes	72 (14.5)	425 (85.5)	133 (26.8)	363 (73.2)	107 (21.5)	390 (78.5)	480 (96.6)	17 (3.4)	261 (52.5)	236 (47.5)
No	80 (17.7)	371 (82.3)	123 (27.3)	328 (72.7)	138 (30.6)	313 (69.4)	439 (97.3)	12 (2.7)	285 (63.2)	166 (36.8)
(p value ⁻⁻)	.173		.874		.001***		.498		.001***	
Parental History of Childhood Violence										
Yes	58 (11.7)	437 (88.3)	122 (24.6)	373 (75.4)	106 (21.4)	389 (78.6)	481 (97.2)	14 (2.8)	255 (51.5)	240 (48.5)
No	94 (20.8)	359 (79.2)	134 (29.6)	318 (70.4)	139 (30.7)	314 (70.3)	438 (96.7)	15 (3.3)	291 (64.2)	162 (35.8)
(p value ⁻⁻)	.000***		.084		.001***		.666		.000***	
Note: -- = chi quire PValue										
** p\0.05; ***p\0.001										

Conclusion

Figure 32 depicts that a substantial percentage of children experienced all forms of violence except sexual in domestic sphere. The most prevalent form of violence was psychological violence in domestic sphere, followed by physical violence and child neglect.

Family is a primary socialization agent of children and the early



relationships with family are thought to affect the structural and functional development of brain which consequently influences the cognitive, emotional and social development of a child. The lack of or disruption of safe, stable and nurturing relationships in early childhood can result in a variety of problems from childhood to adulthood. Subsequently, the children will turn as perpetrator of violence in future. Therefore, there is need to introduce national level comprehensive child-centric legislation as well as non-legislative community programs. The child centric legislation would legally protect children from all forms of domestic violence, including psychological, physical, sexual violence, child neglect, and child labor (Naker, 2005). Whereas, the non-legislative community programs will help to mediate child-parent relationship, mediate between education institutions, parents and the employers to facilitate school attendance, and provide social support to children (Gamlin, et al., 2015).

This study is aligned with previously conducted studies which highlighted that the children's safety is linked to the structure and socio-economic characteristics of the families in which they are raised (Berger, 2005; Deb & Modak, 2009; Pinheiro, 2006). The findings of this study suggested to introduce some national level actions to reduce poverty, increase family income, provide counseling to parents, and taking action to reduce the use of drugs (Berger, 2005; WHO, 2009). Moreover, there is need for awareness raising campaign for reducing violence and increasing zero

tolerance against violence. Additionally, improving education facilities for children and promoting universal schooling can greatly help to reduce domestic violence against children (Pineiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002; SAIEVAC, 2014; SSRG, 2013).

Chapter 5: Violence against Children in School

Violence in school has been recognized as one of the most significant social problems around the globe (Elgar et al., 2013; UNICEF, 2006). It poses a significant threat to well-being and health of children (Aluede, 2004; Benbenishty, Zeira, & Astor, 2002). Violence in school perpetrates fear in students and they often perceive their school as an unsafe place (Harber, 2008). The outcome of this fear usually results in absenteeism and poor academic performance. In case of repeated instances of violence it results in drop-out from school (Astor & Meyer, 2001; Astor, Meyer, & Pitner, 2001).

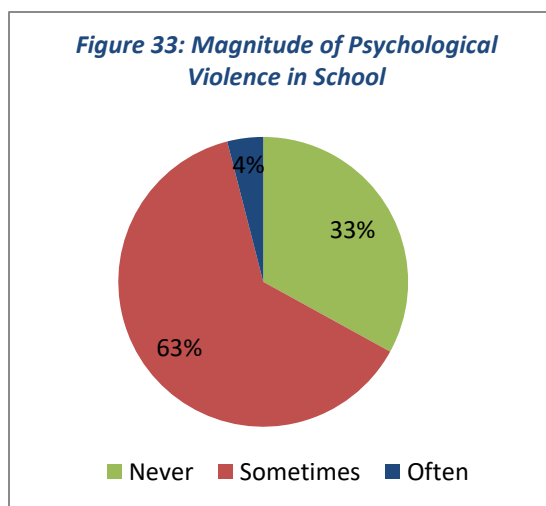
It is also considered that levels and patterns of violence in schools often reflect the levels and patterns of violence in countries, communities and families (Pinheiro, 2006). Additionally, it reflects the prevailing socio-cultural traditions, weakness of educational system, and lack of laws and law enforcement and legal system (Pinheiro, 2006). The most prevalent and common forms of violence in schools are: (i) psychological/emotional violence (Elgar, et al., 2013; Van der Westhuizen, Maree, & Maree, 2009) followed by (ii) bullying (Nansel et al., 2001; Singer & Flannery, 2000), (iii) physical violence (Dupper & Dingus, 2008; Morrell, 2006), (iv) homicide (Elgar, et al., 2013), and (v) sexual violence (George, 2001; Shakeshaft, 2002). It is widely recognized that one form of violence is often linked with another form of violence such as physical and psychological violence (UNICEF, 2006).

Though there are deterrent laws for corporal punishment and other forms of violence, yet the absence of monitoring bodies and the tacit approval of parents put the children at high risk of violence at schools (Zolotor & Puzia, 2010). Some forms of violence such as corporal punishment within the school system appears to be a norm and it is often considered as a ‘disciplinary tool’ (Dupper & Dingus, 2008; Zolotor & Puzia, 2010). Due to these factors, violence in schools particularly physical and psychological violence often goes under-reported (Astor & Meyer, 2001; Benbenishty, et al., 2002). Given this backdrop, this study is an effort to explore the magnitude of three types of violence (psychological, physical, and sexual violence) in school perpetrated by teachers.

Magnitude of Psychological Violence in Schools

Psychological violence is remarked as the most devastating of all the three forms of violence i.e. sexual, psychological and physical, because it has traumatic effects in the development of school children (Aluede, 2004; McEachern, Aluede, & Kenny, 2008). Psychological abuse lowers the child's self-esteem which ultimately results into poor academic performance (Aluede, 2004; Gadit, 2011; Imbrogno, 2000; Nesbit & Philpott, 2002). It is widely reported that it is difficult to detect psychological violence experienced by children at school (Aluede, 2004).

For measuring psychological violence in this study, respondents were asked six questions regarding psychological violent behavior at school by their teachers. Children were categorized as 'having experienced psychological violence' if they had encountered any of these violent behaviors either at least once in a month regularly (refers sometimes) or at least once in a week (refers often) during past three years. Figure 33 presents that a majority of children (67%) of had experienced psychological violence in



school at least once in every month during past three years.. Among them 4% children experienced these violent behaviors “often“ or once in a week during past three years Previously conducted studies in different developing countries reported the magnitude of psychological violence in school ranged between 21-75%. (Aluede, 2004; African Child Policy Forum, 2006; Benbenishty et al, 2002; Deb & Walsh, 2012; USAID, 2008).

The most reported and prevalent form of psychological violence in this study was “shouting, yelling, screaming at students (51%)”, followed by “calling them dumb/lazy/mentally retarded” (38%) (see Table 16). Previously conducted studies reported the similar psychological/verbal abuse perpetrated by teachers such as shouting/yelling at students (70 percent), insulting (54 percent), and frightening or threatening children (47 percent) (African-Child-Policy-Forum, 2006). In addition, a study conducted by Aluede (2004) reported the similar mode of psychological aggression such as the humiliations of students in public, calling dumb or lazy, cursing students and their families.

Table 16: Prevalence of Different Forms of Psychological Violence in School (N=475)			
Variables	In-School Children		Total N (475)
	Boys (238)	Girls N (237)	
Shouted, yelled or screamed at child			
Never	135 (56.7)	99 (41.8)	234 (49.3)
Sometimes	80 (33.6)	114 (48.1)	194 (40.8)
Often	23 (9.7)	24 (10.1)	47 (9.9)
Called child dumb, lazy, mentally retarded			
Never	164 (69.20)	130 (54.9)	294 (62.0)
Sometimes	48 (20.3)	89 (37.6)	137 (28.9)
Often	25 (10.5)	18 (7.6)	43 (9.1)
Threatened to send away or kicked out of class			
Never	202 (84.9)	180 (75.9)	382 (80.4)
Sometimes	28 (11.8)	51 (21.5)	79 (16.6)
Often	8 (3.4)	6 (2.5)	14 (2.9)
Threatened to spank or hit child			
Never	181 (76.1)	172 (72.6)	353 (74.3)
Sometimes	42 (17.6)	51 (21.5)	93 (19.6)
Often	15 (6.3)	14 (5.9)	29 (6.1)
Locking child in a room alone as a form of discipline/isolate child			
Never	218 (91.6)	204 (86.1)	422 (88.8)
Sometimes	18 (7.6)	27 (11.4)	45 (9.5)
Often	2 (.8)	6 (2.5)	8 (1.7)
Took away child privileges			
Never	215 (90.3)	212 (89.5)	427 (89.9)
Sometimes	18 (7.6)	13 (5.5)	31 (6.5)
Often	5 (2.1)	12 (5.1)	17 (3.6)

Association of Children's Age, Gender and Region of Residence with their Psychological Violence in Schools

The findings of this study also revealed that the girls faced more psychological violence in their school as compared to boys (76% vs. 51%) (see Figure 34). Previous researches also reported similar results that female students suffered more psychological violence as compared to male students (African-Child-Policy-Forum, 2006; Astor, et al., 2001; Dunne & Salvi, 2014).

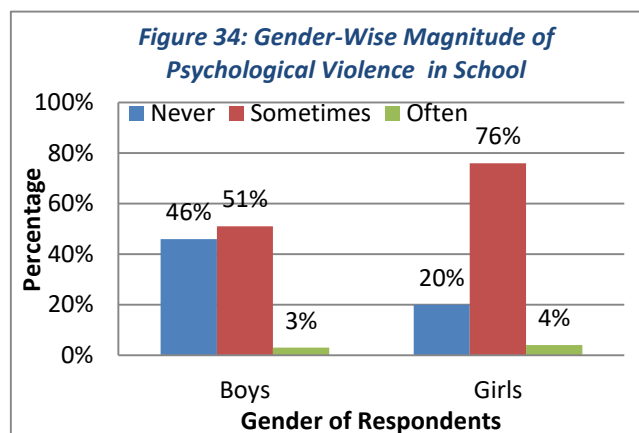
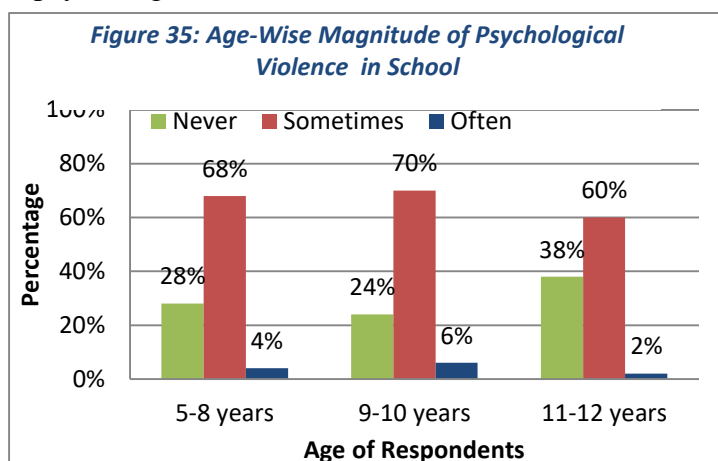
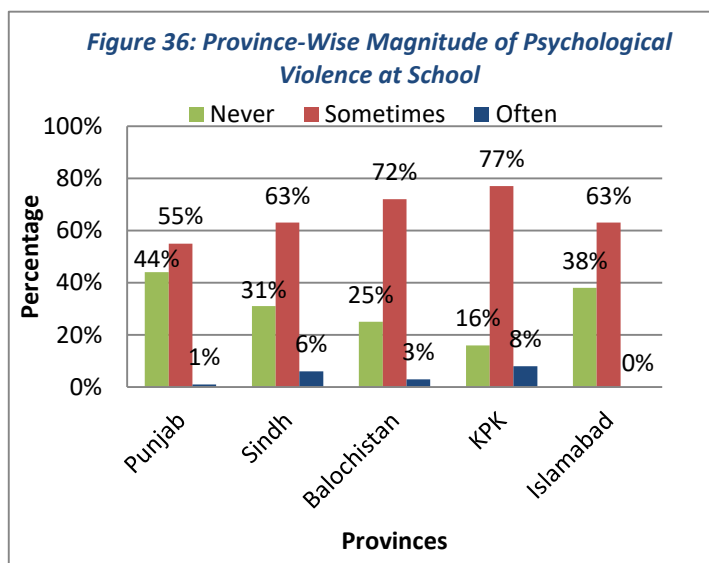


Figure 35 presents the age wise magnitude of psychological violence in schools. It reveals that the children at younger age (5-8 years and 9-10 years) suffered more psychological violence as compared to older children (11-12 years). The respondents at the age of 9-10 years suffered more (70%) psychological violence as compared to other age groups.



With regard to region, the highest percentage (85%, including 77% sometimes category and 8% often category) of psychological aggression had been reported in KPK, followed by Balochistan (75%, including 72% sometimes category and 3% often category) (Figure 36). Moreover a significant number of children from Punjab suffered psychological aggression in school perpetrated by teachers, yet the



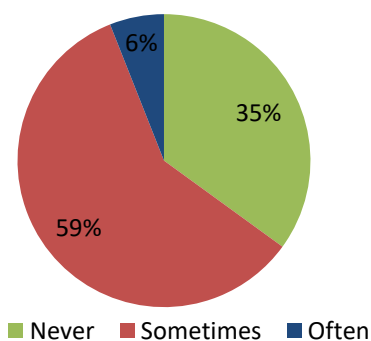
Punjab had less psychological violence in schools as compared to other provinces in Pakistan. This might be influence of different campaigns such as “Maar Nahy Piyaar”.

Magnitude of Physical Violence in Schools

Physical violence particularly corporal punishment has been recognized as a ‘common disciplinary tool’ in schools (Morrell, 2006; Pinhero, 2006; USAID, 2008). Corporal punishment includes any use of physical punishment against a child in response to misbehavior (Morrell, 2006; Porteus, Vally, & Ruth, 2001). Corporal punishment has been considered a reflection of authoritarianism and unequal power relationships in which the powerful use its power to ensure the obedience of the weaker (Porteus, et al., 2001). Severe physical or harsh corporal punishment was found to be significantly associated with poor school performance, absentees, and drop-out (Harber, 2008).

In order to identify different types of physical violence this study categories violence into three categories minor, severe and very severe form of physical violence. A total of 13 questions were asked from respondents to assess physical violence; five questions were asked regarding minor physical violence, four question for severe physical assault, and four questions related to very severe form of physical violence. Figure 37 shows that a highest percentage of respondents (65%) experienced physical violence in schools

Figure 37: Magnitude of Physical Violence



including all three levels of severity of violence including minor, severe and very severe physical assault. Among them, a majority of the respondents (59%) experienced physical violence ‘sometimes’ in their schools, whereas, only 6% of respondents reported that they experienced physical violence ‘often’ or frequently in their schools. A study conducted in Nigeria with 7-12 years children reported that a higher percentage (63%) of the respondents experienced corporal punishment in both private and public spheres, while a half of them experienced physical violence or corporal punishment in schools (Oluwakemi & Kayode, 2007). The study conducted in Tanzania and Camroon (countries of Sub-Saharan Africa) reported a very high prevalence (above 90%) of physical violence during school life (EMIDA, 2000; Hecker, Hermenau, Isele, & Elbert, 2014; UNICEF, 2009).

The data revealed that the most frequent physical violence practiced in schools was “slapping child on his/her hands/arms/legs (40%)” followed by “hitting/spanking with something like a belt/a stick/some other hard objects (38%). These two frequently used forms of physical violence falls under category of ‘minor physical assault’. Within the ‘severe’ and ‘very severe’ physical violence, the most frequent form of violence was “slapping child on his/her face/head/ears (22%)” (Table 17). During FGDs with children in school, one child from Sindh narrated:

We face violence in schools. Teachers beat us with a stick. Especially boys receive a lot of caning and beatings.

A number of research from other countries also reported similar findings. The most prevalent form of physical violence reported in previously conducted studies were also beating or hitting the palm

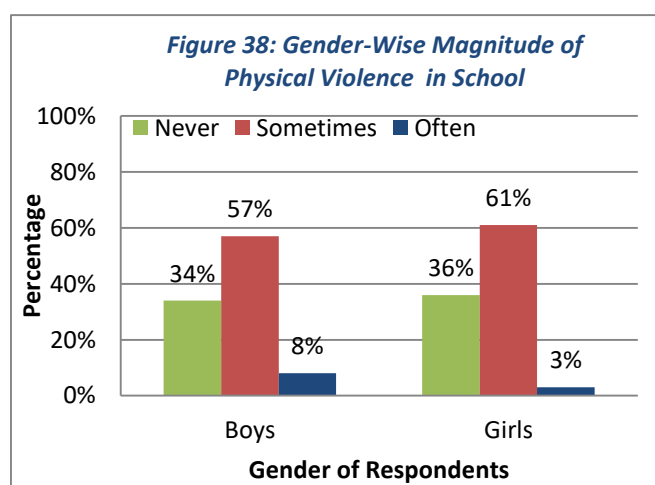
with a ruler or stick (76%), slapping a child at head or ear (76%), punishing the students by having their ear pulled (23%), and hitting with a hand on their hand or fingers (20%) (Kinderrechten commissariaat, 2011; UNICEF, 2009). One of the widely reported reasons of severe punishment by teachers was the acceptance of physical punishment as a disciplinary tool. A study reported that a significant percentage (59%) of teachers believed that slapping a student or pulling their ear would not harm them (Karaj, 2009). In fact, a substantial percentage (51%) of teachers believed that they slapped students “for their goodness and to train them” and among those teachers 29% agreed that “if a teacher orders a child and he didn’t obey, then a teacher has a right to slap him (Karaj, 2009).

