

KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES, AND PRACTICES OF PARENTS FROM PRIVATE
AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS ON VIOLENCE AGAINST CHILDREN IN NEPAL: A
COMPARATIVE STUDY

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AN ABSTRACT

of the dissertation of *Peshal Kumar Puri* for the degree of *Master of Philosophy in Development Studies*, presented on *11 March 2026*, entitled *Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices of Parents from Private and Public Schools on Violence Against Children in Nepal: A Comparative Study*.

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Violence against children (VAC) is still a critical global issue, with implications for their physical, emotional, and cognitive development. In Nepal, despite recent constitutional provisions and policies prohibiting corporal punishment, however the national data show a high prevalence of violent disciplinary practices in all provinces and areas of Nepal. This study tries to address a gap in literature by conducting a comparative analysis of the Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP) about VAC among parents of both private and government schools in Arjundhara Municipality, Jhapa. This research is grounded in the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the research investigates how sociodemographic factors and school type influence parental feelings and disciplinary behaviors towards children.

A cross-sectional research survey design was administered, collecting data from 400 caregivers (180 from government schools and 220 from private schools) of children in grades 3-5, considering the age of the children between 8-11 years. Participants for the interview were selected using a multi-stage random sampling technique. A structured self-centered questionnaire, which is digitalized via Kobo Toolbox, and measured demographic variables with TPB constructs—knowledge, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, intentions, and practices. Data analysis involved descriptive statistics, independent t-tests, ANOVA, bivariate

regression, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to examine differences and predictive relationships as per the research questions' requirements.

The analysis found significant disparities between the two groups i.e. parents from private and government schools. Parents from private schools proved significantly higher mean scores in knowledge, attitudes favoring non-violent discipline, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis showed that perceived behavioral control was the strongest predictor of intention to avoid VAC for both groups of parents, but its influence was more pronounced among private school parents.

This research finally discussed that there are clear differences in parental KAP about VAC between private and government school settings in Nepal. The TPB creates a strong basis for understanding the differences between the parent populations of private schools and public schools and indicates that there is a need to enhance parents perceived control over using non-violent methods of discipline, as well as modify subjective norms in communities. Suggestions that could be put into practice include developing interventions that target school type and that give parents of children enrolled in public schools more control over the ways they parent through skill building and access to resources, and that utilize the progressive attitudes present in private schools to enhance and support peer led advocacy. Providing school based services to parents and ensuring compliance with child protection laws, are among the ways policymakers may help create a safe school environment for all children.

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11 March 2026

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बिकास शिक्षामा दर्शनशास्त्रको स्नातकोत्तर डिग्रिको लागि पेशल कुमार पुरी शोध प्रबन्धको शिर्षक "निजी र सार्वजनिक विद्यालयका अभिभावकहरू-बीच बालबालिकामाथि हुने हिंसाको सम्बन्धमा ज्ञान, दृष्टिकोण र व्यवहार सम्बन्धी तुलनात्मक अध्ययन" २७ फागुन २०८२ मा प्रस्तुत गरिएको थियो ।

.....
प्रा. प्रकाश चन्द्र भट्टराई, पिएचडी

शोध निर्देशक

बालबालिकामाथि हुने हिंसा विश्वव्यापी रूपमा गम्भीर समस्या हो, जसले तिनको शारीरिक, भावनात्मक र संज्ञानात्मक विकासमा गहिरो असर पार्छ। नेपालको संविधान र नीतिहरूले शारीरिक दण्डलाई निषेध गरेको भए पनि, राष्ट्रिय तथ्यांकहरूले हिंसात्मक अनुशासनात्मक अभ्यासहरू अझै उच्च दरमा रहेको देखाउँछ। यस अध्ययनले निजी र सरकारी विद्यालयमा अध्ययनरत बालबालिकाका अभिभावकबीच बालबालिकामाथि हुने हिंसा सम्बन्धी ज्ञान, दृष्टिकोण र व्यवहार को तुलनात्मक विश्लेषण गर्दै यस क्षेत्रमा रहेको महत्त्वपूर्ण खाडललाई सम्बोधन गर्दछ। नियोजित व्यवहार सिद्धान्त मा आधारित यो अनुसन्धानले सामाजिक-जनसांख्यिकीय पक्ष र विद्यालयको प्रकारले अभिभावकको धारणामा तथा अनुशासनात्मक व्यवहारमा कसरी प्रभाव पार्छ भन्ने अध्ययन गरेको छ।

यो अनुसन्धानमा क्रस-सेक्सनल सर्वे डिजाइन प्रयोग गरिएको छ। कक्षा ३ देखि ५ सम्मका ४०० जना अभिभावक (सरकारी विद्यालयबाट १८० र निजी विद्यालयबाट २२०) बाट तथ्यांक संकलन गरिएको हो। सहभागीहरूलाई बहु-चरणीय यादृच्छिक नमुना विधिबाट चयन गरिएको थियो। कोबोडुलबक्स मार्फत डिजिटल गरिएको संरचित प्रश्नावली प्रयोग गरी जनसांख्यिकीय विवरण र नियोजित व्यवहार सिद्धान्त का निर्माणहरू—ज्ञान, दृष्टिकोण, व्यक्तिपरक मान्यता, आचरणीय नियन्त्रणको अनुभूति, अभिप्राय, र व्यवहार—मापन गरिएको थियो। तथ्यांक विश्लेषणका लागि विवरणात्मक तथ्यांक, स्वतन्त्र टि-परीक्षण, एनोभा, द्विपरिमाणीय प्रतिगमन, र संरचनात्मक समीकरण मोडेलिङ प्रयोग गरिएको हो।

विश्लेषणले दुई समूहबीच उल्लेखनीय भिन्नता देखायो। निजी विद्यालयका अभिभावकहरूले ज्ञान, अहिंसात्मक अनुशासनप्रति सकारात्मक दृष्टिकोण, व्यक्तिपरक मान्यता, र आचरणीय नियन्त्रणमा सरकारी विद्यालयका अभिभावकभन्दा उच्च अंक प्राप्त गरे। Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) विश्लेषणले आचरणीय नियन्त्रणलाई बालबालिकामाथि हुने हिंसा नगर्ने अभिप्रायको सबैभन्दा शक्तिशाली पूर्वानुमानकर्ताका रूपमा देखायो, तर यसको प्रभाव निजी विद्यालयका अभिभावकहरूमा अझ प्रबल थियो। यद्यपि निजी विद्यालयका अभिभावकहरूमा अभिप्राय उच्च भए पनि, त्यो अभिप्रायलाई वास्तविक

अहिंसात्मक अभ्यासमा रूपान्तरण गर्ने प्रक्रियामा, विशेष गरी सरकारी विद्यालयमा, खाडल देखियो। प्रतिगमन विश्लेषणले अभिभावकको शिक्षा, आर्थिक स्तर, र लिङ्गलाई ज्ञान, दृष्टिकोण र व्यवहार स्कोरका महत्त्वपूर्ण पूर्वानुमानकर्ताका रूपमा देखायो।

यस अनुसन्धानले अर्जुनधारा नगरपालिकाभित्र निजी र सरकारी विद्यालयका अभिभावकहरूबीच बालबालिकामाथि हुने हिंसा सम्बन्धी ज्ञान, दृष्टिकोण, र व्यवहारमा स्पष्ट भिन्नता रहेको निष्कर्ष निकालेको छ। यी भिन्नतालाई बुझ्न नियोजित व्यवहार सिद्धान्त एक मजबुत रूपरेखा बनेको छ, जसले अहिंसात्मक अनुशासनमा अभिभावकको नियन्त्रणबोध बढाउन र समुदायस्तरमा व्यक्तिपरक मान्यता परिवर्तन गर्न आवश्यक रहेको देखाउँछ। सिफारिसका रूपमा सरकारी विद्यालयका अभिभावकलाई सीप विकास र स्रोत पहुँचमार्फत सशक्त बनाउने, निजी विद्यालयमा भएका प्रगतिशील दृष्टिकोणलाई सहकर्मी नेतृत्वमा आधारित अभिवक्त्य को लागि प्रयोग गर्ने, विद्यालयमै आधारित अभिभावक शिक्षण कार्यक्रमलाई सुदृढ पार्ने र प्रचलित बाल सुरक्षा कानूनलाई कार्यान्वयन गर्ने सुझाव दिइएको छ, जसले सबै किसिमका विद्यालयका बालबालिकाको लागि सुरक्षित वातावरण निर्माण गर्नेछ।

२७ फागुन २०८२

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पेशल कुमार पुरी

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This dissertation, entitled *Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices of Parents from Private and Public Schools on Violence Against Children in Nepal: A Comparative Study*, was presented by *Peshal Kumar Puri* on *11 March 2026*.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my original work, and it has not been submitted for candidature for any other degree at any other university.

.....

11 March 2026

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DEDICATION

To All Paragons of Virtue

My Universe

To those who live with integrity, teach with kindness, lead with wisdom, and inspire
through quiet strength- this work is for you.

Thank You!

My mother, Lila Maya Puri

My father, Dambar Bdr Puri

My wife, Manisha Giri

My son, Aaditya Puri

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Above all, I owe the most to my mother, whose unconditional love and guidance have been the foundation of my life, to my wife, Manisha Giri, for her constant encouragement and support in helping me complete my work on time, and to my son, who has been a source of joy and motivation, often studying alongside me. I am profoundly grateful to all of them for their patience, inspiration, and unwavering support. Which has been my greatest strength throughout this journey?

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ii
ABBREVIATIONS	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	x
CHAPTER I	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Problem of the Statement	4
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions.....	6
Research Hypothesis	6
Significance of Study	7
Delimitation of the Study	8
Limitations of the Study.....	8
Organization of the Study	8
CHAPTER II.....	10
LITERATURE REVIEW	10
Parenting Practices and Disciplinary Methods.....	12
Global, Asia, Developing Country, and Nepal Contexts	13
Socioeconomic and Demographic Influences: Factors for Parental KAP on VAC	15
Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and VAC	19
Theoretical Review and Framework	21
Attitude Towards the Behavior: Parental Views on Disciplinary Practices	22
Subjective Norms, Social Pressures and Parental Disciplinary Choices.....	25
Perceived Behavioral Control: Parental Capacity and Confidence in Discipline	
.....	26
Intention: The Immediate Precursor to Parental Behavior	27
Behavior: The Manifestation of Intentions in Parental Discipline	27
Theoretical Framework	29
Chapter Summary	33
CHAPTER III.....	34

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	34
Research Philosophy	34
Research Design	36
Sampling Design: Sampling Procedure and Sample Size	36
Data Collection and Management.....	41
Research Scale Construction	43
Generating Hypotheses for Supporting Research Questions.....	44
Validity and Reliability	46
Ethical Considerations	48
Chapter Summary	48
CHAPTER IV	50
FINDINGS	50
Demographic Information	50
Caregivers' Knowledge on Violence Against Children	55
Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	60
Respondent Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children.....	61
Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	62
HH Occupation/Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	64
Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	65
Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children.....	66
Caregivers' Attitude on Violence Against Children	67
Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children	72
Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children	73
Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children	74

Occupation and Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children	75
Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	76
Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	77
Caregivers' Practice on Violence Against Children	78
Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children.....	83
Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children	84
Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children	85
Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Practice Against Children.....	86
Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children.....	87
Relation Between Variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior	88
The Relation Between the Variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior in a Government School	88
The Relation Between the Variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior in Private Schools	89
Exploring the Influence of TPB Components on Caregiver Intentions by School Context Using the Semi-Structured Analysis.....	91
Semi-Structured Analysis of the Government School	91
TBC Using the Semi-Structured Analysis of the Both School.....	95
Predicting Parental Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices on Child Violence Through Sociodemographic	96
Predicting Parental Knowledge	97
Predicting Parental Attitude	98
Predicting Subjective Norms.....	100
Predicting Perceived Behaviors	101
Predicting Intention.....	102
Predicating Practice	103

Summary of the Findings	104
CHAPTER V	106
DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS	106
Differences in Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP) Between Private and Government School Parents	106
Caregiver's Knowledge on Violence Against Children (VAC)	109
Parents' Attitude on Violence against Children (VAC).....	109
Parents' Practice on Violence Against Children (VAC).....	111
Prediction Intention and Behaviors.....	112
Relationship Between Attitude (ATT), Subjective Norms (SN), and Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) on Violence Against Children	112
Pathways to Non-Violent Parenting: A Theory of Planned Behavior Perspective.....	114
Predicting Components of the Theory of Planned Behavior.....	116
Predicting Parents' knowledge Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools.....	117
Predicting Parents' Subjective Norms Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools	118
Predicting Parents' Perceived Behavioral Control.	119
Predicting Parents' Intention Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools.....	120
Predicting Parents' Practice Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools.....	121
Research-Based Design of the Theory of Planned Behaviors on VAC between Parents of Private and Government Schools	122
Chapter Summary	125
CHAPTER VI	126
RECAPITULATION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION	126
Recapitulation.....	126
Conclusion.....	129
Recommendation	130
Concerned Stakeholders.....	131
My Learning and Way Out.....	133
REFERENCES	135

