

**INFLUENCE OF RECURRENT HUMAN CONFLICT ON PUPILS'
PERFOMANCE IN EDUCATIOAL PROGRAMS IN JUBA
REGION, SOUTH SUDAN**

**BY
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DECLARATION

This project report is my original work and has not been presented for an academic award in any other University.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my father, Mohammed Monoja Lo'yangi, and in the memory of my late Mother, Alice Khadija and my siblings Mariamu, Hijra, Cruzum and Fatma: in whose dotting memories this study is undertaken. Their spirits, fond thoughts and remembrances have been an inspiration to my life, career, my education and zeal to fight on in life through challenging situations. May your soul Mum, and those of your departed daughters all rest in eternal peace.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EFA	Education for All
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
M23	Rebels in the Democratic Republic of Congo
POC	Protection of Civilians
S. SUDAN	South Sudan
SPLA	Sudan People's Liberation Army
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children Education Fund
UNMISS	United Nations Mission in South Sudan
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

ABSTRACT

This study examines the influence of human conflict on education of children in primary schools in South Sudan's Juba region. In the study, several scenarios were considered: First, human conflict is likely to destroy a country's system of education through the loss of infrastructure and personnel. Second, families who are displaced may be more concerned about security or lack of it for their children that education may seem a lesser or even non-existent concern to majority. The insecurity of parents in regards to their children seems related to the vulnerabilities of the children relevant to the human conflict experiences. Such vulnerabilities may include kidnappings by armed forces and being made soldiers, shrapnel wounds, rape and worse cases being death. Third, parents' may decide to keep children from school, as most schools would be closed. Some other reasons that may reinforce parents' decision to keep their children from schools include; fallen education standards, and lack of logistics to sustain meaningful schooling including children's transportation to and from schools, as well as feeding program at such a time when children are at school. Fourth, a delirious but yet another significant cause may be the drawing away of funds for increased military expenditures to fight the conflict. Using UNESCO education data, the researcher examined the percentage change in participation of educational activities and primary school attendance for schools in Juba region from December 2013 to April 2014. The researcher used a measure of when the region was in human conflict, a dynamic post-conflict measure, an interaction with military spending, and relevant control variables. A target of 103 schools was used to derive a sample of 270 respondents whose results were used for analysis. Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and interviews conducted and the data that was obtained, analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) version 20. Results of analysis were presented in frequency tables and regression analysis was performed to ascertain the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. This study has shown that in the majority of contemporary human conflicts, military forces and non-state armed groups use schools and other education institutions for purposes such as bases, barracks, detention facilities, torture centers, firing positions, and munitions caches. In addition to the risk of death or severe injury from attacks, pupils' attending classes in schools occupied by military forces witness violence and are exposed to physical or sexual abuse by the combatants. Further findings also indicated that the presence of troops in schools also influences young people's right to education, and leads to students drop out, reduced enrolments, lower rates of transition to higher levels of education, loss of motivation or absenteeism by teachers and faculties, overall poorer educational attainment and recruitment for violent activities. Reasons as why troops prefer to occupy schools compared to other institutions calls for further research to remedy the situation. The study recommends that the government criminalize all attacks on education and educational facilities and ensure all attacks on education are impartially investigated, and those responsible are duly prosecuted – whether through civilian or military courts and prohibit the use of schools and other education institutions by military, security or non-state armed actors through domestic legislation and military doctrine. If lessons learnt from this study are implemented and replicated in other states and counties of South Sudan, then this could help in improving the country's education indicators, which still remain among the worst in the world.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Education is not just a matter of knowing how to read, write and do arithmetic but is the main investment a country can make out of its people in order to reduce poverty and inequality and create self-dependence hence saving a future for the nation (Global Partnership for Education). Across the globe, attention and the media always focus on the most immediate images of humanitarian suffering seen after human conflict yet, the hidden cost and lasting legacies of conflict are less put in the cover pages. Education sector is the major in feeling the pinch of the cost and legacies inflicted during these conflicts. Not only are the school infrastructure destroyed in the period of violence, but the hopes, dreams and ambitions of the young generation in the society are swept away by the wind (UNESCO, July 2013).

An international report released by the UNESCO shows that the school going population reduced from 60million in 2008 to 57million in 2011. The reports say that the most affected areas are those that face internal conflicts and they cover 50% of the children denied education. These, according to the same report are also the same regions globally that make 22% of the world child population that require education (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2013). According to Tran, (July 11, 2013) over 50 million children and young people are out of school because of human conflict in their countries. The author adds that the recent civil unrest in Syria influenced the piercing upsurge in reported incidents of children lacking access to education and other educational activities.

Signing of the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000 by governments identified human conflict as a major barrier to education. In Syria for example, children who could attempt to go to schools could be physically attacked and abused, their schools bombed or even be recruited by armed groups, and thus the closure of schools or absence of teachers is not a major factor that robs children of their education (EFA, 2013). Education has not only been affected by human conflict.

The government response in most of such instances is to close school sometimes for months hence blocking access of education to school going children in the process. Parents on the other hand are afraid of taking their children to school even after calm has returned for fear of repeated attacks. In the DRC, the M23 rebels drove pupils out of school in order to seek occupational facilities or just to loot available resources in the year 2012, and over 240,000 pupils went on for almost a year without schooling. In the Central African Republic, half of the schools within the country remained closed when the Seleke Rebel Coalition took over power in the year 2013. Schools in the northern parts of Mali have also had a bitter taste of the aftermath of conflicts with over 1500 schools remaining closed and in vitally poor conditions. More than 700,000 pupils' schooling was disrupted (Tran, July 12, 2013).

The genocide in Rwanda that ended in the year 1994 resulting to the death of over 800,000 people - 300,000 of whom were children is one of the devastating events in records in the recent past. Most of the nations adopted a blind eye to what was going on in Rwanda; the political prejudice, human rights violations and exclusions (Uvin, 1998). This happening left a lot of children with internal and external scars, they were witnesses of unspeakable horror, victims of rape and thousands who were younger than 7 years of age were recruited into militia groups. It is a conflict that left the children with trauma and with responsibilities to guard and take care of homes and families (UNICEF, 2004). These greatly affected their education after the conflict.

Further, the newly acquired responsibilities of being the breadwinners of their siblings gave the children difficulty in class concentration. In his book *Transitional Justice in Rwanda: Accountability for Atrocity* (2013) Gahima claims that the aftermath of the genocide in Rwanda lead to the absence of qualified personnel to aid in the judicial sector and other sectors in bringing justice to the nation. This is because most of the qualified individuals were killed during the human conflict while others could not help but run to exile. In addition, there were no schools or institutions to provide professional education and other trainings.

South Sudan, which is the world's youngest nation, has also suffered from decades of human conflict and continuous human conflict. It is currently trying to rebuild itself yet with challenges that are witnessed even as recent as December 2013/ January 2014 human conflict. The recurrent human conflicts in South Sudan have left millions of people dead with a good number of them living in refugee camps outside the country. The conflict not only prohibits the growth of infrastructure but also has led to the destruction of school buildings and resultant closure. The government could not pay the teachers since the available resources and finance were used during the conflict and the available teachers also ran for safety to the neighboring countries (Bartlet, 2013).

These conditions made South Sudan to be ranked as the poorest educationally (UN Sudan IG, 2011). It is only those who fled to neighboring countries like Kenya who managed to get access to better education. Coming to South Sudan Arabization was compelled on it by Northern Sudan although the disparities of literate level were extremely gaping. After the human conflict, growing up without education imparted a deep determination to the former child soldiers to make available the opportunities for education to their families and communities. According to former child soldiers the late John Garang was a strong proponent of education because it is the means to transform South Sudan to a better place (Ryan, 2012).

Since independence in 2005 South Sudan has improved tremendously in education provision, and upgrading of schools. School attendances have more than tripled, many new teachers have been employed, new classrooms built or adapted. Despite the strides these reforms have made, it is very far from adequate a proof of how much neglect the sector suffered under Khartoum led government. (Bingman, 2013). According to Bubenzer (2011), the hope of many who fled the country of South Sudan relied on promises of acquiring education. Many of whom relocated to the United States through the UN programs believed that they could start education on arrival but this was always never the case. Many were forced to put off going to school in order to find alternative jobs for survival.

Disappointments in education ensued since when most found an opportunity to study, they would work concurrently and at times take time to look after their families hence they less concentrated on class work. In addition to these, most South-Sudanese who attended college found it had to study because their previous education were not fully established due to interruptions by human conflict hence it was a hard task for them to catch up academically (Muhindi & Nyakato, 2002). During the human conflict, those who fled to other countries like Kenya found a hard time in adapting to the academic system since most of the studies in Sudan were previously offered in Arabic language as opposed to the Kenyan English syllabus.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is estimated that about 43 million children worldwide in human conflict-torn countries are denied proper or some form of education since opportunities for education sometimes become non-existent during armed conflicts (Ngcobo, 2006). Most often, children in human conflict- torn areas are conscripted into armed conflicts (de Silva, Hobbs, & Hanks, 2001). In addition, issues such as fear, disease, and collapse of the school system impact children's education due to inadequate educational resources. These issues may contribute to problems such as illiteracy, sexual abuse, cyclic violence and starvation (Anderson, 2001).

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) guaranteed education as a right even in the times of emergencies (United Nations: Anderson, 2001). Over 180 countries were signatories to this declaration to provide education for all (EFA) (Anderson, 2001). Education is essential for children's development across key developmental domains (e.g., cognitive, social, language, emotional) (Briggs, 2005; Anderson, 2001). However, there seems to be a problem accomplishing this universal right to education for children in human conflict-torn countries due to disruptions caused by armed conflicts. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2007) reported that "education programs improve children's health, nutrition, well-being and cognitive development".

Nonetheless, the disruption of children's education during armed conflicts deprives children of the opportunity to reclaim this sense of normalcy. Furthermore, although studies on the impact of human conflict on children have generated a lot of debate and some literature, there is limited research studies conducted on the impact of conflict on children's participation in education in the wake of the December 2013 violence in Juba, South Sudan. This opens our mind to approach the matter in a holistic manner so as to make a difference. An estimation of at least forty million children lives in conflict or post conflict areas where education at best is meager or non-existent. (Guruge 2007).With such a reality before us, the study is aimed at holistically looking at the influence human conflict has had on the education of children in South Sudan because it stands at the epicenter of civil human conflict and more precisely the case of Juba region, where thousands of children have become homeless in the wake of the recent conflict.

