

# Critical Review of Past Literature of Militancy Impact on Educational Institutions in the World

Dr.Naushad Khan

Assistant Professor, Institute of Development Studies , The University of Agriculture Peshawar

Muhammad Adnan

Student of M.Sc (Hons) Rural Development, Alama Iqbal Open University Islamabad

## Abstract

The present study was carried out in Feb, 2018. The major objective of the study was to critically review the past literature of militancy impact on educational institution in the study area. Total 35 reviews were selected for the study. All past reviews were read 20 times and analyzed the militancy impact on educational institutions in the world. The result indicates that militancy has scratched the educational institutions and declined the number of students and teachers presence and attendance in the Schools, Colleges and Universities due to fear and terror. However terror creates anxiety and mental torture which affect the health in the long particular female students and teachers which badly influence the quality of education while adversely affects the economy and socio economic condition, particularly the developing countries of the world. The result further explains that poverty is the main cause of militancy in the world. So the results concludes that there is a militancy there will be more disturbance and low level development where high poverty, illiteracy and other social conflicts were the fate of that country. On the basis of findings the study recommend:- Compromise between militant and Government forces of the world; Tight security and honest staff selection in the military of the government for controlling the situation in time; All Madrasas supervision by government of the world. Sufficient funding provision for militancy control; infrastructures development by government for easy access to militant. Tourism spots, hilly area and hidden places check and balance in the country; Loan provision to whole community on free interest basis for investment in the area for poverty eradication; Marble industry development for generation of employment in hilly area for occupation provision for poverty suppression in the world and population Identity Card Registration etc.

**Keywords:-** Critical Review , Past literature, Militancy Impacts, Educational Institutions, World

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Militancy is the state of being militant. The word militant, which is both an adjective and a noun, usually is used to mean vigorously active, combative and aggressive, especially in support of a cause. The word came from the 15th Century Latin "militare" meaning "to serve as a soldier". However, the current meaning of militant does not have to; and in fact usually does not refer to a registered soldier; it can be anyone at all who subscribes, either in whole or in part, to the idea of using violence to achieve some larger objective, usually political or religious. The term militancy thus refers to a movement in which a group or groups of people are engaged in armed struggle an objective and thus hold an aggressive posture in support of an ideology or cause. The characteristics of militancy are aggressiveness and violence for promotion of their political or religious philosophy in the name of a movement. Militants often have an extreme solution for their goals and their movement includes the shared traits of employing force or violence directly, either in offense or in defense and justifying the use of force using the ideological rhetoric of their particular group. Militants may fill their ranks either by volunteering, enlistment or by conscription (Sanders et al. 1990).

### A. Militancy in Khyber Pukhthunkhwa

The Militancy was first initiated in Malakand Division by *Tehreek-e-Nifaze-Shariat-e-Mohammadi* (TNSM) led by Maulana Sufi Mohammad, a cleric from Dir Upper, who started his movement in 1989 for the promulgation of Islamic *shareia* in Malakand Division. This peaceful movement was largely supported by the local people, but the movement gradually converted into a militant organization especially after 9/11. With the passage of time, this Movement became part of the *larger Tehreeke Taaliban* Pakistan and formed part of the militancy of Malakand Division under auspices of Maulana Fazlullah. The militancy initially started in District Swat and soon spread to all nearby Districts such as Shangla, Dir (upper), Dir (Lower), Malakand and Buner (Aziz, 2010).

Outbreaks of militant violence have become an all too familiar reality in Pakistan, affecting the safety and well-being of people and states far beyond the country's borders. Its domestic strife ranks among the deadliest in the world, rivaling the devastating conflicts that have roiled Sudan and Iraq. The level of violence has a dramatic impact on the daily lives of Pakistanis, particularly those living in the most insecure parts of the country. Suicide bombings are a daily occurrence. According to the U.S.-based National Counterterrorism Center, there were 8,614 casualties in Pakistan in 2009 . Among these 1793 deaths and 4,248 injuries while there were 4,232 in

Afghanistan . Pakistan's tribal belt along its border with Afghanistan has witnessed the lion's share of the violence, with 1,322 of its 1,915 terrorist attacks in 2009 occurring in the Federally Administered Tribal Area (FATA) and Khyber-Pakhtoonkwha (formerly NWFP). Not only has the overall level of violence in Pakistan increased, but also militant groups have also multiplied and developed complex relationships with each other. Among the militant groups involved in the violence both within Pakistan and beyond its borders is Al Qaeda, which over the past decade has resurrected its capacity to strike the United States from a safe haven in the FATA. Despite losing a substantial portion of its core leadership in Pakistan to attacks and arrests, Al Qaeda retains the capability to orchestrate an attack in the U.S. beyond Al Qaeda, a large number of militant factions with wide-ranging capabilities and objectives also operate within the country and, increasingly, join ranks. Both Pakistan's Tehrik-e-Taliban, known as the TTP (referred to in this report as the Pakistani Taliban), which since 2004 have sought the withdrawal of the Pakistani military from the FATA through attacks on the Pakistani central government, and the Afghan Taliban, which use the FATA as a refuge to wage a major insurgency against the U.S.-led coalition in Afghanistan, have incubated in the tribal belt. Beyond the border areas, a number of militant groups, like Lashkar-e-Taiba, operate primarily in Kashmir and India, with the objective of influencing the rivalry between Pakistan and India, while others, including Lashkar-e-Jhangvi, are essentially sectarian Sunni groups primarily focused on attacking minority- Shia targets. Yet another set of paramilitary groups, like the Balochistan Liberation Army, have secessionist ambitions, and have sought autonomy from the federal government in Islamabad. (Winthrop et al. 2010)

The current wave of militancy in FATA and its implications on the stability of Pakistan, specifically the Khyber Pukhtunkhwa province, has attracted huge attention from the world forces. The wave of terror, which hit Pakhtunkhwa soon after 9/11, did not only affect the economy of the province, but also damaged its educational foundations. The province that used to be the land of hospitality has transformed into a sanctuary for militancy. Schools were blown up and students were threatened not to pursue education. This was the outcome of the Taliban's version of Islam that discouraged attainment of worldly education particularly for females.

The roots of the deteriorating state of education in Pakhtunkhwa can be traced back to 1980's when Zia regime laid the foundations of militancy in Pakistan by supporting the US war against Soviet expansion. Religious schools commonly known as madaris were transformed into Jihadi training institutes. Rural students seeking education in madaris were indoctrinated into guerilla fighters in the name of religion and war against the infidels (communists) as an outcome of the aid given by the then US administration. Think tanks in US, through the University of Nebraska (from 1984-1994), developed curriculum for madaris propagating militant Islam, contributed to the evolution of militancy in Pakistan. Even today, the madaris are perceived as a source of affordable education by the common rural man, who would provide their children with employment opportunities, but to the outer world, they are the breeding grounds for militancy.

The fear of terrorism in the province halted all recreational activities in educational institutes. Female students felt pressurized for using veils to avoid negative reactions from Taliban. Co-education institutes received constant threats of suicide attacks. The increasing security measures by educational institutions generated fears among students of the province. Furthermore, the attacks on electricity grid stations in 2009 led to increasing tensions among the students as preparations for exams were hampered to a great extent through prolonged power breakdowns. The current rise of militancy has spread a wave of panic among the students. Faizan Azeem Khan, a bachelor's student belonging to South Waziristan quotes: "We used to visit our village regularly before the onset of militancy in our region. Militancy has set us apart from our relatives and in current scenario I don't think I'll ever get a chance have a reunion with them in Waziristan. This situation has put a drastic effect on my education due to stress and anxiety". A major reason for increase in militancy can be linked to the lack of education in rural areas of the province, especially FATA. The current literacy situation in FATA portrays an alarming picture. According to a survey conducted by the Federal Bureau of Statistics, the literacy rate in FATA is 17% of the total population which consists of only 3% of female population. Another survey conducted by Community Appraisal and Motivation Program in FATA found that 45% of respondents believed that the lack of education gave rise to militancy in their region.

The government, to a large extent also holds responsibility for not taking solid measures to curb militancy through education. This is because the already low GDP spending on education of 2.5% (in 2006) has been cut down to 2% (in 2010) by the current government. Militancy, coupled with substantial cuts in the higher education spending has led to abandoning of various educational projects in KPK. The recent decision by the government devolving Higher Education Commission to provincial governments would dent the future education prospects of financially weak provinces.

Higher education projects planned for Hangu, North Waziristan and Bajaur had to be shelved due to concerns of reaction from militant organizations; as a result, hundreds of scholarships offered for FATA students were wasted. This was heartbreak for thousands of students for whom the universities of Peshawar were inaccessible. Recent educational setbacks in KPK as a consequence of militancy include destruction of 1698 schools, loss of infrastructure worth Rs 12 billion, kidnapping of Islamia College University Peshawar VC Ajmal

Khan and attacks on school transport resulting in deaths of 100 students (The News, 2010).

The staggering difference between public and private sector education standards leads to decreasing employment opportunities for the underprivileged class, generating a sense of frustration among the masses cashed in by militant organizations. Increasing frequency of suicide attacks add up to the misery of students who have to pursue their education amid growing fears of insecurity. Strong steps must be taken to eliminate foreign roots from madaris and mainstream education of Pakistan. In coming years, bringing reforms to the structure of madaris and implementing a uniform curriculum would be of utmost importance in order to nurture generations of enlightened youth equipped to face challenges ahead. ( Yousaf, 2011)

Militancy or terrorism is generally considered as a social disaster. Militancy in Pakistan had devastating impacts on Pakistan. The country-wide bomb blasts, suicide attacks, kidnapping, abductions, murders, armed conflicts reciprocated by military operations have almost paralyzed Pakistani society and economy, the overall infrastructure and livelihood strategy. The devastating socio-Economic impacts of Militancy were more severely felt in militancy affected Malakand Division. The displacement of almost 3 million people from Malakand Division was one of these impacts. Almost 50 percent residents of Malakand Division left their homes either due to the activities of militants or military operation, leaving everything behind at the mercy of militants and military ( Aziz, 2010).

The impacts of Militancy in District Swat have been very devastating. Almost every field of life has been affected. One of the hard hit sectors is the education sector. Thousands of Government Schools have been destroyed in the district. Moreover, the volatile law and order situation in the district led to the closure of the schools and thus especially the primary schools which pushed back primary education ratio, as thousands of school going children remained out of schools for a pretty long time (Control for Public Policy Research, 2009).