Table 17: Physical violence perpetrated by Teacher (N=541)			
Variables	In-School Children		Total N (475)
	Boys (238)	Girls N (237)	
Minor physical violence			
Spanked child on the bottom with hand			
Never	169 (71.0)	189 (79.7)	358 (75.4)
Sometimes	39 (16.4)	31 (13.1)	70 (14.7)
Often	30 (12.6)	17 (7.2)	47 (9.9)
Hit child on the bottom with something like a belt, a stick or some other hard object			
Never	142 (59.7)	150 (63.6)	292 (61.6)
Sometimes	61 (25.6)	67 (28.4)	128 (27.0)
Often	35 (14.7)	19 (8.1)	54 (11.4)
Slapped child on the hand, arm, or leg			
Never	128 (53.8)	151 (64.5)	279 (59.1)
Sometimes	68 (28.6)	66 (28.2)	134 (28.4)
Often	42 (17.6)	17 (7.3)	59 (12.5)
Pulled hair, pinched or twisted the ear			
Never	152 (63.9)	163 (69.1)	315 (66.5)
Sometimes	50 (21.0)	55 (23.3)	105 (22.2)
Often	36 (15.1)	18 (7.6)	54 (11.4)
Shook child			
Never	166 (69.7)	178 (76.1)	344 (72.9)
Sometimes	46 (19.3)	46 (19.7)	92 (19.5)
Often	26 (10.9)	10 (4.3)	36 (7.6)
Severe physical violence			
Slapped child on the face or head or ears			
Never	172 (72.3)	184 (77.6)	356 (74.9)
Sometimes	37 (15.5)	41 (17.3)	78 (16.4)
Often	29 (12.2)	12 (5.1)	41 (8.6)
Hit child on some other part of the body besides the bottom with something like a belt, hairbrush, a stick, or some other hard object			
Never	182 (76.5)	190 (80.5)	372 (78.5)
Sometimes	28 (11.8)	32 (13.6)	60 (12.7)
Often	28 (11.8)	14 (5.9)	42 (8.9)
Threw or knocked child down			
Never	200 (84.0)	218 (92.0)	418 (88.0)

Sometimes	22 (9.2)	12 (5.1)	34 (7.2)
Often	16 (6.7)	7 (3.0)	23 (4.8)
Hit child with a fist or kicked him/her hard			
Never	201 (84.5)	214 (90.3)	415 (87.4)
Sometimes	23 (9.7)	13 (5.5)	36 (7.6)
Often	14 (5.9)	10 (4.2)	24 (5.1)
Very severe physical violence			
Grabbed the child around the neck and choked			
Never	210 (88.2)	231 (97.5)	441 (92.8)
Sometimes	24 (10.1)	5 (2.1)	29 (6.1)
Often	4 (1.7)	1 (.4)	5 (1.1)
Burned or scalded the child on purpose			
Never	219 (92.4)	225 (94.9)	444 (93.7)
Sometimes	16 (6.8)	11 (4.6)	27 (5.7)
Often	2 (.8)	1 (.4)	3 (.6)
Threatened the child with knife or gun			
Never	226 (95.0)	229 (96.6)	455 (95.8)
Sometimes	10 (4.2)	8 (3.4)	18 (3.8)
Often	2 (.8)	0 (0.0)	2 (.4)
Tried to cut the child with a sharp object			
Never	228 (95.8)	227 (95.8)	455 (95.8)
Sometimes	8 (3.4)	9 (3.8)	17 (3.6)
Often	2 (.8)	1 (.4)	3 (.6)

Association of Children's Age, Gender and Region of Residence with their physical Violence Experiences

Figure 38 shows that there was no difference in magnitude of physical violence experiences with respect to gender. Almost a same percentage of girls and boys experienced physical violence in schools, yet the level of severity was different. As, more girls experienced physical violence 'sometimes' in schools as compared to boys (61% vs 57%). However, more boys experienced physical



violence in school 'often' than girls (8% vs. 3%). Previously conducted study in African country reported that almost the equal proportion of girls (88%) and boys (87%) suffered physical punishment in schools (Birch, 2006). Contrarily, some studies found that boys experienced more corporal punishment in schools as compared to girls (Durrant, 2005; Hecker, et al., 2014). Overall, this study is in line with previously conducted studies in other developing countries which reported that gender of the students does less matter in physical punishment in hands of their teachers.

Figure 39 demonstrates the age wise magnitude of physical violence in schools. It reveals that among the students between 5 to 12 years of age, the older students (9-12 years) experienced physical punishment comparatively more (65%, combining sometimes and often categories) as compared to younger children between 5 to 8 years (56%, combining sometimes and often categories). This study found that about a half of student children in 5-8 years age group never experienced physical punishment (44% vs 32% and 35%) in school as compared to students in age group 9-10 and 11-12 years respectively. It shows that children in 11-12 years age group experienced physical violence more often (7% vs 2%) in school than younger children (see Figure 39).

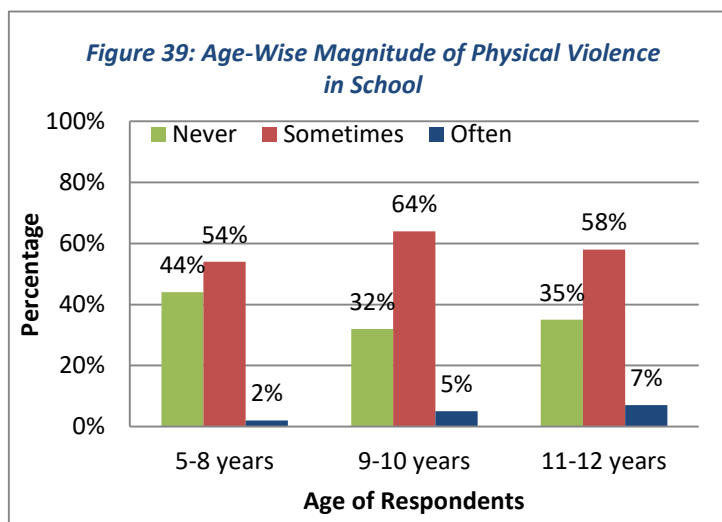
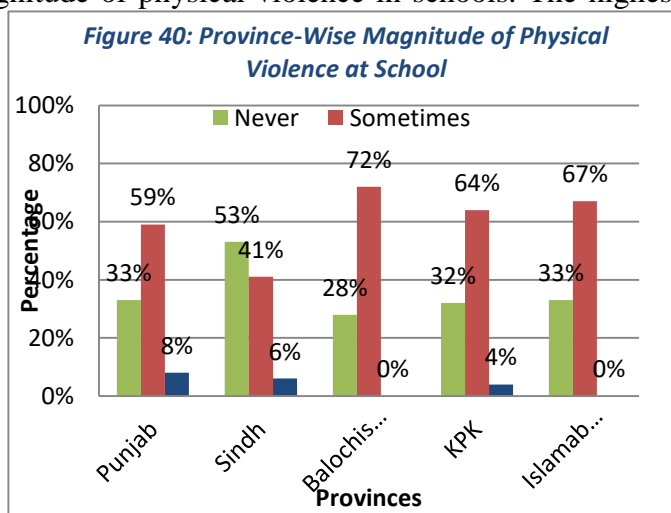


Figure 40 elucidates the province wise magnitude of physical violence in schools. The highest percentage (72%) of physical violence had been reported in Balochistan, followed by Islamabad (67%) and KPK (64%). Though a substantial percentage of respondents in province Punjab (59%) and Sindh (47%) experienced physical violence in schools, yet comparatively these two provinces has less physical punishment in school.

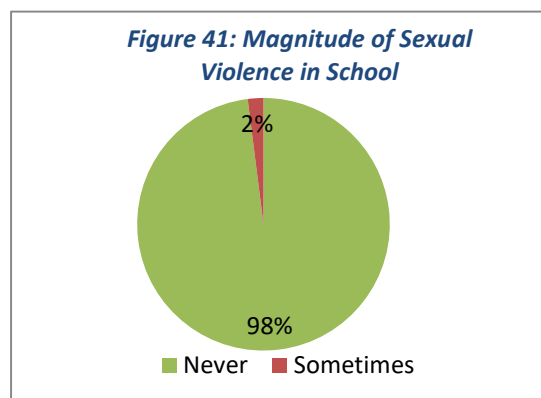


The lower percentage in Punjab and Sindh might be the outcome of the campaign ‘Maar Nahy Piyaar (‘No beating, but affection for children’ or ‘learning through love not fear’) and better monitoring plan of this campaign/program (UNICEF, 2013). As the physical violence is one of the reasons for school dropout, poor academic performance, lack of interest in schoolwork, thus, there is a need for awareness raising campaigns like ‘Maar Nahy Piyaar’ with better monitoring strategies (UNICEF, 2013).

Sexual Violence by Teacher

Globally, sexual violence is common in educational settings, particularly in co-educational institutions (Dunne & Salvi, 2014; Newell, 2008). Girls are more at risk of sexual violence than boys usually by their male teachers and classmates (Newell, 2008; USAID, 2008). Because of stigmatization, it is usually ignored and often goes under-reported (Newell, 2008).

In the present study, 2% of the children reported being a victim of sexual violence in schools. Figure-41. This low prevalence might be because in Pakistan, the educational institutions at school level are usually gender segregated and generally have



teachers of the same gender. Previous research provides evidence that * sexual violence is usually perpetrated by opposite gender (Newell, 2008; USAID, 2008). In this study, the most reported (2%) act of sexual violence in school was “showing pornographic clips on mobile”. Boys were found to be more vulnerable (2% vs 1%) as compared to girls. Only one girl reported that she was forced to have sex by a male teacher who came once a week to teach just one lecture. In this study, the girls were found to be more vulnerable to unwanted kiss/touched in a sexual way. During FGDs with children, a girl from KPK shared:

At home time, Boys torture and tease us inappropriately most of the time. We deliberately do not tell our parents; otherwise they will make us to leave school.

Studies in other developing countries provide different figures on sexual violence prevalence in school settings, for example a study in Nepal found that 9% children have experienced similar sexual acts such as “kissing of sensitive parts, oral sex, or penetration” and 18% of the perpetrators of this sexual abuse were teachers (United-Nations, 2005).

Variables	In-School Children		Total N (475)
	Boys (238)	Girls N (237)	
Showed pornography			
Never	233 (98.3)	234 (98.7)	467 (98.5)
Sometimes	4 (1.7)	3 (1.3)	7 (1.5)
Unwanted kiss/touched child in a sexual way			
Never	238 (100.0)	235 (99.2)	473 (99.6)
Sometimes	0 (0.0)	2 (.8)	2 (.4)
Unwanted touch child's private parts			
Never	237 (99.6)	236 (99.6)	473 (99.6)
Sometimes	1 (.4)	1 (.4)	2 (.4)
Tried or Forced child to have sex			
Never	238 (100.0)	236 ()	474 ()
Sometimes	0 (0.0)	1 (.4)	1 (.2)

Association of Children's Age, Gender and Region of Residence with their sexual Violence Experiences

Table 19 reveals the magnitude and distribution of sexual violence in school by age and province. It shows that younger children (5-8 and 9-10 years) were more vulnerable to sexual violence as compared to older children (11-12 years). Moreover, the findings revealed that the children in Sindh and KPK suffered more sexual violence in schools compared to rest of provinces.

Variables	Never (%)**	Sometimes (%)**
Age		
5-8	94.0	(.0
9-10	94.7	5.3
11-12	100.0	0.0
Province		
Punjab	100.0	0.0
Sindh	93.8	6.3
Baluchistan	100.0	8.3
KPK	96.9	3.1
Islamabad	91.7	8.3
*None of the participants selected 'often' category for reporting sexual violence in schools		
** Only percentages are given as the frequency was very small against these variables/categories.		

Like other developing countries, in Pakistan, the cases of sexual violence often goes under-reported and respondents often hide this information in order to avoid stigma and social-exclusion

in society (Basile, Chen, Black, & Saltzman, 2007; Jewkes, Sen, & Garcia-Moreno, 2002). Thus, these factors might contribute to the low percentage of sexual violence in schools.

Association of Children's Familial Characteristics with their Violence Experiences in School

It is well established that violence against children is the result of interaction among the outside context or external factors and school's internal factors (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005; Hudson, Windham, & Hooper, 2005; Stone, 2006). The external factors included student characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, family socio-economic status, and neighborhood characteristics (e.g. poverty and crime) (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005; Stone, 2006). The internal factors are related to school characteristics such as size of school, adult supervision, student-teacher relationship, policies and awareness about violence in schools, and dangerous locations of school (e.g., adult supervision, student-teacher relationship) (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005). This study explored the association of violence against children in school with only external factors as these have been reported as the most significant factors of victimization of students (BLAST & IID, 2012; Stone, 2006).

This study initially explored the relationship of six familial characteristics (age and gender of child, type of family, education of father, education of mother, employment status of father, employment status of mother, and family income) with history of violence experiences of children in schools. The analysis revealed that some characteristics either had no relationship with violence in school or is related with only one type of violence i.e. physical, sexual and psychological violence. This study found that type of family (joint or nuclear family) had significant association with physical violence Children living in joint families were at higher risk of physical violence than children living in nuclear families (70% vs 58%).

The study also found that education of father had been found significantly related with psychological and physical violence. Children having fathers without formal schooling experienced more psychological violence (78% vs 65% & 58%) as compared to educated fathers (matric, intermediate and graduate respectively). Similarly, children whose fathers had no formal schooling experienced more physical violence (72% vs. 62% and 49% respectively) as compared to high educated fathers (intermediate and graduate level education respectively).

The study revealed that employment status of father had significantly associated with experiencing psychological and physical violence by children in schools. The children of unemployed fathers experienced more psychological violence in schools as compared to children of employed fathers. Likewise, the children of unemployed fathers faced more physical violence (78% vs. 57%, 69% and 46%) in schools as compared to employed fathers (80% vs. 61%, 66% and 71%).

Like other developing countries, in Pakistan the educational system consists of both private and public schools. In public schools the education is free and these schools usually cater the educational needs of families from poor socio-economic status (Alderman, Orazem, & Paterno, 2001). Previous research has documented that children of poor families suffer more physical and psychological violence in schools (BLAST & IID, 2012; Hecker, Hermenau, Isele, & Elbert, 2014). The findings of this study unfolded the same pattern as the income of the family was found to be significantly associated with experiencing psychological and physical violence in school by children. The children of the families having less than 15000PKR per month earning experienced more psychological (82% vs. 55%, 48% and 68%) as well as physical violence (74% vs. 63%, 56% and 50%) in schools as compared to the children of families with earnings of more than 15000PKR, 15000-25000 PKR, 25000-35000 PKR, and above 35000 PKR per month respectively. Whereas, family income was not related with perpetrating sexual violence against school children (Table 20).

Determinants	Psychological violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence	
	Never Experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)	Never Experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)	Never Experienced N (%)	Experienced N (%)
Education of father						
No formal schooling	19 (21.6)	69 (78.4)	25 (28.4)	63 (71.6)	84 (95.5)	4 (4.5)
Matric	77 (34.2)	148 (65.8)	73 (32.4)	152 (67.6)	221 (98.2)	4 (1.8)
Intermediate	44 (41.9)	61 (58.1)	40 (38.1)	65 (61.9)	104 (99.0)	1 (1.0)
Graduate or Above	17 (29.8)	40 (70.2)	29 (50.9)	28 (49.1)	56 (98.2)	1 (1.8)
Chi-square (p-value)	.025*		.028*		.338	
Employment status of father						
Unemployed	16 (20.3)	63 (79.7)	17 (21.5)	62 (78.5)	78 (98.7)	1 (1.3)
Unskilled job	64 (39.3)	99 (60.7)	70 (42.9)	93 (57.1)	158 (96.9)	5 (3.1)
Skilled job	67 (33.8)	131 (66.2)	61 (30.8)	137 (69.2)	195 (98.5)	3 (1.5)

Managerial	10 (28.6)	25 (71.4)	19 (54.3)	16 (45.7)	34 (97.1)	1 (2.9)
Chi-square (p-value)	.028*		.000***		.698	
Family income Per Month						
>15000	37 (17.7)	172 (82.3)	55 (26.3)	154 (73.7)	202 (96.7)	7 (3.3)
15000-25000	53 (44.9)	65 (55.1)	44 (37.3)	74 (62.7)	116 (98.3)	2 (1.7)
25000-35000	52 (52.0)	48 (48.0)	44 (44.0)	56 (56.0)	100 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
<35000	15 (31.3)	33 (68.8)	24 (50.0)	24 (50.0)	47 (97.9)	1 (2.1)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.001**		.282	

The data from FGDs also revealed that socio-economic status including family income and employment status of father is one of the factors for biased attitude of teachers and school administration towards a child. It has been noted that students from relatively higher socio-economic strata were favored by teachers and administrators due to their influential parents who could provide some help or assistance to the teachers. The analysis of FGDs revealed that students from poor and marginalized families felt victimized and discriminated by teachers. A child from Sindh described:

In school, teachers prefer to speak with neat and tidy girls who are from relatively well-off families. These girls usually favor the teacher with gifts so teachers never beat them.

Another participant from Punjab added:

The teachers do not give me good grades because my parents are poor. I cannot give gifts to teachers. They blamed me for poor grades, slapped me, and beat me with stick.

The association of family characteristics with violence in schools emphasized on the need to introduce some comprehensive approach by mobilizing community resources through promoting parental and family involvement in improving the social climate of the schools, implementing peer-mentorship programs, better school management programs, and encouraging positive peer interactions (Finkelhor, 2009; Hecker, et al., 2014; Nesbit & Philpott, 2002; Satcher, 2001).

The literature has documented that children with physical and mental disabilities particularly having learning disabilities experience more physical and psychological violence in school. During FGDs with school children, a child narrated:

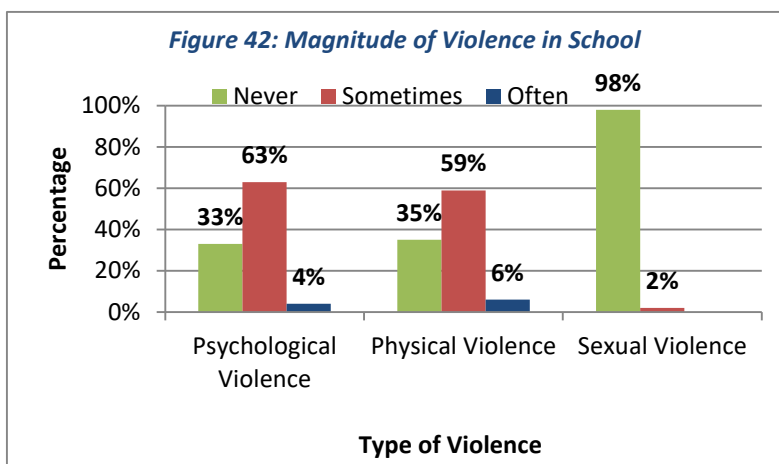
“When we are beaten and insulted in front of our peers for getting low grades, we lose our self-respect and are unable to further improve our grades.”

Another child from Punjab, who got poor grades in school, described:

I am humiliated for not getting good grades in school. Nobody understands my problem. The teacher abuses and beats me. Other children, who get good grades, also bully me for not performing well.

Conclusion

Overall, the present study found high prevalence of psychological violence against children in school. This situation highlights the necessity of a national level action to diminish psychological violence in schools. As psychological violence and educational achievement are correlated, therefore, in order to



enhance academic performance and quality of education at schools, there is dire need to introduce some comprehensive strategies in schools (Aluede, 2004; Gadit, 2011; Imbrogno, 2000; Nesbit & Philpott, 2002). In order to reduce psychological violence in schools, Nesbit and Philpott (2002) suggested the implementation of ‘peer-mentorship model’. This model will help teachers to acquire reflective strategies and facilitate them to assess the impact of their words and actions that ordinarily would have amounted to psychological mistreatment. The teachers should be trained on the effective use of this peer-mentorship model (Nesbit & Philpott, 2002).