1.3 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the influence of recurrent human conflict on pupils' performance in educational programs in Juba region of South Sudan.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To establish the influence of arbitrary attacks on pupil's participation in educational programs in Juba region of South Sudan.
- ii. To investigate the influence of emergency education on pupil's participation in educational programs in Juba region of South Sudan.
- iii. To establish the extent to which destruction of property influences pupils' participation in educational programs in Juba region of South Sudan.
- iv. To establish the extent to which child soldiering influences pupil's participation in educational programs in Juba region of South Sudan.

1.5 Research Questions

The following sought to answer the following research questions:

- i. How do arbitrary attacks influence pupil's participation in educational programs in South Sudan?
- ii. To what extent does emergency education influence pupil's participation in educational programs in South Sudan?
- iii. How does destruction of property influence pupils' participation in educational programs in South Sudan?
- iv. To what extent does child soldiering influence pupil's participation in educational programs in South Sudan?

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is hoped that this study will help bring to the limelight the plight of children in South Sudan as well as all the other children in the rest of the war-torn regions in the world, how their education and livelihoods are affected by these recurrent human conflict and consequently help define strategies on how to rescue them. The study will also add more information to the already available reports and studies relating to education and human conflict from around the world. It is also hoped that it will add to the knowledge bank and help in conflict management and resolution; Juba region will come under the spectacle of the world with a review of the extent to which human conflict has affected education in the region. It is also hoped that this study will be of significance to the government of South Sudan, especially its educational sector since it will act as a reference point. It is hoped that it will help direct policy makers on how best they can improve education in the country considering the current situation and the reality on the ground.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited to the Juba region of South Sudan, which is an area of about 22,956 square kilometers, geographically located in Central Equatoria State of South Sudan. This study was delimited to this area since it is the only region which is relatively peaceful and can be accessible.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

This research faced a number of limitations. Accessing the targeted respondents wasn't easy, since conflicts were still going on. To overcome this, the researcher used opinion leaders and respected elders to access the targeted respondents. Access to respondents was also challenging as most were suspicious of the data collection aids having gone through a traumatizing experience of war in their different regions. The researcher however sought an introductory letter from South Sudan's Ministry of Education, which was used to convince group leaders and area chiefs as well as school administrators of the good intentions of the research. Other challenges included; language barrier that threatened to hinder the smooth process of the study, as most respondents were only able to speak their native languages or only local Arabic, to overcome this, the researcher had to translate questionnaires for this purpose, this however slowed down the data collection process.

1.9 Definition of Significant Terms Used in the Study

- Arbitrary Attacks:** Is assaulting innocent people or civilians randomly without any proper reasons
- Child Soldiering:** Children under the age of 17 who participate in armed conflict either voluntarily or forcefully
- Destruction of Property:** Unprecedented damage to physical infrastructure to institutions, homes, livelihoods goods or services.
- Educational Programs:** Teaching and learning plan or activities that guide the learning process of pupils.
- Emergency Education:** Enlightening people, especially those affected by human conflict with lifesaving skills they can use to survive in their situation

Pupils Participation in Educational Programs: Young learners who undergo processes of enlightening them on specific subjects at a school or a learning environment

Recurrent Human Conflict: Repetitive use of force and arms to engage in a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resource.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This study will be organized in five chapters. Chapter one discusses the background to the study in which contextual and conceptual issues are highlighted. The chapter also highlights on conceptual analysis by presenting key statistics that offers direction to the study. The chapter covers the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, hypotheses related to the study objectives, significance of the study, limitations of the study and definitions of significant terms.

Chapter two covers empirical and theoretical literature organized according to study themes. The chapter also contains theoretical and conceptual frameworks and a matrix showing the knowledge gap identified from the literature reviewed. Chapter three covers research methodology that encompasses the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques, operationalization of variables and ethical considerations. Chapter Four entails data analysis, presentation, interpretation and discussion of research findings from the collected data while chapter five covers the summary of research findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature related to the purpose of the study providing a clear understanding of existing knowledge base in the problem area. It reviews the literature on the influence of human conflict on the education of children in South Sudan and also other regions around the world. The chapter also gives an empirical review, conceptualization and the research knowledge gaps. This chapter therefore presents an analysis of different arguments by various authors, which informs the study, and the gaps identified, to which the study seeks to bridge.

2.2 The Perspective of Human Conflict in South Sudan

Conflicts fought between the Sudanese government and movements arising within Sudan, were commonly rooted in the exploitative leadership of the Government of Sudan, and the unequal distribution of power and wealth among the Sudanese population. (Ryan C. 2012). These internal tensions drove the country's decades-long civil war, which led to South Sudan's secession from Sudan on July 9, 2011. The first civil war, from 1955 to 1972, was between the Sudanese government and southern rebels who demanded greater autonomy for southern Sudan. The war ended with the 1972 Addis Ababa Agreement, which granted significant regional autonomy to southern Sudan on internal issues. The second civil war erupted in 1983 due to longstanding issues heightened by then President Jaafar Nimeiri's decision to introduce Sharia law. Negotiations between the government and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army, or SPLM/A of southern Sudan took place in 1988 and 1989, but were abandoned when General Omar al-Bashir took power in the 1989 military coup. (Justin 2010).

Fighting over resources, southern self-determination, and the role of religion in the state raged between the Sudanese government and the SPLM/A for over two decades. The war left two and a half million people dead and four million people displaced. International mediators, led by the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development, or IGAD, and

supported by intense United States diplomacy, helped broker peace between the Sudanese government and the SPLM/A in 2005. In January 2005 the National Congress Party, or NCP, and Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army, or SPLM/A, signed the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, or CPA. It established a six-year Interim Period, when a number of provisions were to be implemented to test the viability of a unified Sudan and to ensure that peace endured in the country. During the Interim Period, southern Sudan enjoyed a high degree of autonomy within a united Sudan. At the conclusion of the Interim Period, the people of southern Sudan voted in a referendum determining whether southern Sudan would secede from Sudan (Maslen 2013).

After decades of brutal civil war that left two and a half million dead, the devastated and vastly underdeveloped southern part of Sudan secured independence in 2011. The world's youngest nation came into existence amid great challenges. Secession from Sudan marked a major milestone and a fresh opportunity for South Sudanese. But massive state-corroding corruption, political instability within the ruling party, the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM), and persistent tensions with Sudan over the sharing of oil revenues left South Sudan deeply vulnerable to renewed conflict. On December 15, 2013, tensions between factions loyal to President Salva Kiir, of the Dinka ethnic group, and those aligned with his former Vice President, Riek Machar, of the Nuer ethnic group, exploded into fighting on the streets of Juba, the capital city. South Sudan's dramatic return to war has torn communities apart and left countless thousands dead. As of September 2014, 1.8 million people were still too afraid to return to their homes (Maslen, 2013). The author states that to date, unknown thousands of fighters and civilians have been killed, and terrible massacres have been perpetrated on both sides.

2.3 Arbitrary Attacks and Participation of Pupils in Educational Programs

This review of literature examines the detrimental impacts of human conflict and the post-conflict environment of South Sudan on the educational expenses as well as the school attendance of children. Human conflicts are very devastating to the country and its system of education. Education is a vital aspect to the development of any nation, be

it as a nation or even in the individual aspect. Most developed countries comprise those whose citizens are highly educated. It has to be realized therefore that on any occurrence of a civil human conflict, the education of that given area is going to be compromised in a couple of ways (World Bank, 2012).

Children are often deliberately targeted in internal human conflict or conflicts. To destroy or harm what is of highest value to the enemy, indeed the very symbol of a community's future is one of 'the most effective forms of terrorism' (Boothby cited in Kent 1995, Van Bueren 1995). Civilian children are affected in many ways. Articles 6, 8 and 16 of the 1989 CRC assert the child's right to protection against unlawful attacks and interference (AI 1999). However the most visible effects of armed conflict on children are physically inflicted ones. Civilian children are killed outright as a result of torture, firearms, bombs and landmines. Or they sustain serious injuries and or life-long disabilities - losing limbs, eyesight and hearing (Zwi et al. 1992).

Children also witness parents, relatives, friends and their environment destroyed around them (Onyango 1998). Subsequently, they may appear withdrawn, exhibit signs of depression or demonstrate hyper alertness. Many experience vivid nightmares. Regression in childhood development such as bedwetting and refusing to speak is also common. Some children acquire behavioral disorders becoming acutely fearful, extremely restless or aggressive (Geltman 1998, Save the Children 1996). Others feel confused and or hopeless and lethargic (Rutter and Richman in Boyden 1997). Severe stress can also induce gastrointestinal complaints, difficulty in breathing and dizziness (Boyden 1997, Weinstein cited in Zwi 1992). These later twentieth century human conflicts are also distinguished from their predecessors by virtue of their protracted length. Angola, Afghanistan, Sri Lanka, Somalia and Sudan are classic examples of countries with long histories of armed conflict, some of which have been sustained for up to 30 years. This means that from childhood through to early adulthood entire generations have to contend with the instability and insecurity of human conflict on a day-to-day basis (UNICEF cited in Onyango 1998, Machel 1996).

Intrastate conflict results in huge numbers of both internally displaced people and refugees. Ladd and Cairns give a figure of 30 million, saying that 50 per cent of these are children under the age of 15 (cited in Cairns 1996). This alludes to a colossal degree of both short and long term instability; with children uprooted from their families, homes, schools and cultural enclaves (Tolfree 1996, Ahearn and Athey cited in Cairns 1996).

Food security is a striking example of how children's insecurity is compounded by interlinking elements in situations of intrastate conflict. Food is one of our most basic needs yet in human conflict the whole food chain is disrupted. This starts with production; crops and stock are destroyed - food and future income revenues are drastically reduced lessening security (Machel 1996). The next stage affected in the chain is distribution. The states transport networks are often rendered inaccessible in human conflict with for example bridges and roads being blown up. In turn, this affects availability. Food supplies become scarcer and prices inevitably rise beyond people's reach. Hence consumption and biological utilization of the food are affected. Growing children are likely to eat less and foods of a lesser quality. If children are in refugee camps they are more prone to infectious diseases like diarrhea and subsequently may not absorb nutrients effectively (Goldson 1996).