## **B. Militancy in Pakistan**

Militancy in Pakistan has been mainly due to sectarian issue and the Kashmir issue. Most of the militant groups had initially been formed either by Shia and Sunni community to counter each other or to take part in Kashmir Jihad, but with the passage of time, they joined hands with other groups and organizations with different objectives. Summary of militant Groups in Pakistan is as under:

**Sipah-e-Sahaba** - or the Army of Prophet Mohammad's companions - is a radical group from the majority Sunni sect of Islam. The group was founded by a Sunni cleric - Maulana Haq Nawaz Jhangvi in the early 1980s to block the influence of the Iranian Shia revolution in Pakistan. The next two decades saw an explosion of sectarian violence between Shia and Sunni extremist groups and the death of hundreds of people. Sipah-e-Sahaba wants Pakistan to be officially declared a Sunni Muslim state. It has strongholds in southern districts of the populous central province of Punjab and the volatile port city of Karachi. **Tehrik-e-Jafria**, or the Movement of Followers of Shia - was founded in 1979. Its creation coincided with the enforcement of controversial Islamic laws by the then military ruler of Pakistan, General Mohammad Zia-ul-Haq. The Islamic revolution in predominantly Shia Iran around the same time gave an added boost to the organization. Its leader, Allama Arif Hussain al-Hussaini, was a student of the leader of Iran's Islamic Revolution, Ayatollah Khomeini. **Tahreek-e-Nifaz-e-Shariat-e-Muhammadi** another group banned is the Tanzeem-e-Nifaz-e-Shariat-e-Mohammadi. This radical Sunni Muslim group was founded by Maulana Sufi Mohammad. He was a follower of Saudi Arabia's Wahhabi school of thought. The group has been engaged in violent agitation for the enforcement of Islamic laws in its stronghold of Malakhand in north-western Pakistan. In the late 1980s, then Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto ordered paramilitary forces to crush a revolt by the group. In October last year, Sufi Mohammad crossed into Afghanistan with thousands of his followers to help the Taliban fight US-led forces. But he returned soon after the collapse of the Taliban. He has since been under detention. **Lashkar-e-Taiba** Lashkar-e-Taiba (LeT) is a Punjab-based group which long focused on fighting Indian rule in Kashmir. It was founded in 1990 and began operations in Kashmir in 1993. It was blamed for the coordinated attacks on the Indian financial capital, Mumbai, in November in 2008 that killed 166 people. It was also blamed for the late 2001 Indian parliament attack along with another Punjab-based group and was banned in Pakistan in 2002. It has not been blamed for attacks inside Pakistan. But of all the groups operating out of Pakistan, it is seen as the one with the reach and ambition to strike targets in the West. It has been linked to the London suicide attacks of 2005 in which one of the bombers received training at its camp several years before, and suspected of providing some logistical support to would be "shoe-bomber" Richard Reid in 2001. **Lashkar-e-Jhangvi**, The Lashkar-e-Jhangvi was formed in 1996 by a faction that broke away from the Sipah-e-Sahaba after the assassination of Maulana Jhangvi. They accused the parent group of deviating from his ideals. Said to be even more radical than the Sipah-e-Sahaba, they were banned in 2002 and designated as a terrorist group by the US State Department in January 2003. The Lashkar-e-Jhangvi said it carried out one of the worst sectarian attacks in recent years, when more than 50 people were gunned down in Quetta in July 2003 when they were praying in front of a Shia mosque. The US believes it has close ties with Osama Bin Laden's al-Qaeda network. They are also blamed for involvement in the murder of US journalist Daniel Pearl in Karachi in 2002. **Tehrik-e-Taliban Pakistan**, TTP, or Taliban Movement of Pakistan,

is the main Pakistani militant alliance which operates from Pakistan's northwest. It has links with al Qaeda as well as the Punjabi groups and is suspected of being behind most bomb and suicide attacks across Pakistan. Led by Hakimullah Mehsud, a brutal militant commander, Pakistani Taliban insurgents are also fighting the Pakistan army in the northwest. TTP also claimed responsibility for being behind the botched New York bomb plot. **Jaish-e-Mohammad or Army of the Prophet Mohammad** is a major militant group with links to the Taliban and al Qaeda and based in Punjab. It was banned in Pakistan in 2002 after it was blamed for an attack on the Indian parliament in December 2001. The group initially focused its fighting on the Indian part of divided Kashmir, but forged links with al Qaeda and the Taliban and is suspected of involvement in high profile attacks, including the murder of U.S. journalist Daniel Pearl in 2002. A Pakistan security source said that its members had gone into hiding or have split into factions. He estimates its active ranks at about 5,000, with about 1,500-2,000 fighters (Jackson, 2009).

### C. Militancy in The World

**In world different militant groups were initiated in different era. Among these groups Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia** was established in 1964 and currently it constitutes approximately 12 thousand combatants with thousands of supporters from the rural areas. The obtained extortion money from multinational corporations and wealthier classes is invested for the betterment of poor peoples. **Liberation Tiger of Tamil Eelam**, deadliest terrorist group of Srilanka. It was founded by Velupillai Prabhakaran in May 1976, possessing a sophisticated military. However, it was defeated in May 2009 by Srilankan Military but it has a devilish record of assassinating high-profile Indian and Srilankan politicians. Banned by 32 countries across the world, this terrorist group was the main reason behind the Srilankan Civil War. **Kurdistan Workers Party** was established on November 27, 1978 in Turkey and since then it has been fighting for the sake of an independent Kurdish state. Face of an international terror, PKK's working region constitutes Turkey, Iran, Syria and Iraq and it is also enlisted by a number of counter-terrorism agencies as a deadly international organization. **Hezbollah**, backed up by Iran and Syria, this Lebanon based terrorist group has emerged from the Lebanese civil war of 1982 and is considered as the biggest foe of Israel and Sunni Arab countries. According to a report of Central Intelligence Agency, this organization covers the 41 percent of Lebanese population and is involved in multiple social activities. **Hamas**, Acronym for "Harakat Al-Muqawama Al-Islamia", HAMAS is a socio-political terrorist group of Palestine which was founded in 1987 due to an offshoot of the Muslim Brotherhood. This organization was established with the aim of Jihad and to release Palestine from Israeli subjugation. Known for its daredevil suicide bombers, this terrorist group is significantly supported by Hezbollah to assassinate Israeli civilians and defense officers. **Al-Qaeda**, the biggest "brand name" between all terrorist groups across the world! This extremist Islamic group was established in 1989 by Osama Bin Laden, the great grandfather of all terrorists and a mysterious figure dodging the worldwide intelligence agencies after the September 11 attacks. Notorious for its integrated network and powerful strategies, Al-Qaeda constitutes thousand of individuals who have accomplished proper military training (Paul, et al, 2007). **Armed Islamic Group of Algeria** was founded in July 1992 and became notorious in 1994, after hijacking the "Air France Flight 8969". Since then it has conducted a deadly crusade of killing innocent civilians, bombarding public places, kidnapping and raping in its area of operation. This terrorist group asserts the ideology that "political pluralism is equivalent to sedition". This creed was generated in 1992, after a controversial decision of Algeria's Military Government which blocked the political ways of a mainstream Islamic party, Islamic Salvation Front (Paul Wilkinson, 2007). **Taliban** derived from the word "students", Taliban is well known for beastly governing the Afghanistan from 1996 to 2001 and its deadly guerrilla war against the NATO including the governments of Pakistan and Afghanistan. This terrorist group was founded by Pashtun tribes with the significant support from some Islamic countries such as Arabs, Chechens, Uzbeks, Punjabis and Tajiks (Richard Jackson, Jeroen Gunning, Marie Breen Smyth, 2009). **Aden-Abyan Islamic Army** associated to the Islamic Jihad Movement, this Islamic militant group works with the motive to contend against the secularism in Arab countries, significantly in Yemen. This organization was spotlighted in December 1998, after kidnapping 16 foreign tourists in Abyan in which four of the hostages were killed in the rescue operation conducted by the Yemeni security force. **Jamaat Ansar al-Sunna was established** in September 2003, this Iraqi guerrilla force opposes the government led by Nouri al-Maliki as well as the forces of United States in Iraq. This terrorist group is grounded in central and northern Iraq and is said to be linked with several Islamic organizations operating in Iraq. However, intelligence agencies of the Iraqi interim government and United States linked this group to al-Qaeda but later it was revealed that there is a wild conflict between these two terrorist groups. Seeing to its importance the present study was carried out to critical review of past literature on militancy impact on educational institutions in the world.

### 1. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The Universe of the study was the world. Total 35 reviews were selected for the study and critically review in depth and analyzed the situation about the militancy impact on educational institutions in the world and draw

final conclusion about militancy impact on educational institution in the study area.

## **2. CRITICAL REVIEW OF PAST LITERATURE OF MILITANCY IMPACT ON EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION IN THE WORLD**

The military operation in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) caused nearly 2.3 million people to flee their homes in May 2009. With the military declaring victory in many areas of the region, the official return process began on July 13, 2009. Late last year, Save the Children conducted educational assessments in both Swat and Buner province found that there had been significant disruption to the educational system in the conflict affected districts of KPK, with the most marked effect being on the destruction of school infrastructure, with over four hundred sixteen schools being partially or fully damaged across the Malakand division. In order to improve children's access to schooling and the quality of education services in conflict affected areas of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. In Swat, the school infrastructure has been considerably damaged with seventeen nine (42%) schools requiring maintenance and repairing while new construction of classrooms and other facilities is needed in one hundred thirteen nine (74%) schools. There are no electricity connections in one hundred and nine (58%) schools while new boundary walls are required in sixty six (35%) schools. In Lower Dir, maintenance and repair work is required in one hundred and forty two (49%) schools while new construction of classrooms and other facilities is needed in two hundred forty six (85%) schools. There are no electricity connections in fifty four (19%) schools, while ceiling fans are required in one hundred thirty (45%) schools. One hundred twenty seven (44%) schools require urgent repairs on their boundary walls. Water and Sanitation sixty six (35%) existing toilets in schools of Swat require repair and rehabilitation while new toilets are required in one hundred and eleven (59%) schools. Water is unavailable in one hundred and fifteen (61%) schools of Swat and one hundred and thirty three (71%) schools do not have any hand washing facilities. Shockingly, there is no use of soap in one hundred and seventy one (91%) schools for hand washing and construction of new hand washing facilities is required in one hundred and twenty (64%) schools. In Lower Dir, one hundred and twenty seven (44%) of the existing toilets require repair and rehabilitation while new toilets are required in one hundred and forty one (49%) schools. Water is unavailable in one hundred and fifty six (54%) schools of Lower Dir and one hundred and seventy six (61%) schools do not have any hand washing facilities. There is no use of soap in two hundred and seventy four (95%) schools for hand washing and construction of new hand washing facilities is required in two hundred and twenty eight (79%) schools. Learning Environment in the one hundred and eighty eight schools of Swat, five thousand six hundred and fifty six items of school equipment such as office chairs, tables, white/black boards, water coolers, glass, buckets and dustbins were required, while six hundred and eight were found in unusable condition and three hundred and eight needed urgent repair. One lac six thousand four hundred and sixty two new stationery and related items such as students and teachers attendance registers, office files, teaching kits, supplementary reading material/library, syllabus books and notebooks are needed to fulfill the necessary requirements of schools. In the two hundred and eighty nine schools of Lower Dir, Ten thousand six hundred and forty six items of school equipment were required, while one thousand and ninety two were found in unusable condition and six hundred and eighty one needed urgent repairs. Two lacs ninety seven thousand five hundred and three new stationery and related items are also required to fulfill the necessary quantities in schools of Lower Dir. Parent Teacher Councils while assessment revealed that one hundred and eighty (96%) PTCs are present in schools of Swat and one hundred and eighteen (63%) are functional. Seventy (37%) PTCs were found non-functional and PTCs manual was unavailable in one hundred and five (56%) schools of Swat. Meanwhile, in Lower Dir, PTCs are present in two hundred and seventy four (95%) schools and eighty nine (31%) are functional while one hundred and ninety nine (69%) PTCs were found non-functional and PTCs manual was unavailable in one hundred and ninety three (67%) schools of Lower Dir. Teachers Training Results of the assessment in Swat showed that one hundred and twenty five (19%) teachers had never attended any training in their career and only two (1%) teachers had been trained on Child Rights and Mine Risk Awareness. Similarly, in Lower Dir, seventeenth (6%) teachers had never attended any training in their career and only two (1%) teachers had been trained on Child Rights and Mine Risk Awareness. The remaining teachers in both districts had not attended extensive training programs and were unaware of subjects such as child protection, alternative teaching methods and pedagogy. The main objectives of this assessment were to (i) determine the existing situation of access to and quality of education services in selected schools, (ii) identify the exact number of school-going and out-of-school children, (iii) identify repair / rehabilitation needs and missing facilities of schools, (iv) ascertain the existence and functionality of Parent Teacher Councils (PTCs) and, (v) recommend possible areas of intervention for Save the Children. The assessment used both primary and secondary data collection methods and looked at both quantitative and qualitative data. A variety of tools were used to collect the data; these included detailed questionnaires for school teachers, members of CBOs, PTCs and village elders. Structured meetings also took place with the Executive District Officer (EDO) Education of Swat and Lower Dir as well as other government officials. For many years, Swat has remained a peaceful region and a popular destination for tourists from around the world. However, in the mid-1990s, differences arose between the

government and a local Islamist group which wanted to impose Islamic law in the region. This resulted in multiple skirmishes, though the government eventually restored peace in the area. In 2008, the aggression of the Taliban, their consolidation as a militia and their ascendance of state institutions, ended the government's authority in the region. This was followed by chaos and lawlessness at the hands of the militants. To end the crisis, the government signed a peace agreement with the militants in February 2009. This agreement soon collapsed, leading to more militancy and further deteriorations in law and order in the district, including a number of attacks on schools especially girls schools by militants who were against formal education, causing significant damage to schools across the region. These circumstances compelled the government to take action and a military operation was launched in May 2009. As a result, over 2.3 million people were displaced from this area to safer districts of Peshawar, Swabi, and Mardan. Many government schools and colleges in these districts were quickly transformed into relief camps and registration centres for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs); as a result, schools were closed one month earlier for summer holidays. At the height of displacement, IDPs were occupying 4,830 schools in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. By July 2009, many areas in Swat district were declared safe by the military, and the government began implementing a return plan for IDPs. According to provincial government figures, more than 1.6 million persons living in camps and host communities returned to their places of origin and all schools previously occupied by IDPs were vacated. Rapid refurbishment and repair work was undertaken in most of those schools, including 50 by Save the Children, to ensure that children were able to commence their education in time after extended summer holidays. (Faras, 2010)