APPENDICES.....	153
Study Tool.....	153
Regression Tables.....	162

ABBREVIATIONS

ATT	Attitudes
BEH	Behavior
CRC	Convention on the Rights of Children
INT	Intention
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
KAP	Knowledge Attitude and Practice
KU	Kathmandu University
KUSOED	Kathmandu University School of Education
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PBC	Perceived Behavioral Control
PSU	Primary Sample Units
PwV	Parenting Without Violence
QC	Quality Control
SAIEVC	South Asian Initiative to End Violence Against Children
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SES	Socioeconomic Status
SN	Subjective Norms
SSU	Secondary Sample Units
STATA	Statistical Software
SZOP	School Zones of Peace
TPB	Theory of Planned Behavior
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UN	United Nation
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VAC	Violence Against Children
WHO	World Health Organization

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Theory of Reasoned Action	23
Figure 2 Theory of Planned Behavior	24
Figure 3 The Role of Background Factors in the Theory of Planned Behavior	29
Figure 4 Conceptual Framework.....	30
Figure 5 Normalization of the Children Number for Sampling	39
Figure 6 Sample Flow Chart	40
Figure 7 Generalizability for Validity	47
Figure 8 Bivariate Regression on Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	61
Figure 9 Bivariate Regression on Respondent Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children.....	62
Figure 10 Bivariate Regression on Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	63
Figure 11 Bivariate Regression on HH Occupation/Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children.....	64
Figure 12 Bivariate Regression on Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children	65
Figure 13 Bivariate Regression on Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children.....	66
Figure 14 Bivariate Regression on Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	72
Figure 15 Bivariate Regression on Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	73
Figure 16 Bivariate Regression on Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	74
Figure 17 Bivariate Regression on Occupation and Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	75
Figure 18 Bivariate Regression on Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	76
Figure 19 Bivariate Regression on Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children.....	77

Figure 20 Bivariate Regression on Family size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children.....	83
Figure 21 Bivariate Regression on Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children.....	84
Figure 22 Bivariate Regression on Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children.....	85
Figure 23 Bivariate Regression on Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Practice Against Children	86
Figure 24 Bivariate Regression on Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children.....	87
Figure 25 Semi-Structured Analysis of the Government School.	91
Figure 26 Components of TBC Using the Semi-Structured Analysis of the Private School	93
Figure 27 TBC Using the Semi-Structured Analysis of the Whole School.....	95
Figure 28 Relationship Between Attitude, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioral Control Between Private School and Government School Parents Based on the Results	113
Figure 29 Pathway Between the Government Schools and Private School's Children's Parents on TPB.....	116
Figure 30 Final TPB Model	124

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Research Questions and Analytical Tool	44
Table 2 Demographic information of the respondents	50
Table 3 Demographic Information of the Respondent's Household Level	51
Table 4 Demographic Information of the Respondent's Child	53
Table 5 Mean Value of the KAP and Other TPB Components, Compared to the Government School and the Private School	54
Table 6 Caregiver Knowledge Scores by Caregiver's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	56
Table 7 Caregiver Knowledge Scores by Household's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	57
Table 8 Caregiver Knowledge Scores by Child's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	59
Table 9 Caregiver Attitude on Violence Against Children Scores by Caregiver's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	67
Table 10 Caregiver Attitude on Violence Against Children Scores by Child's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	68
Table 11 Caregiver Attitude on Violence Against Children Scores by Household's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	70
Table 12 Caregiver Practice on Violence Against Children Scores by Caregiver's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	78
Table 13 Caregiver Practice on Violence Against Children Scores by Child's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	79
Table 14 Caregiver Practice on Violence Against Children Scores by Household's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools	80
Table 15 Pairwise Correlations Between Government School and Private Schools .	90
Table 16 Structural Equation Modeling Results for Government School Parents: TPB Predictors of Violence Prevention Intentions and Behaviors	92
Table 17 Structural Equation Modeling Results for Private School Parents: TPB Predictors of Violence Prevention Intentions and Behaviors	94

Table 18 Structural Equation Modeling Results: Theory of Planned Behavior Predictors of Intention and Behavior Regarding Violence Against Children in Both Schools.....	96
Table 19 Predicting Parental Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices on Child Violence Through Sociodemographic and TPB Constructs.....	162
Table 20 Predicting Parental Attitude on Violence against	165
Table 21 Predicting Parental Subjective Norms on Violence against Children by School Types.....	168
Table 22 Predicting Parental Perceived Behaviors on Violence against Children by School Types.....	171
Table 23 Predicting Parental Intention on Violence against Children by School Types	174
Table 24 Predicting Parental Practice on Violence against Children by School Types	177
Table 25 Predicting Parental Positive Punishment and Humiliating Practices on Violence against Children by School Types	180

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Violence against children includes physical, emotional, and sexual abuse, and neglect, which pose significant dangers to their well-being and growth. Physical abuse includes physical pain, such as striking and scorching. Similarly, emotional abuse includes the behaviors that chip away at a child's confidence. Further, neglect happens when a child's basic needs, like food, shelter, or healthcare, are not met. All the above are diverse types of violence that can lead to serious physical and mental issues and problems.

The causes of violence against children (VAC) are complicated, often interrelated, and overlap with one another. VAC arises from a combination of factors, such as a parent's individual issues (e.g., alcohol or drug use), family issues (e.g., workers' disagreements), and social problems (e.g., poverty) that are all joint links to VAC. Addressing and preventing VAC requires a multi-faceted approach, since the root causes are not necessarily linked to VAC. Ways to address VAC include community education and awareness, such as what is bad about the problem and how people can do something about the problem. Good strong laws also set clear protection from VAC. Support services also make it easier for families to navigate VAC as well. Also, ongoing research and monitoring are essential to understand the prevalence and impact of such violence, as well as to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions, thereby ensuring a safe and supportive environment for all children.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2025) said that about 150 million kids aged 13 to 15, or half of all students in that age group, experience violence between peers at school or near school. More than a third of kids in this age group are bullied and get into fights. Also, about 720 million school-aged children live in countries where there are no full legal protections against the use of physical punishment in schools. From 2005 to 2020, the United Nations confirmed more than 13,900 instances of assaults on educational and medical facilities, affecting students, hospitalized children, as well as school and health staff. At a prevalence of 62.5% and 65.4%, respectively, 220.4 million and 230.7 million children were subjected to physical and psychological forms of forceful discipline. (Cuartas et al., 2019).

Out of a total population of 353 million 2- to 4-year-olds in LMICs (Low and Middle Countries), this study estimates that 56 million children do not experience positive, non-violent discipline techniques, 220 million are exposed to physical aggression, and 230 million are exposed to psychological aggression. Even though there is a lot of evidence that harsh forms of discipline are bad for kids, caregivers keep using them (Cuartas et al., 2019).

UNICEF (2019), Nepal shows that 82% of the children aged 1-14 are facing any type of violent discipline methods, both physical and humiliating. Similarly, 77% faced psychological aggression and 63.4% faced any type of physical punishment; similarly, 20.2% faced severe types of punishment in the last months. Results show that most of the children in the province (87.6%) face any type of physical punishment. Furthermore, the result shows that children who are under grade 1-5 (85.7%) face violent discipline compared to the others. 22.8% of mothers believe physical punishment is important for their children, while the province Koshi (24.1%) is higher than other provinces. The results also showed that caretakers/mothers of children who are nine years old in the Koshi province are accepting more violence (UNICEF, 2019).

Parenting styles and strategies are a relevant part of adult-child interaction in parenting that influences the child's behavior, feel, and development. Different parenting styles and strategies used for discipline with their children, importantly, influence how values are instilled, or which competences are fostered and would eventually affect long-term outcomes or assumptions on better outcomes for their children. The comparative analysis of non-violent child discipline on parents with children in private and public schools in Arjundhara Municipality, Nepal, is significant in contending with social and cultural diversity.

Punishment in private and government schools is considered normal as per my experience with the different education development projects over the last decade. Also, it shows the status in the UNICEF (2019) of Nepal. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2019), approximately three out of ten children experience at least one act of violence per month. Children who study in schools in rural areas mostly face violence from schools due to homework cases, and simple discipline supported in school. Similarly, the research of Save the Children suggests that both boys and girls experience school

violence, with boys more commonly experiencing physical violence and girls more commonly experiencing nonphysical violence.

The concept of discipline in child-rearing has changed dramatically throughout time. Accepting violations was a popular technique to keep discipline under the country's conventional practice and expectation. However, in recent decades, with the support of research and advocacy activities, the concepts have changed and educated that they have a direct impact on children's psychological well-being and behavioral roles (Gershoff, 2013). Clear approaches to the VAC and positive ways shift the paradigm toward nonviolent discipline. (Durrant & Ensom, 2012). This shift has occurred because of the changes that have taken place. However, there are certain assumptions in school, mostly in private stays, that punishment is the key to maintaining school discipline. While I was studying at my school 20 years ago, the teachers at the public school were stricter on their subject and to support the quality of the education, they used to do physical punishment. Nowadays, we can see in school based on the key subject (Math, Science in both school and English in public school), punishment is normal, and parents also accept it assuming it is for their children's future.

Children in the community experienced a lack of educational opportunities, physical punishment and verbal reprimands from adults, excessive job responsibilities, early marriage, and gender-based discrimination as forms of child abuse. Verbal and physical abuse were identified as the most prevalent types of child abuse in this context (UNICEF, 2019). It shows that not only in school, but we can also see the violence in children, communities within the friends, family, elders etc. Therefore, Parenting methods use the complex and diverse process of helping a child grow, develop, and thrive from childhood to adulthood. With caregivers providing ongoing support, and care, and fulfilling the various responsibilities that come with raising a child. Discipline is a method of teaching and caring that works best when used in conjunction with positive relationships, tactics for fostering good conduct, and methods for eradicating unruly behavior (Sege & Siegel, 2018). So, the research also found the knowledge, attitude, and practice of the parents for identifying the gaps in positive parenting.

Icek Ajzen founded and developed the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) in 1991. It is a social psychology paradigm that aids in the understanding and prediction of human behavior. Prior to the TPB, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) was

used, but it did not include perceived behavioral control, which the TPB does. It adds that people's behaviors are mostly influenced by their intention to engage in practice. Intention includes people's thoughts, feelings, and the social factors that surround them, such as community, household, and government. Because of this, TPB is a valuable tool to understand and study why people adopt specific behaviors in different situations.

The Theory of Planned Behavior is important for behavioral science because it is widely used and applied in the different areas of study and research. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) has been successfully employed beyond its traditional context in health psychology, achieving efficacy in fields such as environmental science, entrepreneurship, and information systems to understand and promote desired behaviors (Hagger et al., 2002; Notani, 1998; Schepers & Wetzels, 2007). Researchers often enhance the core TPB model by incorporating more variables, such as past behavior, habitual tendencies, or ethical norms, to enhance its explanatory power in specific contexts. The TPB is an important theoretical framework for studying the psychological factors of parents and caregivers that affect human behavior because it can be used in many different ways and has been backed up by a lot of research over the years. It is a useful framework for both academic research and the development of practical interventions, which has been proven.

Problem of the Statement

My personal experience working with children for a decade in education, in the role of monitoring, evaluation, and research, found the parents or caretakers' acceptance of the punishment of children normal and not alarming if there is no big physical harm or injury. Parents believe that punishment and no big harm violence in school are also considered for their futures. When I was a student at the school and higher school, I used to face mostly teachers of harder subjects like Math, science, and English, who used to do more violence compared to others, but some other teachers also punished based on their mood. The culture in private schools to bring the best results continues nowadays too.

Although Violence Against Children (VAC) includes many types of abuse, such as sexual abuse and labor exploitation, this study only looks at disciplinary violence, or physical and/or psychological aggression used to inflict pain or discomfort on a child for the purposes of discipline and control. The reason for the narrow focus is because of the normalization of using physical punishment as a means

to raise children in Nepalese homes. Corporal punishment is perceived as necessary to teach children to behave well rather than being considered a violation of a child's rights.

The Constitution of Nepal 2015 Article 39-7 states, "No child shall be subjected to physical, mental, or any other forms of torture at home, in school, or any other place". It also guarantees the right of the elderly person to live with dignity in Article 160 and "equal protection of law", article 18 (Constituent Assembly Secretariat [CAS], 2015). Nepal ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) in 1990, the Children's Act 2018, and the School Reform Plan 2009-2015 highlighted that teachers should not practice any type of corporal punishment in school. These policies and plans are remarkable for the prohibition of all kinds of corporal punishment toward children.