In military camps girls are often compelled to provide ongoing sexual favors to soldiers in return for food and or to ensure a degree of physical protection - [ironically out of a desire for security] (Butler 1998, Machel 1996). As a result of these sexual practices, the transmission of STD's including the HIV virus has become more widespread throughout Africa (UNICEF 1996). Rape, unwanted pregnancies and STD's have manifold destabilizing effects to individuals, their families and society at large too; consider for example the huge and uneatable economic costs in treating AID's patients in poor countries like Uganda and Zambia. Endemic civil conflict is often dubbed 'low intensity' because 'less people die from bombs or bullets than they do from lack of food and medical services' (UNICEF1996). But up to twenty times more citizens, including children die in this manner.

During the last decade, it is estimated that there have been 2 million children killed, 4-5 million disabled, 12 million left homeless, more than one million orphaned or separated from their parents, and some 10 million psychologically traumatized' (UNICEF Report: State of the World's Children 1996). In situations of intrastate conflict civilian children have been subject to countless human rights violations and human insecurities. This section outlines why civilian children are increasingly embroiled in civil conflicts - and how their lives including their schooling are adversely affected with the same. Throughout the 18th, 19th and early 20th century human conflicts mostly occurred between states. The major casualties were soldiers who died from human conflict injuries and infections (Goldson 1999).

However, 'the topography and definition of the modern battlefield has changed' (Plunkett 1998). Contemporary conflicts are mostly within states. The majority of armed conflicts now take place in developing states (Van Bueren 1995). Government and rebel factions in villages and suburban areas fight human conflicts where the distinction between combatants and non-combatants is not clear-cut. (UNICEF 1996). As a result, some 90% of all casualties today are in fact civilians (Summerfield 1996). This draws our attention to an increasingly higher proportion of injuries incurred by civilian children (UNICEF 1996) who comprise some 30% of the civilian populace (Kuper 1997). In 1995 alone, some 30-armed conflicts of this intrastate variety were said to be waging in different parts of the world (Onyango 1998).

The extent to which children can be psychologically scarred is exemplified by a group of child refugees from Sierra Leone who drew themselves without arms or mouths (Diaz 1997). Such utter paralysis is the epitome of human insecurity. One of the stealthiest physical and psychological harms to be inflicted on children in intrastate conflict is government soldiers or rebel troops systematically raping girls. This weapon of conflict was used in Rwanda undermining community ties as the rape victim is then completely ostracized (Geltman 1998, UNICEF 1996). Rape has similarly been used as an instrument of ethnic cleansing in the former Yugoslavia (Swiss and Miller, cited in Plunkett 1998).

2.4 Emergency Education and Participation of Pupils in Educational Programs

When an overwhelming humanitarian disaster engulfs any given region, the international relief agencies descend upon such places. Emergency education experts believe that education is always an important refugee protection measure. However, this emergency education has faced a series of challenges in its introduction as well as the implementation. First and foremost, in the emergency education, there is the use of an extremely reserved education curriculum that strictly supports the dictating authority. The power house is the team that employs the teachers and therefore they direct the teachers on what to teach and what not to teach. As a result, the students receive no full information on the history of the country. The dictating power will teach things that will make the students channel their opinions towards them, as a result getting their trust and loyalty irrespective of whether they are genuine facts or they are just mere fiction.

Also, the parents are not willing to take their daughters to attend this emergency education. This is because; most of the girls normally come home pregnant. This may not be as a result of rape, but they may be convinced to engage into unprotected sexual encounters with witty and mischievous boys. This ends up ruining their lives, as they cannot be easily married after getting pregnant. The parents thus see it wise to keep their daughters under their check to enhance they do not ruin their lives by mingling with the boys (Penson, 2009). Refugee camps may or may not have recourse to temporary classroom set-ups. If they do, they are often rudimentary and likely to cater solely for primary school children, leaving adolescents bereft of meaningful educational activities (Onyango 1998).

Given a political and social atmosphere of fear, disruption and violence – and frustrated by limited resources, it is hardly surprising that children, such as those documented in Palestinian studies, find it difficult to concentrate on their studies (Machel 1996). The educational setbacks are myriad and have far reaching repercussions. In the short term the routine and normalcy which schools provide are dissembled (Tolfree 1996, Boyden and Levison 1999). Longer term, children's educational development is impaired. There

are very pointed connections to be made here with the future of the country's economy. This is because children are the human resource bases of the next generation. 'Years lost in schooling and vocational skills will result in or exacerbate pre-existing underdevelopment and hinder any fractured society's recovery process even further (Machel 1996).

The loss of or separation from parents and or witnessing their harm, and anguish intensifies children's vulnerability and feelings of insecurity. Numerous studies show the presence of family members helps mitigate negative impacts of conflict by providing at least a baseline of human security (Boyden 1997, Geltman 1998, Plunkett 1998, Tolfree 1996). This shows family reunification efforts should be a top priority for humanitarian programs. From profound disturbances to the family unit, we can appreciate that the societal fabric as a whole is traumatized (Baro cited in Summerfield 1996b: 11). This also includes cultural suppression (supposedly outlawed in articles 14, 30 and 31 of the 1989 CRC). Summerfield discusses how children can become entirely disjointed from their traditional cultures. In the Sudanese civil conflicts for instance, disruption to the traditional cycle of animal husbandry wrought social and economic breakdown to pastoralist Southerners.

Also, with the emergency education, there is a great chance that there could be the teaching of an ethnical based history of South Sudan and specifically Juba. It is logical enough that the teachers will be teaching students from within their ethnic background. They will therefore influence the history that will be taught in such schools. For instance, they will teach only about the history that is bias towards them (Penson, 2009). Also, emergency education has also led to the development of a hybrid curriculum. This occurs when the refugees reside outside their country. A specific example is when refugees from South Sudan settle in Kenya or even in Uganda, they will be taught curriculums that are neutral to all the countries. For instance, those who are in Kenya will use a Kenya-South Sudan curriculum, whereas those who settle at Uganda would use a combination of curriculum from South Sudan and the host country, Uganda itself (Penson, 2009).

However, emergency education has faced a lot of resistance of late especially from those in charge such as the donors, the international organizations as well as the host countries that the refugees settle on after conflicts. Some of these crucial stakeholders believe that education is a development need and not a relief need. This is because they believe that education cannot be described as a basic need, however it is deemed as a secondary need to man. They believe that man can live and survive without education but can never live without food, shelter and healthcare. It is therefore their priority to meet the basic demands rather than spend the few resources they have on other “irrelevant” things as education (Cahill, 2010).

Also, the donors have the fear of attracting people from the destabilized areas. For instance, in case there is a refugee camp, those from within the area may come to the camps and become unruly. These people may be hooligans who come to steal, to rob, or might even cause the refugees psychological harm (Fernando, 2013). There is also a chance of unrest that comes as a result of introducing emergency education. This is because; the local people may get envious towards the refugees. The jealousy comes as a result of the fact that the refugees may be in a position to get some resources and favors that the local people are not in a position to achieve. This may lead to their invasion into the refugee camps to take part in attaining these resources (Grawet, 2010).

It is also noted that the teachers as well as other government workers had not been paid their salaries for a long duration of time. In fact, the teachers work on a voluntary basis. Since there isn't enough compensation for the input of time and other resources into this duty, there is the consequence of lack of commitment in the teachers. They thus offer low quality services to the students (Ireneo, 2010). During emergency education moments, there is always a challenge of enrollment. There may be a large number of student age refugees but not all are in a position to join the school. This is because the schools do not have the capacity to assimilate a large number of students due to the minimal resources available (Penson, 2009). The students, before the unrest and the conflict; before they were displaced were used to being taught in Arabic.

2.5 Destruction of Property and Participation of Pupils in Educational Programs

A report by UNESCO's Education for All global monitoring report and the NGO Save the Children states One particularly damaging, but often ignored, effect of conflict on education is the proliferation of attacks on schools, as children, teachers or school buildings become the targets of attacks. Parents fear sending their children to school. Girls are particularly vulnerable to sexual violence. The report further indicates that in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the M23 rebels were largely responsible for putting 250 schools out of use last year, either as a result of occupation for military purposes or looting. Between April and December 2013, more than 240,000 students went without schooling for weeks. In the Central African Republic, more than half of the country's schools remain closed following the Séléka rebel coalition's takeover of the country in April. The education of 1 million children has been jeopardized as a result.

In Mali, following widespread attacks, more than 1,500 schools in the north of the country need repair new equipment and removal of weapons. The conflict has disrupted the education of more than 700,000 children. Civil conflicts lead to the loss of infrastructure of the school or education facilities. This is because during the conflict, these infrastructures are damaged in great numbers. For instance, the classes are blown out by conflict materials such as during bombings. The materials are looted and some even burnt into ashes. The dormitories and the hostels are brought down to the ground. The chairs and the tables that are normally used by the teachers and the students to aid the teaching and learning process are also greatly destroyed by the conflict. The schools become similar to barren lands with just a few patches of buildings that remain upright (Ireneo, 2010).

Violence in has adversely affected the growth and the way communities live with each other. Fears of violence and worries have been the daily emotional feeling of the people. Thriving economies have been destroyed, infrastructure too has been damaged, and the living conditions of people affected severely in the conflict torn third world countries (Cahill, 2010).Violence cause major shocks to the systems of education, leading to bad

long lasting effects on the people and the stakeholders in the education sector. Violence inflicts fear in the lives of teachers and students forcing them to flee the violent areas thus affecting the qualities of education in such areas. Another adverse effect of violence is the unnecessary exposure of the families from the children to the adults to gender difference, thus individualizing the least unit in the community the family (World Bank, 2012).

2.6 Child Soldiering and Participation of Pupils in Educational Programs

A child soldier is any person under the age of 18 who is a member of or attached to government armed forces or any other regular or irregular armed force or armed political group, whether or not an armed conflict exists. Child soldiers perform a range of tasks including participation in combat, laying mines and explosives; scouting, spying, acting as decoys, couriers or guards; training, drill or other preparations; logistics and support functions, pottering, cooking and domestic labour; and sexual slavery or other recruitment for sexual purposes (Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, 2007).