According to the government figures, a total of 647 schools were damaged due to the conflict, of which 416 were partially damaged and 231 were totally destroyed in Malakand Division. Considering both host communities and crises-affected areas, over 1.2 million children required urgent education services in order to return to pre-conflict education access levels. This situation demanded concerted efforts from both the government and aid agencies to revitalize the education system and provide access to education, particularly for children from vulnerable communities. Save the Children conducted educational assessments in Swat and Buner districts from October 20 to November 1, 2009. These assessments found that there has been a significant disruption to the educational system in conflict-affected districts, with the most marked effect being on the destruction of school infrastructure. These damaged and destroyed schools lack physical resources, and many are without proper equipment or water and sanitation facilities to ensure quality and protective learning environments. Although schools in both districts are open and functioning, enrolment rates are quite low. This is particularly true in terms of girls' education, with 5% of boys and 24% of girls in Swat not enrolled. The assessment also revealed that the main reasons that prevent children from accessing schools were cultural, ongoing security restrictions and fear factors. Fifty-six percent of head teachers in Swat identified the fear of terrorism as a major issue confronted by children. Forty-one percent of teachers reported that they had noticed negative effects on students' behavior and that children were suffering from emotional problems after the conflict. Even prior to the crisis, girls' school attendance in much of Pakistan was low, with only 22 percent of girls, compared with 47 percent of boys, completing primary school. In many areas of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa this gender disparity is even more pronounced. Dropout rates climb further after primary school, with only 30 percent of Pakistan's children receiving secondary education and only 19 percent attending upper secondary schools. (Ibid, 2010)

Types of schools assessed from the total of 188 schools assessed in Swat, 168 (89%) were primary, 16 (9%) were middle and 4 (2%) were maktab or mosque schools (see Annex 5). Comparison of enrollment rates: The assessment revealed that the enrollment of children from nursery till class eight has increased from the previous year by nearly 17% for boys and almost 68% for girls. 16,917 boys and 8,949 girls were enrolled in the previous school year while 19,812 boys and 15,045 girls are currently enrolled in schools (see annex 6). The reason for this increase in enrollment is due to the cessation of military operations and the return of IDPs from other parts of the country to their homes in district Swat. Additionally, the dropout rate of 4% for boys and 5% for girls was found in the selected schools for the previous school year. Condition of available facilities in schools 4,327 items of school equipment such as teachers and office chairs, tables, white/black boards, sign and notice boards, cupboards, water coolers and glasses, buckets, dustbins and others were found in the schools during the assessment. 608 of these were in unusable condition and 318 of them need urgent repairs. Overall, 5,656 items are required in the school assessed. Condition of stationery and related items in schools consist of 13,453 stationery such as students and teachers attendance registers, admission/withdrawal registers, office files, teaching kits, supplementary reading material/library, syllabus books, notebooks, first aid kits and others were found available in the selected schools of the assessment. However, nearly 106,462 such items are needed to fulfill the necessary requirements of a school. The assessment showed that from a total of 660 classrooms 594 (90%) were found in functional condition and 66 (10%) were nonfunctional. Following are other aspects of school improvement needs revealed by the assessment. Repair and Space Maintenance and repair work is required in 79 (42%) schools while new construction of classrooms and other facilities is needed in 139 (74%) schools. Meanwhile, adequate space for children in schools is not available in 45 (24%) schools. There are no

electricity connections available in 109 (58%) schools, while lights such as bulbs and tube-lights with sockets are absent from 49 (26%) schools and ceiling fans are required in 45 (24%) schools. Main Gate 135 (72%) of the assessed schools possess main gates however, 47 (25%) schools require urgent repairs. A completely new gate is required in 68 (36%) schools. Boundary Wall 141 (75%) of schools has boundary walls, however, 49 (26%) of schools require urgent repairs. A completely new boundary wall is required in 66 (35%) schools. Water Supply 86 (46%) schools do not have a water tank available while 90 (48%) schools do not have access to safe water. Meanwhile, the source of water to schools is primarily through natural springs (46%) and also through wells (22%) and pipe connections (16%) as well as hand pumps (4%), rivers (3%) and other sources (9%). Sanitation Toilets are available in 147 (78%) schools, out of which 16 (11%) have pit latrines and 130 (89%) have flush latrines while 41 (22%) schools do not possess any sanitation facility. 66 (35%) of the existing toilets require repair and rehabilitation. New toilets are required in 111 (59%) schools and water is unavailable in 115 (61%) schools. Hand Washing Facilities: 133 (71%) schools do not have any hand washing facilities while 54 (29%) schools possess such facilities, out of which 16 (29%) require repairs. Shockingly, there is no use of soap in 171 (91%) schools for hand washing. Furthermore, construction of new hand washing facilities is required in 120 (64%) schools. (Ibid, 2010)

Over the decade to 2008, thirty-five countries experienced armed conflict, of which thirty were low income and lower middle income countries. The average duration of violent conflict episodes in low income countries was twelve years. In conflict-affected poor countries, 28 million children of primary school age are out of school – 42% of the world total. Children in conflict-affected poor countries are twice as likely to die before their fifth birthday as children in other poor countries. Only 79% of young people are literate in conflict-affected poor countries, compared with 93% in other poor countries. State and non-state parties involved in armed conflicts are increasingly targeting civilians and civilian infrastructure. Schools and school children are widely viewed by combatants as legitimate targets, in clear violation of international law. Over 43 million people are reported to have been displaced mostly by armed conflict, though the actual number is probably far higher. Refugees and internally displaced people face major barriers to education. In 2008, just 69% of primary school age refugee children in UNHCR camps were attending primary school (UNESCO, 2010)

Children, civilians and schools are on the front line Today's armed conflicts are fought overwhelmingly within countries, rather than across borders, and many involve protracted violence. The EFA Global Monitoring Report identifies forty-eight armed conflict episodes between 1999 and 2008 in thirty-five countries. Forty-three of the conflicts took place in low income and lower middle income developing countries. While the intensity, scale and geographic extent of the violence vary, protracted armed conflicts are common. On average, conflicts in low income countries last twelve years, and the average rises to twenty-two years in lower middle income countries. Indiscriminate use of force and the deliberate targeting of civilians are hallmarks of violent conflict in the early twenty-first century. In most conflicts, it is far more dangerous to be a civilian than a combatant. Education systems have been directly affected. Children and schools today are on the front line of armed conflicts, with classrooms, teachers and pupils seen as legitimate targets. The consequence, as one UN report puts it, is 'a growing fear among children to attend school, among teachers to give classes, and among parents to send their children to school'. In Afghanistan and Pakistan, insurgent groups have repeatedly attacked education infrastructure in general and girls' schools in particular. Security fears have resulted in the closure of over 70% of schools in Helmand province of Afghanistan. In Gaza, in the occupied Palestinian territory, Israeli military attacks in 2008 and 2009 left 350 children dead and 1,815 injured, and damaged 280 schools. Schools and teachers have also been targeted by insurgents in Thailand's three southernmost provinces. The use of child soldiers is reported from twenty-four countries, including those in the Central African Republic, Chad, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Myanmar and the Sudan. Wider patterns of violence have had far-reaching consequences for education. Reports by the UN Secretary-General continue to provide evidence that rape and other sexual violence are widely used as a war tactic in many countries, including Afghanistan, the Central African Republic, Chad, and The Democratic Republic of the Congo and the Sudan. Many of the victims are young girls. For those directly affected, physical injury, psychological trauma and stigmatization are sources of profound and lasting disadvantage in education. But the use of rape as an instrument of war also has far broader consequences, with insecurity and fear keeping young girls out of school – and the breakdown of family and community life depriving children of a secure learning environment. It is not just the human costs and the physical damage to school infrastructure that hurt education. Armed conflict is also undermining economic growth, reinforcing poverty and diverting resources from productive investment in classrooms into unproductive military spending. This Report identifies twenty-one of the world's poorest developing countries that spend more on military budgets than primary education. With some of the world's worst education indicators, Chad spends four times as much on arms as on primary schools, and Pakistan spends seven times as much. If the countries devoting more to military budgets than to primary education were to cut the former by just 10%, they could put a total of 9.5 million additional children in school equivalent to a 40% reduction in their combined out-of-school population. (Ibid, 2010)

Post-conflict reconstruction in education poses immense challenges. Governments have to operate in an environment marked by high levels of political instability and uncertainty, and low levels of capacity. Rebuilding a broken school system in the face of chronic financing deficits and teacher shortages poses particularly acute problems. Yet success in education can help underpin the peace, build government legitimacy and set societies on course for a more peaceful future. Donors have a vital role to play in seizing the window of opportunity that comes with peace. People whose lives have been shattered by armed conflict emerge from the violence with hope and ambition for a better future. They expect early results and governments need to deliver quick wins to underpin the peace. Drawing on the experience of a wide range of conflict-affected countries, this Report identifies strategies that have delivered early results. Withdrawing user fees, supporting community initiatives, providing accelerated learning opportunities and strengthening the skills training component of disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) programmes are all examples. In Rwanda, DDR programmes facilitated a return to education for former combatants, many of whom took up opportunities for vocational training. Classroom construction can also unlock new opportunities. In Southern Sudan, an ambitious classroom construction programme facilitated an increase in the number of children in primary school from 700,000 in 2006 to 1.6 million in 2009. To deliver early results, the emphasis has been on the provision of low-cost, semi-permanent structures, with plans to replace them with more permanent structures in the near future. (Ibid, 2010)

The education sector has likewise been affected by the conflict, and the partial and full scale destruction of schools, including damage to buildings, furniture and equipment equals a cost of PKR 2,696 million. Both male and female schools, and from primary to college level, have been affected. Violent conflict can affect the provision of education in two important ways: First, in areas where violent conflict occurs, schools are closed or damaged and the provision of education is suspended for some period of time. Second, to the extent that population groups located in areas experiencing violence flee to more stable areas, one can expect to see a decline in the number of pupils in areas experiencing violent conflict, and a related increase in the number of pupils in adjacent areas not experiencing conflict. This study uses multiple sources to measure these two impacts. The flows of internally displaced persons (IDPs) are analyzed, and these are matched to data from Education Management Information System (EMIS) School provided by the Department of Education of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province of Pakistan to quantify the impact of violent conflict on the provision of education in that province. The violent conflict believed to have had an effect on the provision of education in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa can be divided into two separate spheres of activity – conflict originating in the area of Swat in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, and conflict originating in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), a semiautonomous area that borders Khyber Pakhtunkhwa to the South and East. Because reliable measures of the extent or duration of violent conflict could not be found, accounts of the evolution of the violent conflict affecting Khyber Pakhtunkhwa are presented. One measure of conflict impacts that may affect education is flows of IDP's. Figure 1 shows districts in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa by IDP flows – red districts experienced outflows of people; the green districts had inflows – in districts colored dark green the IDPs were mainly from SWAT; districts colored light green hosted mainly IDPs from FATA. (Sylla, 2010)

During the first half of 2007, Pakistani Taliban and anti - government militants accumulated control over areas of the Swat valley in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Violent clashes with the Pakistani military began in late October causing somewhere between 400,000 and 900,000 IDP's (Internally Displaced Persons) to flee Swat for the districts of Malakand, Mardan, Charsadda, Nowshera, Peshawar, and Buner. In November, fighting spread to Shangla, spurring additional IDP flows. By December, the fighting had largely drawn to a halt and many IDP's were returning home. A second major round of fighting began in the spring of 2009. Fighting took place primarily in the Swat district but spread to also include portions of Shangla, Buner and Dir, and resulted in the displacement of as many as 3,000,000 IDP's, primarily to the districts of Mardan, Peshawar, Charsadda, Swabi, Nowshera, Abbottabad, Battagram, and Haripur. Fighting ended in July, 2009 and IDP's began to return home again. (Ibid, 2010.)