UNICEF (2019) report shows that every eight out of 10 children in Nepal experience violent discipline. Similarly, the report further added that more than 80% of the children aged one to fourteen experienced corporal punishment. Similarly, 70% of children face physical aggression, 50% face punishment and 14% children have gone through brutal punishment.

Hence, parents or caretakers play a crucial role in mitigating potential risks for children in the future. In his dissertation, Neupane et al. (2018) emphasized many instances of corporal punishment. A considerable number of children in Nepal are resorting to suicide, acquiring drug addictions, and experiencing mental health issues. These problems can be attributed to the lack of sufficient care and the acceptance of violence against children, as reported by many national news outlets in Nepal.

Therefore, the issue of corporal punishment in Nepal stays underexplored despite a strong policy framework prohibiting it. The Constitution of Nepal 2015 bans all forms of violence against children, but in practice, these laws are not enforced in reality and practice. Over 80% of children experience any form of corporal punishment as per the data of UNICEF (2019). It leads to serious mental health consequences for children.

Purpose of the Study

The Purpose of this study compare parents from private and government schools' understanding, beliefs, and behaviors about violence against children to find predictive variables, including school types, socioeconomic status, control, and educational background in Arjundhara Municipality, Nepal.

The decision to focus on parents and caregivers, rather than educators, stems from the recognition of home as the primary site of socialization. Caregivers are the principal duty-bearers responsible for a child's immediate protection; their Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP) form the foundational environment that dictates a child's emotional and cognitive readiness for school. Therefore, understanding the factors that drive parents is important for breaking the cycle of VAC that passes from one generation to the next.

Research Questions

- 1) What are the differences in Knowledge, attitude and Practice of violence against children between parents from private and government schools?
- 2) What is the relation between the components of the TPB of the parents between private and government schools about violence against children's practices?
- 3) To what extent do parents' scores on the components of the Theory of Planned Behavior (knowledge, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, intentions, and practices) vary?
- 4) How do sociodemographic factors predict parents' knowledge, attitudes, perceived behavioral control, and practices related to violence against children in public and private school settings, based on the Theory of Planned Behavior?

Research Hypothesis

The study began with the assumption that parents' backgrounds and the kind of school their kids go to (private or public) had a big impact on how much they know about violence against kids, what they think about it, and how they discipline their children. It was anticipated that parents from private schools would possess more effective knowledge and exhibit more favorable, non-violent attitudes in comparison to parents from government institutions. The research sought to determine whether a parent's intention to avoid violence serves as the most accurate predictor of their actual behavior, and whether this intention is influenced by their personal attitudes, social influences, and their confidence in employing other disciplinary measures.

The major hypotheses of the study are,

1. There are significant differences in parents' knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding violence against children between private and public school settings.

2. The relationships between Theory of Planned Behavior components and parents' practices of violence against children differ significantly between private and government school groups.
3. Parents' Theory of Planned Behavior scores vary significantly based on gender.
4. Sociodemographic factors significantly predict parents' knowledge, attitudes, perceived behavioral control, and practices related to violence against children, and these effects differ between public and private school settings.

Significance of Study

This study aims to provide comprehensive empirical evidence on the parents' knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding disciplining children in both private and public schools.

The study is important to understand the parents' belief, knowledge, and practice of violence against children and the difference between government (public) schools and private schools. The study also supports showing which schools provide more violence towards children and which group of parents accepts violence towards children. The ages from ages one to fourteen are more sensitive and it is critical to grow minds more than 80% (UNICEF, 2019). If parents accept violence against children, it means children facing violence in school, communities or at home, which significantly impacts on the child mental growth (UNICEF, 2019). Contextual factors within Nepalese secondary schools significantly influence teacher practices, shaping how educational resources and methodologies are implemented in diverse classroom settings (Rai, 2024).

Despite forming different laws and policies protecting children from violence, the results of UNICEF (2019) show that the rate of facing violence is significantly higher in Nepal as well as in the province of Koshi.

The research additionally recommends that the Government of Nepal enforce a policy of complete intolerance for violence, regard schools as areas of peace, and implement inclusive education. We need to think about how we teach kids in schools because of all the violence that is happening to them. This is a problem in both private schools and public schools. We have to make sure that we do not allow any kind of violence. The schools should have a strict rule that says we will not tolerate any violence at all. This rule should be applied everywhere. We should make sure that

everyone follows it. The rule is called zero tolerance for violence. It means that we will not accept any violence against children in schools.

After thoroughly examining the literature and policies, it finds that there are no relevant studies and research conducted today to examine VAC and compare with parents of private and government schools. Hence, the research held greater relevance and significance for individuals engaged in new learning, policymakers, and professionals in the education system, as it aims to mitigate the risks faced by youngsters.

Delimitation of the Study

Due to time and economic constraints, this investigation was limited to restricted geographic areas. Using scientific research methodologies, I chose a town for in-depth data collection. It provides the VAC's ideas and knowledge, but it is insufficient to generalize to entire nations or other towns with diverse demographics and sociocultural backgrounds. Furthermore, the study focused on children's ages based on the higher VAC rate in the most recent national survey, which only included students in grades 3 through 5. It is also a weakness of the study because it focuses on the differences in VAC between parents of private and government schools, but it may provide an overall belief of children under the age of 18.

Furthermore, the study was confined by these theoretical frameworks, i.e., TPB. The study focused on the components of attitudes, subjective standards, perceived behavioral control, as well as intention and practice of violence against children. As a result, different theoretical models may provide insights, but I considered this to be beyond the scope of this study.

Limitations of the Study

The one limitation of the research is that the result is self-reported. There is a probability of bias in the measurement because one reported answered for all the variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Similarly, the approach also can lead to social desirability bias, where parents give more positive answers about their attitude towards the children compared to the actual what the children face (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013).

Organization of the Study

The study is divided into six chapters that explain the research and findings in a straightforward and ordered manner.

In the first chapter, Introduction, the Background, research statement, objectives, and significance of this topic/research are defined and discussed.

Chapter I: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework provides an in-depth survey of related literature and presents a theoretical framework from which this research is conducted.

Chapter III: Research Methodology outlines design of the study, its venue, sample selection methods, data collection methods and the procedures used for data analysis.

Chapter IV: Data Analysis consists of basic statistical information obtained in the study. It highlights not only the relationship between students' Knowledge Attitudes and Practice (KAP) using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and the characteristics of students as determined by Socio-demographics using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Chapter V, Findings and Discussion, integrates these findings by highlighting major themes and patterns in students' KAP and TPB regarding VAC (Violence Against Children). Chapter VI, Conclusion and Recommendations, summarizes the study and offers recommendations to stakeholders based on the findings.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review examined the national and international practices regarding the VAC, as well as the disparities between the parents of private and government institutions. Literature from peer-reviewed journals, international renowned articles, reports, and United Nations (UN) reports published on the UN website are also considered for the literature review.

The way parents react to their children's disobedience, whether through peaceful discipline, psychological hostility, or physical violence, has a substantial impact on the development of the kid (Lansford et al., 2022). Research indicates that school violence in Nepal is deeply rooted in school culture, requiring interventions that move beyond surface-level responses to address structural and cultural complexities (Dhungana, 2018). Misbehavior in children encompasses actions that are considered unsuitable or unpleasant, such as tantrums, antagonism, use of profanity, disruptive behavior, or physical harm. On the other hand, erroneous behavior refers to unintentional activities displayed by a young person because they are not aware of more efficient ways to meet their requirements. Psychological aggression encompasses the act of frightening or verbally berating a kid, while physical punishment covers actions that inflict pain or suffering as a response to misbehavior (Williams et al., 2012). Gaining a clear comprehension of these differences is essential for fostering favorable child development. According to the literature mentioned above, the way parents respond to their children's misbehavior, whether through peaceful discipline, psychological aggression, or physical violence, significantly affects the development of the child. This emphasizes the importance of fostering good and constructive disciplinary methods.

Furthermore, corporal punishment is a type of physical punishment, hurt, physical force, and physical pain, etc. The use of physical force intended to harm or control a child is called corporal punishment, for example kicking, hitting, beating, etc. The above news of cases I and II clearly shows that there are regular types of punishment and violence in the school against children, but when the violence came to a larger and more serious level, it only appeared in society. Rizvi and Najam (2014) highlighted that punishment ultimately impacts children's mental health and their

growth. Therefore, the above research highlighted that violence and accepting violence ultimately impact the children's growth and development.

Similarly, Khanal and Park (2016) highlighted that continued use of corporal punishment is a traditional practice in Nepal; however, there is policy of the government. These findings emphasize the importance of government and child rights organizations in addressing these practices. Consequently, a recurring inquiry arises within society over whether private schools and public schools are similar or dissimilar. Do children express or disclose minor harm to their parents at home? What is the level of awareness, attitude, and actions of parents in the community regarding their children's experiences at school? The study primarily focuses on identifying the differences between parents of children attending private and public schools in terms of their knowledge, attitude, and practice about violence against children at school.

Likewise, school, instead of being a safe and nurturing environment for education and social interaction, can unfortunately become a breeding ground for many sorts of violence such as bullying, sexual harassment, corporal punishment, verbal abuse, and other harmful behaviors (UNICEF, 2024). This study aims to identify the specific sorts of children and parents who are more likely to accept violence, to limit the risk of such behavior.

Parental discipline is a parenting strategy that involves using consequences to help children learn norms and values, enabling them to better integrate into society. (Grusec et al., 2017). There is a saying in Nepal that biting, and hitting is the care of the children and their future. Similarly, In China, where scolding is love, beating or hitting shows loyalty and concern; [children] would be spoilt if they are not beaten or punished (Chen et al., 2020). There is no text provided. Based on the aforementioned literature and facts, may education and societal acceptance, as well as the controlling attitude inside households, serve as variables that contribute to the imposition of rules and norms against children? Based on my extensive experience studying and working in the field of development for the past decade, I have noticed that both educators and parents believe that punishment plays a crucial role in achieving improved outcomes and keeping discipline among children. Investigating whether the factors are similar in private and public schools is another topic of focus for my research.

While parents employ non-violent disciplinary strategies, physical punishment continues to be widespread. Gaining insight into the reasons behind parents' ongoing use of physical punishment is essential for enhancing parenting programs and offering

non-violent alternatives, given it demonstrated adverse effects (Lim et al., 2022). Teachers reprimand students for a variety of infractions, such as not dressing neatly, arriving late, not finishing assignments, failing to pay fees on time, showing disrespect toward instructors, failing to retain lessons, misbehaving, disrupting class or sleeping, causing property damage, writing inappropriately, missing classes, failing tests, stealing, forgetting supplies, and exam cheating (Mishra et al., 2010). Nonetheless, in Nepal, disciplinary actions against teachers are generally accepted in schools as long as there is no significant physical harm. Based on my work with parents and kids in rural and urban areas of Nepal, I've found that parents in rural areas are more positive and informed to some forms of physical discipline than parents in urban areas.

Parenting Practices and Disciplinary Methods

Parenting is important for the child's growth. It helps and impacts a child's well-being, education, and exposure to violence. This is not the same for all. It is initiated by the cultural, social, and personal factors.

People in Nepal continue to adopt traditional practices based on their cultures, such as respect for elders, obedience, and physical punishment. Corporal punishment is a customary method of keeping control over children. Islam (2024) shows that when you use physical punishment, it is associated with higher rates of aggression, anxiety, depression, and vulnerability to experiences of VAC in children.

On the other hand, "positive parenting" and "positive discipline" methods encourage nurturing, guidance, and nonviolent forms of discipline. This model shifts the focus from punishment to teaching, stressing the importance of communication, reasoning, and setting clear, consistent limits without hurting anyone physically or emotionally. The goal of Positive Discipline is to teach children how to have self-control, develop empathy, and solve problems, while also creating a strong relationship between the parent and the child. Kids do well when their parents use parenting style. This style is parent-centred, affectionate and clear. It helps kids feel good about themselves, be independent and get along with others (Abdouqadoud, 2020). The Authoritative parenting style teaches kids that there are consequences for behavior. It also helps kids learn to control themselves so they behave well because it is the thing to do not just because they are scared of getting in trouble. The Authoritative parenting style is really good, for kids it helps them understand why they should behave. It helps them become better people.