Though in this study only 2% of the children reported experiences of sexual violence, yet the actual percentage might be high as it was noted that children did not like to share sexual exploitation due to fear, hesitation, stigma, and re-victimization. During FGDs some children particularly girls reported about sexual harassment. The most serious implication of sexual harassment is the reduction in girls’ attendance at school and increasing drop-out rates (UNGEI, 2010). Hence, in order to raise literacy rate, there is dire need to promote positive image of school so parents may

feel school as a safe place for children (UNICEF, 2006; USAID, 2008). Finkelhor suggested “school-based educational programs” in order to reduce sexual abuse in schools and in communities (Finkelhor, 2009). These programs imparted training to children on how to identify dangerous situations, break off an interaction with abuser, refuse an abuser’s approach, and summon help from someone in school or family or community (Finkelhor, 2009). In addition, such programs also aim to promote disclosure of sexual abuse, reduce self-blame, and mobilize bystanders (Finkelhor, 2009).

Chapter 6: Violence against Children at Workplace

Child labor continues to be one of the significant social and public health issues all around the world, especially in developing countries including Pakistan (ILO, 2013). Globally, there are 168 million children between the age of 5 to 17 years involved in child labor (ILO, 2013). Among them, 16.7 million (5-17 year old) children in child labor were from South Asia (ILO, 2013). The report of ILC (2013) affirmed that there are 3.4 million children involved in child labor but this figure did not include children under 10 years of age (ILO, 2013; SAIEVAC, 2014). The term child labor is often defined as “work that deprives children of their childhood, potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development” (ILO, 2004). Hence, not all labor done by children are classified as child labor, particularly if the children involve in a work which does not interfere with their schooling, personal development, and health (ILO, 2004).

Therefore, child labor is relatively accepted due to some of its positive dimensions such as to earn money for the welfare of the family by holding a job in younger age and earning pocket money outside school hours and during school holidays (M. F. Bourdillon, 2010; Kielland, 2009; Thorsen, 2007). Of late, there is much theoretical and empirical debate over classifying the certain types of employment as worst forms of child labor. It is argued that such type of child labor could be banned or could be allowed only under some legal conditions by following flexible/relativist approach (M. Bourdillon, White, & Myers, 2009; Gamlin, Camacho, Ong, & Hesketh, 2015; Gamlin & Pastor, 2009).

A number of problematic and negative implications of child labor had been reported, particularly corporal, sexual and psychological abuse against children (Pinheiro, 2006). The children working in homes, Dhabas (indigenous small hotels), food stalls, rail/bus stations, rail-floor cleaning, and rag picking were found more vulnerable to violence (Dalal, 2008). In addition, domestic labor has been reported the ‘worst form of child labor’ due to difficulty in imposing any kind of universal standards at someone’ home. Additionally, it is challenging to reach and identify the concern of domestic child workers (Black, 2005). Despite this, a substantial proportion of children (52 million) had been reported as domestic workers globally; among them 44 million of these children were girls (ILO 2012).

It is reported that a majority of out of school children worked as child laborer (SAIEVAC, 2014). Out-of-school children constitute a formidable challenge all over the world including South Asia region and are associated with increase in child labor. The South Asia has around 24 million children in 7-14 years age who are out of school and among them 7.3 million children are out-of-school in Pakistan (SAIEVAC, 2014). However, it is also reported that every country has some 'inactive' children who are neither in school nor have any employment (SAIEVAC, 2014).

It is reported that children at workplace are frequently exposed to violence (Thorsen, 2012; Zakar et al, 2014). Violence at workplace is to some extent socially acceptable and the employers often feel it their moral duty to discipline child workers to teach them to work hard (Thorsen, 2012). It is considered that the employers sometimes punish child workers physically or verbally for not doing work quickly, or breaking dishes/important equipment, or for failing to account for the revenues from vending and for being rude (Castle & Diarra, 2003; Kippenberg, 2007). To prevent the children from violence, this is important to identify the magnitude of violence at first. Therefore, this study collected data from out-of-school children in order to identify the prevalence of psychological, physical and sexual violence at workplace.

Magnitude of Psychological Violence at Workplace

The safe psychological environment at workplace can be determined by certain conditions, such as safe and workable working environment at workplace (ILO, 2002). Nevertheless, if the child feels anxious about being scolded, judged, ridiculed, then such environment is not healthy for social or intellectual development of child (ILO, 2002; Öncü, Kurt, Esenay, & Özer, 2013). In addition, the conditions which create psychological strain include threats, isolation, overwork, verbal abuse, and sexual harassment (ILO, 2002). The first step to reduce psychological strain at workplace is to identify its prevalence and magnitude. Hence, in this study, six questions were asked from 5-12 years out-of-school children in order to assess psychological strain at their workplace.

The findings of this study reflected that a majority of the respondents (65%) suffered psychological violence at workplace. Among them, a majority of the respondents confronted psychological violence ‘sometimes’ at workplace, while 15% of them faced psychological violence often at their workplace. A study conducted in Turkey reported that more than half (54%) of working children experienced psychological violence at workplace (Öncü, et al., 2013). In present study, the children were working as domestic servants, garbage collectors, beggars, waiters, street vendor, etc., as shown in Table 5.

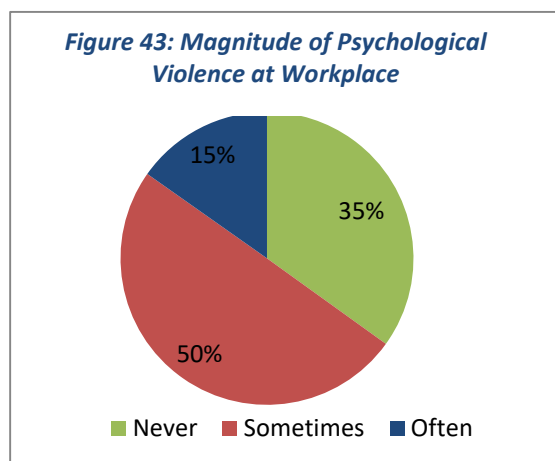


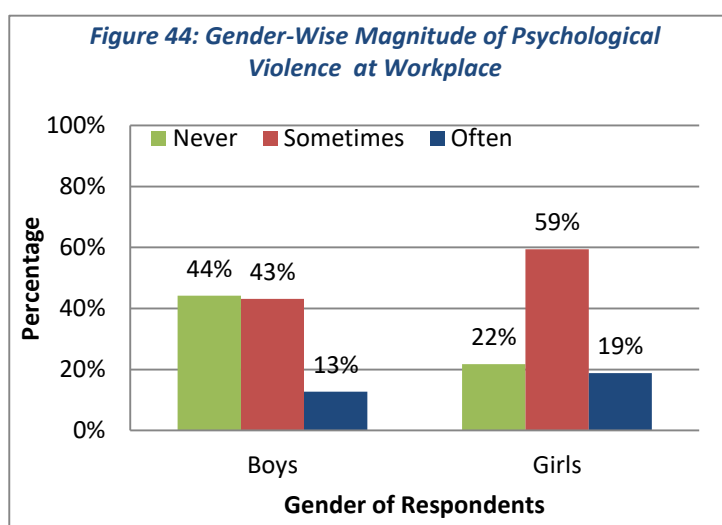
Table 21 shows that the most reported form of psychological violence at workplace was to ‘call the child dumb/lazy/mentally retarded (61%), followed by shouted/yelled/screamed on child worker (51%) and threatened to spank or hit the child (51%). A study conducted in another country affirmed that employers often shouted at child workers and call them dumb or lazy (Thorsen, 2012). In addition, it has widely observed that employer used obscene language, insulting words and threatening remarks to make them obey (Thorsen, 2012). A study conducted in Philippine reported that the employer often shouted at child workers when the child workers failed to follow instructions (Blagbrough, 2008).

Table 21: Prevalence of Different Modes of Psychological Violence at workplace (N=337)			
Variables	In School Children		Total (N=337)
	Boys (198)	Girls (139)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Shouted, yelled or screamed at child			
Never	108 (55.5)	56 (40.3)	164 (48.7)
Sometimes	64 (32.3)	60 (43.2)	124 (36.8)
Often	26 (13.1)	23 (16.5)	49 (14.5)
Called child dumb, lazy, mentally retarded			
Never	94 (47.5)	36 (25.9)	130 (38.6)
Sometimes	71 (35.9)	74 (53.2)	145 (43.0)
Often	33 (16.7)	29 (20.9)	62 (18.4)
Threatened to send away or kicked out of workplace			
Never	125 (63.5)	54 (38.8)	179 (53.3)
Sometimes	46 (23.4)	58 (41.7)	104 (31.0)
Often	22 (13.2)	27 (19.4)	53 (15.8)
Threatened to spank or hit the child			
Never	115 (58.1)	50 (36.0)	165 (49.0)
Sometimes	60 (30.3)	68 (48.9)	128 (38.0)

Often	23 (11.6)	21 (15.1)	44 (13.1)
Locking child in a room alone whole day as a form of discipline/isolate child			
Never	172 (86.9)	115 (82.7)	287 (85.2)
Sometimes	17 (8.6)	17 (12.2)	34 (10.1)
Often	9 (4.5)	7 (5.0)	16 (4.7)
Took away child privileges			
Never	125 (63.1)	50 (36.0)	175 (51.9)
Sometimes	54 (27.3)	70 (49.1)	124 (36.6)
Often	18 (9.1)	18 (12.9)	36 (10.7)

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Psychological Violence at Workplace

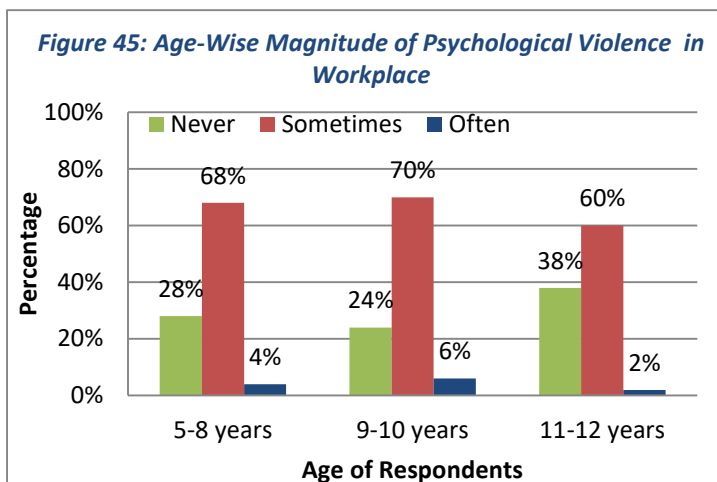
Gender-wise segregated analysis revealed that girls experienced more psychological violence at workplace than boys (Figure 44). One of the reasons of this higher psychological violence experienced by girls was their ‘workplace setting’. A majority of the girls in this study were domestic workers. Previously conducted studies stated that domestic workers are more vulnerable to violence because it is difficult to assess magnitude of violence experienced by domestic workers as the violence occurs in private setting or someone’s home (Black, 2005).



Findings of the study revealed that boys and girls faced multiple forms of harassment. They not only experienced violence from their employers but also from coworkers. During a FGD in Punjab, the girls working as domestic maids described how, in the presence of male coworkers, they felt nervous and afraid all the time at their workplace:

The male servants where I work gaze at me. Sometimes they do humiliating things to me or speak inappropriately. I am afraid of being alone with them.

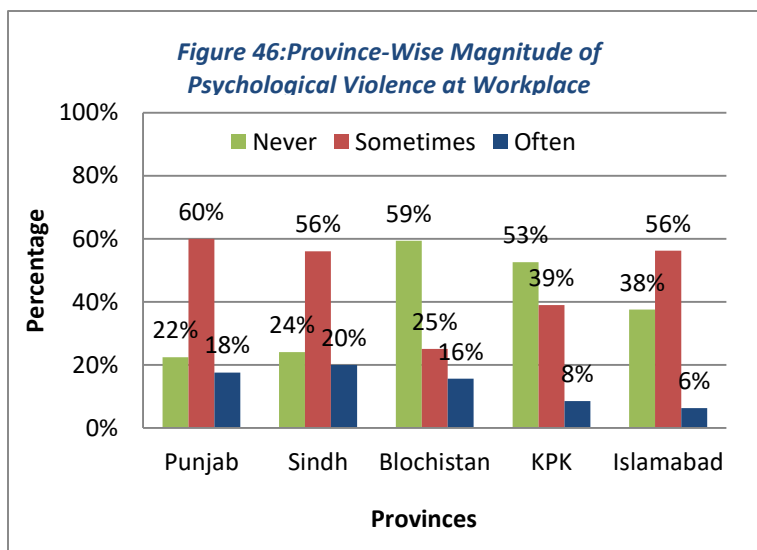
Figure 45 shows the age-wise magnitude of physical violence at workplace. The figure shows that the children of age group 9-10 years experienced more psychological violence (76% vs. 72% and 62%) as compared to younger (5-8 years) as well as elder children (11-12 years) respectively. During FGD, boys and



girls reported that their tolerance and acceptance of psychological violence has been increased with increase in their age. They discussed that with increase in age they started ignoring the verbal abuse perpetrated by employer. The boys said,

“I have been working here (in workshop) since five years. I joined this workshop when I was 7 years old. Since then, my Ustaad [referring to employer] used to verbally abuse me. When I was young, I felt it so badly. But now I ignore it, because I realize that abusing is habit of my Ustaad. It is usual for our Ustadd to scold us. My other friends working on other workshops also experienced the same. So it is routine for us now.”

Figure 46 shows the province-wise magnitude of psychological violence at workplace. It reveals that the respondents working in Punjab (78%) faced more psychological violence, followed by Sindh (76%), and federal capital Islamabad (62%). A substantial percentage of psychological violence against child workers in each province of Pakistan highlights the need of some comprehensive national plan to not

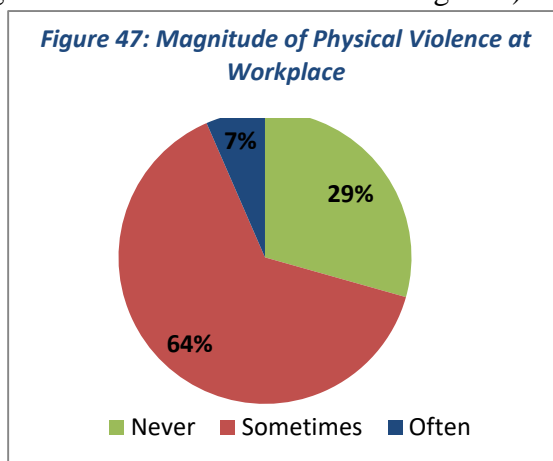


only reduce child labor but also to diminish psychological abuse perpetrated by employer.

Physical Violence at Workplace

Physical violence against child workers by employers is highly discouraged nationally and internationally, but still there are some socio-cultural factors which provide relaxation to employer to physically punish child (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; Gamlin, et al., 2015). The employer usually punished the child in order to impart skills, to make him/her hardworking and obedient to elders (ILO, 2013; Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; Gamlin, et al., 2015).

In the present study, about three-quarter (including both sometimes and often categories) of children reported to experience physical violence at workplace (Figure 47). Of which, a majority of the respondents experienced physical violence ‘sometimes’ at workplace, while 7% of the respondents suffered physical violence ‘often’ at workplace. The findings of this study are aligned with previously conducted studies in developing countries such as the study conducted in developing countries Jordan and India reported almost similar percentage of respondents (61%) who experienced physical violence at workplace (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; Kacker, Varadan, & Kumar, 2007).



The qualitative analysis of this study revealed that poor families make their daughters work in houses as domestic servants and place their sons in factories/workshops for job. A boy while sharing his bad experiences narrated: *“My father beats me with hard wood if I don’t give him money from my daily-wage earnings”*. A previously conducted study also reported that children suffered violence and aggressive behavior due to socio-economic pressures (Dalal, 2008).

In addition, the analysis of FGDs revealed that children face violence because: (i) they are more vulnerable as children because there is absence of guardians and parents at the workplace, (ii) employers are not governed by protective laws of the formal employment sector, and (iii) the unskilled work done by children does not carry any respect. A girl child of 12 years old from Punjab described:

I face pressure from my parents to drop out of school. So I may help in earning money for the house and family. I am forced to do petty jobs like cleaning, or running errands. I face a lot of violence in such jobs. Malikan [referring to lady employer] abuse me for no reason. But, i cannot leave job as I need to pay fee of my younger brother and for medicine of my father.

The most reported mode of physical violence at workplace was to ‘slap the child on the hand/arm/leg (52%) and ‘hit the child on the bottom with something like a belt/a stick/some other hard object’ (52%) (see Table 22). Within three categorization of physical violence, minor form of physical violence had been reported more as compared to sever or very severe form of physical violence. The most frequent mode of physical punishment in previously conducted studies reported as being “hit with the (employer's) hands” on the head or shoulders (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; Kippenberg, 2007). About half of the child worker reported that they got beating from their employers if they make any mistake. Previous study also reported the simialir reasons for child pyhsical violenec at worksplace (Gamlin, et al., 2015). The most common justification of physical punishment by employer was to discipline child and to learn them right way of doing work (Blagbrough, 2008; Gamlin, et al., 2015).