Conflict between the Pakistan army and anti - government forces in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) has been ongoing and predates the period considered for this study. In October 2007, a crescendo in the fighting resulted in the displacement of an estimated 80,000 IDP's, primarily into the southern - Khyber Pakhtunkhwa districts of Bannu and D.I. Khan. Many of those displaced by violence returned to their home areas within a week. A second round of fighting, initiated in January 2008, resulted in the displacement of an estimated 60,000 IDP's from FATA, many of whom sought shelter in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa districts of Tank and Bannu. Though this round of conflict ended in February, many displaced households did not return to their home areas until milder weather set in April 2008. After several months of relative peace, military operations resumed in November, 2008, spurring further displacements into adjoining districts in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. (Ibid, 2010)

In the EMIS system, government schools are classified according to their operational status. "Functional schools" are schools that are open and hosting classes, "temporarily closed" schools are schools that remain on the official roster of schools, but have temporarily suspended operations. A count of the total number of



functional schools in a district in itself may not accurately portray the extent to which the provision of education has been impacted by conflict. It is always possible that schools are being added in areas of a district that are peaceful, even as schooling is temporarily halted in areas of the district experiencing violence. It is better to look at the overall percentage of schools in the district that are temporarily closed. Such an analysis in the district of Swat reveals that despite the period of conflict, the total number of schools registered in the district actually increased by a small amount between 2006 and 2010, the proportion of schools that had been temporarily closed increased by a much larger margin however. In Swat, temporary closures disproportionately affect girls' schools, with more than 1 in 5 girl's schools having been closed in October, 2009. Overall in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, 491 government primary schools were temporarily closed at the time of the October 2009 school census. Of these, nearly 25% (120 closed schools) were in Swat district. Among these schools, reasons for closure were noted for 25 schools, 17 cited violent incidents such as the burning, bombing, or shelling of the school; the remaining 8 gave explanations such as 'departure of teacher' or 'district office decision' that may or may not have been linked to violence. For the remaining 95 schools in Swat that were temporarily closed, it can speculate that violent conflict may have been a contributing factor since the average closure rate in Swat (9%) is notably higher than that for the rest of the province (2%). It is not possible to count the number of pupils who would have attended a school if the school were open. However, given that 153 children, on average, were enrolled in each primary school in Swat in October 2009, and it is assumed that, of the 120 schools temporarily closed in Swat, 100 were closed due to violence, and then the school closures may have left approximately 15,300 children without a school to attend. Another way to try to measure the extent to which violent conflict has led to the closure of schools in Swat is to look at the difference in the closure rate before and after the onset of violence. Figure 2 shows that, in October 2006, before the influence of the Taliban, 3% of schools in Swat were closed. At this time one or more schools were closed in 23 of 66 Union Councils. By October, 2009, after two rounds of conflict in the District, the percentage of schools temporarily closed had risen to 9%, and at least one school was closed in 29 of 65 Union Councils. If 3% is a 'normal' closure rate, then an additional 6% of schools may have been closed due to violent conflict in Swat. If it is assumed for a moment that all of the temporarily closed schools in Swat were closed due to violence, then looking at the geographic distribution of schools can offer insight into the localized nature of the violent conflict that has affected Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in recent years. For example, of the schools forced to temporarily close in Swat district, 2010 closures were limited to 37 of the 65 Union Councils contained within the district; 2009 closures were limited to 35 of the 65 Union Councils. To a large extent, it was the same UC's that experienced school closures in all years. Of course, school closures are not perfectly correlated with violence, but it is instructive to note that by this measure, the effects of violence are not evenly distributed across the district. In Swat, all of the districts closed due to violence were located in rural areas. 95% of primary schools in Swat are rural however, so this may not be significant. There were no middle, high, or senior high schools closed. (Ibid, 2010)

In order to measure how school enrollment is affected by violent conflict and IDP flows, the study looks at changes in the numbers of pupils enrolled in primary from one year to the next in districts affected by conflict in different ways. Figure 4 shows how the number of pupils in each district changed over time. Figure 1 can be used to see how individual districts were affected by violent conflict. A major challenge in attempting to measure the effect of conflict on student enrollment is isolating the effects of violence from the myriad other reasons that the number of pupils enrolled in school might fluctuate yearly (changes in intake, graduation, and dropout rates, closures due to budget cuts, acts of nature, and so on). Based on the data available from EMIS, the baseline peace-time student annual population growth rate for the province is around 5% to 7%. But the baseline growth rate for the province is not a good measure of a potentially 'normal' rate of growth at the district level since we could expect approximately half of districts will have a growth rate of greater than the provincial average. So we set a cut-off rate for abnormally high change in number of pupils at twice the provincial average (10% or more; rates greater than 20% are highlighted in a darker shade). An abnormally low rate of growth in the number of pupils was set at 0% (at a 0% growth rate, enrollment is not keeping pace with a positive population growth rate). Working with these broad guidelines for what might constitute a 'normal' rate of growth in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, it is possible to check for any relationships between districts affected by violent conflict in some way, and districts experiencing 'normal' or 'abnormal' rates of growth. (Ibid, 2010)

In Swat district itself, EMIS data reporting the number of pupils enrolled in government primary schools provides an interesting illustration of the history of recent conflict in the district and its effect on the provision of education. Between October 2005 and October 2006, a period of relative stability, the government school system in the district experienced a spurt of growth – overall enrollment in primary government schools increased by 7%, from 188,171 to 201,497. Though female pupils were outbalanced by male pupils (with a GPI of 0.75 in 2005), female enrollment was increasing at a faster rate. Between October, 2006 and October, 2007, as Swat came increasingly under the control of Taliban groups, the rate of change in primary enrollment reversed, with a 0.15% decrease in the overall number of pupils enrolled. Though the overall number of pupils in the district remained relatively constant at just over 201,000 pupils, male pupils and female pupils fared differently, with

male enrollment increasing by 3,015 pupils (2.7% increase) even as female enrollment declined by 3,308 pupils (3.8% decrease). October 2007 marked the beginning of the first round of all out conflict in Swat that ultimately resulted in 400,000 – 900,000 IDP's are displaced from Swat and Shangla districts. Despite the fact that this displacement was largely concluded within three months, there was a noticeable continuing effect on pupil numbers, with overall enrollment declining by nearly 11%. The decline disproportionately affected female pupils, who saw a 14.7% decline in enrollment while male pupils saw an 8% decline in enrollment. The second round of fighting in Swat, which took place in Spring of 2009, reportedly resulted in the displacement of some 3,000,000 IDP's (nearly 3 to 6 times as many as the previous conflict). Interestingly, despite the magnitude of this disruption, the number of pupils reported to be enrolled in government primary schools on the next October actually showed an overall *increase* of 3.7%, but all of the gains were experienced among female pupils, whose numbers increased by 9.8% as male pupils experienced a slight decline of 0.3%. The fact that these mildly positive figures were recorded in the immediate wake of such massive disruption might be an indication of the resilience of the population and education system. The rapid resurgence in the number female pupils enrolled in the district suggests that many of the households who may have been forced to withdraw their daughters from school.

Although the majority of government/anti - government conflict in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province was concentrated in the Swat district, some conflict did spill over into adjacent districts. In particular, Shangla experienced areas of fighting during the 2007 conflict, and Shangla, Dir, and Buner experienced areas of fighting during the 2009 conflict. During the 2007 conflict which took place in Swat and Shangla, overall enrollment continued to increase in Shangla, Dir and Buner (even as the overall trend in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa was for decreased enrollment). During the 2009 conflict, which affected portions of all of these districts, enrollment continued to increase in all five districts (see Figure 6). This may be because the extent of the conflict in these districts was contained enough that it did not offset an overall trend towards growth, or that disruptions in enrollment due to conflict were small enough that they did not change the overall district enrollment on the next enumeration date. It could also be that growth in enrollment in these districts was fuelled by households displaced by conflict in Swat settling in adjacent districts. (Ibid, 2010)

There is no clear pattern of change in enrollment for districts that are reported to have hosted the majority of IDP's displaced from the Swat conflict. Many of the districts show an overall decline in enrollment beginning around October 2007, which marked the beginning of the first round of conflict in Swat. It is possible that declines observed for this period were caused by spillover from the Swat conflict since many other districts in the province showed a decreased enrollment (or a reduced rate of increase) over this period. Alternatively, it could be that these declines were caused by some factor interdependent of the conflict in Swat, since several districts further removed from Swat also showed similar declines. Districts located in Southern Khyber Pakhtunkhwa have hosted large numbers of IDP's displaced from fighting in neighboring areas of FATA to the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa districts of D.I. Khan, Kohat, Bannu, Hangu, and Tank. Conflict and other causes for displacement in FATA are more difficult to track than the conflict originating from Swat, so it is difficult to isolate particular reasons for fluctuation, though the fluctuations are too large to be ignored. Enrolments over the two year period spanning from October 2005 to October 2007 in FATA IDP hosting districts. In one district, D.I. Khan, the student population nearly doubled from 103,815 to 197,917 before returning to near the original number. In Tank and Hangu, student numbers increased by approximately 10% each before declining again; Bannu and Kohat saw bumps of 12% and 20% respectively. Though it is difficult to draw a definite causal link between the conflict in FATA and the increases in student population observed in these districts adjacent to FATA, one might surmise that these phenomena are related. It is also possible that some portion of the spike in pupils in D.I. Khan could be accounted for by IDP's from neighboring Balochistan. (Ibid, 2010)

In all aspects of the school and its surrounding education community, the rights of the whole child, and all children, to survival, protection, development and participation are at the centre. This means that the focus is on learning which strengthens the capacities of children to act progressively on their own behalf through the acquisition of relevant knowledge, useful skills and appropriate attitudes; and which creates for children, and helps them create for themselves and others, places of safety, security and healthy interaction. (Bernard, 1999)

What does quality mean in the context of education? Many definitions of quality in education exist, testifying to the complexity and multifaceted nature of the concept. The terms efficiency, effectiveness, equity and quality have often been used synonymously (Adams, 1993). Considerable consensus exists around the basic dimensions of quality education today, however. Quality education includes; Learners who are healthy, well-nourished and ready to participate and learn, and supported in learning by their families and communities. Environments that are healthy, safe, protective and gender-sensitive, and provide adequate resources and facilities. Content that is reflected in relevant curricula and materials for the acquisition of basic skills, especially in the areas of literacy, numeracy and skills for life, and knowledge in such areas as gender, health, nutrition, HIV/AIDS prevention and peace. Processes through which trained teachers use child-centered teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skilful assessment to facilitate learning and reduce

disparities Outcomes that encompass knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society. This definition allows for an understanding of education as a complex system embedded in a political, cultural and economic context. This paper will examine research related to these dimensions. It is important to keep in mind education's systemic nature, however; these dimensions are interdependent, influencing each other in ways that are sometimes unforeseeable. This definition also takes into account the global and international influences that boost the discussion of educational quality (Motala, 2000; Piphoo, 2000), while ensuring that 5 national and local educational contexts contribute to definitions of quality in varying countries (Adams, 1993). Establishing a contextualized understanding of quality means including relevant stakeholders. Key stakeholders often hold different views and meanings of educational quality (Motala, 2000; Benoliel, O'Gara & Miske, 1999). Indeed, each of us judges the school system in terms of the final goals we set for our children our community, our country and ourselves (Beeby, 1966).