Moreover, cultural values are important in the determination of how parents' parent their children. It helps to set the goal for children, what they desire to make their children and how to maintain discipline to their children. These values may occasionally result in authoritarian parenting styles that emphasize strict discipline and obedience (Yim, 2022). There is an increasing discourse on integrating traditional cultural practices with effective parenting strategies. The objective of this discussion is to preserve elements from our past while simultaneously implementing measures that promote the happiness and well-being of children. This is significant as we aim to preserve the elements that render our culture unique while ensuring the well-being of our children. An increasing number of individuals are striving to reconcile ideals with effective parenting approaches beneficial for children.

Similarly, socioeconomic status influences parenting practices. Families with lower economic status have more stress on their children since they do not have the money to provide a better future for their children, which creates tension in the long haul. Long-term stress can make parents unpleasant and more inclined to adopt harsh or inconsistent disciplinary approaches (Tajima & Harachi, 2010). In other sections, people with higher socioeconomic positions have greater access to information, which aids in the development of children.

Global, Asia, Developing Country, and Nepal Contexts

International organizations and national governments are working together all over the world to promote good parenting and get free of corporal punishment. UNICEF and other child rights organizations have been actively working on non-violent discipline by making and sharing toolkits and resources for teachers and caregivers to help with this change. These types of programs generally provide public awareness campaigns, parent education programs, and policy advocacy.

Research conducted in Nepal examined the association between parental involvement and discipline, child behavior, and characterized positive parenting strategies (Bhattra, 2024). In the ecocultural context of certain geographic regions of Nepal, for example, historical influences have shaped the perception of child behavioral issues and influenced how parents interpret and approach their roles in discipline (Burkey et al., 2016). It portrays the positive parenting measure as beneficial and, additionally, still influenced by the approach, culture, and demographics of parents.

Punishment and psychological abuse have an impact on children's development. Such abuse can be very damaging and correlated to undesired outcomes for children, including emotional instability, depression, low self-esteem, behavior problems, aggression, trust problems, and low academic achievement (Brassard, 1987). Are parents of these specific groups of children experiencing violence or any form of psychological aggression against their children in schools, communities, or at home? And are the caregivers aware of this situation or not? This study aims to show the knowledge and attitudes regarding different forms of psychological aggressiveness among parents of private school students and parents of public-school students, considering the Brassard argument (Brassard, 1987).

Psychological abuse of children within the parent-child relationship is associated with mental health problems in adolescents. The findings supported educational understanding of non-physical psychological maltreatment and its impact on adolescents. The findings of the study can be used to inform parents, the public and other professionals about the effects of this type of psychological abuse of adolescent (Ajzen, 1991; Rizvi & Najam, 2014). However, literature does not clearly distinguish between groups of parents, such as those of public school and private school children, about psychological abuse. Furthermore, there is a dearth of information on which types of children are more likely to experience violence. There is a lack of research on how the relationship between knowledge, attitudes, and parents' practices differs between children attending private and public schools. Consistent with earlier research, it is evident that parental abusive behaviors have a detrimental impact on the mental well-being of teenagers (Rizvi & Najam, 2014). Literature unanimously acknowledges the detrimental effects of abusive behaviors on the mental well-being of teenagers. However, there are gaps in existing literature regarding whether the acceptance of abusive behaviors by parents also influences the views of parents in private and public schools.

Parents and caregivers' subject children to physical, sexual, and emotional abuse and neglect. Peers in schools and online engage in bullying. Children and young adults are involved in youth violence, which often includes physical assault and gang violence. Girls in child marriages are primarily affected by intimate partner violence. Sexual violence entails non-consensual acts and exploitation. Emotional abuse includes threats (Hillis et al., 2016).

Punishment is harmful to children and in the long-term psychological problems are linked to physical violence (Miller-Perrin et al., 2009). The parents of the children accept that physical violence against children ultimately harms the children in the future. However, the literature as mentioned earlier does not discuss the parental attitude and approach towards punishment. Positive parenting and a nonviolent attitude are crucial in the home. However, there are gaps in the literature about the similarities or differences between households with children attending private schools and those attending public schools (Rimal & Pokharel, 2014). This study examines the differences in parenting attitudes between parents of children attending private schools and parents of children attending public schools at the conclusion of the research.

Socioeconomic and Demographic Influences: Factors for Parental KAP on VAC

Knowledge, attitudes, and practices (KAP) on violence against children (VAC) are normally considered to be socioeconomic and demographic factors of the household. It consists of ethnicity, family structure, wealth, education, and gender, which are the key factors considered here in the research.

The gender of both the head of household, caregiver as the gender of the child also matters with VAC. Both fathers and mothers must participate in the parenting of their children, despite societal norms often delineating distinct roles and obligations for discipline (Bornstein et al., 2011). In many traditional cultures, for example, mothers are seen as caregivers and men as the main for supporting discipline often using more gender power methods. But these roles are changing. Researchers in Nepal have begun exploring differences in parenting styles and the development of children (Bhattra, 2024). Petrovic et al. (2016) indicate that mothers' beliefs regarding non-violent discipline cannot be similar in all cultures. This discrepancy may arise from varying levels of understanding of child development, divergent societal expectations, or differing experiences with disciplinary measures.

The caregiver's education also contributes to KAP when it comes to parenting children and VAC. People who have more education often understand child development better, are more open to nonviolent punishment. Parents who possess basic literacy skills often exhibit distinct views compared to those who lack such abilities (Habib et al., 2018; Shahnaz & Arain, 2020). They are more inclined to explore evidence-based alternative ways, challenge prevailing conventions in their

profession, and remain open to latest information (Mutalik et al., 2018). Education gives parents the mental tools they need to understand the long-term effects of severe discipline and the benefits of positive reinforcement. This helps them make better choices about how to raise their children.

When it comes to KAP, two things that influence how parents think and what they do are how much money they have and their social standing. Parents who have wealth and a better socioeconomic status or SES (Socioeconomic Status) tend to think about KAP in a certain way. The amount of money they have and their social status or SES really affect their decisions about KAP. Families with greater money usually have access to more resources (Roubinov & Boyce, 2017). These options, which can all help them learn more about VAC, include important parenting support programs, instructional materials, and good health care. For instance, families with more money might pay for childcare that helps them relax, take parenting classes, or engage child psychologists, all of which would make it less necessary to use harsh discipline (Pinderhughes et al., 2000). Tajima and Harachi (2010) highlighted in their study that lower economic status correlated with the higher rate of the risk to the children. Differences in economy knowledge, attitude, and behaviour were also observed by place of origin, suggesting that rural and urban background may shape students' sustainability-related practices (Olech et al., 2025). Parents who must struggle for their daily survival may not have as many emotional and practical resources to use a consistent and effective style of discipline. Wealthier families may be more likely to discipline using forms of nonviolence because they are more familiar with modern forms of parenting and have less to worry about in terms of financial concerns.

Family structure, such as nuclear vs a joint setup, may also strongly influence parental KAP, according to Bahadur and Dhawan (2009). In large, multi-generational households where many generations of relatives are living under one roof together (the "joint family" system), child-rearing practices tend to rely upon the larger family's cultural norms, belief systems and family wisdom. While these cultural practices may create a large support system for child rearing, they may also create an environment where children are more likely to experience traditional forms of discipline, including corporal punishment (Qiu et al., 2024). Research from Nepal has analyzed how aspects of the family unit (environment) can affect the adolescent development process and has indirectly examined the complex influences that family structural characteristics have on the adolescent developmental process (Tajima &

Harachi, 2010). The disciplinary roles may become dispersed in joint families with a number of caregivers, and different or inconsistent methods may be used.

Understanding such interactions becomes important for designing interventions that can effectively engage all relevant family members and promote a consistent approach to non-violent discipline.

Parenting approaches and ideas are influenced by factors of culture and ethnicity. Different ethnic groups often have distinct cultural norms, values, and practices. Further, Qiu et al. (2024) highlighted in their research that cultural patterns are a factor for parenting and their beliefs towards children. Nepal, with its plethora of cultures, is a typical example of how tradition influences the styles of parenting. For example, discipline considered appropriate in one ethnic group might be considered abusive in another. Thus, it is an important aspect to learn these ethnic differences to develop culturally appropriate interventions that will resonate with specific communities. While gently helping communities embrace non-violent disciplinary measures that are in line with global principles of child rights, such interventions should recognize and respect preexisting cultural frameworks.

There are different national and international child rights Policies, declarations, and law that ensure the rights of children. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989, the Constitution of Nepal 2015, the Act Concerning Children 2018, the National Child Policy 2012, the National Plan of Action for Children (2004/05 - 2014/15), and other national and international organizations' declarations on nonviolence against children are most important.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child is an important tool for protecting children all around the world. This United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child has rules that help keep children safe from harm. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child was agreed to by Nepal in 1990. Some of the rules in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child are particularly important because they protect children from violence and help make their lives better. Article 19 states that children should be protected from all forms of physical or psychological violence, injury or maltreatment, neglect or insufficient care, abuse, or exploitation, including sexual abuse. Article 28, by pointing out the right to education, ensures that disciplinary measures do not harm a child's dignity. Article 34 clearly provides protection for all children against any form of sexual abuse

and sexual exploitation. These three Articles have created a strong framework for states to create laws and policies that protect children, including children in Nepal (CAS, 2015).

Alongside the UNCRC, the SDGs, aimed at establishing ambitious targets for attaining peaceful and inclusive societies, were adopted in 2015. Goal 4 aims to ensure availability, inclusivity and fairness in education and opportunity for equal lifelong learning. Target 4.a seeks to build and improve education facilities that are child-, disability-, and gender-sensitive and provide a safe, peaceful, inclusive, and effective learning environment for all. Goal 16 seeks to promote peaceful and inclusive societies that can sustainably thrive based on ensuring access to justice for all and establishing effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions. Target 16.2 aims to eradicate the mistreatment, exploitation, trafficking, and any kind of violence and suffering inflicted upon children.

These worldwide commitments emphasize the significance of providing safe places for children from violence in public and private schools. Similarly, Goal 17 of the SDG of the United Nations (UN) 2015 aims to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development by providing access to justice for all, and by building effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels which have a clear target to end exploitation, trafficking and all form of violence and torture against children.

The Nepal government has significantly improved its legal system in accordance with international standards at the national level. The Constitution of Nepal 2015 has specific provisions on the rights of children. Article 39 enumerates the rights of children and further ensures that any form of physical, psychological abuse, and other forms of exploitation is prohibited (CAS, 2015).

The Children's Act, 2018, provides a comprehensive regime on how to protect children from all forms of abuse and exploitation. It states the rules for the protection and care of children, including the establishment of child-friendly legal mechanisms (Ministry of Women, Children and Senior Citizens [MoWCSC], 2018). This is vital in providing the effective realization of rights as stipulated by the Constitution and providing protection for children from abuse in schools and the home. Establishes child protection committees and obliges the reporting of concerns of child abuse, further strengthening the legislative framework. The Act guarantees a collaborative

response to child protection through the various stakeholders. Those stakeholders include the community, the school, and the government departments.

The National Child Policy 2012 clearly indicates the government's commitment to survival, growth, participation, and protection of children from violence (Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare [MoWCSW], 2012). It outlines specific actions to safeguard children from violence and underscores. And that response should be multi-agency responses that involve the community, school, and families. This policy provides a strategic plan for implementing child protection. It has widespread recognition of children's rights in society.

Sections 10.33.3 and 10.37.5 of the National Education Policy 2019 also provide provisions for nonviolence teaching centers and children's counseling services (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology [MoEST], 2019). SZOP (School Zones of Peace) schools were built to teach nonviolence. Child labor, violence, sexual assault, and abuse were strictly prohibited in the school. The school established counseling services to avoid and manage the punishing culture.

The National Plan of Action for Children 2004/05 - 2014/15 aimed to address a range of challenges to child safety through collaborative actions at all levels of government and civil society. The plan aimed to provide an enabling environment for the safety of children and encompasses specific methods to address violence against children. While the plan has ended, concepts and methods within the plan continue to shape current policies and practices.

Several United Nations bodies give recommendations and structures that may assist countries in combating violence against children. UNICEF is one of the leading organizations in child protection, with major programs and efforts for advocacy to end violence against children. UNICEF's guidelines provide comprehensive frameworks for avoiding and reacting to violence in schools and communities (UNICEF, 2024).

The WHO-led INSPIRE initiatives enumerate seven strategies for violence reduction. These include setting and enforcing laws and policies, norms and values, safe environments, and support for parents and caregivers. These evidence-based strategies provide practical guidance to policymakers and practitioners (World Health Organization [WHO], 2022).

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and VAC

Icek Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a well-known social psychology theory. It supports the idea that the best and most reliable method of

determining whether an activity took place is a person's desire to carry out that behavior. Subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and attitudes toward the behavior are the three main cognitive elements that combine to shape this behavioral purpose (Ajzen, 1991).