Table 22: Magnitude of Physical violence perpetrated by employer at workplace (N=337)			
Variables	Out-of- school Children		Total N (337)
	Boys (198)	Girls N (139)	
Minor physical violence			
Spanked child on the bottom with hand			
Never	116 (58.6)	62 (44.6)	178 (52.8)
Sometimes	62 (31.3)	66 (47.5)	128 (38.0)
Often	20 (10.1)	11 (7.9)	31 (9.2)
Hit child on the bottom with something like a belt, a stick or some other hard object			
Never	110 (55.6)	51 (36.7)	161 (47.8)
Sometimes	64 (32.3)	67 (48.2)	131 (38.9)
Often	24 (12.1)	21 (15.1)	45 (13.4)
Slapped child on the hand, arm, or leg			
Never	100 (50.5)	62 (44.6)	162 (48.1)
Sometimes	67 (33.8)	57 (41.0)	124 (36.8)
Often	31 (15.7)	20 (14.4)	51 (15.1)
Pulled hair, pinched or twisted the ear			
Never	106 (53.5)	73 (52.5)	179 (53.1)
Sometimes	69 (34.8)	52 (37.4)	121 (35.9)
Often	23 (11.6)	14 (10.1)	37 (11.0)
Shook child			
Never	99 (50.0)	71 (51.1)	170 (50.4)
Sometimes	73 (36.9)	51 (36.7)	124 (36.8)
Often	26 (13.1)	17 (12.2)	43 (12.8)
Severe physical violence			

Slapped child on the face or head or ears			
Never	132 (66.7)	69 (49.6)	201 (59.6)
Sometimes	51 (25.8)	51 (36.7)	102 (30.3)
Often	15 (7.6)	19 (13.7)	34 (10.1)
Hit child on some other part of the body besides the bottom with something like a belt, hairbrush, a stick, or some other hard object			
Never	117 (59.1)	71 (51.1)	188 (55.8)
Sometimes	42 (21.2)	49 (35.3)	91 (27.0)
Often	39 (29.7)	19 (13.7)	58 (17.2)
Threw or knocked child down			
Never	130 (65.7)	83 (59.7)	213 (63.2)
Sometimes	50 (25.3)	50 (36.0)	100 (29.7)
Often	18 (9.1)	6 (4.3)	24 (7.1)
Hit child with a fist or kicked him/her hard			
Never	138 (69.7)	72 (51.8)	210 (62.3)
Sometimes	49 (24.7)	57 (41.0)	106 (31.5)
Often	11 (5.6)	10 (7.2)	21 (6.2)
Very severe physical violence			
Grabbed the child around the neck and choked			
Never	145 (73.2)	87 (62.6)	232 (68.8)
Sometimes	32 (16.2)	43 (30.9)	75 (22.3)
Often	21 (10.6)	9 (6.5)	30 (8.5)
Burned or scalded the child on purpose			
Never	177 (89.4)	123 (88.5)	300 (89.0)
Sometimes	9 (4.5)	13 (9.4)	22 (6.5)
Often	12 (6.1)	3 (2.2)	15 (4.5)
Threatened the child with knife or gun			
Never	153 (77.3)	84 (60.4)	237 (70.3)
Sometimes	35 (17.7)	51 (36.7)	86 (25.5)
Often	10 (5.1)	4 (2.9)	14 (4.2)
Tried to cut the child with a sharp object			
Never	176 (88.9)	122 (87.8)	298 (88.4)
Sometimes	15 (7.6)	15 (10.8)	30 (8.9)
Often	7 (3.5)	2 (1.4)	9 (2.7)

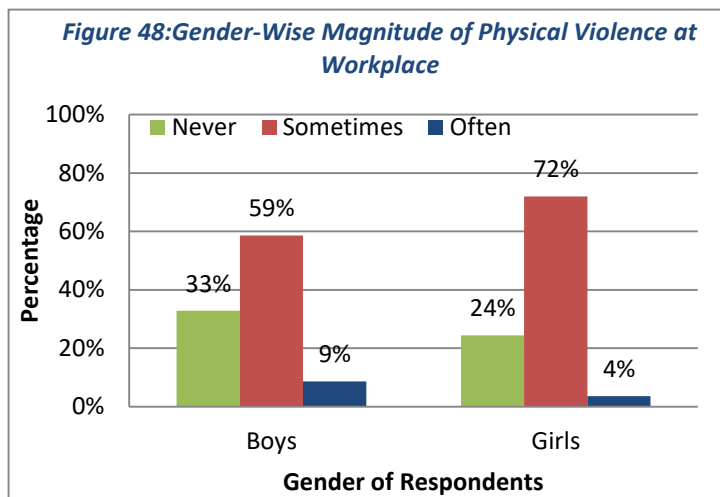
The analysis of FGD revealed that the newcomers (child worker) at jobs suffered more physical violence as compared to experienced child workers. They shared that this was because the newcomers did not know how to complete work and do a lot of mistakes, ‘on doing mistakes employers scolded and beat’. A respondent from Punjab reported:

“When I was new on the job, he (employer) beat me, but now I have learned skills. Now, he treats me like his son and really wants to teach me how to become a good electrician.”

Similar reason had been explained in previously conducted study in Jordan, a respondent reported “He (employer) stopped beating and now my relationship with him is like a father to son because he wants to teach me how to be a good mechanic” (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003). This shows that how physical punishment is socially acceptable and associated with training of child workers.

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Physical Violence at Workplace

Figure 48 depicts the gender-wise magnitude of physical violence at workplace. The girls experienced more physical violence (76%) as compared to boys (68%). Though both boys and girls in this study were working as domestic laborers, the girls were found more vulnerable to physical violence by employer. The discussion with female domestic workers revealed that the employer usually punish the child workers on not performing ‘satisfactory work’. A female participant stated that employer not only abused on not doing satisfactory work but they also did “not



pay our salaries”. A girl working as a cleaner at a residence described:

My Malikan (the lady employer) assigned very difficult and burdensome tasks to me. Whenever she is not happy with my work, she hits me on my face and shouts at me. I cry afterwards. But, she always threatens me that she will not pay my salary.

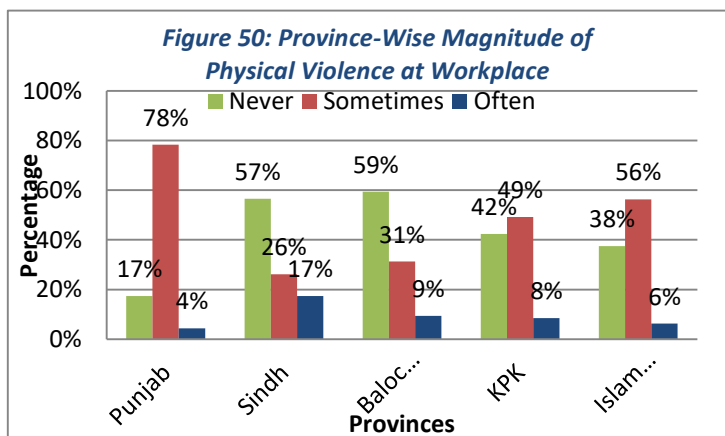
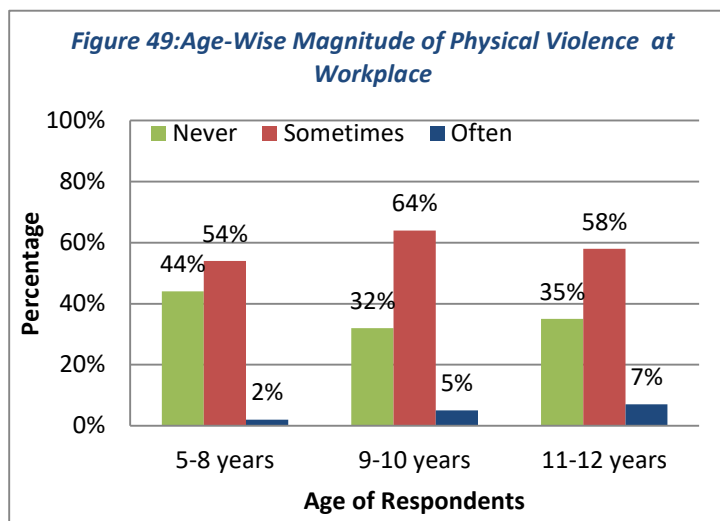
During an FGD, a girl who was neither in employment nor in school confirmed that she had underage domestic servants working in her house. She shared that she and her sister were repeatedly reprimanded, bullied, asked to do heavy burdensome work and beaten for minor misdemeanours by their parents. A previously qualitative study reported that young women and men working in domestic employment are exposed to physical, psychological, verbal and sexual abuse, and often ‘treated worse than dogs’ (Blagbrough, 2008). Another female participant who was also neither in employment nor in school said that:

“I witness that my friends’ mother scolds and beats servant girl often. I thank God that I do not have to work. In our society girls are more prone to violence”.

Figure 49 shows the age-wise magnitude of physical violence at workplace. The children in younger age group (5-8 years) experienced less violence as compared to elder children (9-12 years). Though a substantial percentage of children in age group of 5-8 years experienced physical violence, yet they experienced less physical violence (56% vs. 69% and 65%) as compared to elder children in age group of 9-10 years and 11-12 years respectively. One of the reasons of suffering more physical violence among elders was their social and professional responsibility to train younger child laborers. During an FGD a child laborer from Punjab reported:

“I and my younger brother, we both work in an auto-workshop. Whenever I do mistake, my Ustaad (employer) beats me with stick. When my 6 years brother do mistake, Ustaad does not beat him, instead called him dumb. Even beats me for his mistakes and asked me to train him. Sometime he gives me punishment for his mistakes.”

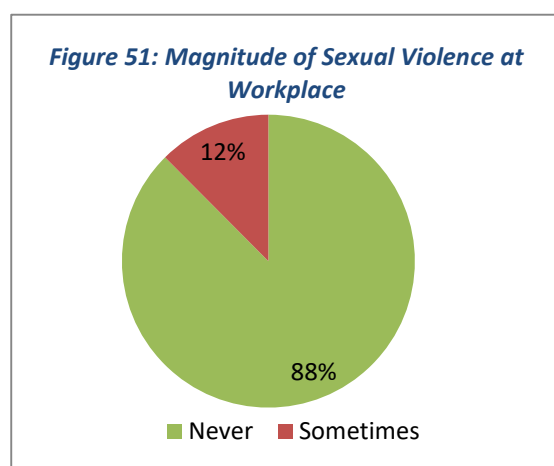
The province-wise analysis of physical violence at workplace revealed that child workers in the Punjab province is more vulnerable to physical violence as 82% respondents in Punjab reported that they experienced physical violence at workplace followed by 62% in Federal Capital Islamabad (62%), and KPK (57%) (Figure 50).



Sexual Violence at Workplace

Childhood sexual assault has been widely accepted as an extreme violation of human dignity. It has multifaceted adverse physical and mental outcomes including infectious disease, unwanted pregnancy, and substance abuse (Pereda, et al., 2009). A meta-analysis of 65 studies from 22 countries found a global prevalence of sexual abuse in childhood, Africa had the highest prevalence rate of child sexual abuse (34%) while the Europe had the lowest prevalence rate (9%); in America and Asia the prevalence ranges between 10% and 24% (Pereda, Guilera, Forns, & Gómez-Benito, 2009). Sexual abuse at workplace is most common and the child workers were found more exposed to sexual assault as being powerless and economically deprived (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; ILO, 2013; Pereda, et al., 2009).

Figure 51 reveals the overall magnitude of child sexual abuse at workplace in selected districts. It shows that 12% of the respondents experienced sexual abuse sometimes at workplace by their employers. The percentage of sexual abuse among working children was found to be 10% in a study conducted in America and 27% in a study conducted in Jordan (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; Rauscher, 2008).



The most prevalent form of sexual assault was “unwanted kiss/touching in a sexual way (6%)” and ‘unwanted touch to child’s private (6%)’, as shown in Table 23. The findings revealed that girls were more vulnerable to sexual abuse as compare to boys. This is align with previously conducted studies which reported that girls were more expose to violence at workplace (Gharaibeh & Hoeman, 2003; Rauscher, 2008).

Table 23: Sexual violence perpetrated by employers (N=337)			
Variables	In-School Children		Total
	Boys (198)	Girls N (139)	
Showed pornography			
Never	194 (98.0)	134 (96.4)	328 (97.3)
Sometimes	4 (2.0)	5 (3.6)	9 (2.7)
Unwanted kiss/touched child in a sexual way			
Never	192 (97.0)	124 (89.2)	316 (93.8)
Sometimes	6 (3.0)	15 (10.8)	20 (6.2)

Unwanted touch to child's private parts			
Never	193 (97.5)	123 (88.5)	316 (93.8)
Sometimes	6 (3.2)	15 (10.8)	21 (6.2)
Tried or Forced child to have sex with them			
Never	195 (98.5)	129 (94.2)	324 (96.7)
Sometimes	3 (1.6)	8 (5.8)	10 (3.5)

Association of Children's Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Sexual Violence Experiences

Table 24 shows the overall prevalence of sexual abuse by gender, age and province wise among children at workplace in Pakistan. The findings revealed that younger children (5-8 years) were more vulnerable to sexual violence (16% vs 9%) as compared to elder children (11-12 years. , Table further revealed that sexual violence at workplace was reported high in Punjab (15%) followed by KPK (14%). However, magnitude of sexual violence was reported low in Balochistan province (9%) and in Federal Capital Islamabad (6%).

Table 24: Magnitude sexual violence in Schools perpetrated by employers (N=337)		
Variables	Never (%)**	Sometimes (%)**
Gender		
Boys	95%	5%
Girls	76%	24%
Age		
5-8	84%	16%
9-10	87%	13%
11-12	91%	9%
Province		
Punjab	85%	15%
Sindh	100%	
Balochistan	91%	9%
KPK	86%	14%
Islamabad	94%	6%
*None of the participants selected 'often' category for reporting sexual violence at workplace		
** Only percentages are given as the frequency was very small against these variables/categories.		

During FGD, many child described incidents of experiencing sexual harassment at their workplace. Girls suffer considerably more sexual violence than boys, and their greater vulnerability to violence in many settings is, to a great extent, a product of the influence of gender-based power relations within society. A 12 years beggar girl from Punjab described:

My parents forced me to beg in the streets. I started begging in streets and roads. I am good looking and young one, many men accost me, touched my

body while passing, and even one male attempted to have sex with me. Luckily, my mother reached at the place and I got safe.

Domestic child workers are more exposed to sexual violence as it was easy to impose violence on children in private households due to absence of accountability and questioning in private spheres.

A female domestic worker while narrating her experiences said:

I am safe when my malikan [referring to female employer] is at home. However, whenever she is out for shopping or for anything else, her husband demands sexual favors from me.

The analysis also revealed that the children who worked more than 8 hours were more exposed to sexual assault. A girl from Sindh reported:

“I reached at Baji’s home [referring to employer] at 10am and left at 8pm. After evening I felt scared as husband and brother of my Baji are at home. They stared at me. Touched me whenever Baji is not around.”

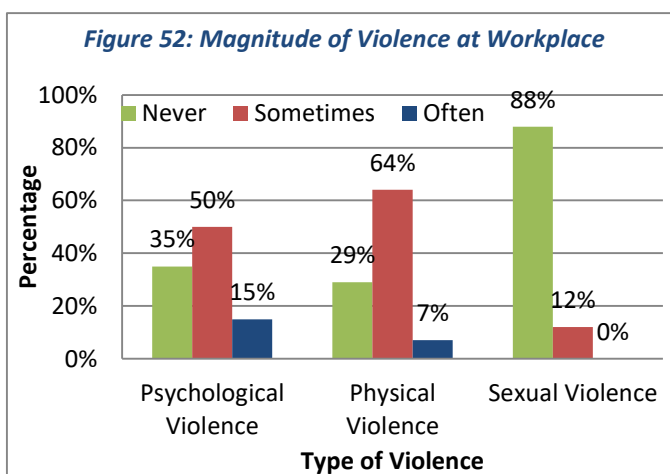
A previously conducted study reported the similar findings that the girls who worked for more than 8 hours a day were more exposed to sexual violence as compared to girls worked less than 8 hours (Gamlin, et al., 2015). Sexual violence at workplace had devastating impact on children’ life, physically and psychologically harm the child (Audu, Geidam, & Jarma, 2009; Barth, Bermetz, Heim, Trelle, & Tonia, 2013). In addition, it have long-term debilitating physical conditions which often result in lifelong costs of healthcare and loss of quality of life (Audu, et al., 2009; Barth, et al., 2013)

Conclusion

This study found that a substantial percentage of respondents experienced psychological and physical violence at workplace and the high prevalent form of violence was physical assault against children.

This study supports the findings of previously conducted studies which highlighted that work is a survival strategy

for many children and their families (Gamlin, et al., 2015). It is reported that the prohibition of child labor is difficult as it may leave many families into more poverty (M. F. Bourdillon, 2006;



ILO, 2004). Therefore, there is need to implement well-designed legislation and regulation that facilitate to protect those child workers who do not want to lose their jobs (Gamlin, et al., 2015; Klocker, 2011). To prevent children from entering into child labor, there is need for economic empowerment of populace in general so it reduce the requirement for children to perform economic roles (ILO, 2013; Klocker, 2011).

Child education was found a significant predictor of not only reducing child labor but also preventing violence at workplace (M. F. Bourdillon, 2006; Gamlin, et al., 2015; Klocker, 2011). The strategy ‘work with education’ adopted by Philippines and Peru had been reported successful for not only prevent violence at workplace but also welfare of the children and their families (Klocker, 2011). In both countries, many child workers were found to be happy with their work and employer, felt proud to combine education with work and earning income for them and their families, and also appear to have a respectful relationship with their employers (Klocker, 2011). Similarly, a study conducted at Tanzania and Zimbabwe reported benefits of child workers as they were contributing in welfare of their families but without comprising education, thus, most of the child were happy with their work (M. F. Bourdillon, 2006; Klocker, 2011).

The prevention of violence against children not only need legislation but also social and attitudinal changes among people (Gamlin, et al., 2015). For this, there is need to introduce non-legislative community and social programs, particularly the programs which mediate between education institutions and employers to facilitate school attendance, and provide social support to children (Gamlin, et al., 2015). It is recommend that ‘safe community’ movement or program should be run in developing countries which are effective for injury prevention mainly in industrialized countries (Zhao & Svanstrom, 2003). To develop a long-term national policy action to reduce child labor and violence against children at workplace, there is need to introduce non-formal school system and targeted anti-poverty programs in Pakistan.

Chapter 7: Violence against Children in Community

Violence against children is a complex phenomenon and no community around the globe is free of violence (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg, & Zwi, 2002; Pinheiro, 2006; SSRG, 2013). In general, violence in the community is highly visible and often labeled as crime as compared to violence in domestic sphere which is less visible (Krug, et al., 2002). However, violence against children perpetrated by community members has received less attention as compared to domestic violence against children (Daigle, Fisher, & Cullen, 2008; Stein, Jaycox, Kataoka, Rhodes, & Vestal, 2003).

Definition of and boundaries of community violence has been little examined as compared to domestic violence or workplace violence (Trickett et al. 2003). One definition of the community violence refers the extent to which the “child has been victimized by, or witness to, various forms of violence and violence-related activities in the particular community in which the family lives” (Richters & Martinez, 1993, p.4). It is also defined as “violence between individuals who are not related and who may or may not know each other—bullying, harassment, random acts of violence, and sexual assault by strangers; generally it occurs outside of the home” (Krug, et al., 2002, p.10). To experience violence and to witness violence both have negative impacts on children cognitive and personality development, however the experiencing violence by known community member or strangers have more devastating impact than witnessing violence only (Lynch, 2003; Mabanglo, 2002; UNICEF, 2015).

Children experienced bullying, physical violence, sexual assault by community members. This poly-victimization is common in dangerous neighborhoods and community environments (Finkelhor, 2011). Children even “without violent, disrupted, or disorganized families may become polyvictims in such environments, where there may be gangs, vandalism, and unsafe schools and where families may use coercive techniques for socializing children because they believe these are helping to "protect" children from the dangerous environment” ((Finkelhor, 2011., p.22).

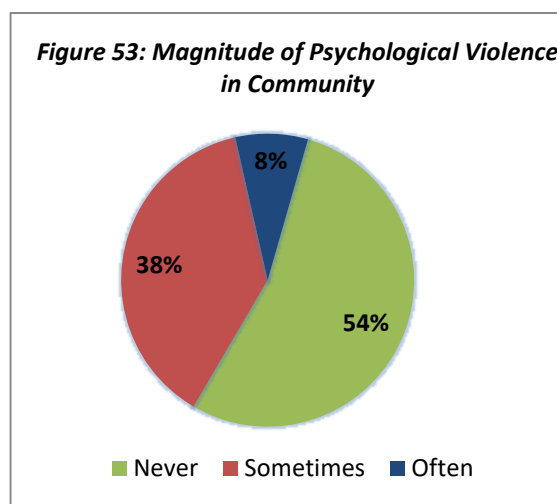
Exposure to community violence has been linked to depression, aggressive behavior, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and interpersonal problems (Scarpa, 2003; Siegfried, Ko, & Kelley, 2004). To protect children from long term side-effects of violence, there is need to introduce comprehensive strategies and community programs to reduce community violence. As a first step, there is need to identify the prevalence and its types, so that, cultural based preventive measure could be taken. This study made an effort to assess the magnitude of violence perpetrated

against or experienced by children from stranger and acquaintance community members such as friend, relatives, neighbors etc.