Definitions of quality must be open to change and evolution based on information, changing contexts, and new understandings of the nature of education's challenges. New research ranging from multinational research to action research at the classroom level contributes to this redefinition. Systems that embrace change through data generation, use and self-assessment are more likely to offer quality education to students. Continuous assessment and improvement can focus on any or all dimensions of system quality: learners, learning environments, content, process and outcomes. School systems work with the children who come into them. The quality of children's lives before beginning formal education greatly influences the kind of learners they can be. Many elements go into making a quality learner, including health, early childhood experiences and home support. Physically and psychosocially healthy children learn well. Healthy development in early childhood, especially during the first three years of life, plays an important role in providing the basis for a healthy life and a successful formal school experience (McCain & Mustard, 1999).

Adequate nutrition is critical for normal brain development in the early years, and early detection and intervention for disabilities can give children the best chances for healthy development. Prevention of infection, disease and injury prior to school enrolment are also critical to the early development of a quality learner. (Colby, J, 2011)

Positive early experiences and interactions are also vital to preparing a quality learner. A large study in 12 Latin American countries found that attendance at day care coupled with higher levels of parental involvement that includes parents reading to young children is associated with higher test scores and lower rates of grade repetition in primary school (Willms, 2000).

Evidence from the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Turkey, and has shown that children who participate in early intervention programmes do better in primary school than those who do not benefit from formal early child programmes, and studies from India, Morocco and Latin America demonstrate that disadvantaged children benefit the most from such programmes. In addition to cognitive effects, the benefits of good early childhood programmes include better psychosocial development. Effective and appropriate stimulation in a child's early years influences the brain development necessary for emotional regulation, arousal, and behavioral management. A child who misses positive stimulation or is subject to chronic stress in the pre-school years may have difficulty with psychosocial development later in life (McCain & Mustard, 1999).

A high level of quality in early childhood development programmes can be achieved when health and nutrition components are combined with structured psychosocial development in the pre-school years. (UNICEF, 1998)

When they reach school age, research demonstrates that to achieve academically, children must attend school consistently. A study of village-based schools in Malawi found that students with higher rates of attendance had greater learning gains and lower rates of repetition, a finding consistent with many other studies (Dowd et al. 1998).

Parents may not always have the tools and background to support their children's cognitive and psychosocial development throughout their school years. Parents' level of education, for example, has a multifaceted impact on children's ability to learn in school. In one study, children whose parents had primary school education or less were more than three times as likely to have low test scores or grade repetition than children whose parents had at least some secondary schooling (Willms, 2000).

Parental education not only influences parent-child interactions related to learning, but also affects parents' income and need for help in the home or field — help that often comes at the expense of keeping children in school (Carron & Chau, 1996). Parents with little formal education may also be less familiar with the language used in the school, limiting their ability to support learning and participate in school-related activities. The effects of schools in poor areas can often outweigh the impact of family background and practices (Fuller, et al., 1999).

Further, although many constraints exist, schools can play a role in helping parents to enhance the 'home curriculum' and improve the quality of parental involvement in their children's education. Strategies include, for example, partnering with organizations that can affect parenting in the pre-school years such as public health

providers and non-governmental organizations (NGOs); asking parents to participate in assessment of their child's progress, offering clear, regular, non-threatening communication; and including parents in decision-making groups at the school (Redding, 2000).

Successful attempts to increase parental involvement have taken place around the world. One example is the creation of student newspapers in China. Such newspapers "exist at different levels of the education system and in urban as well as rural zones. The result is that, much more than in other countries, pupils and parents have the possibility to read, which is of benefit in particular to the otherwise disadvantaged rural families" (Carron & Chau, 1996).

Other forms of family literacy programmes have focused on particular aspects of parental involvement. In Sri Lanka, for example, an eight-week programme that sought to improve the literacy skills of low-income, undereducated mothers found that the mothers' capacities to help develop their children's language competencies increased, especially in the areas of listening and speaking (Dharmadasa, 1996). In sum, the home curriculum seems to play a vital role in preparing quality learners for school. Healthy children with positive early learning experiences and supportive, involved parents are thus most likely to succeed in school. Quality teachers need similar support for their tasks in schools. Another essential ingredient for a successful educational system is a quality learning environment. (Obcited, 2011)

Physical learning environments or the places in which formal learning occurs, range from relatively modern and well-equipped buildings to open-air gathering places. The quality of school facilities seems to have an indirect effect on learning, an effect that is hard to measure. Some authors argue that "extant empirical evidence is inconclusive as to whether the condition of school buildings is related to higher student achievement after taking into account student's background" (Fuller, 1999).

A study in India, however, sampled 59 schools and found that of these only 49 had buildings and of these, 25 had a toilet, 20 had electricity, 10 had a school library and four had a television. In this case, the quality of the learning environment was strongly correlated with pupils' achievement in Hindi and mathematics. In Latin America, a study that included 50,000 students in grades three and four found that children whose schools lacked classroom materials and had an inadequate library were significantly more likely to show lower test scores and higher grade repetition than those whose schools were well equipped (Carron et al, 1996)

The quality of school buildings may be related to other school quality issues, such as the presence of adequate instructional materials and textbooks, working conditions for students and teachers, and the ability of teachers to undertake certain instructional approaches. Such factors as on-site availability of lavatories and a clean water supply, classroom maintenance, space and furniture availability all have an impact on the critical learning factor of time on task. When pupils have to leave school and walk significant distances for clean drinking water, for example, they may not always return to class (Miske & Dowd, 1998).

Many countries significantly expanded access to primary education during the 1990s, but the building of new schools has often not kept pace with the increase in the student population. In these cases, schools have often had to expand class sizes, as well as the ratio of students to teachers, to accommodate large numbers of new students. A UNICEF/UNESCO survey conducted in 1995 in 14 least developed countries found that class sizes ranged from fewer than 30 students in rural and urban Bhutan, Madagascar, and the Maldives, to 73 in rural Nepal and 118 in Equatorial Guinea (Postlewaithe, 1998).

Do larger class sizes hurt the quality of education? Educators and researchers from diverse philosophical perspectives have debated the relationship between class size and student learning at length. Although many studies have found a relationship. Class size has not consistently been linked to student achievement. This may be due to the fact that many schools and classrooms have not yet adopted the more demanding but higher quality student-centred learning practices discussed in this paper in section four (IV.) of this paper. Moreover, quantitative relationships between class sizes and academic achievement rarely take other key quality factors into account, such as teachers' perceptions of working conditions and their sense of efficacy. (Colby, 2011)

Within schools and classrooms, a welcoming and non-discriminatory climate is critical to creating a quality learning environment. In many countries, attitudes discouraging girls' participation in education have been significant barriers to providing quality education to all students. The Republic of Guinea provides an example of how this barrier can begin to be overcome. Between 1989 and 1997, Guinea was able to increase the percentage of school-age girls enrolment from 17 per cent to 37 per cent. This was done through the establishment of a high-profile Equity Committee, research to better understand various communities' needs and attitudes, policy reforms related to pregnancy of school-age mothers, the building of latrines for girls in schools, institutional reform that brought more women into teaching and administrative positions, and a sensitization campaign to raise community awareness about the value of girls' education. Although curricular reform and other issues remain to be acted upon, and girls' persistence and achievement have not yet reached the level of boys', this case shows that efforts to improve the learning environment for girls and all students can lead to real results. Once girls gain access to schools, however, they may experience both direct physical. Threats and more subtle assaults on their confidence, self-esteem and identity. The journey to school may be unsafe, since many

girls experience harassment and physical attacks either on public transportation in cities or remote paths in rural areas. At School, teachers often requires girls to do maintenance work while boys study or play, and allow boys to bully girls. Girls must often sit at the back of the classroom, where teachers may call on them infrequently. In some cases, extreme physical assault, including rape, may be perpetuated against girls at school. The threats that come in the form of unequal treatment, harassment, bullying and undervaluing girls harm them in profound and long-lasting ways. (Ibid 2011)

Relative to both girls and boys, parents, educators and researchers express important concerns about teachers who create an unsafe environment for students. In some schools in Malawi, for example, male teacher's sexually harassed girls even with outside observers present (Miske, Dowd, et al., 1998). When parents in Burkina Faso, Mali and Tanzania were asked about reasons they might withdraw their children from schools, they most often cited a lack of discipline, violence of teachers towards pupils (corporal punishment), and the risk of pregnancy due to the male teachers' behaviour (Bergmann, 1996). A study in Ethiopia found that nearly 50 per cent of teachers interviewed reported using corporal punishment at least once a week, with 11 per cent saying they use it every day. Just over one third said they never use corporal punishment (Verwimp, 1999). These teacher behaviours affect the quality of the learning environment since learning cannot take place when the basic needs of survival and self-protection are threatened. Well-managed schools and classrooms contribute to educational quality. Students, teachers and administrators should agree upon school and classroom rules and policies, and these should be clear and understandable. Order, constructive discipline and reinforcement of positive behavior communicate a seriousness of purpose to students. It is important not to mistake small group cooperative learning for disorder, however; although noise levels may increase, task-orientation and focus on learning signal effective practices. Policies are also needed on bullying, harassment, drug and tobacco use, and anti-discrimination with regard to disabilities, HIV/AIDS and pregnancy. (Craig, et al, 1998).

Reducing other forms of discrimination is also critical to quality improvement in learning environments. Most countries, in all parts of the world, struggle with effective inclusion of students with special needs and disabilities. An examination of special education policies and practices in China, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, New Zealand, South Korea, Thailand and Viet Nam found that although most educational policies include some philosophy of inclusion, significant gaps between policies and actual practices in schools and classrooms exist (Mitchell, 1995). Children of ethnic and language minorities, politically or geographically disfavoured groups, and groups at low socio-economic levels may also suffer from discriminatory policies and practices that hinder the advancement of quality education for all children. This can occur by excluding such children from school or by excluding their participation in school once they are attending. In general, continued restructuring of most learning environments needs to occur to improve learning opportunities for children of all abilities and backgrounds. (Obcited 2011)

War and other forms of interpersonal and group conflict clearly have an impact on children's mental health and their ability to learn. Many young victims of violence suffer lasting physical, psychological, social-emotional and behavioral effects. Although it is difficult for schools to provide safe heavens from some forms of violence, other forms can be effectively prevented through interventions (WHO, 1998).

The school service environment can also contribute to learning in important ways. Provision of health services and education can contribute to learning first by reducing absenteeism and inattention. Sick children cannot attend school, and evidence from China, Guinea, India and Mexico shows that children's illness is a primary cause for absenteeism. Today, the potential of school-based health interventions in improving academic performance is becoming increasingly clear as problems of protein energy malnutrition, micronutrient deficiency disorders, helminthes infection and temporary hunger among children continue to plague developing countries. School-based deforming programmes in Guinea, for example, led to increased achievement outcomes failing scores fell from 32 per cent to 23 per cent over three years while passing grades improved markedly. Maximum benefit-cost ratios have been achieved when deforming is combined with sanitation, a clean water supply and health education. School-based programmes that address other major health and nutrition problems that can decrease cognitive functioning including deficiencies of iron, iodine and vitamin A have also been shown to be effective. Guidance and counseling services, the provision of extra-curricular activities and the provision of school snacks are other examples of service provision that contribute to quality school environments. High quality physical, psychosocial and service environments in schools set the stage for learning to occur. This learning begins with quality content information. (Ibid 2010)

The effects of the disruption range from lowering of access to education to a reduction of the quality of the learning experience and the quality of provision. There are symbolic psychological, social and ideological effects too, which also have to be addressed, since persistent destruction of educational facilities can affect parents' trust in the role of schools in providing protection for children, undermine the sense of investment in the future that binds a community, and send damaging signals about the value society puts on either education for all or education for a particular gender or ethnic group. (Malley, 2010)