A critical challenge in applying TPB to child protection is the Intention-Behavior Gap. While a parent may form a strong intention to adopt non-violent discipline (driven by positive attitudes and subjective norms). The actual practice may falter during high-stress 'parenting moments.' This gap is often mediated by Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC); if a parent lacks the skills or emotional regulation tools to implement alternatives, their intention remains unactualized. This study explores how school-type environments influence this mediation.

TPB has demonstrated itself as an effective framework for understanding and predicting a variety of parental behaviors, particularly those that related to protecting, keeping healthy, and disciplining their children. TPB can be particularly useful because of its ability to analyze the social and cognitive aspects of how parents think about their choices and actions. TPB can provide an excellent model for explaining why some parents will use physical discipline (especially for the purpose of VAC) while others will not.

TPB has been used in numerous research to investigate the intentions and actions of parents in a variety of child-related scenarios. The approach, for example, has been effectively used to examine parental choices over a child's vaccinations (Wu et al., 2020; Yi et al., 2023), the provision of health and safe education to children (Jeihooni et al., 2022), and even early childhood instructors' readiness to offer assistance when there is parental violence (Menand et al., 2021) . The ability of TPB to pinpoint the underlying social and psychological elements influencing parental decisions and behaviors is continuously shown by these applications.

These studies show that TPB is good at understanding the psychological aspects that influence parental decisions and behaviors. TPB is a tool to find out how parents feel about non-violent discipline. It helps understand the pressures they experience from their family, friends and community about how to raise their kids. TPB also looks at how sure parents are that they can apply constructive disciplinary techniques. A parent who wants to use -violent discipline probably does so because they think it will be good for their child. They think their family, friends and community will support these methods.

They are also sure that they can handle child behaviors without hurting them. On the hand, violent behaviors continue because people don't believe they can use non-violent ways. They may not like disciplinary methods. They may think society supports. Expects corporal punishment. Studies show that perceived behavioral control, attitudes and subjective norms influence intentions. These intentions are signs of how parents really act. To create treatments that encourage violent parenting, we need to know how strong these factors are. We need to know how they work together to eradicate violence against children (VAC). If perceived behavioral control is an important predictor then parents should attend skill-building seminars. They should get hands-on training to become more confident and skilled, in discipline. Conversely, community-wide initiatives that support nonviolent parenting techniques may influence behavior. This is particularly true if subjective standards are important. Such initiatives can help promote a culture of -violent parenting.

Theoretical Review and Framework

Knowledge is the cognitive process of perceiving and retaining information within the brain. Information is acquired through various sensory organs from many sources such as educational institutions, communities, families, friends, and the surrounding environment. Attitudes refer to the cognitive understanding and emotional responses that individuals develop towards diverse topics. Attitudes are shaped by objectives, events, desire for satisfaction, concerns, norms, and beliefs. Behavior or practice refers to the actions or conduct carried out by an individual. The situation is characterized by its lack of predictability and unpredictability. Knowledge, attitude, and behaviors collectively represent an individual's understanding, beliefs, and actions about specific subjects or matters.

In Nepal, the laws and regulations governing public schools are less strict than those governing private schools (Chatkuli, 2020). TAs a result, the types of schools that tolerate violence against children can also be identified. Similarly, by advancing a neoliberal educational model that emphasizes sociocultural achievement and global market integration, private schools especially prestigious ones play a major influence in shaping the socioeconomic environment in Nepal (Wallenius, 2023). In the assumption that they are doing what is best for their children's future, parents thus exercise control over them at home and at school. Therefore, considering the research idea, questions, and hypothesis of the research, two major theories were adopted to justify the research objectives.

Since its inception, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) has been extensively implemented in a variety of disciplines. TPB has been employed as the guiding framework in numerous studies since its construction, as attitude, perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy), and subjective norms are directly pertinent to the comprehension of behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 2005). In the context of Violence Against Children (VAC), these constructs offer a valuable perspective for analyzing the underlying factors that influence the intentions and actions of individuals in relation to the prevention or participation in violent practices.

Ajzen (2005) discovered that attitudes were the most significant predictor of behavioral intention over a 20-year period, followed by subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (Cooper et al., 2016). When this is applied to VAC, the level of engagement or rejection of such behaviors is significantly influenced by individuals' attitudes toward corporal punishment or other violent practices. Similarly, people are more likely to embrace positive discipline when they feel capable of controlling children's behaviors through means other than violence (self-efficacy). Subjective norms also play a significant role; the encouragement or discouragement of violence against children is highly dependent upon the social approval or disapproval of oneself by their peers, family or community. For instance, individuals with positive beliefs about non-violent child-rearing are more confident in using the types of discipline that would be considered alternatives to punishment (Kim, 2006). Alternatively, one could hold a negative belief that rationalizes using violence as a punishment, which could lessen their ability to develop a nurturing caregiving experience (Scanlon & Barnes-Holmes, 2013).

Attitude Towards the Behavior: Parental Views on Disciplinary Practices

The Theory of Planned Behavior defines attitude toward a behavior as the degree to which a person has favorable or unfavorable judgment of the conduct in issue (Ajzen, 1991; Wang et al., 2020). This evaluation is influenced by an individual's ideas about the consequences of carrying out behavior (behavioral beliefs) and their assessment of those effects (outcome assessments). When it comes to violence against children (VAC), a parent's attitude reflects their personal assessment of whether engaging in various disciplinary tactics, some of which may be considered aggressive, is good or bad, constructive or destructive (Wang et al., 2020). For instance, a parent might hold a behavioral belief that physical punishment, such as spanking, is an effective way to immediately stop undesirable child behavior. They

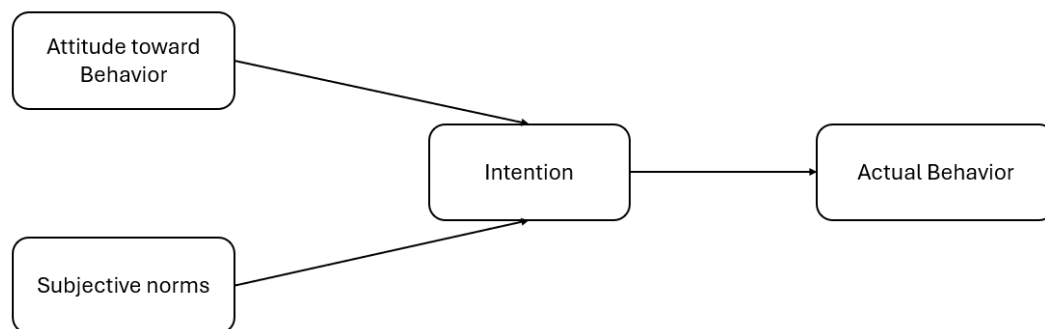
may assess this consequence positively, believing it results in a well-behaved youngster. Another parent, on the other hand, may consider that physical punishment harms the child's psychological well-being and erodes the parent-child relationship, assessing these consequences negatively.

Figure 1

Theory of Reasoned Action

(Hale et al., 2002, pp. 261)

Parents' general disposition toward using physical discipline is a function of different opinions and beliefs. This is important because in the context of parental



VAC, it is important to understand parents' beliefs about distinct types of discipline. For example, some parents believe that physical punishment is needed to develop respect or character, which is viewed as a source of positive outcomes influenced by their culture or personal beliefs (Fréchette & Romano, 2017). A parent may view physical punishment as completely unacceptable or a last resort, indicating they have assessed negative outcomes of a situation (Duong et al., 2024). In fact, attitudes towards physical violence are shown to be a strong predictor of Chinese parents' intentions to use physical violence against their child (Wang et al., 2020). This finding would suggest parents are more likely to have an intention to use physical violence against their child in parents with more positive attitudes towards using physical violence. In another study, the authors researched how parents frame their use of physical punishment, their research process focused on identifying the mental process used to develop their beliefs (Fréchette & Romano, 2017). Their research illustrates how parents' beliefs of physical discipline can range from a perspective where it is important for correction to the opposite belief where it is some form of abuse--both viewed almost universally as high-stakes decision with very real and serious

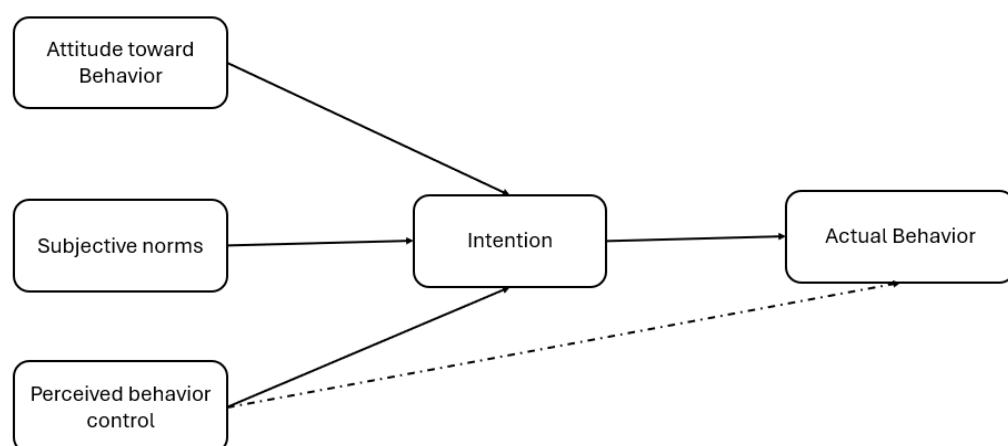
ramifications, and are likely the key to understanding how a parent will interpret and reconstruct their own behavior.

Attitudes toward physical violence were found to be a major predictor of intentions to use physical violence against children among Chinese parents (Wang et al., 2020). This indicates that the more favorable an attitude a parent holds about physical violence, the more they intend to harm and beat their child. Related, the authors examined how parents describe their physical punishment use by focusing on the mental processes that underline parents' beliefs (Fréchette & Romano, 2017). Their research is interested in how parent attitudes toward physical discipline - which may be viewed as an appropriate form of discipline or even maltreatment - are greatly influenced by their perceptions and views toward the behaviors they engage in.

In her research on positive parenting strategies, Christou (2018) demonstrated the impact of interventions based on TPB variables, such as attitudes, on parental behaviors. This indicates that the likelihood of VAC could be mitigated by fostering more positive attitudes towards non-violent discipline. Caregivers of both private and government school can be study that how their background supports to share their feel on VAC. Further looking at their beliefs and how they guess that those factors are supposed to contribute to attitude. The comparative piece will be valuable to capture how parental perspectives differ in various school environments.

Figure 2

Theory of Planned Behavior



(Ajzen, 1991, p. 181)

The three determinants of Intention, namely attitude towards behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, are defined as follows:

Subjective Norms, Social Pressures and Parental Disciplinary Choices

Subjective norms, as conceptualized in the Theory of Planned Behavior, refer to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This construct is based on an individual's normative beliefs, beliefs about whether important referent individuals or groups (e.g., family, friends, community, religious leaders, teachers, other parents) approve or disapprove of the behavior, and the individual's willingness or motivation to comply. Subjective norms about VAC may include a parent's wish to comply with important others' normative beliefs about their disciplining practices. This construct is based on an individual's normative beliefs, beliefs about whether important referent individuals or groups (e.g., family, friends, community, religious leaders, teachers, other parents) approve or disapprove of the behavior, and the individual's willingness or motivation to comply. Subjective norms regarding VAC may include a parent's wish to comply with important others' normative beliefs about their disciplining practices (Wang et al., 2020).

For instance, a parent may feel that, due to cultural standards or conventional upbringing, their own parents or in-laws expect them to employ physical punishment. If parents felt strong commitment because of social expectations from family, this might create a strong positive subjective norm toward physical discipline. Conversely, if a parent believes that their friends or the school group's subjective norm is against physical punishment, then he or she would create a subjective norm indicating that strong opposing influence and be guided toward it.

Similarly, parents' disciplinary practices are largely influenced by their social environments. Duong et al. (2024) focused on the effects of social norms regarding physical punishment in a study, highlighting how a parent's actual behavior may be affected by perceived social norms. For example, parents would be more likely to use physical punishment upon the perception that their friends or social network would encourage physical punishment. This point becomes even more relevant within multicultural situations where family background and social environment may suggest varying appropriateness of forms of discipline that include physical punishment. Research on the intention to report child abuse has consistently demonstrated that subjective norms are a significant predictor of reporting intentions (Abdullah et al., 2020; Feng & Wu, 2005). If the broader community, including parents, educators, and other community leaders, publicly denounce VAC as well as promote positive

parenting, a strong subjective norm that is contrary to physical punishment may be developed.