The underachieving children were also those with the highest trauma symptom scores and with the most days absent from school, reporting headaches, stomachaches, and feeling miserable and worried as their reasons for absenteeism. Perez & Widom (1994) asserted that child abuse represents a significant risk factor for poor long-term intellectual and academic outcomes e.g. lower IQ and reading ability. Findings of low intellect in traumatized children were also described by Mannarino and Cohen (1986). The past several decades have seen prolonged conflicts in many different parts of the world. Conflicts in Afghanistan, Angola, Cambodia, Colombia, DRC, El Salvador, Sierra Leone and a host of other countries testify to the prevalence of this phenomenon. Many of these conflicts have their antecedents in historical inequities and social strife, accentuated by exploitative colonial and post-colonial regimes that failed to effectively govern or resurrect local economies. The prolonged exclusion and marginalization of groups combined with the resource rich geographies and the easy availability of small arms gave rise to conflicts, which were able to sustain themselves for many years.

A child's education can be disrupted by armed conflict, due to abduction, displacement, absence of teachers, long and dangerous walks to school (e.g. landmines, snipers), and parental poverty (e.g. inability to provide school fees and uniforms and the necessity for children to contribute to household income). Schools can be caught up in conflict as part of the fighting between government forces and rebel groups or can be used as centers for propaganda and recruitment. Attacks on and abductions of teachers and students are a frequent phenomenon of global human conflict. The same can be observed for hospitals, doctors, and nursing staff. Health centers often become a direct target, the medical supply is cut off during intense periods of fighting, and health personnel are frequently kept from accessing the sick and injured as a political strategy (Cairns, 1996; Sivayokan, 2006; UNICEF, 2005).

The social consequences of growing up in shattered, human conflict-torn environments include effects like alcoholism, drug abuse, and early unprotected sexual activity (sex for food and security), which can result in teenage pregnancy and the contraction of HIV/AIDS (Kessler, 2000; Yule, 2002). The increased likelihood of HIV transmission in conflict zones is mostly due to the breakdown of family, school, and health systems, with their regulatory safeguards that could counter these risks (UNICEF, 2005). Children participation in conflict and indoctrination into the ideologies of hatred and violence unfortunately leaves children's education and moral sensibilities deformed. Children may hand over their guns, but they cannot so easily abandon the violent ways of thinking in which they have been trained.

In assessing the impact of child soldiers in Northern Uganda on education, Christopher Blattman and Jeannie Annan established that male youths who had been abducted to fight in conflicts attained 0.75 fewer years of education, a 10% reduction relative to the average non-abducted youth's 7.6 years of education. This schooling loss corresponded closely with the average length of abduction—8.9 months, or 0.74 of a year. The abducted had also 15 percentage points less likely to report being functionally literate implying that abductees are nearly twice as likely to be illiterate than non-abductees.

When comparing abductees with non-abductees, Blattman (2006) came to the conclusion that especially traumatic experiences during abduction had an adverse impact on education, less years of schooling, greater reading problems, lower occupational functioning, and lower work quality later in life. A study by McFarlane and colleagues (McFarlane et al., 1987) showed that 18% of surveyed children after a disaster were underachieving educationally after 8 months; this figure had a statistically significant increase to 25% at 26 months.

In addition to working as combatants, conscripted children work as cooks, messengers, porters, scouts, sentries, servants, sex slaves and spies. They are used to lay and clear landmines, and occasionally they are used as human mine detectors or human shields. Child combatants are made to take part in various acts including unlawful killing, torture, rape, pillaging and looting. Militia and government armies see children as easy targets; they are easy to maintain, easy to manage, quickly to obey and unlikely to rebel against commanders. When childhood innocence and naiveté is corrupted by drugs, fear and the sense of power derived from holding an AK47 or an M16, these children become willing to perpetrate horrific acts (USAID, 2007). The fact that two million children have died in the past decade as a result of armed conflict, and six million have been injured or permanently disabled, indicates the degree to which children have been impacted by violent conflict (Save the Children, 2006a).

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on two theories namely systems theory, which relates to the first and third objectives of the study and human conflict anatomy theory that relate to the second and fourth objectives of the study.

2.7.1 Systems Theory

Systems theory is actually a term originated in and borrowed from the biological sciences, specifically from ecology (DuBois & Miley, 2002; Slossberg, Lynch & Chickering, 1989). Ecology deals with the interaction of an organism and its

environment. Although there is significant evidence that behavior is pre-determined through genetics, there is also evidence to suggest that when the environment is altered, so will the behavior alter. In one environment, an organism may flourish; in another, it may perish. The same is true of a learner who flourishes only when the environment is conducive and demoralized when the situation is adverse. The essence of the ecological perspective is that both the individual and the environment are seen as important.

To understand a learner, one must understand the interaction of the learner with his or her environment, including family, community, and the learning institution,. Schlossberg, et al. (1989) suggests we need to “see our institutions as environments that have the potential for facilitating or hindering learning”. Systems theory states that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, exists through the interaction of its parts, and that when one part of the system is changed, the system will react to that change. This theory is appropriate in this study because learning and education in general is a process, which depends on a host of other systems in the environment for it to achieve its purpose. Among them is security and political stability without which the system is affected.

2.7.2 Human Conflict Anatomy Theory

Conflict theory suggests that human behavior in social contexts results from conflicts between competing groups. Conflict theory originated with the work of Karl Marx in the mid-1800s. Marx understood human society in terms of conflict between social classes, notably the conflict in capitalist societies between those who owned the means of economic production (factory or farm owners, for example) and those who did not (the workers). Subsequent thinkers have described different versions of conflict theory; a common theme is that different social groups have unequal power, though all groups struggle for the same limited resources. This theory can be used to explain the struggle between the two warring parties in South Sudan’s on-going conflict. The ongoing conflict is basically assumed to be of power struggle, of two factions who were once in the same government.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

Interrelationships between study variables is as shown in Figure 2.1

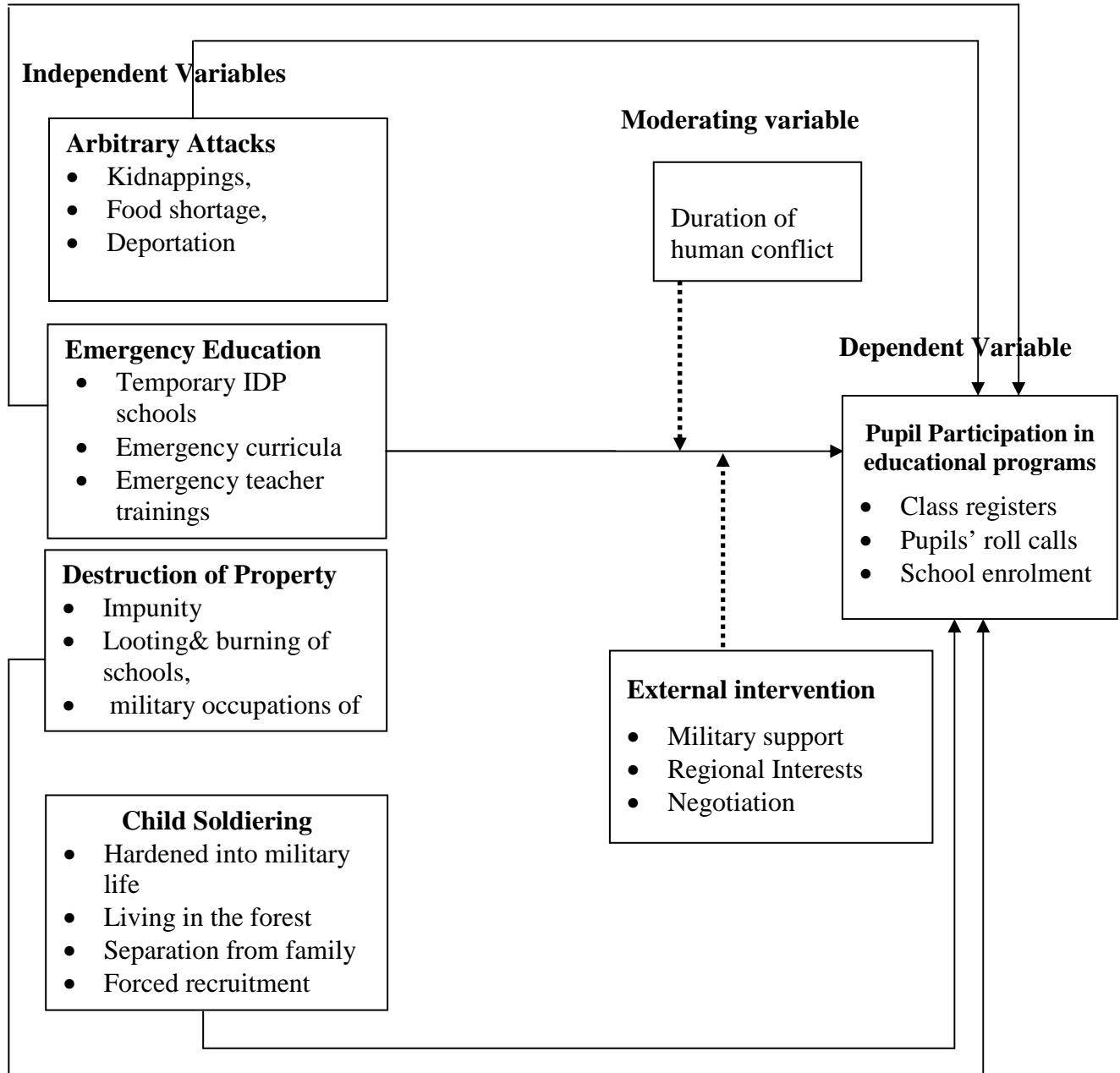


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.9 Knowledge Gap

Knowledge gap identified from the reviewed literature is as shown

Author	Focus of the Study	Methodology	Findings	Knowledge Gap	Focus of the Current Study
Goldson, (1999)	Influence of arbitrary attacks on pupil participation in educational programs	Descriptive survey with stratified sampling. Data analyzed parametrically	Found significant relationship between arbitrary attacks and pupil participation	Need for further research to elaborate findings using other conflict models	Impacts of conflicts on education
Penson,(2009)	Influence of emergency education on pupil participation in educational programs	Comparative analysis using 200 self-administered questionnaires	Did not show any relationships. A gap clearly shown	Methodology used was deficient and basically comparative	Study focuses on investigating the influence of emergency education on conflict
Ireneo, (2010)	Influence of child soldiering destruction on pupil participation in educational programs	Raw data collected and analyzed parametrically using 254 respondents	Study showed a huge relationship between property destruction and pupil performance	There is need to domesticate these findings in South Sudanese context	Study focuses on the influence of destruction of property on pupil participation in education programs
Blattman, (2006)	Influence of child soldiering on pupil participation in educational programs	Empirical survey using mixed methods research design	Child soldiering gravely impacts on pupil participation in educational programs	There is need to verify these findings using research methodologies	Study examines the influence of child soldiering on pupil participation in educational programs

2.10 Summary of the Literature Reviewed

The practical and conceptual importance of this topic has been not fully supported by the substantial volume of studies published in leading academic journals. However, despite the influence of recurrent human conflict on children's participation in education program, no comprehensive work has been advanced to assess the general influence of recurrent human conflict in the Juba region of South Sudan. This study seeks to fill that void by conducting a comparative investigative study on the nature of conflict affecting education, and particularly, children's participation in education program. In this chapter, various research work carried out by numerous researchers were reviewed and diverse information gaps revealed to be addressed. There seemed to be limited or no studies carried out in Juba particularly on the on-going region on the influence of the mid-December 2013 human conflict that is still going on. Therefore, the study intended to contribute to filling this information gap.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter lays down the procedures that the researcher used in conducting the study. The whole section describes the area of study, research design, study population, sampling techniques, sample size, validity and reliability of data collection instruments, Data Collection procedures and finally ethical considerations in the study.