Persistent attacks threaten the capacity of the state to provide education services; undermine social and

economic development, for which education is a key enabling provision; and can threaten the stability of particular villages, regions or even as in the case of Sierra Leone, whole states. Some believe attacks on schools have become a tactic of war precisely for this reason. Addressing the longer-term impacts requires a variety of approaches including building the capacity of the education ministry to rebuild education and pay teachers on time; urgent reconstruction and rehabilitation; rapid interim teacher training and long-term development of initial teacher training; mobilization of community support for education; joint approaches with security, economic and education ministries to ensure stability of the education system and its relevance to job opportunities; improved transparency and accountability; and better monitoring of the longer-term impacts in order to improve responses to them. However, in many areas where there are persistent attacks these responses cannot be made precisely because schools and the education system are still being attacked, for instance if continuing attacks deter contractors from rebuilding schools or teachers from returning to work. For this reason, action to deter or avert attacks and remove the motives for them must be addressed as a matter of priority. This may require negotiations and compromises over the content of curriculum to increase sensitivity to local language, culture, and religion; ending unequal provision of education, particularly for youths; building trust through transparency and mobilizations of community support; negotiated codes of behaviour by armed groups and security forces in relation to students, teachers and schools; and punishment of perpetrators of attacks. The longer-term impact of such attacks on education systems and the effectiveness of policy responses is an area that merits investment in effective monitoring and deeper, wider research. (Obeited 2011)

The threat to education from attacks should be seen in the context of the wider problem of the impact of conflict in general on the degradation of education or prevention of educational development. For example, worldwide more than half of children not in primary school – 37 million out of a total of 72 million – are found in conflict countries, and in “failing” states it is common for more than 50 per cent of children to be out of school in isolated rural areas where conflict can flourish. Nevertheless, the longer-term impact of targeted attacks on education are material, psychological and symbolic and when attacks persist over long periods of time they contribute to educational fragility, state fragility and the obstruction of development. The immediate impact of attacks includes the loss of life of, injury to, or abduction of students, teachers and personnel; and damage to buildings and facilities – most typically due to the burning, bombing or shelling of buildings or transport facilities, or wear and tear or battle damage caused by military use. The impact commonly extends far beyond the original target, as fear of further attacks causes whole schools to close temporarily or teachers and students temporarily to stay at home. On 18 June 2007, for instance, the Thai Prime Minister ordered all 700 schools in the three southernmost provinces to close indefinitely after a week of bombings and shootings directed at schools, teachers and security personnel guarding teachers. Reporting of the immediate impact tends to focus on the loss of life and injury and the number of buildings damaged, with occasional references to the closure of schools. By contrast, there is very little reporting of the longer-term impact of persistent attacks over a number of years on the education system in the affected area or of the use of force to block recovery from attacks on education over long periods of time. Such effects can include: Longer-term disruption of attendance of teachers, students and staff. The permanent drop-out of teachers, students and staff, Lowering of the quality of teachers, Persistent demonization and distraction of teachers, students and staff by fear or trauma, reducing the quality of education provision and students’ ability to learn, Falling recruitment of staff, leading to teacher shortages, Falling enrolment of students, lowering access and hindering attempts to achieve Education for All. Falling attainment of students. Longer-term damage to and prevention of repair of infrastructure, reducing access, Longer-term postponement of the repair of furniture, reducing the quality of learning conditions, Longer-term postponement of resupply of learning materials, reducing the quality of educational provision, Longer-term postponement of normal investment, hindering the maintenance and development of education provision, Reduced capacity to manage or deliver education, Reduced capacity to develop the education system suspension or reduction in aid support for education, Falling recruitment of teacher trade unionists, reducing their capacity to provide a Teachers’ viewpoint on the development of education.(ibid, 2010)

Many examples of these effects have been documented in countries worst-affected by attacks on education. They can be grouped according to the effects on (i) teachers and teaching provision, (ii) students and learning, (iii) infrastructure, (iv) the management of education and

(v) The symbolic effect of the curtailment of the commitment to the right to education:

Loss of teachers: Attacks on schools may lead teachers to give up their job or flee the area, or even the country. The Zimbabwe Teachers Association estimates that 20,000 teachers have left the country in the past decade, due to a mixture of deteriorating education resources and political tension including targeted attacks on teachers and the political use of schools. In 2009, 35 per cent of primary posts and 33 per cent of post-primary posts were vacant. In the three southernmost provinces of Thailand where schools have been hit by arson and bomb attacks and teachers have been targeted for assassination since 2004, it was reported in January 2008 that 1,600 teachers requested transfers from the region due to security concerns. At the same time applications from other regions have fallen significantly. These two factors have led to shortages of qualified teachers in four key

subjects and a reduction in the quality of staff. In Pakistan's Bajaur and Swat districts teachers have reported that they will not return to work when schools reopen after being attacked, in some cases as much as a year after they were targeted, as long as the risk of ongoing or renewed attacks persists. (Ibid, 2010)

Continuing assassinations of teachers locally and the issuing of death threats will inevitably affect teachers' concentration and frame of mind for teaching. In southern Thailand, where teachers have been shot in front of their class, teachers are reported to be constantly fearful of being picked off for assassination at or on their way to school and devote less time to teaching and developing the curriculum due to security restrictions on time at school. In the most dangerous areas of southern Thailand teacher attendance has become irregular. In Brazil, the continuing threat from police operations against armed drugs gangs and shootings between rival gangs in and around Rio de Janeiro's schools has caused a spike in work-related illness such as burn-out syndrome and made it very difficult to recruit teachers. Attacks on higher education and teacher training institutions may restrict research, teaching content and pedagogical training and cause dropout, distraction, demonization and dramatization of tertiary students and academics. This can in turn lead to restrictions on teacher content knowledge and teacher quality. Persistent attacks on schools and teachers can also deter students from training to be a teacher. In Thailand decreases in the number of students wishing to attend tertiary institutions in the south, have contributed to a reduction in competition for teaching posts, risking a reduction in the quality of candidates. Direct attacks on teacher training colleges will affect the number and quality of newly qualified teachers produced and the number of future applications to train. In Sierra Leone, for instance, teachers and students stopped attending an internationally acclaimed teacher training college that was subjected to repeated attacks. Persistent attacks can lead to large numbers of schools being closed for a year or a number of years, or to large numbers of students being withdrawn from school by their parents. The Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission said there was a decrease in attendance of 8 per cent for boys and 10.5 per cent for girls in 2007-2008, which it said was "arguably linked to increasing insecurity and in particular to threats and attacks against schools and families who send their children there". By the end of 2009, more than 400,000 children nationally were being prevented from attending school due to attacks on education. Up to 200,000 students were prevented from going to school because their school was destroyed or due to widespread fears engendered by threats issued to parents, children and teachers. An additional 200,000 school-age children were prevented from being enrolled in school due to the closures resulting from attacks. In Sierra Leone, by the end of the conflict many children had missed two to three years' schooling and in one year an entire academic year was reportedly lost. Six years on, nearly one in three primary-aged children still did not go to school due to a combination of destroyed infrastructure and other factors. In Pakistan's Swat district, 40 per cent of boys and 80 per cent of girls who had previously been enrolled in school had not returned to school eleven months after the Taliban lost control to the Pakistan army in an area where 393 schools had been destroyed or damaged in attacks. (Ibid, 2010)

In India, officials estimated that more than 100,000 children have been denied access to primary education in Bastar Regio2, since 2005, where it has been reported that 440 school buildings have been bombed by Maoist rebels and the majority of teachers refuse to attend school due to the risk to their lives. One longer-term impact of sexual violence by armed groups and security forces, which may include attacks at on the way to school, is young girls becoming mothers before their time, cutting short their school career to become wives or mothers, as reported in Sierra Leone. In other cases sexual violence against school girls and teachers, and in cases of mutilation, such as or the chopping off of the limbs or physical branding of school children by armed factions in Sierra Leone, attacks have lead to stigmatization, feelings of shame or fear of retribution and long-term withdrawal, causing victims to drop out of school. *Distraction of students:* Students worried or anxious about attacks on their school or others nearby may find it hard to concentrate in class, which will affect their ability to learn. Nightmares, grief, memory problems, impaired concentration, aggressiveness, loss of interest, inactivity, apathy and numbness, mistrust, psychosomatic complaints, repressiveness such as bedwetting, may last for months for some individuals but for those affected more deeply, or those who have witnessed shocking scenes, such as pupils in Thailand who have seen their teacher shot or even incinerated in front of them, the effects may be felt over the long term and many children could be expected to show new learning difficulties. For example, in Gaza, school children were still suffering from trauma and anxiety more than a year after Israeli military operations in which schools were shelled and 250 students and 15 teachers were killed, according to OCHA. A science teacher in Abu Ja'far al-Mansour preparatory school reported that most children don't concentrate in lessons and forget everything explained to them in class. Khalid Salim said in exams 80 per cent of pupils failed compared to 3 per cent before the military operations. The cumulative effect of teacher and student distraction, lost days due to closures, teacher shortages, and failure to repair damage to schools is likely to cause falling levels of achievement when these factors persist over long periods of time. Educational authorities in southern Thailand report a significant lowering of attainment in the areas affected by attacks, leaving students in the three most affected provinces ranked bottom in the country on Thai, mathematics, science and social studies with an average score much lower than the average score of the country or of other provinces. (Ibid 2010)

This is one of the more extensively reported factors affecting education systems over time. In Sierra Leone

most of the educational infrastructure was destroyed in the conflict. Three years after the conflict ended 60 per cent of primary schools and 40 per cent of secondary schools still required major rehabilitation or reconstruction. It is not known for how many years those same schools had remained damaged during the ten-year conflict. It may be the case that a large proportion of them had remained damaged or destroyed for a long period during the conflict, as well as after it (Ibid, 2010)

In Gaza, educational infrastructure damaged or destroyed by targeted Israeli military attacks at the turn of 2008/2009 could not be repaired due to the military enforcement of a general economic blockade against Gaza. Insofar as this prevented building materials being supplied for the legitimate reparation of and investment in educational facilities, it constituted the use of force to block the right to a good quality education and is an attack on education. OCHA reported that at least 280 schools were damaged in the conflict, including 18 that were completely destroyed. The Ministry of Education said in February 2010 that none had been rebuilt or repaired, due to the Israeli ban on the entry into Gaza of construction materials. The blockade was also preventing the building of 105 new schools to cater for the annual rise in the number of school children, for which 25,000 tons of iron bar and 40,000 tons of cement were needed. The deputy education minister in Gaza, Yousef Ibrahim, said 15,000 children from damaged schools had been transferred to other schools for second shifts, “significantly shortening class time”. Many damaged schools lacked functioning toilets, water and electricity; classrooms were overcrowded; and there were shortages of equipment and materials, such as desks, doors, chairs, textbooks and ink. It was reported in April 2010 that UNRWA, which provides education for 70 per cent of the school population, had been prevented from building any schools in Gaza for three years by the blockade. Only makeshift classrooms had been built and those resources had been exhausted, resulting in thousands of children being denied regular education, according to John Ging, director of UNRWA in Gaza. Although the government was able to use some construction materials smuggled through tunnels dug under the border with Egypt, UNRWA could not use them because they were imported illegally. As a result, UNRWA runs two schools a day in each school building on a compressed half-day double-shift basis. (Ibid, 2010)

This can include the opportunity cost of having to devote resources to repair and rehabilitation instead of normal investment in development of education; a reduced capacity to spend money on repairs because of contractors’ fear of reprisals if they carry out the work; inability to carry out management tasks due to the destruction of records and information systems; attacks on system processes such as examinations, inspection and accreditation; direct attacks on officials; and the inability to keep schools open in the face of threats of attack and parental or local opposition. It also includes the impact of attacks on the management of education programmes by aid agencies. (Ibid, 2010)

Repairs to damage from attacks and normal maintenance and investment in education may be put on hold either because labourers dare not risk repairing or reconstructing a school that has already been targeted out of fear of reprisals. Equally governments may not risk investing in the development of schools for fear of the money being wasted if attacks are repeated. In Thailand, for instance, normal maintenance and development work on schools and the repair of attacked schools has been restricted by contractors’ refusal to risk their lives to carry it out in areas where there have been high numbers of incidents. In some cases the repair or development work itself is specifically targeted. In one incident in April 2008, for instance, five labourers were shot dead and one injured when they arrived at a school in southern Thailand to construct a new building. In Gaza, normal investment in and maintenance of school facilities has been severely hindered in UNRWA schools by the militarily enforced Israeli economic blockade. One entire school for 865 students had to be built out of 88 shipping containers, and shipping containers have been used to provide additional classroom space in 40 other schools. (Ibid, 2010)