This is particularly relevant in consideration of the comparative analysis of parents of children from government and private schools in the user's dissertation. With varying social norms, educational philosophies or simply socio-economic pressures, it is possible private school parents are perceiving a different subjective norm for child discipline in comparison to the parents from government schools. Private schools may have more visible rules against physical punishment and may promote conversations around non-violent discipline potentially increasing the subjective norm against VAC. By distinguishing between these differences, a targeted intervention centered on social norming might be created to promote positive parenting practices and decrease VAC with certain school contexts.

Perceived Behavioral Control: Parental Capacity and Confidence in Discipline

The Theory of Planned Behavior states that perceived behavioral control (PBC) is an individual's evaluation of how easy or difficult it is to act in a certain way (Ajzen, 1991). It is influenced by control beliefs about whether factors exist that would promote or prevent the performance of a behavior and the perceived level of those factors. PBC, in the context of VAC, could include a parent's confidence in their ability to use different forms of non-violent discipline, control their anger, or manage their stress (Wang et al., 2020).

Salpa Shrestha's dissertation of MPhil found perceived behavioral control to be the greatest behavioral predictor of teachers' intent to practice inclusiveness (Shrestha, 2017). Parents are more prone to use violent discipline if they believe they have no control over their responses or if non-violent approaches are ineffective. Research by Feng and Wu (2020) indicated that Chinese parents' desires to physically harm their children were influenced by their understanding of their behavioral control (Wang et al., 2020). The implication is that developing parents' sense of control over their parenting practices can be an important intervention strategy.

Interventions aimed at improving PBC may involve educating parents about effective non-violent discipline techniques, stress-management techniques, and emotional regulation (Corso et al., 2010; Jeihooni et al., 2022). These programs aim to create a parent perception of preparedness to respond to problematic situations without resorting to violence by providing them with helpful tools and enhancing self-efficacy. One study on preventive education demonstrated that interventions could

improve behavioral intentions through perceived control (Radliff et al., 2020). The results emphasized the importance of helping families gain confidence and knowledge to adopt safe parenting practices.

Intention: The Immediate Precursor to Parental Behavior

According to Ajzen (1991), intention best predicts behavior in the Theory of Planned Behavior and refers to a person's inclination to conduct a particular act. Further, when someone has a strong intention to do something, they're generally more likely to follow through and actually do it. Thus, whether a parent

intends to use harsh disciplinary tactics is an important link between their views, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control and their actual behavior (Wang et al., 2020).

Such as a parent with a strong intention to use nonviolent discipline, affected by good attitudes toward it, supporting subjective norms, and high perceived behavioral control, is far more likely to apply nonviolent tactics on a constant basis. Shrestha's dissertation directly investigated the relationship between intentions and actual classroom practices, finding a high degree of positive and significant relation (Shrestha, 2017). This highlights the importance of intention in the TPB framework. To effectively prevent VAC in the context of VAC, it is important to understand the influences on parental intentions. Some research indicates that attitudes, subjective norms, and perception of behavioral control may account for a notable portion of the variance in behavioral intentions (Abdullah, et al., 2020; Feng & Wu, 2005; Wang et al., 2020). Interventions to reduce VAC usually sought to bolster parents' inclination to apply positive discipline. This can be accomplished by addressing each preceding TPB component. The above discussion shows that education, advocacy and campaigns are important to improve attitudes towards nonviolent intentions. Similarly, it also supports improving subjective norms by promoting positive parenting. And it overall supports improving perceived behavioral control. The ultimate purpose of influencing these attributes is to develop strong intentions in parents to abstain from VAC.

Behavior: The Manifestation of Intentions in Parental Discipline

The Theory of Planned Behavior defines behavior as the observable action that the theory aims to explain and predict (Ajzen, 1991). In this context, interest-based behavior relates to parental hostility toward children. According to the TPB, intentions are the most immediate driver of behavior, which indicates that a strong

intention to do a behavior is likely to result in its actual performance, given no unforeseen events or external hurdles (Wang et al., 2020).

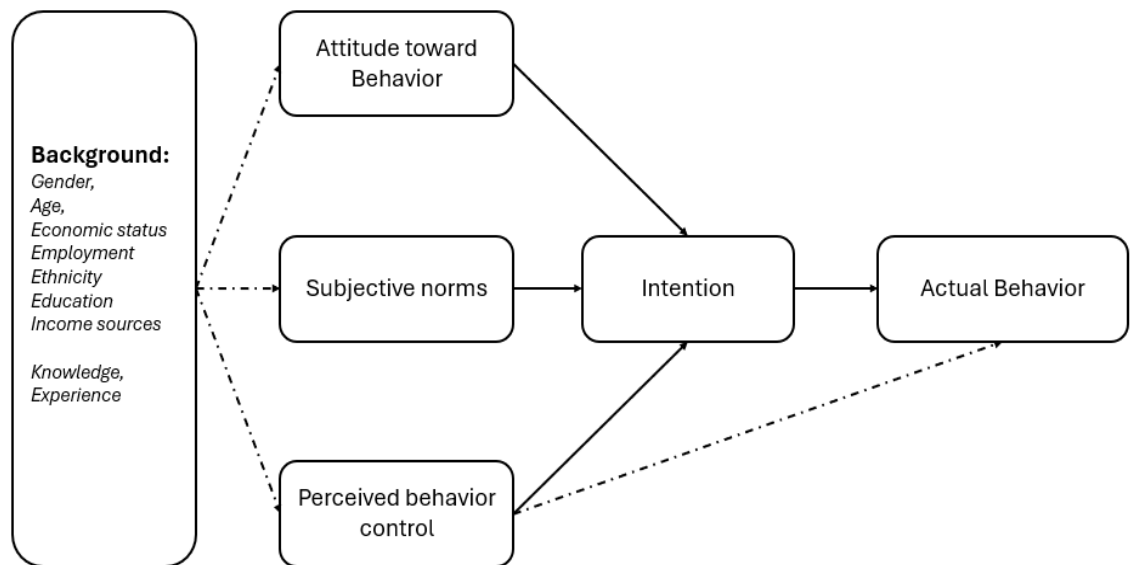
Such as a parent who is resolved to employ positive reinforcement and time-outs instead of physical punishment is expected to apply these peaceful methods consistently. In contrast, a parent who has a poor aim to avoid violence, or even intends to use it, is more likely to engage in physical or emotional abuse. Yet, it is important to consider that, while intentions are powerful predictors of behavior, they do not always completely translate into behavior. External circumstances, such as acute stress, lack of support, or the child's severe behavior problem, can result in a diversion from the intended behavior. Similarly, regarding VAC, some research has examined parents' actual disciplinary behaviors with their intentions using the TPB framework. Feng and Wu (2020) studied the uses of physical aggression by Chinese parents, based on their intention and related TPB constructs (Corso et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2020). Their data shows the TPB's ability to predict real operational VAC behaviors.

These interventions, which focus on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, aim to instill strong intentions to use nonviolent discipline, which is likely to lead to a reduction in VAC. For example, parenting programs that successfully transform parents' views toward nonviolence, build supportive social situations, and boost parents' confidence in their disciplinary skills are more likely to result in actual improvements in their disciplinary practices (Corso et al., 2010; Jeihooni et al., 2022)

Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) is the belief that someone can accomplish something, even if they face difficulties. It integrates self-efficacy, defined as confidence in one's abilities, with control beliefs on external elements that may facilitate or obstruct the activity (Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1982). Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is defined, in the context of violence against children (VAC), as the perceived capacity or confidence of a teacher or caregiver to intervene or prevent violent behavior. This means, for example, a teacher will be perceived to have PBC and be confident in their efficacy to intervene to prevent violence, even in the absence of training on discipline problems, provided that they are confident in and can demonstrate their skills to appropriately manage discipline problems without resorting to corporal punishment.

Figure 3

The Role of Background Factors in the Theory of Planned Behavior



(Ajzen, 2005, p. 135)

Ajzen (2005) argued that PBC and intentions can predict behavior; therefore, assuming two teachers have similar intentions to reduce VAC, the teacher with greater perceived efficacy, resources, and perceived control around the PBC to act is more likely to act (or intervene). However, a teacher may perceive the control to be low if they perceive a lack of information or experience, thus challenging the PBC to act. In addition, the Theory of Planned Behavior informs that if a teacher has more negative attitudes about VAC, supportive social norms, and an increased PBC they will be more likely to intend to act and, thus, potentially reduce the VAC.

PBC, attitudes, and norms are also influenced by personal (e.g., prior knowledge or experience), social (e.g., peer or community norms), and informational (e.g., knowledge and training) background influences (Ajzen, 2005). In the context of VAC, this refers to strategies that build knowledge, change harmful norms, and give people skills to increase their sense of control and decrease violence. By focusing on these underlying reasons, initiatives may support teachers, caregivers, and communities to act together to prevent violence against children.

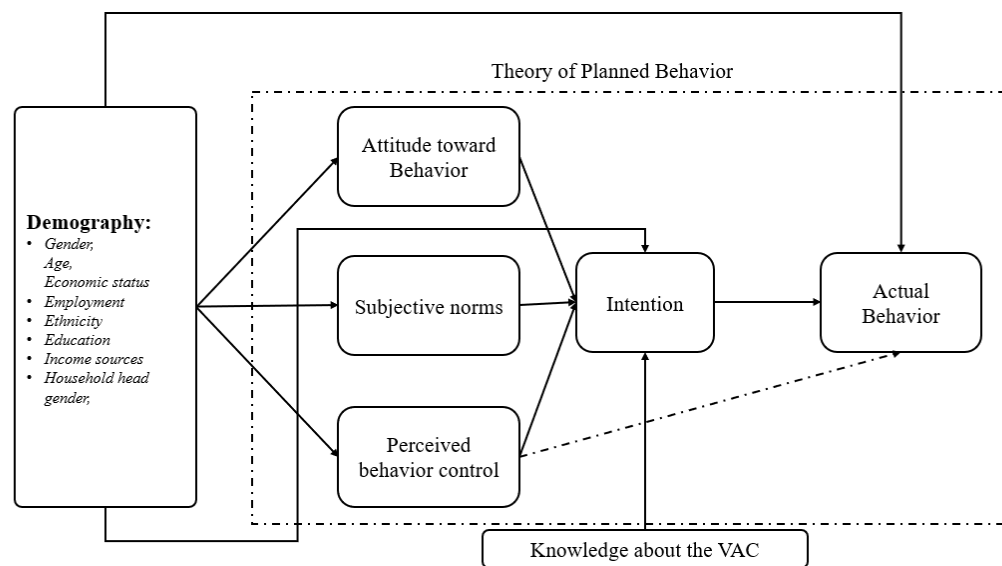
Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study of Violence Against Children (VAC) is grounded in the Theory of Planned Behavior, which posits that three key factors

affecting intentions include attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (PBC). Intention then serves as the precursor to behavior. It is important to note, however, that PBC was intentionally not linked to behavior in this framework. A previous study found that the ability of PBC to predict behaviors declines when subjects lack adequate knowledge of the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). With VAC, teachers often did not have sufficient training or knowledge about alternative methods of discipline that do not use violence, as established through the initial teacher interactions and via discussions with the experts. Due to this limited knowledge, PBC was modeled as not linked to behavior in the conceptual model, allowing the role of attitudes and norms to drive intention.

Figure 4

Conceptual Framework



(Adapted from Ajzen, 2005; Bhandari et al., 2025; Joshi et al., 2024)

To enhance the understanding of the dynamics of VAC prevention in schools, two more variables were incorporated: instructors' knowledge of VAC and their expectations of pupils. The literature found these factors as significant in influencing instructors' intentions to eschew aggressive practices. Furthermore, the study expanded on fundamental elements by integrating social and informational dimensions to examine their impact on the TPB variables (Ajzen, 2005). These were operationalized via demographic factors including age, gender, education, training, teaching experience, prior exposure to VAC, school location, and grade level taught. These parts were studied to see how teachers think, what they feel others expect from them, how much control they believe they have, what they plan to do, and what they

actually do in the classroom. This helps show how teachers' views and school conditions affect efforts to prevent VAC.

My motivation for the study is to investigate the importance of knowledge gaps regarding the parents' KAP about VAC between parents of private and government school in Nepal. The study can examine nuances between parents of children in each of these two different school-based settings. Any comprehensive comparative studies of Nepal that will provide a more holistic picture of the differences with respect to parent knowledge and responses by school type do not currently exist. This study provides insight into parent perceptions, providing evidence for effective programming and policy development to address violence and promote well-being for Nepalese children.