3.2 Research Design

The study used descriptive survey design. It is the kind of design that involves the use of individual people as the units of analysis. By description it means considering such basic questions as what, how, when and where about a given phenomenon. Description research design can be used when collecting information about people's feelings, attitudes, opinions, on education or social issues. (Orodho and Kombo 2002) Since the study is descriptive in nature the researcher sought for detailed descriptions and comprehensiveness from the respondents.

3.3 Target Population

The target population for this study was 103 primary schools from Juba area of South Sudan, (APPENDIX VI). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a population is a complete set of individuals, cases or objects with some common observable characteristics. On the other hand, target population refers to that population to which a researcher wants to generalize the results of a study.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

Sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Orodho & Kombo, 2002). A sample is therefore a smaller group obtained from the accessible population. The researcher used stratified sampling to get respondents from the three areas within Juba area namely Kator, Juba and Munuki.

Thereafter, simple random sampling was used to choose respondents from the chosen schools.

3.4.1 Sample Size

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), 10% of the target population can make a reasonable size for experimental studies or 30% or more samples may be required for descriptive studies. From the target population of 103 schools, 30 schools were to be chosen through systematic sampling so that schools in all the three payams, namely; Kator, Juba and Munuki. From the 30 schools chosen, purposive sampling was used to pick 2 teachers, 2 parents and 5 pupils, which totaled to a sample of 270 respondents. Table 3.3 shows distribution of respondents.

3.4.2 Sampling Procedures

Sampling refers to the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals selected represents the large group from which they are selected (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The researcher used simple random sampling to pick the schools and thereafter used purposive sampling to pick individual respondents with characteristics required for analysis in the study area.

Table 3.1 Sample Size

Respondents	Number in each school	Number of Schools	Total
Teachers	2	30	60
Parents	2	30	60
Pupils	5	30	150
Total			270

3.5 Research Instruments

The study uses both primary data and secondary data. The primary data was collected using questionnaires, and interviews guides. Secondary data consisted of information from internet and other secondary sources. Questionnaires included structured and

unstructured questions and are to be administered through drop-and-pick method to the head teachers and teachers. The structured questionnaires were appropriate in an effort to conserve time and money as well as to facilitate in easier analysis as they are in immediate usable form, while the unstructured questions were used so as to encourage the head teachers to give an in-depth and felt response without feeling held back in revealing of any information. Observation checklist is then formulated to include information that led to conducting the study. Observations were made when the researcher visited the IDP camps where majority of the displaced children are living with their parents. This helps to establish the condition of living of the pupils, facilities and availability of schools for the same group in the camps. The researcher also observed children living in the camps and those that go to school from their homes to ascertain their participation and interest in schooling.

In order to establish the schooling of pupils in the target schools, records of attendance and how long schools remained closed before and after the conflict were checked. The pupils were also asked how they felt about the closure of schools, the changing of schools or how they feel about attending emergency schools. The interview schedule was used by the researcher to interview parents and those in charge of the feeding program in the respective schools. School schedules containing period when pupils were in session and how long they would be on vacation for the last five months were also collected. These were used to compare the schooling activities and how they have impacted before and during the conflict.

3.5.1 Piloting Testing of the Research Instruments

This involves trying out in the field once the research questions have been formulated. The questions were pre-tested to a selected sample used before finalizing them. According to Borg (2007), this should be done two months prior the actual day of data collection. This is to ascertain the reliability of the data collection instruments. In this case deficiencies such as the insufficient space to write, wrong phrasing of questions, vague questions and clustered questions are detected (Borg, 2007). It is the degree to

which a test measures what it purports to measure. To establish this, the researcher carried out a pre-test whereby the draft questionnaires were given out to respondents purposely selected from an internally displaced Camp in UNMISS POC in Juba. According to Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003, 10% of the sample can be used for pilot study thus, 27 respondents were selected and their responses were later collected for analysis to establish difficulties experienced in their adoption for use in the field. Adjustments were then made, after which a final re-test was done to see if the respondents were then able to fill in the tools without any problems. The final questionnaire was then ready for deployment in the field during the study.

3.5.2 Validity of Research Instruments

Validity according to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) is the accuracy, meaningfulness and the degree with which results obtained from the analysis of data actually represent the phenomena of the study. If the instrument contains a representative sample of the universe, the content validity is good. Its determination is primarily judgmental and intuitive. It can also be determined by using a panel of persons who shall judge how well the measuring instrument meets the standards, but there is no numerical way to express it. The researcher gave the research instruments to experts in research and peers, who read, judged and gave feedback to validate the instruments.

3.5.3 Reliability of Research Instruments

Reliability has to show the degree at which the research instruments yielded good results. In order to achieve this, the researcher administered the instruments herself in order to assess their clarity. The pilot study was conducted within an interval of two weeks. In this method, consistency of data is determined from the scores obtained from a double test administered by the researcher to a sample of subjects. Here a score from one item is correlated with scores obtained from other items in the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha is then calculated to determine how items correlate among themselves. Cronbach's Alpha is a general form of the Kuder-Richardson (K-R) 20 formulas presented below;

$$KR_{20} = \frac{(K)(S^2 - \sum s^2)}{(S^2)(K-1)}$$

Where: KR_{20} = Reliability coefficient of internal consistency

K = Number of items used to measure the concept

S^2 = Variance of all the scores

s^2 = Variance of individual items

A coefficient of 0.712 was obtained, the items correlated highly among them; meaning there was consistency among items in measuring the concept of interest.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is the process of gathering information about a phenomenon using data collection instruments (Sekaran, 2000). Primary source of data was used to obtain information for the study; this was collected by administering questionnaires to the sampled population of 270. The questionnaires were both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The researcher sought an introduction letter of authorization from the University to enable the researcher seek approval from the authorities in the study area to conduct research. After which Questionnaires were delivered to the respondents and a period stated on when to complete them, for example two weeks. After this period the questionnaires collected and put in a safe place for confidential purposes. The whole information given by each respondent was put together and recorded down accordingly for interpretation and analysis.

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques

The data generated was subjected to quantitative analysis to create percentage tables, graphs and charts. Statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version20 packages was used to carry out analysis on data collected from the respondents to generate simple frequencies and percentages. Some of the quantitative data that were analyzed include, the gender of respondents, marital status, and highest levels of education attained by respondents among other things. The researcher also used descriptive statistics to show

how distribution relationships between variables under study, proportions in terms of texts, percentages, and tables. This helped summarize and describe variables.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

For the purpose of this study, permission was sought from the relevant authorities to allow the researcher to carry out the study. In order to avoid suspicion and skepticism, the researcher assured the respondents utmost confidentiality and that the information they provided would only be used for academic purposes. The researcher sought the consent of each respondent to get the data and issues of confidentiality. In an unstable social and political environment like South Sudan, and more specially, due to the recent crises, sensitive information must be handled with extreme caution. As well as the potential distress it may cause to recollect experiences of abuse and violation, sharing such information may not only lead to stigma and suspicion but also put at risk the safety of children, their families and communities.

Confidentiality and anonymity are thus crucial. Photographs and video material raise obvious challenges since they make identification much easier. Consent in the use of cameras for research purposes and in the employment of materials produced must, therefore, be negotiated with particular care, ensuring that participants have fully considered the possible implications. In general, if sensitive material is to be shared the researcher must make sure that its source cannot be traced. Thus it was vital for the researcher to ensure that: All notes and records are stored securely where they cannot be accessed by unauthorized individuals; Notes are encrypted to conceal identities where such security is not possible; and careful consideration is given to the implications of sharing more widely any information that may have been offered privately or in specific circumstances.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION
OF THE FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study findings which have been discussed in line with the study objective themes and sub-thematic areas as follows: Questionnaires return rate, demographic characteristics of respondents, theme from objectives; to establish the influence of human conflict related insecurity on pupils' participation in education in Juba region of South Sudan, to investigate the influence of emergency curriculum on education program in Juba region of South Sudan, to establish the extent to which destruction of property influences children's school attendance in Juba region, South Sudan and to establish the extent to which child soldiering in Juba region, South Sudan influences on the children's education and state of mind. Presentation is done in tables, which are then interpreted and discussed under each table.

4.2 Questionnaire Response Rate

The study targeted a population of 103 primary schools. Target respondents were the primary teachers, pupils and parents from the selected schools in the study area. All of the 270 questionnaires distributed to the respondents were returned. This was because the researcher administered the questionnaire through research assistants who were students on their internship at the station. The students administered the questionnaires personally and ensured that they were filled and returned as presented in table 4.1 below. It is out of these questionnaires' responses that the presentation of the general information and the other analysis were done.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire Response Rate

Questionnaires	Frequency	Percentage
Returned Questionnaires	270	100
Questionnaires not returned	0	0
Totals	270	100

This response rate was excellent and adequate. According to Babble (1995) he suggested that a response rate of 70% and above was satisfactory for data analysis.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Evaluating the demographic information of the respondents helped the researcher in determining whether the individuals selected in the study were a representative sample of the target population for generalization purposes. In this study, personal information of the respondents was based on age, gender and teaching experience as shown in the tables below.