Magnitude of Psychological in Community

Psychological violence by community members lowers the self-esteem and confidence of children (Gilbert et al., 2009). The continuous exposure of psychological violence by some known person effects the cognitive development of children (Gilbert, et al., 2009; Lynch, 2003). For the healthy cognitive development of children, there is need to create a culture of respect and dignity by reducing verbal abuse against children (May-Chahal & Cawson, 2005; Scarpa, 2003). In this backdrop, the magnitude and types of psychological violence need to be explored.

The findings revealed that a majority of (46%) the children experienced psychological violence by community members (Figure 53). Of which, a significant percentage of respondents experienced psychological violence “sometimes (38%)” during past three years by community members, whereas only 8% of the respondents experienced psychological violence “often” from community members. There is lack of research on exploring the magnitude of psychological violence experienced by



young children (5-12 years) from the community members. However, a study conducted in African countries assessed the emotional violence in both home and community. It reported that the prevalence of psychological abuse among children in both home and community ranges from 53% in Ethiopian children to as high as 75% and 72% in children from Morocco and Zambia, respectively (ACPF, 2014). Nevertheless, the present study reported that the children experienced less psychological violence from community members (46%) as compared to psychological violence experienced in domestic sphere (84%), workplace (75%) and school (67%).

In the present study, the most prevalent form of psychological aggression was ‘calling child dumb, lazy, or mentally retarded (35.4%)’, followed by ‘shouting, yelling or screaming at child (30.1%)’ and ‘threatening the child to spank or hit (28.3%)’ (Table 25). A previously conducted study in Ethiopia reported the similar prevalent forms but with little higher percentages of psychological

violence experienced by children from community members. The study reported that a significant percentages of children experienced insulting remarks (64.9%), followed by frightening and threatening remarks (56.2%), shouting and glaring (47.6%), and ridiculing and embarrassing remarks (42.0%) (Save the Children & Africa Child Policy Forum, 2005). Though the severity of different forms is comparatively little lower as compared to a developing country Ethiopia, yet the prevalence of such forms of psychological aggression must be high as compared to developed country. Therefore, the efforts should be made to decrease the psychological aggression from community by raising awareness as well as creating tolerance and peace in communities.

Table 25: Prevalence of Different Forms of Psychological Violence in Community (N=948)			
Variables	Boys (476)	Girls N (472)	Total (N=948)
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Shouted, yelled or screamed at child			
Never	323 (68.0)	337 (71.9)	660 (69.9)
Sometimes	107 (22.5)	90 (19.2)	197 (20.9)
Often	45 (9.5)	42 (9.0)	87 (9.2)
Called child dumb, lazy, mentally retarded			
Never	309 (65.1)	297 (62.9)	606 (64.0)
Sometimes	112 (23.6)	128 (27.1)	240 (25.3)
Often	54 (11.4)	47 (10.0)	101 (10.1)
Threatened to send away or kicked out of class			
Never	397 (83.4)	375 (79.4)	772 (81.4)
Sometimes	59 (12.4)	74 (15.7)	133 (14.0)
Often	20 (4.2)	23 (4.9)	43 (4.5)
Threatened to spank or hit child			
Never	355 (74.6)	325 (68.9)	680 (71.1)
Sometimes	94 (19.7)	116 (24.6)	210 (22.2)
Often	27 (5.7)	31 (6.6)	58 (6.1)
Took away child privileges			
Never	399 (83.8)	396 (83.9)	795 (83.9)
Sometimes	58 (12.2)	61 (12.9)	119 (12.6)
Often	19 (4.0)	15 (3.2)	34 (3.6)

The analysis of FGD revealed that the children faced psychological abuse by the acquaintance/known persons such as neighbors, friends and relatives as compared to strangers. An 8 years old boy from Sindh reported,

Two boys who lived in my neighborhood are pickpockets. Their parents do not know about this. In fact, they had good reputation in our neighborhood. They pressurized me to join their gang. When I refused and reply that I will tell to your parents. They

hit me so hard. Now, they shouted at me, and called me with bad names, and threatened to spank me or hit me.

An 11 years old girl from a poor family while sharing her story said:

All the girls lived in my area worked as domestic servant in nearest communities, but my mother wants that I should study. When, I reached to fourth class, my fellow girls and boys started calling me 'Nakammi [referring to person who do nothing]. When I said, I am studying, they replied that you are not earning, you are coward, you are burden on your parents. I felt so embarrassed and guilty as my father is drug addict and my mother hardly has money to feed us all [referring to her three sisters and one brother]. I left school and started work as domestic servant.

Association of Children's Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Psychological Violence by Community

Figure 54 illustrates the gender wise prevalence of psychological violence on children perpetrated by community members. It shows that girls were relatively more vulnerable to psychological violence (48%) as compared to boys (44%). The previously conducted studies in developed and developing countries reported the same trend as girls faced more psychological violence as compared to boys (ACPF, 2014; May-Chahal & Cawson, 2005; Save the Children & Africa Child Policy Forum, 2005).

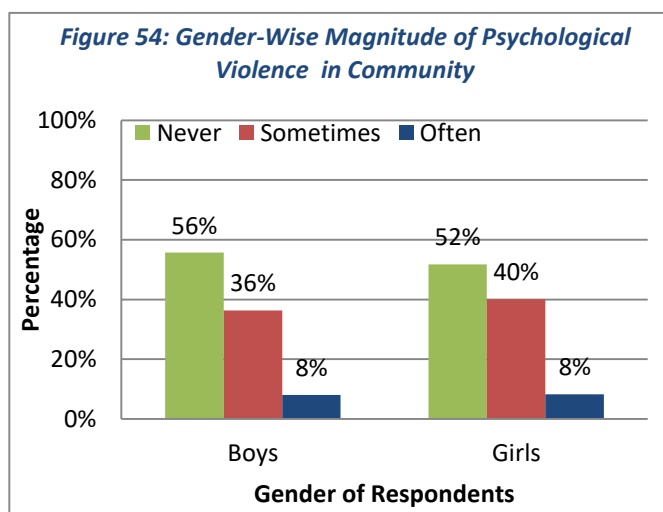


Figure 56 demonstrates age wise magnitude of psychological violence among children. Results reveals that prevalence of psychological violence was high among children of age group 5-8 years (61%), followed by 9-10 years (52%). Figure shows that the older children (11-12 years) were less vulnerable (36%) to psychological violence in community as compared to younger children. The analysis of the FGD revealed that older children developed resistance against bully and they learnt how to avoid the bully or emotional violence by street children, relatives, and peer groups.

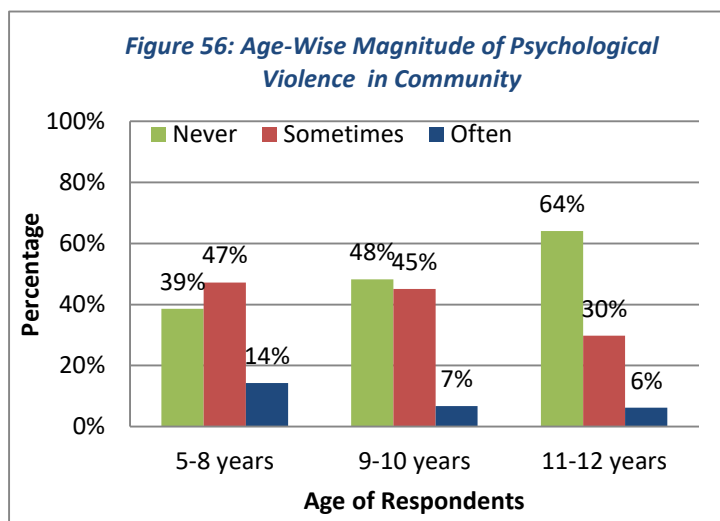
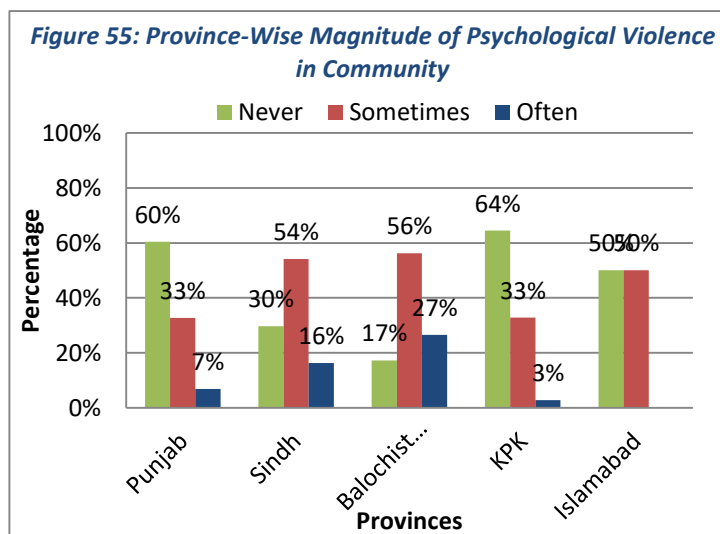


Figure 55 shows the prevalence of region-wise psychological violence among children. It shows that psychological violence was more prevalent in Balochistan (83%), followed by Sindh (70%) and Islamabad (Federal capital of Pakistan) (50%). In addition, figure reveals that prevalence of psychological violence was less in Punjab and KPK as compared to rest of the provinces.



Psychological violence can be reduced by creating a culture of respect and dignity in the society which could not be possible without introducing some mentoring and counseling programs.

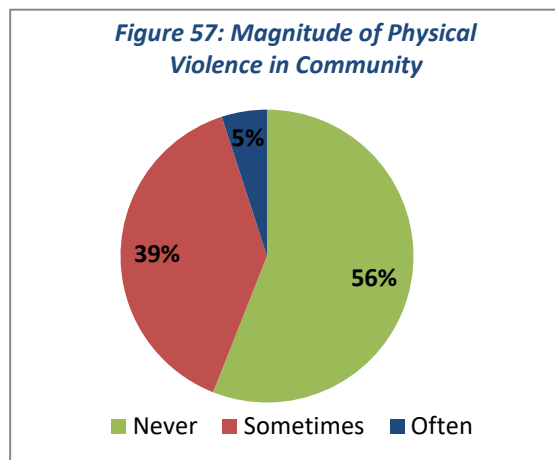
Physical Violence in Community

Physical punishment outside the house often develops a feeling of unsafe communities among children (Leoschut, 2009). The continuous exposure to physical violence creates anxiety and many psychological disorders among children (Gershoff & Bitensky, 2007; Harper & Stockham, 2005; Scarpa, 2003; UNICEF, 2006). The culture of physical violence in name of 'disciplining' the

children form communities cannot be curb until people consider it a violence and develop a habit to report physical punishment to police or some child welfare organization (Gershoff & Bitensky, 2007; Scarpa, 2003). This is because the effective policies cannot be launched without assessing the need and assessing the actual magnitude of violence.

Figure 57 presents the magnitude of physical violence experienced by children from community.

It shows that a majority children (44%) experienced physical violence perpetrated by community members. Of which a substantial percentage of respondents experienced physical violence ‘sometimes (39%)’ during their past three years whereas only 5% respondents repeatedly experienced physical violence from community members or outside of their homes. A study conducted in different African countries reported



that a substantial percentage of (70%) children experienced physical violence in Uganda, 50% children in Ethiopia, Mali and Zambia (ACPF, 2014). During FGD, the children reported that they experienced physical violence by their neighbourhood boys and peer groups. The children from Sindh and KPK reported that they experienced physical violence by strangers as well. The analysis revealed that the children experienced physical violence on the way to school or back to home or in streets during playing with their friends. A 10 year old boy from Punjab shared:

I often gain good marks at school. My class fellows often get annoyed as their parents set my example for them and beat or abuse them. They often take revenge of that by beating me or abusing me on the way back home. They are physically stronger than me. I never reported these incidents to my parents as I thought they would complain to their parents. Then, they [referring boys] will punish me more.

A boy from Sindh shared:

Sometimes a criminal gang come and start beating us [referring to all kids playing in the street]. If someone came to rescue us, they start beating them as well. We feel so insecure.

Another 12 year old boy Sindh reported:

There is so much crime in our area and most of the young people are involved in criminal activities like pickpocketing, gang fighting etc. We often thought about shifting from here but we do not have the necessary resources. The boys in my neighborhood also belong to some gang. They often beat me and ask me to join them. I feel unsafe in my neighborhood.

A study conducted in a developed country reported that children who had been engaged in many fights (54%) from neighbors and witness a lot of crime (50%) around them often felt their community unsafe (Leoschut, 2009).

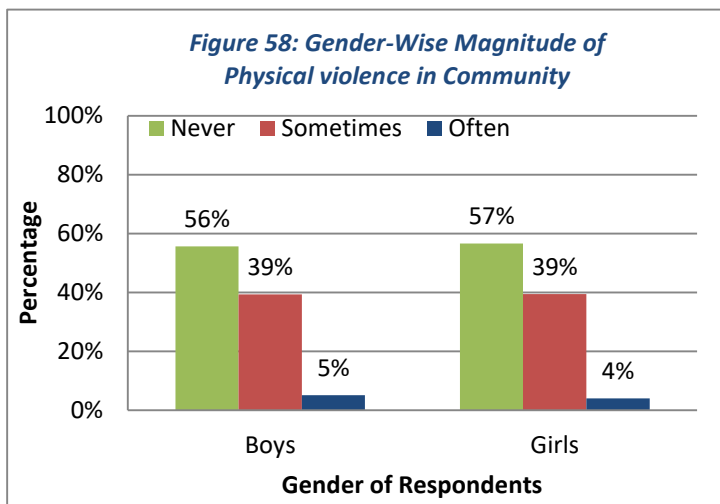
The most common reported form of physical violence by community members was ‘slapping the child on the face or head or ears (22.5%), followed by ‘hitting the child on some other part of the body besides the bottom with something like a belt, hairbrush, a stick, or some other hard object’ (21.8%) and ‘pulling hair, pinched or twisted the ear (21.5%)’. A study conducted in Ethiopia reported the similar form of prevalent forms of physical violence experienced by children from community as 53% of children experienced slapping, 53.7% experienced hitting on head and 47.6% children experienced getting hit with a stick (Table 26).

Table 26: Prevalence of Physical violence in Community (N=948)			
Variables	Boys (476)	Girls N (472)	Total (N=948)
Minor physical violence			
Spanked child on the bottom with hand			
Never	373 (78.5)	374 (79.2)	747 (78.9)
Sometimes	66 (13.9)	60 (12.7)	126 (13.3)
Often	36 (7.6)	38 (8.1)	74 (7.8)
Hit child on the bottom with something like a belt, a stick or some other hard object			
Never	373 (78.5)	374 (79.2)	747 (78.9)
Sometimes	66 (13.9)	60 (12.7)	126 (13.3)
Often	36 (7.6)	38 (8.1)	74 (7.8)
Slapped child on the hand, arm, or leg			
Never	373 (78.5)	374 (79.2)	747 (78.9)
Sometimes	66 (13.9)	60 (12.7)	126 (13.3)
Often	36 (7.6)	38 (8.1)	74 (7.8)
Pulled hair, pinched or twisted the ear			
Never	381 (80.0)	360 (76.3)	741 (78.2)
Sometimes	60 (12.6)	74 (15.7)	134 (14.1)
Often	35 (7.4)	38 (8.1)	73 (7.7)
Shook child			
Never	376 (79.0)	373 (79.0)	749 (79.0)
Sometimes	71 (14.9)	71 (15.0)	142 (15.0)
Often	29 (6.1)	28 (5.9)	57 (6.0)
Severe physical violence			

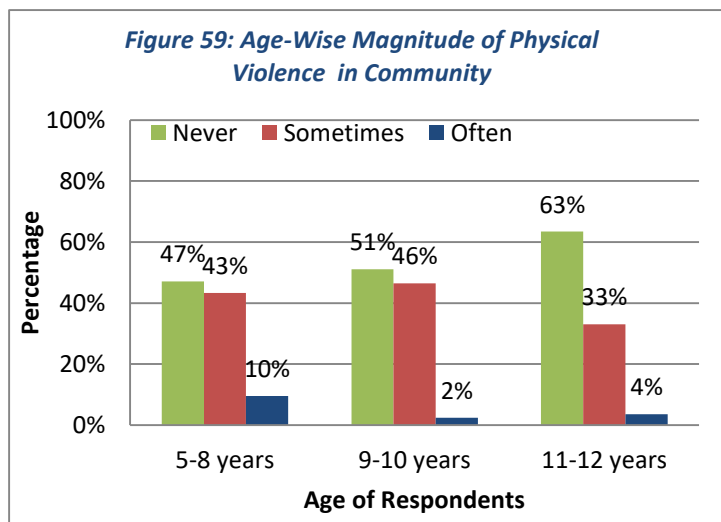
Slapped child on the face or head or ears			
Never	374 (78.7)	360 (76.3)	734 (77.5)
Sometimes	60 (12.6)	82 (17.4)	142 (15.0)
Often	41 (8.6)	30 (6.4)	71 (7.5)
Hit child on some other part of the body besides the bottom with something like a belt, hairbrush, a stick, or some other hard object			
Never	369 (77.5)	372 (78.8)	741 (78.2)
Sometimes	67 (14.1)	64 (13.6)	131 (13.8)
Often	40 (8.4)	36 (7.6)	76 (8.0)
Threw or knocked child down			
Never	375 (78.8)	368 (78.0)	743 (78.4)
Sometimes	62 (13.0)	65 (13.8)	127 (13.4)
Often	39 (8.2)	39 (8.3)	78 (8.2)
Hit child with a fist or kicked him/her hard			
Never	376 (79.3)	375 (79.6)	751 (79.5)
Sometimes	63 (13.3)	72 (15.3)	135 (14.3)
Often	35 (7.4)	12 (5.1)	59 (6.2)
Very severe physical violence			
Grabbed the child around the neck and choked			
Never	400 (84.0)	412 (87.3)	812 (85.7)
Sometimes	62 (13.0)	50 (10.6)	112 (11.8)
Often	14 (2.9)	10 (2.1)	24 (2.5)
Burned or scalded the child on purpose			
Never	415 (87.2)	421 (89.2)	836 (88.2)
Sometimes	51 (10.7)	50 (10.6)	101 (10.7)
Often	10 (2.1)	1 (.2)	11 (1.2)
Threatened the child with knife or gun			
Never	414 (87.0)	410 (86.9)	824 (86.9)
Sometimes	42 (8.8)	56 (11.9)	98 (10.3)
Often	20 (4.0)	6 (1.3)	26 (2.7)
Tried to cut the child with a sharp object			
Never	431 (90.5)	417 (88.3)	848 (89.5)
Sometimes	28 (5.9)	47 (10.0)	75 (7.9)
Often	17 (3.6)	8 (1.7)	25 (2.6)

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Physical Violence by Community

Figure 58 illustrates the gender-wise magnitude of physical violence perpetrated by community members. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference in experiencing physical violence between the boys and girls. However, in a FGD participants reported that boys often experience more physical violence than girls. A participant said: *“I am 5th class student, my peers often beat me very badly on the way back home, whereas I observed girls experienced less physical violence from their peer groups on the way to school or back home”*.