This can include the destruction of education records and information systems (as occurred during attacks on schools and teacher training institutions in Sierra Leone and during attacks on schools in Pakistan); the mass abduction of education officials (100 officials were kidnapped in Baghdad in one incident in 2006 ; or the targeting of the exam process (there are multiple examples in Iraq in 2007 and Algeria, where a convoy carrying examination papers was blown up in June 2009. Attacks on the exam process in Iraq in 2007, for instance, led to an influx of an oversized cohort into universities creating a bottleneck for at least three years, in which the quality of learning was reduced because there were too many students for the available staff and facilities to cope with. Militias entered exam halls and killed students and vigilators in some places and in others prevented exam questions reaching the examination centre. The chaos, combined with widespread corruption, resulted in 110,000 students qualifying for 85,000 places and neighboring countries that normally offered places to Iraqi students refusing to recognize the exam results. Continued attacks in southern Thailand have made it difficult to supervise, assess and assist schools throughout the region, and prevented the external inspection and certification of schools by the Office for National Education and Quality Assessment. (Ibid, 2010)

In Afghanistan, the government was unable to keep large numbers of schools open in a handful of southern provinces for one or more years. For instance, in 2008-9, 695 schools were inactive, of which 610 were located in five contiguous provinces. Zabul was the worst affected province with 80 per cent of schools closed, followed



by Helmand (68 per cent), Kandahar (46 per cent), Uruzgan (29 per cent) and Paktika (14 per cent). The closures affected 340,000 students. In addition, there is the financial cost of repairing and reconstructing schools. But this is often difficult to assess in the worst affected countries due to lack of data. Muhammad Suleman Kakar, former deputy minister of education in Afghanistan responsible for administration, finance and protection in 2008-2010, said the ministry did not have the capacity to assess the financial cost of the attacks. In June, 2008, attacks on education and humanitarian aid workers employed by CARE in Somalia resulted in the American NGO suspending operations in the area, including an education programme supporting 400 primary teachers and 5,000 school children. (Ibid 2010)

The reactions to attacks are not restricted to students in schools that have actually been attacked, as an attack on one school leads to fears that any school in the area might be attacked, causing high levels of fear and stress. If attacks are repeated in the same area over a number of years these may rise to levels that create insurmountable obstacles to learning for a large number of pupils. The psychosocial impact will affect children's ability to learn, and where the threat of attacks persists may lead to them being kept home from school, even if the school remains open. Such obstacles to access to education can result in severe developmental problems. Children run the risk of never being able to return to school or completing their education, thus diminishing the potential contribution they can make to society. Similar psychosocial effects may be experienced by teachers who are overcome by grief at the loss or maiming of their colleagues and students or are distracted by threats to colleagues, making it difficult for them to support their students or perform their job to the highest standards. If they are visibly anxious, this may heighten the fears of their own students. It is difficult to see how joyful child-centred learning experiences can take place in such a context. Fear may cause staff to stay away from school for long periods, forcing their closure or preventing their re-opening after attacks. For example, in Pakistan, teachers, school managers and education officials were reported by IRC to be still reluctant to return to work in Swat in June 2010, more than a year after military operations to push the Taliban out of the area, for fear of attack. The psychological impact on parents of attacks on schools may be to change their perception of education as providing protective care for their children, which causes them to keep their children home from school. This applies to a greater degree to girls. Where schools in general are destroyed, forcing children to walk longer distances to receive an education, girls may be kept at home due to the increased risk of abduction, sexual violence or exploitation. Where sexual violence against individual girls actually occurs or children are abducted from schools for use as combatants, it will cause other girls or girls and boys to be kept home from school. (Ibid 2010)

### 3. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The review finally concluded that militancy significantly damage the educational institution of developing country in the world which latter on improve absenteeism of the students and teachers in the School, Colleges and Universities. Subsequently affect the quality and number of students which latter on damage the world economy adversely. The study further explained that militancy creates poverty and poverty is the main cause of militancy in the world. So the past record shows that there is a militancy there will be more disturbance and low level of development where high poverty, illiteracy and other social conflicts were the fate of that country. On the basis of finding the study recommend compromise between militant and Government forces of the world ; Crystallized mechanism in the educational institutions for poverty eradication ; Tight security and honest staff selection; All mosque Madarasa supervision by government; Sufficient funding provision, for militancy control; Infrastructures development by government for easy access to militant; Tourism spots and hilly area check and balance; Loan provision to whole community on free interest basis for investment for eradication of poverty; Marble industry development for generation of employment in hilly area for livelihood provision for poverty eradication in the study area; High Investment in education sector; Check and balance on global network, Social Media and on entry point from one country to another; Merit and Justice base environment provision to community; Identity Card registration and Security tightness are required for control of militant disturbance in the World etc.

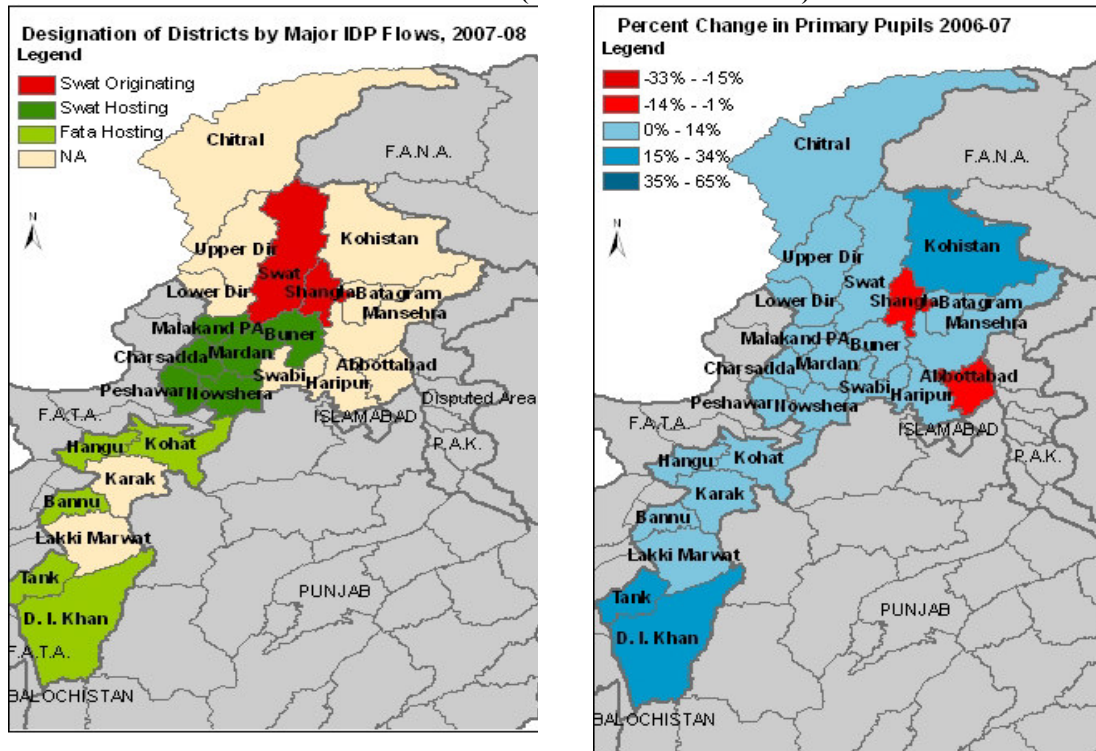
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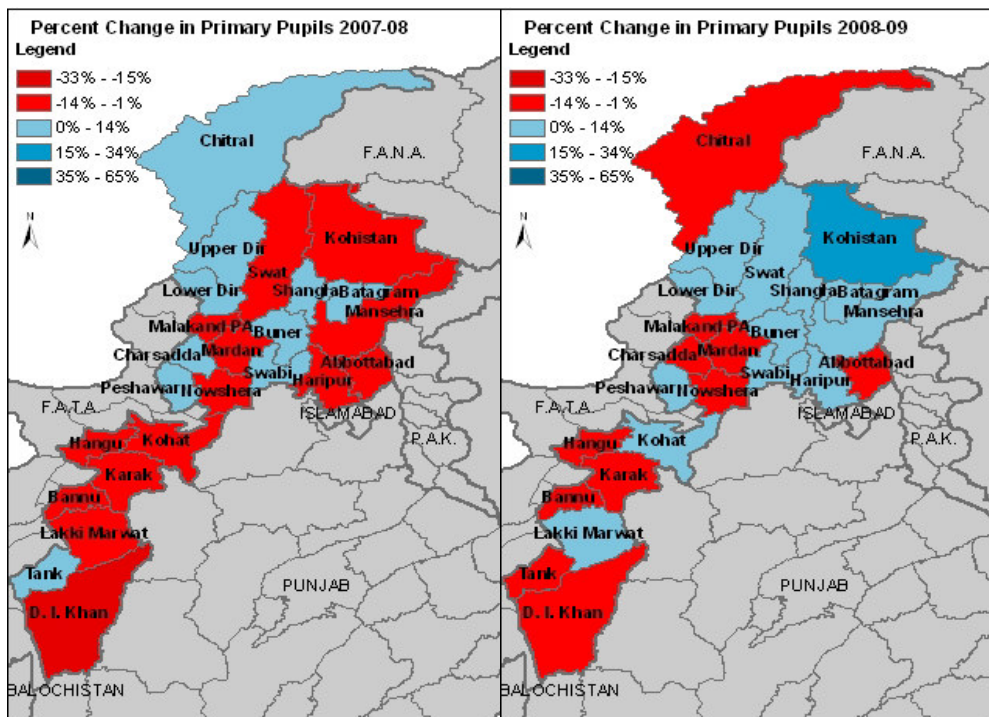
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ANEXURE

Anexure.1 (Flow of IDPs in 2007-08)



Anexure.2: Percentage change in pupils enrolled in government primary schools, by district, across school census enumeration dates.



**Annexure 3: Fully Damaged Institutes by District, Level and Male/Female**

S.No.	Category	Swat			Buner			Dir Upper			Dir Lower			Shangla			Grand Total		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1	Primary	19	82	101	3	1	4	14	2	16	8	11	19	5	0	5	49	96	145
2	Middle	8	26	34	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	3	4	0	0	0	9	31	40
3	High	13	13	26	4	0	4	1	2	3	2	2	4	1	0	1	21	17	38
4	Higher Secondary	4	2	6	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	5	3	8
5	Colleges	2	2	4	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	4	2	6
<b>S. Total (Fully Damaged)</b>		<b>46</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>149</b>	<b>237</b>

Source: Nov. 2009: ADB & WB; NWFP & FATA Preliminary Damage and Needs Assessment

**Partially Damaged Institutes by District, Level and Male/Female**

S.No.	Category	Swat			Buner			Dir Upper			Dir Lower			Shangla			Grand Total		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1	Primary	28	33	61	4	3	7	1	0	1	7	4	11	9	1	10	49	41	90
2	Middle	13	6	19	2	2	4	0	0	0	4	4	8	1	1	2	20	13	33
3	High	17	1	18	9	2	11	3	0	3	4	3	7	7	0	7	40	6	46
4	Higher Secondary	3	1	4	0	2	2	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	0	1	7	4	11
5	Colleges	2	1	3	2	1	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	3	8	2	10
<b>S. Total (Partially Damaged)</b>		<b>63</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>124</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>190</b>

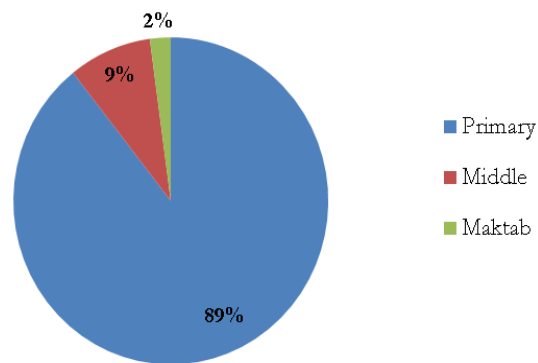
Source: Nov. 2009: ADB & WB; NWFP & FATA Preliminary Damage and Needs Assessment