4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender of the 60 respondents was important since it may have been associated with the matching of those that were highly associated and affected by the conflict. Table 4.2 shows the distribution of respondents by gender.

Table 4.2 Distribution of Responses by Gender

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Male	38	63
Female	22	37
Total	60	100

From the study it was established that majority of respondents were male, (63 percent) were while the remaining (37 percent) of the respondents were Female. From the results obtained, majority of the teachers in the study area were male which may be as a result of the low empowerment of women in the region. In South Sudan, like many African countries, men dominate many of the positions not only in educational institutions, but also in all offices including government and non-governmental organizations.

4.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age was one of the major determinants in the study so as to be able to know the age group of the respondents. Table 4.3 shows distribution of respondents by age.

Table 4.3 Distribution of responses by Age

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 25	5	8
26-30	21	35
31-40	27	45
over 40	7	12
Total	60	100

From the findings, respondents who were less than 25 years of age were the least in number at only 8 percent. This further proves the hypothesis of people spending more years in school thus starting off their career lives at a later stage due to a number of reasons including destabilization by human conflict. 35 percent of the respondents were aged 26-30 years, 45 percent were aged 31-40 years and only 12 percent of the respondents were over 40 years old. Findings indicate that majority of the teachers in the study area were aged 31-40 years.

4.3.3 Teaching Experience of the Respondents

The researcher sought to investigate the number of years that the teachers in the selected schools had been teaching so as to be able to determine their perception of war on education. Table 4.4 below shows distribution of responses from the respondents according to years of experience.

Table 4.4 Distribution of Responses on Teaching Experience

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 year	4	7
2-5 years	12	19
6-10 years	25	42
11 and above	19	32
Total	60	100

The researcher also sought to investigate the number of years that the teachers in the selected schools had been teaching so as to be able to determine their perception of human conflict on education over the course of their service in teaching. Results of analysis reveal that only 7 percent of the respondents had taught for less than a year, 19 percent had taught for 2-5 years, 42 percent had been teaching for 6-10 years and 32 percent of the respondents had taught for over 11 years. From the results, majority of the teachers in the study area had taught for between 6 and 10 years, whereas few teachers had less than one year of teaching experience.

4.4 Influence of Human Conflict Insecurity on Children’s School Attendance

Conflict affects education in many ways. Most tragically, it results in the death or displacement of teachers, staff and students. To know whether or not human conflict related insecurity influenced pupils’ school attendance and participation in other educational activities in Juba region, South Sudan, the researcher investigated the enrolment rate of pupils, dropout rates, pupils’ fluctuations, reasons for pupils’ fluctuations, whether there were adequate teachers in the selected schools, fate of schools during conflict and general reasons for insufficient funds for education. Respondents were requested to provide information, which was tabulated as indicated in the following tables.

4.4.1 Pupils' Dropout Rate

The researcher wanted to investigate the rate at which the human conflict had propelled dropping out of schools by pupils in the affected areas. Table 4.5 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Responses on Dropout Rate

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	36	60
High	15	25
Low	6	10
Very low	3	5
Total	60	100

Results of the findings from table 4.5 above shows that that 60% of the respondents said that the dropout of pupils was very high, 25% said that it was high, 10% indicated that dropout was low and 5% of the respondents indicated that dropout was very low. From the results obtained, majority of teachers in the study area indicated that dropout rates were very high and this may have been attributed to the prevailing insecurity in the area.

Table 4.6 Distribution of Responses on Fate of Schools During Conflict

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Close school indefinitely	41	68
Close school for some time	15	25
Hire security and continue with learning	4	7
Total	60	100

Findings from table 4.6 above indicate that 68% of the respondents cited that schools are closed indefinitely, 25% of them said that schools resume for some time and only 7% said that they hire security and continue with learning. It is evident from the results that

majority of the respondents indicated closing schools indefinitely until such time when the situation was deemed fit to resume.

4.5 Influence of Emergency Education on Children’s School Attendance

When an overwhelming humanitarian disaster engulfs a given region, the international relief agencies descend upon such places with many interventions including education. Experts believe that education is always an important refugee or IDP protection measure. However, questions surround as to whether or not educational interventions in such set up create the intended impact or not. To investigate this, the researcher sought to measure the relevance of emergency curriculum offered as well as the number of actors or those who provide it during such calamities as human conflict. Tables 4.6 and 4.7 below show results obtained from respondents.

4.5.1 Providers of Emergency Curriculum

Table 4.7 below shows results obtained from respondents on those who provide emergency education services.

Table 4.7 Distribution of Respondents on Providers of Emergency Curriculum

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Government	8	13
Humanitarian NGO	13	22
Both	28	47
Voluntary teachers	11	18
Total	60	100

According to results in Table 4.7 above, 13% of the respondents said that the government provided emergency education, 22% indicated humanitarian NGOs, and 47% indicated that the government and the NGOs provided emergency education whereas 11% of the respondents indicated voluntary teachers as the ones who provided emergency curriculum

during human conflict. From the results, it is evident that the respondents cited both the government and NGOs as the main providers of curriculum in human conflict situation.

4.5.2 Relevance of Emergency Curriculum

In an attempt to establish the relevance of emergency curriculum that was provided, the researcher asked the respondents their views and their responses are shown in Table 4.8

Table 4.8 Distribution of Responses on Relevance of Emergency Curriculum

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	58	97
No	2	3
Total	60	100

Results obtained from the respondents indicate that 97% of them agreed that emergency curriculum was relevant during human conflict time and only 3% of the respondents were opposed to the idea. From the results, it is evident that majority of the respondents were in support of emergency curriculum.

The study established that Education in emergencies saves lives that conflict and disaster destroys – this is especially true in the case of children. Young people caught in emergency situations are thrown into unfamiliar and hostile realities – often without the safety nets they once enjoyed such as school and family. Over 90 percent of respondents agreed that emergency life skills educational initiatives employed by both government and Non-governmental organizations at the outset of a crisis can mitigate these circumstances and provide much needed survival skills to understand the dangers of a new environment. These include initiatives to teach landmine awareness, living and surviving in refugee camps, basic health and hygiene information, how to protect oneself from sexual abuse, and the provision of psychological support. (Nicolai, 2006) Education also protects the lives of children through the creation of a safe space. As noted in their 2004 Minimum Standards Handbook, the INEE states “quality education saves lives by

providing physical protection from the dangers and exploitation of a crisis environment. When a learner is in a safe learning environment he or she is less likely to be sexually or economically exploited or exposed to other risks such as recruitment into armed forces or organized crime.” (INEE, 2004)

4.6 Influence of Destruction of Property on Pupils School Attendance

Destruction of property can interrupt the normal learning process thus influence pupils’ school attendance and participation in other educational activities. To determine this, the researcher looked at the nature of destructions brought about by human conflict, continuation of learning after human conflict and mode of learning after destruction. Tables below indicate results obtained.

Table 4.9 Distribution of Responses on Destruction of Property/Displacement

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	56	93
No	4	7
Total	60	100

According to results obtained in table 4.9 above, 93% of the respondents cited destruction of school property and displacement as a results of human conflict whereas only 7% said that human conflict did not destroy schools property. From the results, it is evident that destruction of schools ‘property was a common feature during human conflict and this has affected education in the region.

4.6.1 Nature of Destruction

In an attempt to determine the nature of destruction that happened to schools during war, the researcher got responses in table 4.10

Table 4.10 Distribution of Responses on Nature of Destruction

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Destroyed buildings	23	38
Looted learning aids	6	10
Burnt stationery	12	20
Conversion to military camp	19	32
Total	60	100

Results of analysis in table 4.10 above also reveal that 38% of the respondents said that buildings were destroyed, 10% said that learning aids were looted, 20% said that stationery were burnt and 32% reported schools being converted to military camps. It is evident that schools were destroyed and some made military camps, which become hard for normal schooling to occur thus affecting education of the pupils.

4.6.2 Continuation of Learning

The researcher also sought to establish if indeed learning progressed after human conflict. Table 4.11 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.11 Distribution of Responses on Continuation of Learning after Conflict

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	34	57
No	26	43
Total	60	100

Results of analysis reveal that 57% of the respondents indicated a continuation of learning after human conflict whereas 43% said that learning did not continue after human conflict. From the results, although majority agreed that learning continued, a sizable number said that learning did not continue and thus affected education in the area.

4.6.3 Method of learning

The researcher also wished to know if indeed learning continued and how it was carried out after destruction of schools' property. Table 4.12 shows responses from the respondents.

Table 4.12 Distribution of Responses on Method of Learning after Destruction of Property

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Under a tree	14	23
In the camp	46	77
Total	60	100

Results of analysis reveal that 23% of the respondents said that learning continued under a tree and 77% of the indicated that learning took place in camps of displaced people. It can be concluded therefore that most of the learning took place in the camps after schools' property were destroyed.

Results from the survey established that destruction of property affected pupils' school attendance adversely. Property such as buildings would be brought down by bombings, leaving the school administration with no choice but to teach pupils under trees when situation subsides as the findings indicate. Learning aid were also be looted thus making it impossible for a smooth teaching and learning process. The use of explosive weapons in populated areas such as schools has devastating consequences for children. This lead to most children and their parents running for safety thus interrupting children's normal learning processes.

4.7 Influence of Child Soldiering on Participation of Pupils on Educational Programs

Child soldiering can affect the schooling of children in many ways. To determine this, the researcher sought to investigate the prevalence of child soldiering in the study area, mode

of recruitment of child soldiers into the armed forces, resumption to school of former child soldiers and their performance, effects of abduction, prolonged school years, incidences of school drop outs among former child soldiers, early pregnancies and death among children that join the armed forces. Tables below show the respondents' feedback.

4.7.1 Recruitment of Child Soldiers

The researcher was interested in establishing if the schools in the area had pupils who had been recruited to fight in conflicts. Table 4.13 shows distribution of responses from the respondents

Table 4.13 Distribution of Responses on Recruitment of Child Soldiers

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	47	31
No	103	69
Total	150	100

According to findings in table 4.13 above, 31% of the respondents were agreed that pupils had been recruited into armed forces in the previous conflicts whereas 69% of them said they had not witnessed children being recruited to serve in the human conflict. From the results, although the majority said they had not seen child soldiers, still the number that had witnessed children being recruited was significant to indicate that the vice existed and this was affecting children's education.