The age-wise magnitude of physical violence revealed that the younger children (5-8 years) suffered more (53%) physical violence as compared to relatively older children of age group 9-10 (48%) and 11-12 (37%) years respectively. Results of qualitative data revealed cognitive development of older children as a reason of this pattern of violence. A boy reported:



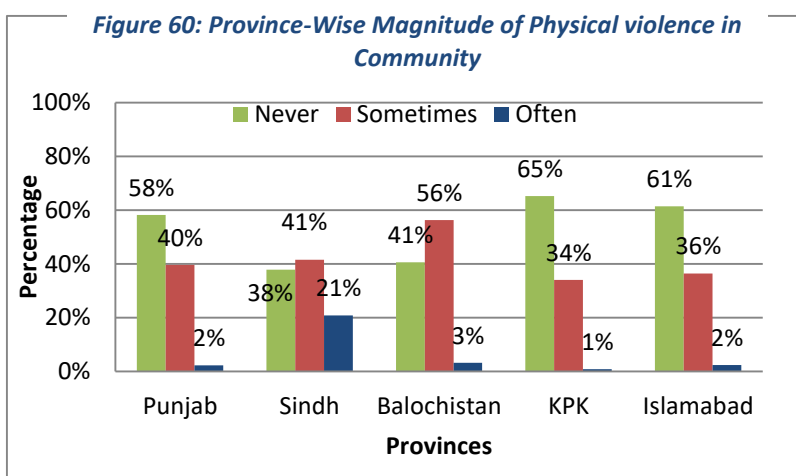
Now I am physically stronger and developed strength to resist the physical violence perpetrated by community members, so I face less threat as compared to when I was younger”.

The analysis of FGD further revealed that the known community members often took physical violence as an alternative to train the children or took it as a tool for disciplining the children. The children at younger age could not interpret that it is whether good or bad but the children in older

age developed cognitive ability to think its merits or demerits and often resists to physical violence. Another boy from Punjab shared:

We experienced physical violence from relatives, friends and neighbors, and whenever I tried to retaliate this act they try to learn us that such physical punishment was given for our own good. But now I am 12 years old I cannot bear any physical violence such as slapping, beating or harassing.

With regard to children's region of residence, the children lived in Sindh (62%) followed by Balochistan (59%) and Punjab (42%) was found to suffer more physical violence perpetrated by community members. In addition, figure 60 illustrates that the children from Islamabad and KPK faced less physical violence perpetrated by community compared to the children lived in other areas of Pakistan. Most

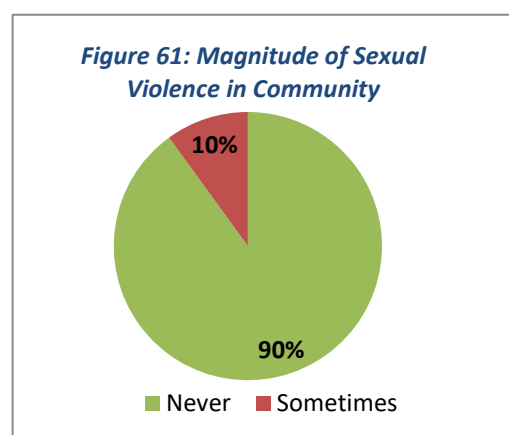


of the children suffered physical violence from community member during paly outside their home. Therefore, there is need to introduce safe sports clubs or camps for children where children can play in leisure time but under supervision of some elders.

Sexual Violence in Community

Sexual violence by community members is a social and public health issue around the globe. Sexual assault by a friend or acquaintance is associated with increased involvement in risky behaviors and many psychological disorders (Davis, Combs-Lane and Jackson 2002).

The present study revealed that only 10% of the children faced sexual violence outside their homes by community members (Figure 61). A study conducted in a developed



country of South Africa reported a relatively higher percentage (21%) of sexual violence as

compared to this study in residential streets. During FGDs, the children revealed that they were sexually abused by the known community members more than strangers. A study conducted in Africa reported the consistent observation as around 30% of the children reported that the perpetrators of sexual assaults were known community members (Leoschut & Burton, 2006).

In the present study, the most reported sexual assault were unwanted kiss/touched to child (45%), followed by showing pornography videos/clips to children (31%), and unwanted touch child's private parts (30%) (see Table 27). The FGD analysis revealed that the known community members such as male neighbour or family relatives or friends touched the private parts of the children or touched them in a sexual way. Some children reported that they faced sexual assault at home of someone, some said they faced sexual assault during the streets of known community members, while a number of children reported that they were sexually assault by some shopkeeper when they went to buy something from their shops. In addition, the analysis of FGD revealed that the sexual assault was started from lesser harmful sexual assaults acts like kissing or touching to forcing the children to have sex with them. A boy from Sindh reported:

A shopkeeper nearest my home often asked me to enter inside the shop. On entering inside the shops, he kissed me and rewarded me with a chocolate or a candy. With passage of time, he started touching my private parts. As he gives reward to me, so I never try to tell anyone about this. One day, he grabbed me from my neck pushed me and tried to have sex with me. On revealing the truth to family, my family members beat me instead saying anything to him.

Variables	In-School Children		Total N (948)
	Boys (476)	Girls N (472)	
Showed pornography			
Never	462 (97.1)	455 (96.4)	917 (96.7)
Sometimes	14 (2.9)	17 (3.6)	31 (3.3)
Unwanted kiss/touched child in a sexual way			
Never	455 (95.6)	448 (94.9)	903 (95.3)
Sometimes	21 (4.4)	24 (5.1)	45 (4.7)
Unwanted touch child's private parts			
Never	462 (97.1)	456 (96.6)	918 (96.8)
Sometimes	14 (2.9)	16 (3.4)	30 (3.2)
Tried or Forced child to have sex			
Never	464 (97.5)	461 (97.7)	925 (97.6)
Sometimes	12 (2.5)	11 (2.3)	23 (2.4)

Association of Children’s Age, Gender and Region of Residence with Sexual Violence by Community

The gender-wise analysis revealed that the boys and girls had no difference in experiencing sexual assault by the community members (Table 28). However, the FGD analysis highlighted that the boys were more exposed to show pornography clips or to kiss in sexual way, while the girls were more prone to face unwanted touch or sex. However, a previously conducted study reported contradictory result by highlighting that girls suffered more sexual assaults by community members as boys (ACPF, 2014).

Variables	Never (%)**	Sometimes (%)**
Gender		
Boys	89.7%	10.3%
Girls	90.3%	9.7%
Age		
5-8	88.1%	11.9%
9-10	89.4%	10.6%
11-12	91.2%	8.8%
Province		
Punjab	90%	10%
Sindh	84%	16%
Baluchistan	91%	9%
KPK	92%	8%
Islamabad	95%	5%
*None of the participants selected ‘often’ category for reporting sexual violence at community		
** Only percentages are given as the frequency was very small against these variables/categories.		

Moreover, the age-wise analysis described that the children in elder age (11-12 years) confronted less sexual assault (8% vs. 10% and 11%) as compared to children in younger age 9-10 years and 5-8 years respectively (Table 28). During FGD, the children revealed that it was easy to foreplay with younger children as compared to elder children because younger children did not understand what the other person was doing with them. The province-wise magnitude highlighted that the children from Sindh (16%) and Punjab (10%) were more exposed to sexual assault as compared to rest of the provinces of Pakistan. The Punjab Police Department revealed that more than 577 cases of child sexual abuse had been reported in Punjab in first 6 months of the 2015. The police of Punjab also asserted that a large number of child abuse incidents remained unreported, which is aligned with findings of this study (SPARCPK, 2016). The present study highlighted that children do not report the sexual violence when they initially faced it and hiding often resulted in severe form of sexual assault. This fact could be assessed by the incident of sexual abuse in a

village “Hussain Khan Wala, District, Kasur, Punjab” as on large scale since 2010, the children were being sexually abused by a gang. Yet, the parents and children did not report it either to police or to any legislative authority due to a number of factors. The most significant factor was that the victims and their parents were being blackmailed by the perpetrators (SPARCPK, 2016). Thus, the parents and victims did not report the incidents to any institution to avoid re-victimization and associated stigmatization. This non-reporting resulted in child sexual abuse at massive level as around 300 under fourteen years children were sexually victimized in Kasur (SPARCPK, 2016). The incident was highlighted by the healthcare providers and afterward parents and residents of the affected areas came in streets to take the incident in the notice of authorities. If the parents and victims reported the abuse at initial stages it might be possible to protect a number of children from sexual abuse.

This highlighted the need to raise awareness among communities about the benefits of reporting the violence on time. There is also a need to open some child-welfare center in each community so the children get the relevant services easily within their communities.

Association of Individual and Familial Characteristics of Respondents with all forms of Community Violence

To prevent the violence against children it is crucial to look at the hidden factors that encourage communities to victimize the children (Aisenberg & Herrenkohl, 2008). There is major gap in literature about the identification of these familial factors that are associated with child exposure to community violence. The present research shows a considerable linkage between familial characteristics such as (age of children, type of school, education of father and mother, history of father and mother drug addiction etc.) with community violence as illustrated in below.

Table 29 revealed that age of child was significantly associated with psychological and physical violence. Findings revealed that psychological and physical violence decreased with increase in child age as children between 5 to 8 years were found to be more vulnerable to community violence as compared to age group of 9-10 and 10-12 years. This study aligned with a study which reported that younger children were more prone to community violence (Voisin, 2007).

The findings of qualitative data also revealed that younger children experienced more psychological and physical violence. In a FGD with girls from Balochistan, a girl share her

experienced: *“When I was about 7 years old, my uncles and aunts often verbally abused me but with passage of time they changed their attitude towards me. Now, I reply them back with anger”*.

During FGDs with boys, a 12 years old boy revealed:

We [referring to young boys] face more physical violence at younger age because at this age, the older boys living in my neighborhood easily suppressed me and beat whenever they wanted. But with the passage of time, I learnt how to resist; now if they hit me, I hit them back.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that out-of-school children suffered more abuse as compared to children who were studying in schools (Table 29). The findings are consistent with previously conducted studies in both developed and developing countries which reported that the school children faced less violence in domestic sphere and from community members as compared to out-of-school children (Pinheiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002; SSRG, 2013).

The education of father has significant association with all forms of violence against children except sexual violence perpetrated by community. The children of fathers with having no formal schooling were more exposed to psychological and physical violence as compared to children with educated fathers. Likewise, the findings revealed that education of mother also have significant association with the psychological and physical violence except sexual violence perpetrated by community. The children of parents with low education are reported to suffer more violence from community as well as in domestic sphere (Pinheiro, 2006; Runyan, et al., 2002).

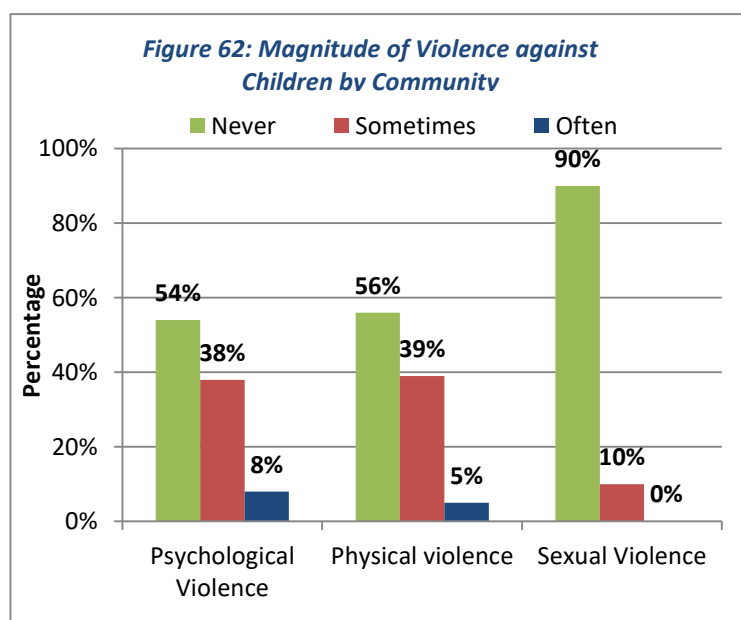
The children who witnessed interpersonal violence between parents suffered more psychological and physical violence as compared to the children who did not witness interpersonal violence between parents. Similar result was reported in a study which revealed that children who witnessed interpersonal violence between parents were more prone to experience violence and they had lower self-esteem to resist violence (Kitzmann, Gaylord, Holt, & Kenny, 2003). Moreover, it has reported that the children who witnessed violence developed feeling of acceptance of violence and replicate violence during their adulthood (Kitzmann, et al., 2003).

Table 29: Determinants associated with violence against children in community						
Determinants	Psychological violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence	
	Never experienced	Experienced	Never experienced	Experienced	Never experienced	Experienced
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Age						
5-8 years	81 (38.6)	129 (61.4)	99 (47.1)	111 (52.9)	185 (88.1)	25 (11.9)
9-10 years	137 (48.2)	147 (51.8)	145 (51.1)	139 (48.9)	254 (89.4)	30 (10.6)
11-12 years	291 (64.1)	163 (35.9)	288 (63.4)	166 (36.6)	414 (91.2)	40 (8.8)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.000***		0.437	
Gender						
Boys	265 (55.7)	211 (44.3)	265 (55.7)	211 (44.3)	427 (89.7)	49 (10.3)
Girls	244 (51.7)	228 (48.3)	267 (56.6)	205 (43.4)	426 (90.3)	46 (9.7)
Chi-square (p-value)	0.219		0.781		0.779	
In-school or out-of-school children						
In School Children	329 (69.3)	146 (30.7)	331 (69.7)	144 (30.3)	434 (91.4)	41 (8.6)
Out-of-School Children	180 (38.1)	293 (61.9)	201 (42.5)	272 (57.5)	419 (88.6)	54 (11.4)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.000***		0.153	
Type of Family						
Joint	317 (54.5)	265 (45.5)	336 (57.7)	246 (42.3)	528 (90.7)	54 (9.3)
Nuclear	192 (52.6)	173 (47.4)	196 (53.7)	169 (46.3)	324 (88.8)	41 (11.2)
Chi-square (p-value)	0.575		0.223		0.33	
Education of father						
No formal schooling	190 (41.3)	270 (58.7)	210 (45.7)	250 (54.3)	409 (88.9)	51 (11.1)
Matric	196 (64.3)	109 (35.7)	195 (63.9)	110 (36.1)	279 (91.5)	26 (8.5)
Intermediate	83 (96.2)	37 (30.8)	84 (70.0)	36 (30.0)	109 (90.8)	11 (9.2)
Graduate or Above	40 (63.5)	23 (36.5)	43 (68.3)	20 (31.7)	56 (88.9)	7 (11.1)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.000***		0.678	
Education of mother						
No formal schooling	261 (44.1)	331 (55.9)	295 (49.8)	297 (50.2)	531 (89.7)	61 (10.3)
Matric	166 (67.8)	79 (32.2)	162 (66.1)	83 (33.9)	223 (91.0)	22 (9.0)
Intermediate	69 (75.0)	23 (25.0)	63 (68.5)	29 (31.5)	81 (88.0)	11 (12.0)
Graduate or Above	13 (68.4)	6 (31.6)	12 (63.2)	7 (36.8)	18 (94.7)	1 (5.3)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.000***		0.751	
Employment status of father						
Unemployed	132 (52.6)	119 (47.4)	145 (57.8)	106 (42.2)	228 (90.8)	23 (9.2)
Unskilled job	196 (50.4)	193 (49.6)	196 (50.4)	193 (49.6)	349 (89.7)	40 (10.3)
Skilled job	156 (58.4)	111 (41.6)	163 (61.0)	104 (39.0)	240 (86.9)	27 (10.1)
Managerial	25 (6.1)	16 (39.0)	28 (68.3)	13 (31.7)	36 (87.8)	5 (12.2)
Chi-square (p-value)	0.164		.014*		0.929	
Employment status of mother						
Housewife	399 (55.4)	321 (44.6)	415 (57.6)	305 (42.4)	651 (90.4)	69 (9.6)
Unskilled job	67 (41.9)	93 (58.1)	76 (47.5)	84 (52.5)	144 (90.0)	16 (10.0)
Skilled job	40 (64.5)	22 (35.5)	39 (62.9)	23 (37.1)	53 (85.5)	9 (14.5)
Managerial	3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	2 (33.3)	4 (66.1)	5 (83.3)	1 (17.7)
Chi-square (p-value)	.005**		.048*		0.607	
Family income						
>15000	289 (51.5)	272 (48.5)	308 (54.9)	253 (45.1)	510 (90.9)	51 (9.1)
15000-25000	111 (52.9)	99 (47.1)	111 (52.9)	99 (47.1)	186 (88.6)	24 (11.4)
25000-35000	74 (61.2)	47 (38.8)	76 (62.8)	45 (37.2)	109 (90.1)	12 (9.9)

<35000	35 (62.5)	21 (37.5)	37 (66.1)	19 (33.9)	48 (85.7)	8 (14.3)
Chi-square (p-value)	0.134		0.127		0.546	
Smoking by Father						
Yes	170 (45.6)	203 (54.4)	189 (50.7)	184 (49.3)	337 (90.3)	36 (9.7)
No	339 (59.0)	236 (41.0)	343 (59.7)	232 (40.3)	516 (89.7)	59 (10.3)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.006**		0.76	
Smoking by Mother						
Yes	13 (37.1)	22 (62.9)	16 (45.7)	19 (54.3)	28 (80.0)	7 (20.0)
No	496 (54.4)	415 (45.6)	516 (56.6)	395 (43.4)	823 (90.3)	88 (9.7)
Chi-square (p-value)	.044*		0.201		.046*	
Drug addiction by fathers and siblings						
Yes	26 (46.4)	30 (53.6)	34 (60.7)	22 (39.3)	48 (85.7)	8 (14.3)
No	483 (54.3)	407 (45.7)	498 (56.0)	392 (44.0)	803 (90.2)	87 (9.8)
Chi-square (p-value)	0.254		0.486		0.276	
No. of siblings						
1-2	65 (65.0)	35 (35.0)	63 (63.0)	37 (37.0)	86 (86.0)	14 (14.0)
3-4	177 (57.7)	130 (42.3)	179 (58.3)	128 (41.7)	283 (92.2)	24 (7.8)
5-6	158 (52.5)	143 (47.5)	172 (57.1)	129 (42.9)	267 (88.7)	34 (11.3)
7-12	109 (45.4)	131 (54.6)	118 (49.2)	122 (50.8)	217 (90.4)	23 (9.6)
Chi-square (p-value)	.003**		0.061		0.261	
Interpersonal violence between parents						
Yes	237 (47.7)	260 (52.3)	260 (52.3)	237 (47.7)	442 (88.9)	55 (11.1)
No	272 (60.3)	179 (39.7)	272 (60.3)	179 (39.7)	411 (91.1)	40 (8.9)
Chi-square (p-value)	.000***		.013*		0.261	
Parental history of childhood violence						
Yes	265 (53.5)	230 (46.5)	279 (56.4)	216 (43.6)	438 (88.5)	57 (11.5)
No	244 (53.9)	209 (46.1)	253 (55.8)	200 (44.2)	415 (91.6)	38 (8.4)
Chi-square (p-value)	0.919		0.873		0.109	

Conclusion

In the present study, almost same percentage of children experienced both psychological (46%) and physical (44%) violence by community members. This might be because physical form of violence is often linked with psychological violence (Gershoff & Bitensky, 2007; Harper & Stockham, 2005; UNICEF, 2006). This study found that children having parents without formal education, belonged to poor families, and witnessing interpersonal violence between parents experienced



more psychological, physical and sexual from community members. In addition, this study identified that in-school children confronted less violence by community members as compared to out-of-school children. This situation substantiated the need of education for all children and to put every child into school (Bruns & Rakotomalala, 2003; WHO, 2009).