**Annexure 4: Partially Damaged Institutes by District, Level and Male/Female**

Area/Province/Division/District	Damage Cost of education facilities	
	Fully Damaged	Partially Damaged
NWFP		
Swat	1,234.11	566.11
Buner	59.11	133.20
Lower Dir	206.89	144.30
Upper Dir	162.55	34.39
Shangla	44.34	111.00
<b>Sub Total</b>	<b>1,707.00</b>	<b>989.00</b>

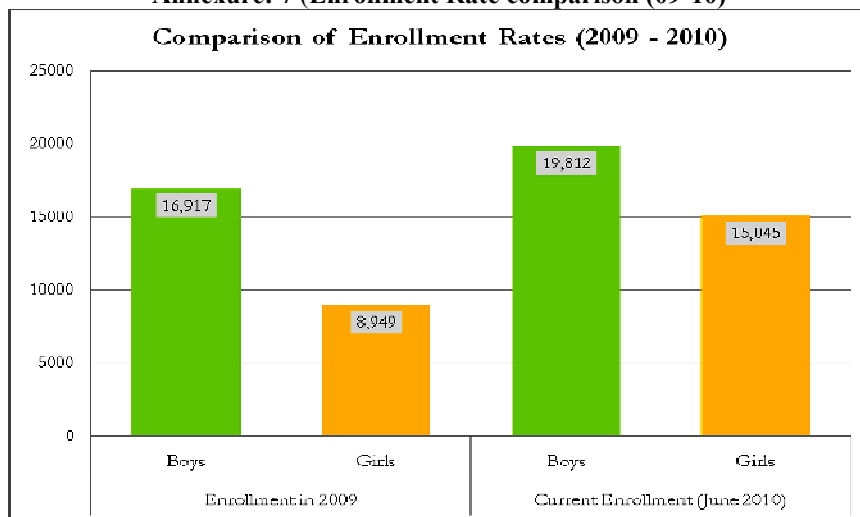
Source: Nov. 2009: ADB & WB; NWFP & FATA Preliminary Damage and Needs Assessment

**Annexure 5: (Types of school assessed)**  
**Types of Schools assessed in 10 UCs of Swat**



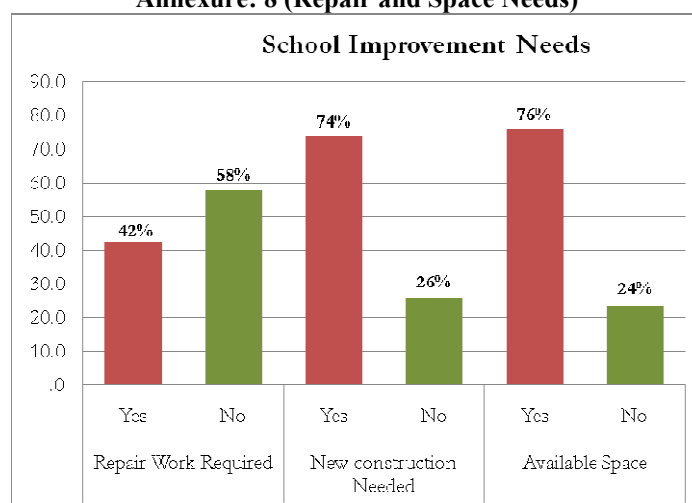
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18)*

**Annexure: 7 (Enrollment Rate comparison (09-10))**



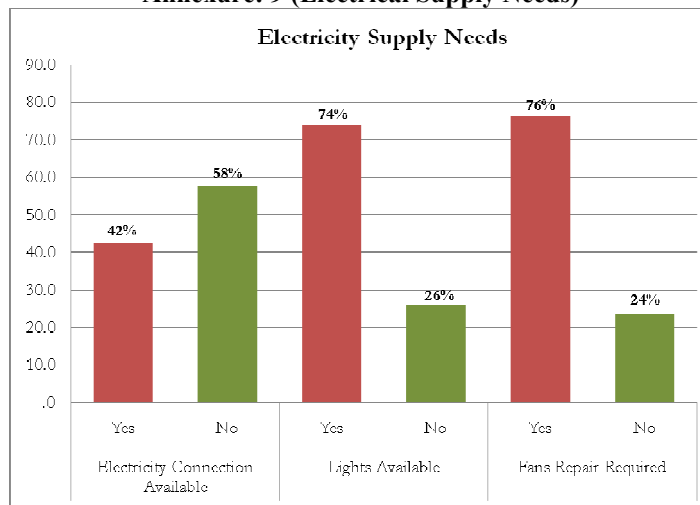
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18)*

**Annexure: 8 (Repair and Space Needs)**



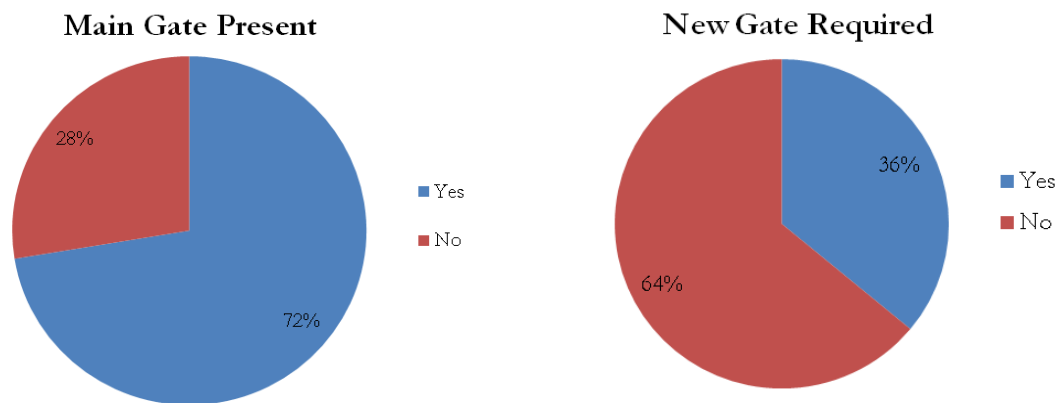
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18)*

**Annexure: 9 (Electrical Supply Needs)**



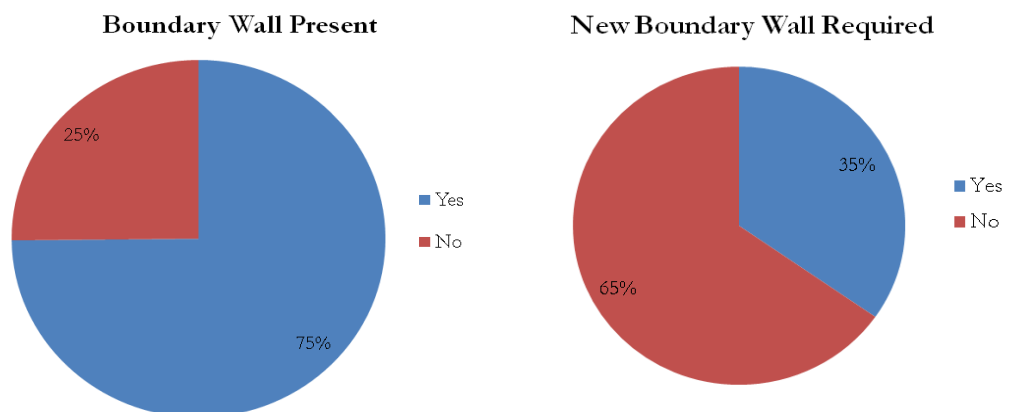
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18*)

**Annexure: 10(School main gate needs)**



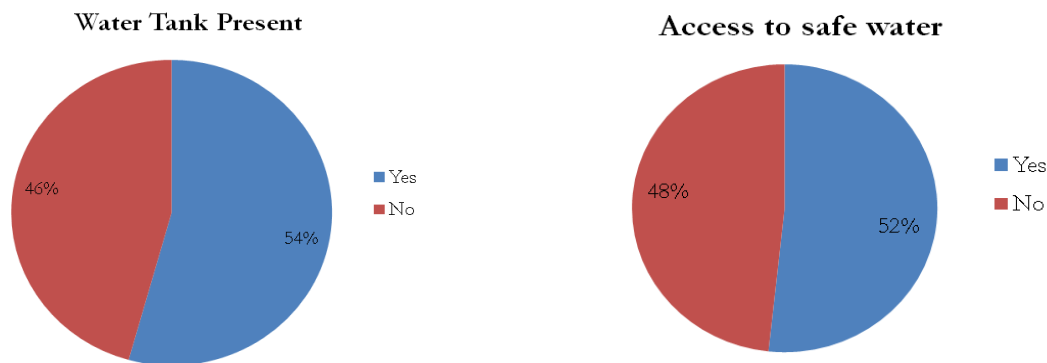
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18*)

**Annexure: 11 (School boundary wall needs)**



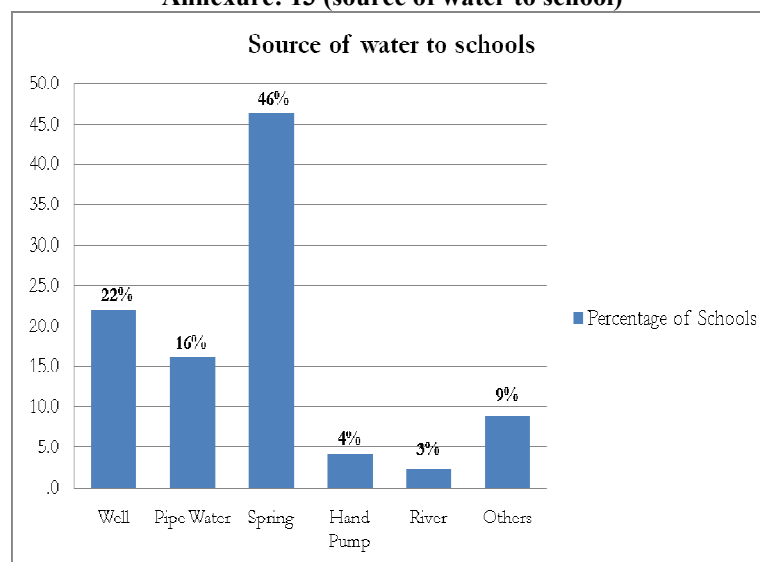
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18*)

**Annexure: 12(school water supply)**



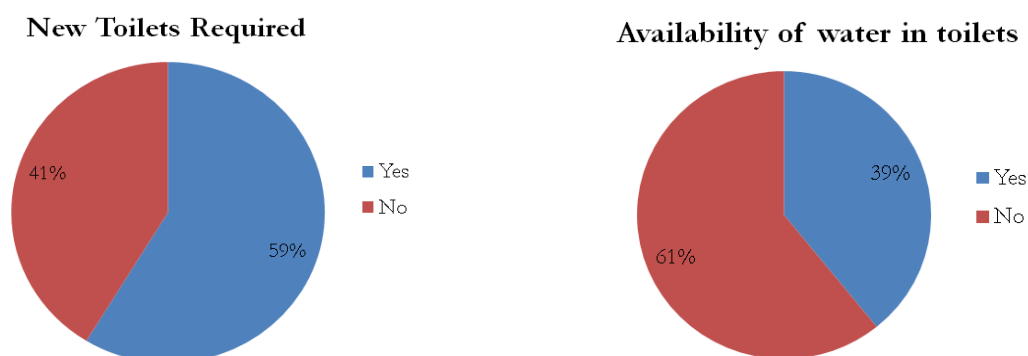
(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18)*

**Annexure: 13 (source of water to school)**



(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children P. 15-18)*

**Annexure: 14(school sanitation needs)**



(Qasim F. (2010). *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Savethe Children P. 15-18)*

**Annexure: 15 (School Hand Washing Facilities)**



(Qasim F. (2010) *Community Based Assessment of Government Schools: Districts Swat and Lower Dir, Save the Children* P. 15-18