Results of analysis reveal that 75% of the respondents said that child soldiers were forcefully recruited to fight whereas 25% said that some children join the fighting on voluntary basis. These results reveal that child soldiers irrespective of the way they were recruited miss out on education. As to whether the child soldiers returned to school after recruitment, 45% said that they return whereas 55% did not return to school. From the results it is evident that most of the child soldiers did not return to school after being recruited as soldiers, which affected their education.

4.7.3 Resumption of Child Soldiers to School

The researcher also sought to know whether child soldiers returned to school after recruitment. Table 4.14 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.14 Distribution of Responses on Resumption of Child Soldiers to School

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	68	45
No	82	55
Total	150	100

As to whether the child soldiers returned to school after recruitment, 45% said that they return whereas 55% did not return to school. From the results it is evident that most of the child soldiers did not return to school after being recruited as soldiers, which affected their education.

4.7.4 Performance of Child Soldiers

The researcher investigated the performance of child soldiers when they resumed schooling so as to be able to establish whether it had been affected by human conflict Table 4.15 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.15 Distribution of Responses on Performance of Former Child Soldiers

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Good	14	9
Fair	52	35
Poor	84	56
Total	150	100

Results of analysis in table 4.15 above reveal that 9% of the respondents said that performance of former child soldiers was good, 35% said that it was fair and 56%

indicated that their performance was poor. It is evident from the results that performance of children at school was negatively affected by their involvement in human conflict.

Table 4.16 Distribution of Responses on Wounded/Serious Injuries

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	36	24
High	56	37
Moderate	18	12
Low	22	15
Very low	18	12
Total	150	100

Results of analysis revealed that 24% of the respondents had a very high opinion that most of the child soldiers got wounded/injured during the human conflict, 37% had a high opinion that they got serious injuries/wounded, 12% had a moderate view, 15% had a low opinion and 12% of them had a very low opinion that child soldiers were wounded/suffered serious injuries during human conflict. From the results, it is evident that child soldiers were prone to being wounded/suffered serious injuries when they are involved in human conflict and so few will go back to school.

Table 4.17 Distribution of Responses on School Drop Outs

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	88	58
High	43	29
Moderate	9	6
Low	7	5
Very low	3	2
Total	150	100

Results of analysis revealed that 58% of the respondents had a very high opinion that most of the child soldiers dropped out of school during the human conflict, 29% had a high opinion that they dropped out of, 6% had a moderate view, 5% had a low opinion and % of them had a very low opinion that child soldiers dropped out during human conflict. From the results, it is evident that child soldiers were prone to dropping out of school when they are involved in human conflict and so few will go back to school.

4.8 Household Respondents

The researcher sought to investigate from the households of the pupils so as to be able to establish the extent to which human conflict had affected education of their children. Households would play a significant role in determining enrolment and attendance to school and thus was important for the researcher to investigate. This was measured by investigating the households' demographic details, whether or not they had children of school going age, reasons for children not attending school, incidences of lost property amongst households, type of property lost, presence of children involved in human conflict, and whether or not these children resumed schooling.

4.8.1 Gender of the Respondents

Gender of the household was important for the researcher so as to be able to gauge their participation. Table 4.18 below indicates distribution of households by gender.

Table 4.18 Distributions of Responses by Gender

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Male	14	23
Female	46	77
Total	60	100

Results of analysis reveal that 23 % of the households were male whereas 77% of the households interviewed were female. This findings reveal that majority of the households

visited were female, which may have been attributed, to them being displaced with their children.

4.8.3 Children of School Going Age

From the households interviewed, the researcher sought to determine how many of them had children of school going age. Table 4.19 shows results obtained from the respondents.

Table 4.19 Distribution of Responses on Children of School Going Age

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	55	92
No	5	8
Total	60	100

From the results, 92% of the households had children of school going age whereas 8% of them did not have children of school going age. These results reveal that almost every household had children who were of school going age and that for any reason like human conflict hindering their education would be a concern for them.

Results in table 4.19 above indicate that 33% cited conflict as the reason for not attending school, 13% cited shortage of food, 25% cited displacement, 5% cited lack of funds, and 24% cited fear of abductions. From the results, it can be concluded that conflict, displacement and fear of abductions were the major cause of pupils not attending school in the study area.

4.8.5 Lost Property

The researcher sought to establish whether the respondents had lost any property as a result of human conflict. This was necessary as it helped to gauge its effect on education of children. Table 4.20 shows responses obtained from respondents.

Table 4.20 Distribution of Responses on Lost Property

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	54	90
No	6	10
Total	60	100

Results reveal that 90% of the respondents had lost property whereas only 10% had not lost any property as a result of human conflict. From the results, it is evident that majority of the respondents had lost property and were destabilized in one way or another which may affected education of their children.

4.8.6 Type of Property Lost

To find out the type of property lost, the researcher sought to identify so as to be able to gauge their effect on the household and whether the loss affected education of their children. Table 4.21 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.21 Distribution of Responses on Property Lost

Response	Frequency	Percentage
House	29	48
Livestock	23	38
Land	8	14
Total	60	100

Results obtained indicate that 48% of the respondents had lost their houses, 38% of them had lost livestock, and 14 % had lost land. It is evident from the results that majority of the respondents had lost houses and this was may have led to displacement which in turn may have affected education of their children. Losing livestock and land meant that their sources of income were diminished and increased poverty levels, which ultimately affected education of their children. Results obtained indicate that 70% of the respondents indicated that their children had been involved in human conflict and that

30% indicated that their children had not been involved. It was evident from the results that majority of the children had been affected by human conflict and this may have affected their education.

4.8.7 Ever Attended School after War

On further investigating whether those children who were involved in war went back to school after, the researcher obtained the results in table 4.22 from the respondents

Table 4.22 Distribution of Responses on Children Going Back To School after Conflict

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	32	53
No	28	47
Total	60	100

Results obtained indicate that 53% of those children who were involved in human conflict went back to school and that 47% of them did not go back after being involved in human conflict. These results conclude that human conflict has had a major effect on education of pupils in the study area.

4.9 Multiple Regression Analysis between Dependent Variable and Independent Variables on Influence of Human Conflict on Education

Table 4.23 shows the summary of the regression analysis that seeks to establish the relationship between education and pupils' dropout, recruitment of child soldiers, destruction of schools property and displacement. The regression was calculated using the basic regression model;

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Where y_i =education (dependent variable), β =coefficients to be determined for the independent variables (pupils' dropout, recruitment of child soldiers, destruction of schools property and displacement). According to the regression equation established, it

inferred that destruction of property (0.71) contributed more to affecting education followed by recruitment of child soldiers (0.40) and to a lesser degree displacement (0.37). At 5% level of significance and 95% level of confidence had a 0.031 level of significance; recruitment of child soldiers showed a 0.021 level of significance and destruction of property showed a 0.01 level of significant; hence the most significant factor was destruction of property.

Table 4.23 Multiple Regression Analysis of Dependent Variable against Independent Variables

Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic	P Value
Constant Term	0.16	2.56	0.02
Dropouts	0.52	2.438	0.031
Child soldiers	0.40	2.335	0.021
Destruction of Property	0.71	2.720	0.01
Displacement	0.37	2.431	0.042
R-squared		0.6084	
Adjusted R-squared		0.56	
Durbin-Watson value		2.09	

The regression had a correlation coefficient (R²) of 0.6084 and an adjusted R² of 0.56. This means that to 56 percent of the effects that affect education during human conflict in the study area are attributed to pupils' dropouts, recruitment of child soldiers, destruction of schools' property and displacement of teachers and families.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The section presents the summary of findings, discussions, conclusions and recommendations in line with the themes of study. Summary of the analysis is made and associated recommendations and suggestions for further research outlined.

5.2 Summary of Findings

From the findings, human conflict has affected students' enrolment to a greater extent. The researcher established that there has been very low enrolment and very high dropout rates in regions experiencing intense fighting. Furthermore, fluctuations in attendance of enrolled pupils were observed, a phenomenon largely attributed frequent insecurities within the area of the study. This situation resulted in shortage of teachers in these schools as confirmed by the respondents as a result of either teachers being among the displaced, transferring to other peaceful regions or getting killed amid the conflicts.

On emergency curriculum, the study found that schools closed indefinitely due to insufficiency of funds to run schools perhaps because of factors like strained economic growths and diversion of funds to security parameters in an attempt to restore order. As a way of bridging the gap, both the humanitarian NGOs carry out emergency curriculum and the government. Some volunteers were also identified as part of the team providing emergency curriculum. As to whether this emergency curriculum had any academic relevance to its beneficiaries, nearly all the study participants concurred that it was indeed relevant. As to whether destruction of property had influenced learning processes, the study also covered the effects of human conflict on educational materials, and it revealed that school structures were either brought down or converted to military camps during human conflicts as reported by majority of the respondents. It was noted that learning

continued despite these destructions and this may have an indication that people felt safer in the presence of security personnel.

On the issue of child soldiers, majority of the children interviewed admitted having being involved in conflict as child soldiers or served the soldiers and most of them did not get a chance to go back to school after the human conflict because of trauma, injuries sustained and pregnancies hence affecting their school attendance.

5.3 Conclusion of the Study

This study has shown that in the majority of contemporary conflicts, military forces and non-state armed groups use schools and other education institutions for purposes such as bases, barracks, detention facilities, torture centers, firing positions, and munitions caches. These uses can convert a school into a legitimate military target under international law and makes students, teachers, and learning facilities vulnerable to attack from opposing forces. In addition to the risk of death or severe injury from attacks, students attending classes in schools occupied by military forces may witness violence or be exposed to physical or sexual abuse by the combatants.

The presence of troops in schools also impacts young people's right to education, and leads to students dropping out, reduced enrollment, lower rates of transition to higher levels of education, loss of motivation or absenteeism by teachers and faculty, overall poorer educational attainment, and recruitment for violent activities. Girls and young women are disproportionately affected. Given education's key role in achieving other social and economic indicators, military use of schools can ultimately result in communities' diminished capacities to reach global development goals.