The children who experienced community violence often engaged in delinquent behaviour later in their lives or in adulthood (Stein, et al., 2003). Therefore, there is need to introduce effective and integrated preventive program including legal, social, educational, and economic strategies to reduce risk factors of violence against children (Pineiro, 2006; Scarpa, 2003; WHO, 2009). The cultural programs in order to norms, values, and respect can be helpful to create tolerance and respect in communities (Pineiro, 2006; WHO, 2009). The present study highlighted physical violence suffered by children during play and they developed negative habits during leisure time. Therefore, there is also a need to promote and strengthen sports activities in society and to promote a culture of sportsmanship among children (Pineiro, 2006; UNICEF, 2015). Child-welfare centers should be open in every district so the children can easily get access to needed services.

Chapter 8: Recommendations

Based on the empirical findings, this study offers both short-term and long-term strategies for prevention, and mitigation of violence against children as well as the rehabilitation of the affectees in the society. The data have demonstrated that violence under reference is deeply embedded in cultural and institutional structures, entailing to have overarching strategies for addressing the root causes of violence. Equally important are making the setting-specific recommendations that could be applicable to home and family, schools and other educational settings, workplaces and community. As an outcome of the findings of this research, general as well as specific recommendations are given as follows:

A. Overarching recommendations

1. ***Developing Central Database and Annual Report:*** It is widely acknowledged that the violence against children cannot be arrested until accurate statistics by its forms have not been identified and systematically documented. Therefore, a central database should be developed by the government of Pakistan to monitor violence against children as well as to assess its prevalence and magnitude. Based on the findings, an annual report should be generated recommending viable strategies for the prevention of violence against children in the country.
2. ***Creating awareness for non-violent treatment and training of children:*** There are stereotypes and false notions that some sort of violence is necessary for proper grooming and training of children. Such beliefs are dangerous, as violence has been found to be unnecessary, damaging, and counterproductive. Through media and other public opinion forums, awareness needs to be created that no positive or constructive objectives could be achieved through violence. Society must not tolerate violence against children and their human rights must be respected at all cost and in all circumstances.
3. ***Screening at Healthcare outlets to improve reporting and surveillance system:*** Sooner or later, victims of violence contact health care system for medical treatment and this contact could be used as an important resource for identification and screening of victims. Primary healthcare outlets need to have mandatory screening system for targeting the relevant cases. More specifically, community health centers as well as private pediatric practitioners may

make screening as part of their standard protocol during child-patient visits. These outlets can also coordinate with other specialized services to provide intensive approaches to address problems with parenting and schooling.

4. *Sensitization about gender dimension in violence against children:*

Not all children have the same risk and vulnerability of violence and abuse. This study has documented that girls, especially from the low socioeconomic background, are at high risk of violence. So the violence preventive strategies must include the gender perspective and address the gender discriminatory practices such as low school enrollment of girls, and their neglect with respect to nutrition, love and care. Application of strict discipline for girls undermines their freedom of expression, lowers their confidence, and has negative implications for their personality development. Such sensitivities need to be addressed

5. *Future research directions:*

Every society has its own logic to justify and conceal violence against children. Such irrationalities and institutional mechanism must be scientifically studied. It is suggested that anthropological and ethnographic research should be conducted to understand the situation specific justifications of violence and the underlying knowledge system, which endorses and tolerates violence against children. Additionally, a systematic longitudinal research needs to be conducted to highlight the association of long-term cognitive and developmental damages done to a child as a consequence of exposure to violence.

6. *Breaking the intergenerational cycle of violence:* Widespread child violence has disastrous consequences for social stability and political tranquility. Policy makers and political leaders need to be convinced that preventive and mitigating child violence is not only necessary to save children but also reduce the spillover effects of violence. Studies have demonstrated that children victims of violence commit violence in their adult life and also reinforce the culture of violence. In essence, it needs to be understood that overall societal violence cannot be controlled without breaking the intergenerational cycle of violence.

7. *Accountability and punishment:* Perpetrators of child violence must face some social and judicial sanctions. For this, judicial and criminal justice system need to be sensitized and

strengthened to give some penalty to the perpetrators and holding them accountable through different criminal, civil, administrative and professional measures.

8. ***Reforming legal and punitive systems:*** Though Pakistan is a signatory to a number of child rights conventions/treaties, and also has upright legislative documents, yet there is lack of implementation mechanism of reporting in the country. Moreover, the acceptance of some forms of violence in name of ‘disciplining’ the children hinders the victims and their parents to report violence. Such a socio-cultural milieu inhibits the violence reporting, deprives the children of the dispensation of justice, and denies them of the rehabilitative services. For the protection of the victims legal experts may be asked to suggest the addition of some clauses in the constitution of Pakistan enshrining the protection of children from violence.
9. ***Police and District Administration:*** The police and district administration need to crack down on parallel legal systems in all parts of the country to ensure that children are not exploited and targeted through criminal traditional practices. The Federal and Provincial Governments should collaborate with international organizations to build the capacity of law enforcement agencies for purposes of dealing with the different forms of child violence. The police and district administration should also be linked with child-welfare centers and hospitals for the provision of legal as well as social support to children.
10. ***Implementing national and international commitments to ensure child rights:*** State of Pakistan is signatory to various covenants and conventions specifically for the rights of children and generally for human rights. Constitution of Pakistan and country laws also enshrines violence and abuse free childhood. Nevertheless, many of the constitutional provisions and laws are yet to be implemented. It is important that government machinery, civil society organizations and international actors work synergistically to implement national and international legal commitments to ensure dignified and non-violent developmental opportunities for children.
11. ***Using of Media and Media Regulation:*** Social media and mass media must be used to promote awareness of what constitutes violence against children and the prevalence of this abuse in society. Media can be used to gradually change social norms that approve of corporal punishment and verbal abuse against children. Media awareness, through TV-shows and social network sites, can help unite community members to condemn

perpetrators and uphold the cause of protection for children. The PEMRA and state social media regulating authorities may be provided with guidelines to ban inappropriate content telecast through electronic and print media. Additionally, electronic and print media can be used to raise awareness about violence against children and the significance of upholding the rights of children.

B. Home and Family Setting

12. ***Establishing Parent-Child Counseling Centers:*** Parent-child counseling centers should be opened across communities, where parents can be made aware of child protection, avoidance of neglect, and safety against common injuries of children. Such centers can also help community collaboration for child watching and day care, which would facilitate working parents. Awareness for child nutrition and health can also be taught through such programs and centers. The center should provide the counseling to the children who witnessed or experienced violence.
13. ***Harnessing community resources to prevent violence at home and family:*** Community social capital needs to be mobilized to identify, prevent, and rescue the children from violence occurrences. For example, Lady Health Workers (LHWs), community influential, religious leaders, local media persons, and civil society activists may act as watchdog to prevent violence in all forms.
14. ***Developing gender-sensitive parent education program:*** Usually girls are overburdened with household tasks whereby they have less time for constructive and educational activities. It is important that parents should be educated about the consequences of such discriminatory practices against girls. They may be trained in using constructive, positive and non-violent practices to discipline children, particularly girls.
15. ***Initiating targeted programs for high risk families:*** Children living in extended families, headed by addicts or criminal parents or living below the poverty line and the disabled children are at high risk for violence. For such families, targeted and need-based programs should be initiated that can help in reducing and preventing violence against children.

C. School and Educational Institution Settings

16. *Monitoring of schools and their accountability:* There needs to be third-party or central monitoring of violence, specifically the prevalent corporal punishments across public and private schools in Pakistan. The programs ‘Maar Nahy Piyaar’ though helped to reduce little violence from the school which is evident in this study, yet there is need to strengthen this program by proper follow-up and monitoring of the schools. Moreover, proper mechanism of reporting should be introduced in schools and the children should be encouraged to report any form of violence experienced by them.

17. *Including of child rights in school curriculum:* The education syllabus across the country needs to include the issue of creating awareness of children about (i) what are the child right? (ii) What constitutes the violation of child rights? (iii) How to fight for one’s rights? (iv) What constitutes violence? (v) Whom the child should go to for help or to report incident? (vi) How the children can protect themselves when they are alone to avoid incidents of violence? Inclusion of such topics in the curriculum is also expected to encourage communities and parents to talk openly about violence and protection with their children.

18. Encouraging schools to adopt and implement codes of conduct

The administration of the school should be encouraged to adopt some code of conduct or to strengthen the existing codes of conduct to prevent violence and crime in schools. The codes of conduct should be developed in cooperation with: the department of education, local law enforcement agencies, juvenile and domestic relations court judges and personnel, parents, and the community-at-large. The benefit of taking different stakeholders on board will facilitate the process of implementation of those codes. The parents and students should be informed about the code of conduct and be trained to follow.

19. Encouraging schools to adopt non-violent learning and teaching strategies

Physical and psychological punishment in school is often used as a ‘disciplinary’ tool. Most of the teachers often argue that minor punishment is for the ‘goodness of the students as most of the students learn their lesson due to having fear of teacher in mind.’ However, there are a number of ways to discipline children and to motivate them to learn. For

instance, the approach of student-centered learning can facilitate to promote a culture of learning as in this model of learning the students can influence the content, activities, materials, and pace of learning. Whereas, the approach ‘teacher-centered learning,’ which is widely used in Pakistan, enhances the power of the teacher to influence the content which student may find difficult to learn and absorb. Moreover, there is need to sensitize teachers to use the non-violent learning and teaching strategies by sharing some success stories with them.

D. Workplace Setting

19. Banning worst form of child labor

It is difficult to assess the worst form of child labor around the globe including Pakistan. However, the labor which undermines the social and physical well-being as well as keeps children away from education is considered a worst form of child labor. This study reported ‘domestic labor’ as worst form of child labor which is aligned with previously conducted researchers in different countries around the globe (Dalal, 2008, Black, 2005). Nevertheless, there is need to explore ‘worst form’ of child labor in Pakistan. After assessing the worst form of child labor, it should be banned. However, as already observed in many countries around the globe that the efforts of taking children out of the workplace need to be accompanied by measures which eliminate the economic and social reasons for them to work or earn, or otherwise their removal will be short-lived (Pineiro, 2006).

20. Promoting and protecting child rights at workplace through Legislation and implementation

Pakistan is a developing country with almost 40-45 percentage of people living below poverty line, thus, work is a survival strategy for many children and their families. Therefore, it is difficult to ban child labor in Pakistan. Nonetheless, there is need to promote and protect child rights at workplace. It could be done through proper implementation of legislations. For instance, long working hours were reported as risk factor for violence, thus a legislation regarding maximum number of working hours with proper monitoring mechanism can protect children against violence. Moreover, there should be child-welfare centers in all districts and a ‘grievances box’ placed at the wall of every office. Thus,

children can report violence against them without following any formal procedure and can report anonymously.

21. *Raising awareness and training of employers and adult co-workers for making workplace as a non-violent and safe space*

This is an acceptable reality that mere legislations cannot protect the children from violence and child labor. Therefore, there is need to raise awareness about the repercussions of violence against children and also the benefits of protecting the rights of children. The co-workers and employers all should be trained and encouraged to work in a non-violent work environment.

22. *Non-formal school system or working with education strategy*

The non-formal school system should be promoted, so that the children who do not want to lose their jobs can attain education. The employer and parents should be obliged through some proper legislation to not only allow children to continue work with education but also facilitate them by giving some time to learn their lessons and to do their homework. The non-formal school system can facilitate a child to adjust their school timings according to their working hours.

E. Community Setting

23. *Community programs with religious leaders*

The role of religious leaders in raising awareness about the permissibility and consequences of violence against children is important, especially for a society like Pakistan. Religious leaders can play a major role in reforming cultural beliefs concerning corporal punishment and also helping in raising awareness of the religious preference for educating children.

24. *Rehabilitation Centers for child victims*

Rehabilitation centers should be set up for children who either experienced or witnessed violence. These rehabilitation centers must have trained child welfare members/agents who help child victims to return to a normal and safe life, through: (i) training them for protection, (ii) counseling of the children (iii) counseling the perpetrators, and (iv) moving the child to a safe place, which is essential, otherwise the children will continue to be in danger of victimization.

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Annex 1

Table 1: A summary of the literature review of academic articles about violence against children in Pakistan

Article Title, Author and Year	Study Design	Salient Findings
Violence against Children: A Challenge for Public Health in Pakistan; A. A. Hyder and F. A. Malik (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Literature review from PubMed Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Annual incidence of violence ranged from 1.57 to 3.18 per 100,000 Categories of violence included abduction, rape, physical abuse, and murder against both boys and girls. Conclusion: Grave public health consequences of violence
Deteriorating situation for street children in Pakistan: a consequence of war; S. Khan and T. Hesketh (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Afghan migrants in Pakistan Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Of the 1.5 million Afghan refugees in Pakistan, 60% are children under the 18 years of age Refugee children are more vulnerable to violence Conclusion: Refugee camps and conflict regions make all children (non-refugees and refugees) vulnerable to all forms of violence
Children needing protection: experience from South Asia; D. G. Harendra de Silva (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Children in South Asia Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> The main determinants of child labor were discussed including: neglect, child labor, living on the streets, child conscription and armed conflict Sexual abuse against attractive and beardless boys was common especially in NWFP and amongst Afghans. Conclusion: Considerable adults considered violence against children to be a cultural norm and a symbol of power and status
Psycho trauma in children exposed to the war atrocities; U. Niaz (2015)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Children living in conflict zones within Pakistan Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Children in conflict regions are more prone to committing violence They are also at higher risk of becoming victims of violence including verbal, physical and sexual abuse and psychological trauma Conclusion: Children need to be protected by removing them from conflict zones. In the short-run mental health professionals and protection units need to support children's safety and stability in such areas.
Recognizing Gender-Based Violence Against Civilian Men and Boys in Conflict Situations; R. C. Carpenter (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Children living in conflict zones within Pakistan Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Adolescent boys are at risk of: sexual violence, forced conscription, and sex-selective massacre Adolescent girls are at risk of sexual violence, domestic exploitation and neglect and having to shoulder the responsibilities of absent men due to war and conflict Conclusion: There is need for culturally appropriate medical assistance and psychosocial support in conflict-ridden zones, taking into account gender differences.
Demonizing the "Other:" Fundamentalist Pakistani Madrasahs and the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Children studying in madrasahs Source: Secondary data 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Madrasah students suffer from holistic educational deprivation and knowledge compartmentalization

Construction of Religious Violence; C. Lys (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> The also suffer from psychological, physical and sexual abuse Conclusion: Policy reforms are needed to regulate and monitor madrasah education in terms of curriculum content and safety of students.
Protecting Pakistan's children; Solberg (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Children across all of Pakistan Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Children commonly face corporal punishment in schools and madrasahs Children commonly face physical and emotional neglect, and occasionally sexual abuse within their homes and at the workplace. They are at risk of becoming victims of trafficking Conclusion: No reliable statistics exist in the country confirming magnitude and determinants of child violence. The Child Protection Unit at the Children's Hospital Lahore is a small step in the right direction.
How the Taliban undermined community healthcare in Swat, Pakistan; I.U. Din et al. (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setting: Swat Respondents: LHW's, LHW supervisors and managers Sample: 30 in-depth interviews Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> The children of LHW's are being threatened by the Taliban of being kidnapped and killed Children in the community are prevented from being given polio vaccination. Consequently, there were cases of resultant polio and paralysis in children. Conclusion: the health needs of children are being compromised due to lack of awareness in parents. The job profile of parents places children at higher risk for violence.
Attitudes of Pakistani men to domestic violence: a study from Karachi, Pakistan; F. F. Fikree et al. (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setting: Karachi Respondents: Men above 18 years, from 3 different socio-economic groups, who were married for at least 1 year Sample: 176 interviews were held Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 55% of men had been beaten themselves when they were a child 65% of men had witnessed their mothers being beaten by their fathers Conclusion: The determinants of violence against wife included
Child Protection in Disaster Management in South Asia: A Case Study of Pakistan; Z. Javaid et al. (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area of study: Children across all of Pakistan Source: Secondary data Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Natural disasters, conflicts and accidents are not well managed in the region Children suffer the most due to inadequate disaster management in the form of: abuse, neglect, violence, injury and death Conclusion: Public and private organizations working for disaster risk reduction have to place child protection in the fore-front when planning policies and implementing programmes.
Frequent factors for women and children subjected to sexual assaults presenting at Jinnah PostGraduate or Above Medical center, Karachi; M. Khan et al. (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setting: Karachi Respondents: Medico-legal reports were studied for the period between January 2007 to June 2010 Sample: 180 women and girls Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> The minimum age of sexual assault victim was 5 years Morbidity occurred in 3 children Conclusion: Sexual violence against females is critically under reported because of social taboos and false prestige.