Previous studies of parental involvement and child welfare within the context of Nepal (Khadka, 2021; Neupane et al., 2018) have provided the foundation and major for parental Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP). In addition, there have been preliminary studies conducted to assess the variability of parental KAP in certain contexts, comparing parents of children in public and private schools (Joshi et al., 2024). However, there is still a large and critical gap: a lack of comparative studies focused specifically on parental KAP regarding VAC and non-violent discipline among parents of children in public and private schools in Nepal.

The most recent studies examining the relation between school type and parental involvement have focused primarily on academic outcomes or general parenting styles (Khadka, 2021), not on more nuanced disciplinary strategies and attitudes regarding child protection. This is a considerable gap because school type often serves as a reliable indicator of a child's wealth and future exposure to other educational philosophies, both of which may shape parental views on child protection and physical punishment.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) has been successfully used to understand different health and safety behaviors in Nepal, notably the use of pesticides among farmers (Bhandari et al., 2025). Nevertheless, there is a significant lack of specialized yet comprehensive empirical evidence and applications towards understanding parental intentions and behaviors towards violence against children (VAC) in the culturally diverse context of Nepal. To understand the three primary TPB constructs (which are Attitudes (ATT), Subjective Norms (SN), and Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)), how they work, and interact with VAC, more research is

warranted to draw the needed empirical evidence. It will also be necessary to explore factors within social strata, family structures, and ethnic group variations in these construct dimensions and behaviors among parents of students in public schools versus those in private schools. Closing this empirical void is of critical importance for developing culturally and theoretically evidence-based interventions that will consider the variation across parenting goals of non-violent principles that are unique to parents and their environment.

The "intention-behavior gap," which refers to the fact that good intentions do not always lead to observable behaviors, is a well-established phenomenon in behavioral research (Sheeran & Webb, 2016). This distinction is especially powerful when applied to VAC prevention, where a caregiver may state they want to use non-violent behavioral practices, but may, in the moment of the incident, resort to physical discipline practices (Feil et al., 2023; Sheeran & Webb, 2016). Similarly, the major limitation and gaps of the current research in Nepal on VAC, there is no such accurate study in Nepal which is link with parents' intentions and behaviors. In order to effectively create interventions that result in significant and sustained behavioral change, it is important to understand the contexts or reasons that maintain the ongoing gaps among Nepali parents. The proposed study will build and focus on the factors that influence parenting behaviors and provide the initial cross-sectional information that will set the stage for future longitudinal studies that are much needed.

Studies have looked at the relationship between parental knowledge, attitudes, and practices (KAP) and different demographic variables such as family structure, socio-economic status, and education levels. Yet the intersectional effects of demographic variables on parental KAP regarding violence against children (VAC) have not, to date, been explored, particularly among the public and private school divide. For example, if a child is in private school rather than public school, which connotes that the family has wealth and social capital, the associated levels of education of the mother may have a completely different impact on how she disciplines her child. There are many variables to consider meaning that it is hard to discern how all these variables may interact and come together to influence parental behavior, which is why this research proposes using sophisticated analytical approaches. This proposed study will address these four interdependent gaps -- and ultimately be the needed robust, evidence-base to create appropriate and effective

context specific and sustainable interventions to mitigate VAC and promote positive discipline in Nepal's multi-faceted educational context.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provides a detailed review of literature and theoretical framework for the study of parental knowledge, attitudes, and practices (KAP) related to violence against children (VAC) specifically focusing on a comparison between parents of students at private and public schools in Nepal. The chapter indicates the way parents punish a child, whether that punishment is mild discipline, psychological aggression, or physical violence, significantly influences the development and growth of the child. It highlights key themes such as misbehavior, psychological aggression, and corporal punishment and advocates for these themes because parents utilize them in some schools and communities in Nepal to rationalize corporal punishment based on cultural traditions which normalize the connection between physical discipline and feelings of care and concern. This study demonstrates a marked gap in the literature-limited comparative studies concerning parental knowledge, attitudes, and practices (KAP) across private and public schools. To rectify this gap, this research was developed based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), which proposes-when parents consider engaging or not engaging in violence, it is their beliefs, subjective norms (social pressure), and perceived behavioral control (or self-efficacy)-that chiefly determine parents' intentions to engage or cease violence.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter elucidates the process of scrutinizing the principal aspects in order to comprehend how the research was conducted. The chapter commenced with an exploration of the philosophical underpinnings of the research, followed by an examination of the research design. The main components of this chapter included the description of the procedures followed, the determination of the sample size, the ethical considerations considered, the methods used for data collection, and the analysis of the collected data.

Additionally, this chapter presented the methodological foundation of the study in detail, beginning with the philosophical background and the selection of a post-positivist paradigm to guide the research process. It then explained the research design, sampling procedure, sample size determination, data collection methods, scale construction, and the procedures adopted to ensure validity, reliability, and ethical compliance. The chapter also described how quantitative data were collected through Kobo Toolbox, analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques, and interpreted in line with the research objectives, thereby providing a systematic framework for examining the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of parents regarding violence against children.

Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is important for the researcher because it helps them to make a strategy for their study designs. The researcher can use the research philosophy to make sure their study designs are good and will work well. The research philosophy supports the researcher in making a strategy for all their study designs. I should be explicit about the research paradigm to assert knowledge gleaned from the study. Research paradigms, in my opinion, are the ideas that guide researchers in their procedure and plan of action (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Furthermore, Guba and Lincon (1994) define paradigms as the basic belief system of a worldview that influences the researcher's choice of research epistemology, ontology, and methodology of the research. Thus, the research paradigm sets my philosophical consideration post-passivation. Positivists share an aversion to

metaphysics and for them, anything that cannot be verified by experience is meaningless.

The fundamental tenets (Metaphysics) of alternative inquiry paradigms within the postpositivist framework exhibited variations in ontology, epistemology, and technique. Guba and Lincon (1994) argued that critical realism acknowledges the existence of an objective reality but recognizes that our understanding of it is imperfect and probabilistic. Similarly, epistemology refers to a modified dualist/objectivist perspective, where critical traditions and communities shape knowledge, and results are probably correct. Moreover, the technique of metaphysics is altered to become experimental and manipulative, employing critical multiples and the falsification of hypotheses. The following are the specific details on the alignment of the research question with the ontology, epistemology, and technique.

Ontology

Ontology is about the nature of reality. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994) ontological assumptions generally relate to the question of what can be known as being there. The ontology for the study "A Comparative Study on Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practice regarding Violence against Children among Parents from Private and Public Schools" consists of important ideas about parents (specifically private and public school parents), children (specifically private and public-school children), and the knowledge, attitudes, and practice concerning violence. The study looks at parents' understanding of a variety of forms of violence, which include physical, emotional, neglectful, and sexual violence (UNICEF, 2019). It also examines their attitudes about violence and their attempts to prevent, or do something about, violence. Each notion's relationships permit comparing and contrasting the views and behaviors of parents from private and public schools.

Epistemology

The epistemology of this research is grounded in a post-positivist paradigm; this paradigm presents that knowledge is constructed in and through social experiences and interactions (Matthews, 2003). The post-positivist paradigm is an adaptable paradigm of methodological research that counters traditional positivism in that it recognizes the existence of more than one reality and allows for quantitative research in many disciplines (Creswell, 2021; Panhwar et al., 2017). This position supports the understanding that parents' knowledge, attitudes, or practices related to violence against children are developed within a sociocultural context through their

lived experiences and education. This study explored the constructed realities in the comparison of KAP with the caregivers of the private and government schools. Further, this study aimed to understand caregivers' perception of ideologies and behaviors that work.

Axiology

The Study's axiology discusses the values of promoting children's welfare and advocating safe and non-violent forms of parenting (Huljev et al., 2024). The study is driven by an ethical commitment to provide the knowledge to enable the enactment of policy and practice that reduces violence and improves parenting practice. The above statement supports increasing the perspective of the people to work towards social change and justice in how children are treated (Nolan & Lamb, 2019; UNICEF, 2024).

Methodology

This study employed a cross-sectional survey method within quantitative research design, guided by post-positivist philosophy. It provided a systematic and structured approach to guide the full research process around techniques, sampling, data collection, analysis, and interpretation, although we must recognize limitations stemming from the study design. Furthermore, the focus is on the results of the Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey (MICS) 2019, which shows the highest in Province Koshi.

Research Design

The research used a cross-sectional survey approach inside a quantitative research design framework that was consistent with the post-positivist philosophical paradigm (Tuli, 2025). This study adopts a purely quantitative approach to prioritize statistical power and the ability to generalize findings across the diverse socio-economic strata represented by private and government school parents. Practice variables to find big differences in the system that can help make big changes in policies.

Sampling Design: Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

The children who are 9 years old are the focus. These children are in grades 3 to 5. The research frameworks provide a robust structure for assessing how educational programs are delivered and perceived within the institutional context of Nepal (Shrestha, 2024). They are studying in school right now. The kids in this age group are the points. Results of the MICS 2019 show that nine mothers report more

violence compared to other age (UNICEF, 2019). A stage sample procedure was followed (Bhattacharjee, 2019). In the first stage, considering the primary sample units (PSU), wards were selected randomly, and each PSU sample was satisfied with the Secondary Sample Units (SSU), considering the children study in the private and public schools. The Population of the respondents was taken from the EMIS data of the children. Total Samples was divided into two groups based on the private and public-school children proportionally as well as the samples from the wards as equal weights.

The list of the samples (respondents) was received from the school attendance who are currently studying for the sampling frame of this study. After deciding on the frame, the researcher planned to draw a representative sample with careful supervision (Cochran, 1977) . With the plan sample size was framed with the help of Cochran's Formula (Cochran, 1977), which is as follows.

$$\text{Sample Size } (n_0) = \frac{z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Where Z = 1.96 for 95% confidence level, p=0.5 and q =1-p=0.5, e (level of precision) =5% i.e.,0.05. When this formula is applied to the above-mentioned population, the size of the sample was 385.

The national study shows that children aged nine face a higher proportion of violence against children (VAC) attitudes and practices from parents. Based on this, I selected age nine (43.9%) as the reference point for determining the study population. The prevalence of VAC among nine-year-olds is relatively high, and the percentages follow a normal distribution. To reach the parents of children in this age group, I considered their school grade levels. According to the national education system, children typically start school at age five, though some begin at age seven. A child who started at age five would now be in grade five, while one who started at age seven would currently be in grade three. For this reason, I chose children in grades three, four, and five as the sample population and planned to reach their households.

The results of the MICS 2019 show that a higher percentage of children in urban areas face the issue of VAC. Therefore, I randomly chose the district from the province of Karnali, which is Jhapa. Within Jhapa, based on the MICS results, children in urban areas are highly affected by violence. Among the urban municipalities, I considered the one with the lowest enrollment rate, which is found in Arjunthara Municipality. Previous research indicates that there are different causal

pathways between violence and enrollment. The study showed that psychological factors (such as fear and violence) significantly contribute to lower enrollment rates. Similarly, other studies have also investigated how parental decisions made from fear and uncertainty lead to school withdrawal and delayed schooling, which ultimately reduces school enrollment. like reducing the enrollment rate of the school (Caudillo & Torche, 2014). Therefore, I chose the municipalities which have a lower rate of enrollment (92%)

The finite population of respondents, based on children in grades three to five in the municipality, is 3,968 (2,222 from private schools and 1,726 from government schools). Using corrections for proportions, the formula applied is:

$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

Where n_0 is the sample size when the population is not defined and n_1 is the sample size when the population is defined

N= Population

$$n_1 = \frac{385}{1 + \frac{(385 - 1)}{3,948}}$$

=351

The non-response rate is assumed to be 10%.

Sample after adjusting the non-response rate.