Guaranteeing the right to education is rarely a priority, or even a consideration, for armed forces and armed groups engaged in fighting. Even those armed forces that pride themselves on their knowledge and compliance with the laws of human conflict may be unaccustomed and unfamiliar with the idea of having to take into consideration children's

rights or economic and social rights when planning maneuvers and tactics for the battlefield. This study has shown that failing to do so, however, can have detrimental consequences for individuals and communities. There is an urgent need therefore, for clear and simple rules to guide soldiers' decision-making amidst the fog of human conflict. Commanders and planners would benefit from knowing how to prepare in advance so they can avoid needing to use education premises. Clear standards would also aid the monitoring and assessing of the conduct of armed forces and armed groups, and assist negotiations and interventions with groups who contravene such guidance. At a bare minimum, armed forces' obligations to respect and ensure students' security and right to education needs to be made more explicit. Examples of good practice in countries affected by armed conflict include an explicit prohibition on military use of schools and other learning institutions.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The study recommends that the government should criminalize all attacks on education and educational facilities and ensure all attacks on education are impartially investigated, and those responsible are duly prosecuted – whether through civilian or military courts. Prohibit the use of schools and other education institutions by military, security or non-state armed actors through domestic legislation and military doctrine. Work with communities to adopt local measures and initiatives driven by communities and local authorities to safeguard schools as centers of learning with the eventual adoption of Schools as Zones of Peace.

Work with civil society to review and strengthen national policies and practices, including monitoring and reporting mechanisms, and to develop stronger international standards that will protect education from attack. Encourage non-state armed groups in their territories to sign agreements of Commitment for the Protection of Children from the Effects of Armed Conflict. The stakeholders build capacity of governments and national civil society to monitor and report attacks on education and allocate funding for education in conflict-affected situations in their own pledges and disbursements, and

ensure their humanitarian and development policies are integrated in order to minimize the divide between humanitarian and development funding for education and Increase the levels of humanitarian aid to education, commensurate with the scale of needs, and progressively contribute to global humanitarian funding for education.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

It would be imperative to establish the psychological and social effects of human conflict related insecurities on children who witness armed conflicts at their adult life stages.

A study on effectiveness of existing policies meant to safeguard children from adverse effects of conflicts ought to be established.

The research covered Juba region where conflict subsided due to government efforts to normalize the area as it was the government seat. It is suggested that the study should be replicated in regions or states of South Sudan where conflict has never seized in intensity to evaluate the impact on schooling and other socio-economic status of children.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL OF DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Rehema Siama,
University of Nairobi
P.O Box 29052-
00100
Nairobi

Dear respondent,

RE: REQUEST FOR INFORMATION

This research is meant for academic purpose. It will try to find out the influence of human conflict on education in Juba region of South Sudan. You are kindly requested to provide answers to these questions as honestly and precisely as possible. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please do not write your name or that of your school anywhere on this questionnaire. Please tick where appropriate. Your participation in this study will make it to be a success.

Thank you in advance.

Regards,

REHEMA SIAMA

APPENDIX II
TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

You are kindly asked to respond to each question by ticking your appropriate answer in the spaces provided. Your responses will be highly confidential and will be used by the researcher for the purposes of this study ONLY.

To observe high confidentiality in this study, you are kindly asked not to write your name on the questionnaire. Please respond to ALL items applicable to you.

A. Demographic characteristics

1. Gender Male [] Female []

2. Age

25 and below [] 26 – 30 years [] 31-- 40 [] 41 and above []

3. For how long have you been teaching in juba region?

1 year and below [] 2-5 yrs [] 6 -10 yrs [] 11 and above []

4. What is your highest education level?

Primary [] Secondary [] College/University []

B. Influence of human conflict related insecurity on children’s participation in education

5. How has the enrollment rate been in your school for the last nine months?

Very high [] high [] low [] very low []

6. How would you rate the dropout rate of students in your school during the same period?

Very high [] high [] low [] very low []

7. If very low enrollment or very high dropout rate was experienced, what would you say was the main contributing factor?

Famine [] Insecurity [] poverty [] poor grades []

8. Is there enough teaching staff in the school?

Yes [] No []

9. If no, what could be the reason?

Transfers [] Change of career [] Death [] Displacement

10. What happens to the school when there are cases of insecurity?

Close school indefinitely []

Close school for some time []

Hire security and continue with learning []

11. In your opinion, what would you attribute inadequacy of funds in most public schools?

Diversion of funds for defense []

Fewer funds budgeted for Education []

Not sure []

C. Influence of emergency curriculums on education program

12. Who do you consider more concerned in providing emergency curriculum where humanitarian crisis exist?

Government [] Humanitarian NGOs [] voluntary teachers [] All []

13. Do you think emergency curriculum provide the children with the relevant academic knowledge?

Yes [] No []

D. Influence of destruction of property on education

14. Has any of the school property been destroyed/looted through an act of human conflict?

Yes [] No []

15. If yes, please indicate the nature of destruction or loss the school experienced.

- Destroyed Buildings []
- Looted Learning aids []
- Burnt Stationary []
- Converting school to military camp []

16. Did learning continue after the destruction of the facilities?

Yes [] No []

17. If yes, how has this been possible?

Under a tree [] in the camp [] other.....

E. Influence of child soldiering on education and state of mind

18. Have any of your students been recruited as child soldier when human conflict erupts?

Yes [] No []

19. How in your opinion does a child become a child soldier?

By force [] on voluntary []

19. Do these children come back to school upon returning from the battle fields?

Yes [] No []

20. If yes, how is the average performance of these students?

Good [] Fair [] Poor []

21. If yes, please rate the resultant effects on these children.

1 = Very high 2 = High 3 = moderate 4 = low 5 = very low

Resultant effects	Rate				
	1	2	3	4	5
Psychological trauma					
Behavioral change					
Prolonged school years					
Wounded/suffered serious injuries/killed					
Dropped out of school					
Early pregnancies/marriages					

**APPENDIX III
HOUSEHOLD BASED QUESTIONNAIRE**

Introduction

This questionnaire is designed to gather information on the on-going research to seek your opinion on the impact of conflict on the schooling of your child. Your opinion will be treated with total confidentiality and information from you will be used for purposes of this study ONLY.

Please respond to ALL items applicable to you.

1. Gender

Male [] Female []

2. Marital Status

Married [] Single [] Divorced [] Separated []

3. Do you have children who are of school going age but are not in school?

Yes [] No []

4. If yes in above, what are the reasons of your child not attending school?

Conflict [] Shortage of food [] Displacement []

Lack of funds [] Fear of abductions []

5. Have you lost property or any valuable in the past due to conflict?

Yes [] No []

6. What did you lose?

House [] Livestock [] Land [] other [] specify-----

7. Have any of your children been involved in human conflicts?

Yes [] No []

8. If yes did they ever go back to school?

Yes [] No []

Thank you!

APPENDIX VI
LIST OF SCHOOLS IN JUBA

S/NO	SCHOOL'S NAME
1	Gudele East 11 Primary School
2	Munuki East Basic School
3	Juba Nabari Primary School
4	Light Houses International School
5	FFEDA Primary School
6	Merkolong Primary School
7	Juba Model Primary School
8	Libya 2 Primary School
9	Mentor Nursery and Primary School
10	Gabat Basic School
11	RAINBOW Primary School
12	Buluk All Primary School
13	Supiri Two Primary School
14	AIC New Foundation Primary School
15	Hai Malakal Primary School
16	Nile Model Primary School
17	Liberty Primary School
18	Immanuel Model Primary School
19	Juba One Girls Primary School
20	Nyongwe Primary School
21	Wudu Primary School
22	Ebenezer Primary School
23	St. Daniel Primary School
24	Atlabara West Primary School
25	Morobo Primary School
26	Excel Primary School
27	Chief Charles Memorial Primary School
28	Adventist Primary School
29	Kinyiba Primary School
30	Pamoju Primary School
31	Mankaro Primary School
32	Ombachi Primary School
33	Loka Round Primary School
34	Beliak Primary School
35	Lire Primary School
36	Mondikolok Primary School
37	Romogi Primary School
38	Kaya Primary School
39	Bereka Primary School


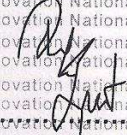
40	Dream Primary School
41	Wuluturu Primary School
42	Munuki Primary School
43	Loopo Primary School
44	Mundu Primary School
45	Logu Primary School
46	Andasire Primary School
47	Tipere Primary School
48	DWANI Primary School
49	Mangalotore Primary School
50	Panyana Primary School
51	Logili Primary School
52	Lukarubang Primary School
53	Wurta Primary School
54	Excel International Academy
55	Ywam Redeem Primary School
56	Kerwa Primary School
57	Luppapa Primary School
58	Christian Missionary Fellowship Primary School
59	John Garang International Primary School
60	Ronyi Primary School
61	Limbe Primary School
62	Ajira Primary School
63	St. Paul Primary School
64	Kinyiba Primary School
65	Panyume Primary School
66	Kupera Primary School
67	HAPPY HOURS Primary School
68	Sodogo Primary School
69	Gaderu Primary School
70	China Friendship Primary School
71	Kanyara Primary School
72	Bori Primary School
73	Aworo Primary School
74	Rokon Primary School
75	St. Peter Apostle Primary School
76	Lubule Primary School
77	Kirinya Primary School
78	Kasurak Primary School
79	Shining Star Group of Schools
80	Lumalura Primary School
81	Emmanuel Christian Primary School
82	Logwili Primary School

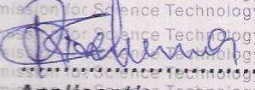
83	Dreamland Primary School
84	Kagelu Primary School
85	St. Thomas Primary School
86	Iwatoka Primary School
87	Gungi Primary School
88	Yondu E. Primary School
89	Nyori Primary School
90	Kaypeto Primary School
91	Bamurye Primary School
92	Nyei Primary School
93	Juba One Primary School
94	EPC Primary School
95	NTC Army Primary School
96	Okollowa Primary School
97	Atlabara Bara East Primary School
98	Dimo 2 Primary School
99	Mercy Nursery and Primary School
100	Arimbe Primary School
101	Kalla II Primary School
102	Arimbe Primary School
103	Andipala Primary School

APPENDIX V
RESEARCH PERMIT

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MS. REHEMA MAURINE SIAMA
of. THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI,
1795-47 Juba, has been permitted to
conduct research in Juba Region
on the topic: INFLUENCE OF WAR ON
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL
PUPILS IN JUBA REGION,
SOUTH SUDAN
for the period ending:
31st December, 2015

Permit No: NACOSTI/P/15/6186/4785
Date of Issue : 21st April, 2015
Fee Received: Ksh. 1000



Secretary
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation


Applicant's
Signature