<p>Childhood Injuries in Pakistan: Results from Two Communities; S. Lasi et al. (2010)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Tandojam district in Sindh Mastung district in Balochistan • Respondents: 2,865 children aged 1-8 years enrolled in the ECD programme with the AKU-HDP • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The incidence rate of non-fatal injuries that required care outside home for children was 19.7 injuries per 100 child. The most common non-fatal injuries were falls, burns and scalds, and road traffic injuries. 2. Boys (60%) were at a higher risk of injuries compared to girls (40%) 3. Conclusion: The data revealed that 61% of injuries to children took place inside the home, mainly due to parent or guardian neglect.
<p>Circumstances leading to intimate partner violence against women married as children: a qualitative study in Urban Slums of Lahore, Pakistan; M. Nasrullah et al. (2015)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Lahore slums • Respondents: 19 women of reproductive age (15–49 years) who were married prior to 18 years • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Women married as children had experienced verbal, physical and sexual abuse from their husbands. 2. Reasons for abuse included problems with in-laws, poor house and child management, bringing insufficient dowry, and financial problems. 3. Conclusion: Women married as children are more vulnerable to intimate partner violence.
<p>Injuries among children in Karachi, Pakistan- what, where and how; J.A. Razzak et al (2004)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Karachi • Respondents: A retrospective study of injured children (≤ 15 years) transported by Edhi Ambulance Service (EAS). 1,320 injured children assessed over a 26 month study period • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mostly boys were injured and 1 in 6 children were found to die due to injuries 2. The major causes of injuries included: motor vehicle crash 80%, falls other than from vehicles 5%, burns 5%, drowning 3% 3. Conclusion: Prevention efforts aimed at stricter enforcement of driving laws, and family-child education for pedestrian safety would reduce morbidity and mortality in children.
<p>Street Life and Drug Risk Behaviors Associated with Exchanging Sex Among Male Street Children in Lahore, Pakistan; V. L. Towe, et al (2009)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Lahore • Respondents: 565 child registrants (5–19 years) of Project Smile • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The study found that 40% of participants had exchanged sex in the last 3 months 2. Factors associates with sexual violence against child included: (i) living on the street for more than 48 months, and (ii) taking drugs. 3. Conclusion: There are an estimated 5-7,000 street children in the country, who are exposed to sexual violence and drug addiction.
<p>Understanding unintentional childhood home injuries: pilot surveillance data from Karachi, Pakistan; N. Zia et al (2012)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Karachi • Respondents: Secondary data from a childhood unintentional injury surveillance database setup in AKH, over 3 months, was used • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A total of 566 injured had occurred, of which 72% had taken place at or around the home 2. Injuries commonly occurred due to: play (51%), falls (59%), dog bites (11%) and burns (9%) 3. Conclusion: Injuries to child, within homes, can be avoided through increase in parental and guardian awareness.
<p>Abuse among school going adolescents in three major cities of Pakistan: is it associated with school performances and mood disorders?; S. Khawaja et al. (2015)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Karachi, Lahore and Quetta • Respondents: 414 adolescent girls and boys at 6 schools • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It was found that, in the last 12 months that: (i) 33.7% children were physically abused, (ii) 57% children were verbally abused, (iii) 59.2% children were involved in physical fights, and (iv) 41.4% children had suffered bullying. 2. It was also found that violence against children was associated with: (i) poor school performances and (ii) psychological stress

		3. Conclusion: Various types of abuse were prevalent in children attending school and abuse was significantly associated with poor school performance and poor mental health.
Child Marriage and Its Associations With Controlling Behaviors and Spousal Violence Against Adolescent and Young Women in Pakistan; M. Nasrulla et al. (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Pakistan • Respondents: Secondary data analysis from the Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey, 2012–2013 was used. Women aged 15–24 years were sampled • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Overall, 47.8% of currently married women had been married before the age of 18 years 2. About 33.3% of them reported experiencing controlling behaviors (31.8%) and spousal violence (31.1%) by their husbands 3. Conclusion: Child marriages make girls more vulnerable to different forms of violence at the hands of their husbands.
Incidence and causes of maxillofacial skeletal injuries at the Mayo Hospital in Lahore, Pakistan; S.A. Cheema and F. Amin (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Lahore • Respondents: 702 patients with facial skeletal injuries were studied between January 2001 and December 2002 • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Children between the age of 2-14 years, were at high risk from falling from a height (15% of study population) 2. Home injuries in children are common due to parental or guardian neglect. 3. Conclusion: Injuries in children can be avoided by raising awareness in parents and children about risk behavior within homes.
Determinants of Child Abuse in Pakistani Families: Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Demographic Variable; F. Malik (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: 5 major cities of Punjab • Respondents: 200 children (100 boys and 100 girls) was drawn from 10 schools (5 private & 5 public) form; ages ranged from 8 to 12 year • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The results indicated that in comparison to mildly abused children, severely abused children perceived their parents as more rejecting 2. It was also found that mother's education and family size were significant determinants of child abuse as compared to the socio-economic status 3. Conclusion: Family related education should be incorporated as an important part of the educational curriculum in order to develop caring attitudes and behaviors of parents for their children.
Street Children: A Great Loss to Human Resource Development in Pakistan; Rana and Chuadhry (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Rawalpindi • Respondents: 84 street children were interviewed and observed • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It was found that children turned to the streets due to poverty, to beg on the streets, and to escape from a hostile domestic life 2. Children were also found on the streets because they were unable to rent or purchase living accommodation 3. Conclusion: Street children were more vulnerable to the different forms of violence present in the environment, neighborhood and community.
The Impact of Public School Enrolment on Child Labor in Punjab, Pakistan; H. Ahmed (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Punjab • Respondents: Secondary data analysis from the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey for 2007-08, the sample included 1,992 children between 5-14 years • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It was found that child labor is higher amongst poor and large sized families 2. Poor families gain money from child labor, whereas they lose money if they send their children to school. 3. Conclusion: Mandatory and free public school enrollment could reduce child labor. Auxiliary costs of poor families must be made free, example the provision of free text books and uniforms.

<p>Gender and Violence: A Rising Issue; A.Saghir et al (2011)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Faisalabad • Respondents: 150 married women were interviewed • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It was found that girls in the community were at higher risk for child marriages, honor killing and child kidnapping 2. Girls also were more at risk of physical, verbal and psychological violence. Girls also faced social and mobility restrictions which contributed to their lack of opportunities in education and employment. 3. Conclusion: Gender-based violence against girls had various forms and was a detriment to gender equality.
<p>Another Real Fact about Child Labor: A Comparative Study between Districts of Two Provinces of Pakistan; Malik et al (2006)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Sukkur and Multan • Respondents: A total of 150 households were interviewed from Sukkur and 200 from Multan • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The main determinants of child labor included: job uncertainty of parents, household income, parental education and large family size 2. Parents with unreliable jobs and incomes, encourage their children to work. 3. Conclusion: Employment opportunities and formal sector employment for the poor is needed to reduce child labor.
<p>Child Protection Data: an analysis of Newspapers Coverage of child protection issues in Pakistan; T. Jabeen (2004)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Pakistan • Respondents: Content analysis of newspaper coverage of child protection issues in the last 20 years • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Newspaper convey significant rates of violence against children due to individual structural and institutional factors 2. Media influences the perception of civil society concerning child rights and protection 3. Conclusion: Systematic data collection and policy improvements for child protection are needed by central authority.
<p>Help to Helpers: A Quantitative Study on Child Labor in Pakistan and its Dynamic Solutions; M. Kashif and M. Hussain (2013)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Pakistan • Respondents: 439 Pakistani nationals were surveyed through stratified random sampling from different cities of Pakistan (15 responses were from Denmark and 26 from the UK) • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Majority respondents agreed that: (i) child labor is a major problem in the country, and (ii) child labor is unethical 2. The determinants of child labor were agreed to include: poverty, weak economy, civic negligence, parental neglect, unemployment, and low living standards 3. Conclusion: Pakistani population feels the government must play a prominent role in the eradication of child labor.
<p>The Determinants of Child Labor- A case study of Pakpattan and Faisalabad; R.E.A. Khan (2003)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Pakpattan and Faisalabad • Respondents A total of 1,000 households from each city were sampled, with at least 1 child between the age of 5-15 years • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The main determinants of child labor include: poverty, low-income household, conflict in family, lesser health & nutrition, and parental socio-demographics 2. Children are more at risk of violence if they are working, if their mother is not involved in decision-making, if the household is female headed and if there are deficiencies in schooling 3. Conclusion: Violence against children is a complex problem requiring major reform at multiple social and structural levels.
<p>Social Class and Its Impact on Maternal Awareness of Child</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Islamabad 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Awareness of sexual violence is present due to media

Sexual Abuse in Pakistan; N.R. Khan 2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents: 62 women from both the upper and lower socio-economic strata • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. However women from lower socio-economic strata are unable to communicate to their children about the threats of sexual violence due to time constraints and cultural taboos about talking about the subject 3. Conclusion: the role of media is instrumental in raising awareness for child violence.
A qualitative exploration of Pakistan's street children, as a consequence of the poverty-disease cycle; M.A. Abdullah et al. (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Rawalpindi • Respondents: 19 street children • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Children are forced to become street children due to health-related problems, poverty and large family sizes 2. Children on the streets are at high-risk of sexual violence and substance abuse. 3. Conclusion: Street children face social exclusion, limited opportunities and confined social roles for the future.
Cultural barriers to the disclosure of child sexual abuse in Asian communities: listening to what women say; P. Gilligan and S. Akhtar (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Bradford, UK • Respondents: 12 group discussions with Pakistani nationals • Nature of Data: Qualitative <p>in Bradford District, during winter/spring 2003-2004</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cultural norms make sexual abuse a taboo subject. 2. Parents are unable to make their children aware about what constitutes violence and how to protect themselves. 3. Conclusion: There needs to be increased awareness and support for disclosure to prevent sexual abuse in Asian communities
How Does Socio-Economic Factors Force Children into Child Labor? A case study of Sahiwal district, Punjab, Pakistan; S.M.A Kazmi (2015)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Sahiwal • Respondents: The Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey (MICS), 2007-08 dataset was used. The sample consisted of 876 children, of which 42% were involved in child labor • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Child labor and risk of violence against child are significantly correlated with: poverty, parents' literacy and occupation, lack of access to household resources 2. Children are unable to remain in school due to high costs and inaccessibility. Working conditions for children are hazardous. 3. Conclusion: Children are forced into labor due to socio-economic factors and structural failures.
Pattern of substance abuse in multi ethnic groups in different localities of Karachi; S. Baig et al. (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Karachi • Respondents: 125 members of a squatter settlement near Ziauddin University • Nature of Data: Quantitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Children are exposed to drugs and are at high risk for substance abuse in impoverished and unregulated areas 2. Peer pressure was mainly responsible for substance abuse. 3. Conclusion: Prevalence of drug abuse amongst children has to be ascertained and policies need to be designed to prevent sale and distribution. Awareness needs to be raised about the harmful effects of drugs.
Situation analysis of child labor in Karachi, Pakistan: a qualitative study; Nafees et al. (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Karachi • Respondents: 10 interviews with stakeholders and 14 FGD's with children • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Child labor determinants include poverty and violent behavior of the parents 2. Working children face more violence if they are drug addicts and if they belong to a violent gang 3. Conclusion: Measurement and magnitude of child violence and child labor are needed for

		the country, before appropriate policies can be recommended.
Wealth: Crucial but Not Sufficient Evidence from Pakistan on Economic Growth, Child Labor, and Schooling; X.Hou (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: Pakistan • Respondents: Working paper using secondary data from Pakistan Integrated Household Survey for the years 1998-1999, 2001-2002, and 2005-2006 • Nature of Data: Qualitative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Children from lower income families are more at risk of being sent to work and having to face more violence 2. Despite wealth status, girls are pulled out of school to work at home and face more risks to domestic violence 3. Conclusion: School enrollment and attendance must be made compulsory across the country to both protect the children of the nation and secure economic development.
Trend in reported cases of child sexual abuse: Five years analysis 2007-2011; Published by Sahil organization; Edited by: Manizeh Bano	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: All provinces of Pakistan 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A total 10,726 children were sexually victimized from year 2007 to 2011. Of which, 2,321 children suffered from sexual abuse in the year 2007 alone. 2. An increase in cases was observed from 2008 to 2011- 2,010 cases were reported in year 2009, 2,252 cases in year 2010, and 2,303 cases in year 2011. 3. Out of 10,726 sexual abuse cases, 7,570 were girls (71%) and 3,156 boys (29%).
Cruel Numbers 2012: Stop child abuse, A complication of statistics on child sexual abuse of reported cases in Pakistan Published by Sahil organization; 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: All provinces of Pakistan 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Total 2,788 cases of child sexual abuse were reported in 2012 by Sahil. 2. This figure shows a phenomenal increase of 17% cases from the previous year of 2011.
Cruel Numbers 2014: Stop child abuse, A complication of statistics on child sexual abuse of reported cases in Pakistan Published by Sahil organization; 2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: All provinces of Pakistan 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The report presented comparison of child sexual abuse cases that were 3,002 in 2013, and 3,508 in 2014. 2. There was a 17% increase in reporting from 2013 to 2014.
Violence against children Published by SPARCPK; 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: All provinces of Pakistan 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The report shed light on prevalence of violence against children in 2012 across Pakistan. 2. It also presented different forms of violence. The report included discussion on different ways of perpetrating violence such as acid attacks, child trafficking, kidnapping, and violence in armed conflict area. 3. It also discussed different traditional practices which lead to violence such as child marriage, honor killing, and marriage with the holy Quran.
Violence against children Published by SPARCPK; 2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting: All provinces of Pakistan 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This report provided magnitude of violence against children in 2014 across Pakistan. 2. It also presented different forms of violence and discussed different traditional practices which lead to violence such as child marriage, honor killing, and marriage with the holy Quran.

Annex 2: Survey Questionnaire



INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL & CULTURAL STUDIES

University of the Punjab Prevailing Situation of Violence against Children in Pakistan

Survey Questionnaire

The objective of this study is to examine magnitude and determinants of violence against children between 5-12 years of age in Pakistan. You have been selected to give an interview. We would also like to interview other children of your school/locality.

Ethical considerations

At the time of interviewing, whatever information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will not be shown to other persons. But if you like, you can discuss about this with your parents. Participation in this survey is voluntary and you can choose not to answer any individual question or all of the questions. However, we hope that you will participate in this survey since your views are important. May I begin the interview now?

Consent of the Respondent:

RESPONDENT AGREES TO BE INTERVIEWED1

RESPONDENT DOES NOT AGREE TO BE INTERVIEWED.....2

Demographic Profile Of Respondents			
1.District : _____		3. School:	
2.Province: _____		a) Boys	
		b) Girls	
4.Age: _____		5.Gender:	
		a) Male (b) Female	
6. Enrolled In School		7.Type Of Family	
A) Not At All		a) Joint	
B) Currently In School		b) Nuclear	
Class: _____		c) Other	
C) School Drop Out			
Class: _____			
8. Head Of The Family:		9. Age Of Parents:	
Father		a) Father _____	
Mother		b) Mother _____	
Other			
10.Education Of Father	11.Education Of Mother	12.Employment Status Of Father	13.Employment Status Of Mother
a) No Formal Schooling	a) No Formal Schooling	a) Unemployed	a) Housewife
b) 0-10	b) 0-10	b) Unskilled Job	b) Unskilled Job
c) 11-12	c) 11-12	c) Skilled Job	c) Skilled Job
d) >12	d) >12	d) Managerial/Professional Job	d) Managerial/Professional Job
14. Family Income (PKR)	15. Drug Addiction In	16. Type of Drug	17. Self-Taking of Drugs
a) >15000	a) Father Yes/No	a) Smoking	a) Yes
b) 15000-25000	b) Mother Yes/No	b) Drinking	b) No
c) 25000-35000	c) Siblings Yes/No	c) Heroine	
		d) Any other	

d) < 35000			
18 .No. of Siblings Including Yourself:	19. Your birth orders among siblings	20. Your Occupation (If Any)	21. No. of Working hours
22. Interpersonal violence between parents a) Yes b) No		23. Parental History of Violence experience during childhood a) Yes b) No	
24. Living currently a) Parents b) Guardian c) Employee d) other e.g. (street children)			

SECTION II

Now I would like to ask you about certain experiences of violence because children face many types of violence like psychological, sexual and physical assault in their childhood. If you have experienced any of the following conditions during your life or in the past year. Please share.

Response Categories for Frequency of Abuse:

0= Never

1=Sometime

2=Often

Sr.	Questions	Frequency of Abuse and Perpetrator														
		Father			Mother			Teacher			Employer			*Other		
<i>(i) Psychological Violence</i>		0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
1.	<i>How frequently has someone done the following:</i> Shouted, yelled, or screamed at you															
2.	Called you dumb, lazy, mentally retarded or other bad name like that															
3.	Said would send you away or kick you out of the house															
4.	Threatened to spank or hit you but did not actually do it															
5.	Locking you in a room alone whole day as a form of discipline/isolate you															
6.	Took away your privileges or grounded you															
<i>(ii) Child Neglect</i> <i>How frequently has parents/guardians done the following:</i>																
7.	Allowed you to wander streets without adult supervision															
8.	Threatened you to marry someone															
9.	Provided you inadequate food (necessary for normal physiological development)															
10	Allowing you to sleep overnight alone without adult supervision															
11	Depriving you of food as a form of discipline															

Annex 3: FGD Guide



INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL & CULTURAL STUDIES
 University of the Punjab
Prevailing Situation of Violence against Children in Pakistan

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Guide

Consent Process

Below is a summary of the information could be used for focus group organizers and facilitators should use to make sure participants understand objective of the FGD.

Introduction:

1. Welcome Introduce yourself and the note-taker, and send the Sign-In Sheet with a few quick demographic questions (age, gender, cadre, and years at this facility) around to the group while you are introducing the focus group.

Review the following:

- Who we are and what we're trying to do
 - What will be done with this information
 - Why we asked you to participate
 - If you are a supervisor, we would like to excuse you at this time
2. Explanation of the process
 Ask the group if anyone has participated in a focus group before. Explain that focus groups are being used more and more often in violence against children.

Topics for the Discussion

1. What do you think about violence? Have you ever experienced any act of violence? (Probe: beating, slapping, threatening remarks etc.)
2. Did you observe violence being committed to your siblings, friends, and class fellows Even if you did not experience violence yourself? (probe: physical, psychological, sexual, etc.)
3. When and where do you think children experience more violence? (Probe: time of day, before, during after specific events, classroom, bathroom, store room etc.)
4. What are different forms of violence more likely to happen to boys?

5. What are different forms of violence more likely to happen to girls?

6. Which people are involved in perpetration of violence against children? (Probe: teachers, students, siblings, parents, neighbors etc.)

7. Why do you think parents/teachers use violence?

8. How do you think violence affects your life? Has it any bad effect? How

9. Is there any specific person, institute or group that you can report violence to?

10. Is there crime in your area and how is it related to your experience of violence?

11. Have you ever witnessed your parents being violent towards each other?

12. What do you suggest to reduce or prevent violence in your surroundings?

13. Which sources of media expose you to violence?

Annex 4: Picture Gallery

Picture Gallery Glimpse from the Field

Survey with Out-Of-School Children in Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan



Figure 63. Survey with Out-Of-School Girls, Slum Area Johar Town, Lahore, Punjab



Figure 64. Out-Of-School Girls, Slum Area Shahdara, Lahore, Punjab



Figure 65. Survey with Out-Of-School Boy In Restaurant On Wahadat Road, Lahore, Punjab



Figure 66. Survey with Out-Of-School Boys In Slum Area, Shahdara, Lahore, Punjab.

Focused Group Discussion with Out-Of-School Children in Lahore, Punjab



Figure 67 FGD with Out-Of-School Girls, Slum Area Johar Town, Lahore, Punjab



Figure 68 Girls Of Slum Area Johar Town, Lahore, Punjab



Figure 69 FGD with Out-of-school Boys of Slum Area, Johar Town, Lahore, Punjab



Figure 70 Out-of-school Boys of Slum Area, Johar Town, Lahore, Punjab.

Focused Group Discussion with In-School Children in Lahore, Punjab



Figure 71. FGD with In-School Boys in Govt. Boys High School Lahore



Figure 72. FGD with the Boys Of Govt. Boys High School Lahore



Figure 73. FGD with girls Of Govt. Girls High School in Lahore



Figure 74. Boys Of Govt. Boys High School Lahore

Survey and FGD with Out-Of-School Children in Kyber Puktunkhawa, Pakistan



Figure 75: Survey (interview schedule) with out-of- school children in Peshawar



Figure 76: Survey (interview schedule) with domestic worker girls in Peshawar



Figure 77: FGD with out-of- school boys in Peshawar



Figure 78: FGD with out-of- school girls in Peshawar

Survey with Out-Of-School Children in Kyber Puktunkhawa, Pakistan



Figure 79: Survey (interview schedule) with out-of-school boys in Swat



Figure 80: Survey (interview schedule) with out-of-school boy in Swat



Figure 81: Survey with out-of-school girls in Swat



Figure 82: Survey with out-of-school girls in Swat

Survey and FGD with Out-Of-School Children in Kyber Puktunkhawa, Pakistan



Figure 83: Interview conducted with school boys in Swat



Figure 84: FGD with in school girls in Swat



Figure 85: Interview with school boys in Peshawar



Figure 86: FGD with School boys in Peshawar