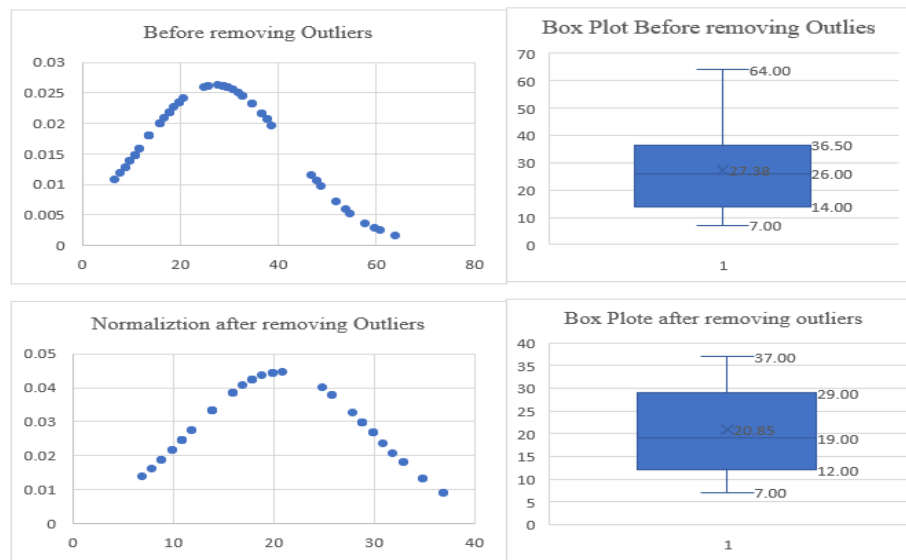
= 387

There were limitations in randomly selecting 387 children from the entire population and visiting all areas of the municipality. To address this, I planned to select certain schools only and collect data with equal numbers of children from each. To decide the number of children per school, I used three approaches. First, I normalized the number of children in grades 3, 4, and 5 across schools and calculated the mean, which came to 20.85 (shown in the graphs before and after normalization). Second, I considered the average daily attendance, which was 20.88 children per school (calculated as the total number of children in grades 3–5 multiplied by the attendance rate). Third, I looked at earlier studies. A national study in Nepal (Kitamura et al., 2024) concluded that a sample of at least 15 children per school would be sufficient based on the ICC, and my sample size exceeds 15. As such, I was in a better position. Likewise, UNICEF (2019) indicated, "sample size per group

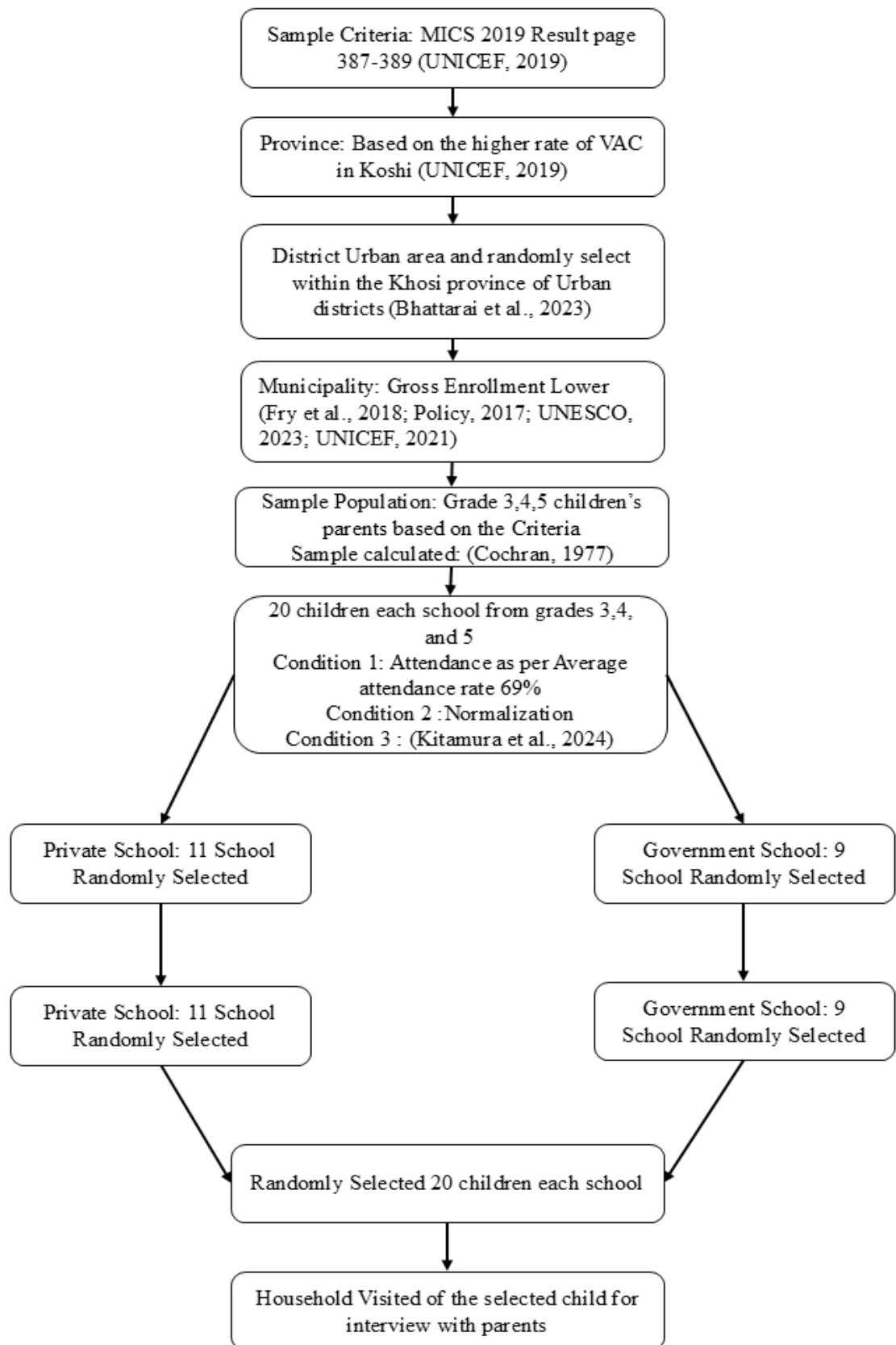
(PSU) is ultimately determined by the available resources, or accessibility and capacity" (p. 224). Thus, based on all three approaches, I decided to select 20 children from each school in grades 3, 4 and 5. Dividing my sample size of 387 children, by 20 is just over 19; as such, I intended to include 20 schools in the sample. The overall proportion of children by school type is 56.28% in private schools and 42.72% in government schools. To maintain the overall school type proportion, I allocated the 20 schools as 11 private schools and 9 government schools.

Figure 5

Normalization of the Children Number for Sampling



For the random selection of children, I first created a complete list of all students in each grade and assigned them unique identification numbers. For example, if a school had 15 children in grade 3, 10 in grade 4, and 20 in grade 5, I numbered them as follows: grade_3_01 to grade_3_15, grade_4_01 to grade_4_10, and grade_5_01 to grade_5_20. This produced a full list of 45 children for that school. Using STATA 18, I then randomized the list and selected 20 children from each school. To locate the selected children, enumerators first visited the school, identified the chosen students, and then visited their households for data collection. The specific challenges and difficulties encountered during this process are described in detail later in this chapter.

Figure 6*Sample Flow Chart*

Data Collection and Management

Questionnaires were prepared in the standard format for the data collection tool. Considering the research questions of the study, mainly four parts of questions was designed i.e., demographic and background information of the respondents, knowledge of violence against children, attitudes or norms of the respondents on violence against children, and practices of the respondents on violence against children. All the data collection tools were digitized using the Kobo Toolbox, and data were collected using the local enumerators.

Data collection was mostly accomplished using internet means, notably Kobo Toolbox (Poloju et al., 2022). An online survey was developed to collect information related to the study questions. The survey was developed using an online template, and enumerators responsible for data collection were then trained accordingly. This approach allows data collection to be more efficient while decreasing the likelihood of errors associated with manual data entry.

The items on the survey included both closed-ended questions and open-ended questions for the participants to answer specifically. In the case of closed-ended questions, these provided quantifiable data using Likert-scale items where participants registered their level of agreement or disagreement. Open-ended questions provided opportunities for participants to articulate lengthy qualitative responses and describe in some depth their experience and perspectives.

Given the timeframe of 10 days for data collection, I recruited enumerators to conduct the task. Based on my expertise in data collection for various surveys and evaluations, each question typically takes a minimum of 20 seconds to answer with a simple Yes or No, and roughly 45 seconds to 1 minute for multiple-choice questions. Using this information, I determined the duration of the data collection and subsequently computed the number of enumerators required for the task. After establishing relationships with local enumerators and given the nature of the survey, I only hired female enumerators with college experience, specifically those who have at least had 12 years of schooling and are studying in another program. Importantly, I focused on enumerators who are studying education. .

To make sure that the data collection was of good quality, five enumerators with a background in education and knowledge of the local area were hired. They are provided two days' training for data collection and using the mobile app. The first was full-day training that went over the survey's goals, ethical issues during the data

collection, and step-by-step instructions for using the data collection methods using the Kobo and mobile tool. After that, a pilot data collection activity was done in the field to see how well the tool worked and how ready the enumerators were.

After the pilot, I discussed with the team and discussed what they learnt from the field and what actual feedback from the field to make it easier for the data collection. The tool was changed based on their comments to make it clearer and more relevant to the situation. This was done by changing some words into Nepali that is easier for people in the area to grasp. This stage made sure that the enumerators were more confident and more prepared to do good interviews in their neighborhoods.

The first phase involved creating a systematic and organized data gathering tool that would be relevant and accurate. Cumulatively, I sequenced questions in a way that made sense and reduced confusion for the entire interview experience. After all the adjustments were made, a teacher who specializes in teaching Nepali language at both schools and campus levels translated the tool into Nepali. Training was a key step to develop questions that would make sense to local respondents and were culturally appropriate.

I also employed one enumerator who was responsible for quality control (QC). The enumerators received a full day of training on important considerations, including the purpose of the study, how to collect data, ethics, consent, and a review of the tools in detail. Additionally, after the training, we had a practice data collection run. After the practice, we had a debrief in which we discussed challenges faced in the field, clarified questions that remained, and provided additional advice if needed.

The last and most significant task is to establish good data collection while it's going on. I employed three significant strategies to ensure this:

- **Monitoring Interview Duration and Times:** I checked when the interviews started and ended using Kobo Toolbox information without using the enumerators and supervisors. This was valuable to me, as it indicated the interviews were taking a reasonable amount of time, thus confirming engagement with the respondent.
- **GPS Plot Tracking:** At the end of each night, enumerators advised us where they collected the data and how many surveys they completed. I cross-checked this information against GPS coordinates to make sure they were collecting the data at the appropriate locations, as opposed to collecting data just in population centers or some other area to which they could easily walk.

- Cross-referencing QC person: I worked closely with the QC person to ensure the enumerator had the appropriate sample location. This ensured that the enumerator visited the appropriate household and data collection and sample distribution was approximately even.

Research Scale Construction

The scale was developed in a systematic manner, with a focus on the local context, validity, and reliability. The parent interview instrument was developed in accordance with the theoretical framework of VAC (Ajzen, 1991), as well as the best practices from previous studies (Shrestha, 2017) and the unique context of Nepal.

The scale assessed knowledge, attitudes, practices, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intentions. It concentrated on the two primary components of VAC: psychological aggression and physical punishment (Puri & Choudhary, 2025; UNICEF, 2019). Initially, the knowledge tool was designed with binary responses (Yes/No). To allow for the evaluation of the additional constructs, the instrument was subsequently expanded from three categories to five categories, assessed using a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Puri & Chaudhari, 2025). This ensured consistent data analysis concerning all scale components. The development process included UNICEF publications, peer-reviewed research on associated topics, and the Parenting without Violence (PwV) guidelines from Save the Children 2023. A panel of experts consisting of professors/supervisors, teachers, technical experts, and casual respondents reviewed drafts of the tool. After the expert review, the same draft was piloted with more than 10% of the total sample. As part of the piloting activities, the tool was evaluated for acceptability, clarity/understandability, and readability.

As stated by Creswell (2021), with Rea and Parker (2014) affirming the significance of trials, pilot trials are necessary to validate the reliability and appropriateness of data. Pilot testing additionally informs validity testing by tracking the length of time to complete the questionnaire (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001), as well as using measures such as Cronbach's alpha. Participant feedback from the pilot testing process led to changes, including rephrasing uncertain items, provision of an English version for clarification, and the simplification of highly technical words. Cronbach's alpha calculations were conducted for each section for internal consistency.

The final instrument was composed of the following: knowledge (10 items), attitudes (18), subjective norms (10), perceived behavioral control (8), intentions (7), and practices/behaviors (14). Except for knowledge, which was initially binary but was subsequently harmonized into the five-point format, all sections utilized a five-point scale.

Once the data collection was complete it was analyzed using the statistical software STATA 17. The quantitative data collected from the online survey was subjected to a variety of statistical analyses. Means, frequencies and percentage were calculated to summarize the participants' responses in seeking a summary of work preparation levels for technical graduates in Karnali Province.

To examine relationships and associations between variables, inferential statistics would be chosen. For example, a chi-square test or correlation would examine relationships between self-reported job readiness, self-reported alignment of technical skills with industry expectations, and self-reports regarding job readiness for critical thinking and critical thinking skills.

The data analysis findings were interpreted considering the research questions and alternative hypotheses. The systematic approach of the study design ensures that the interpretation of the results remains consistent with the research objectives. The findings were presented in detail, including tables, graphs, and narratives to assist clear and concise communication of the findings.

Generating Hypotheses for Supporting Research Questions

During the analysis for addressing the overall hypothesis and research questions, mainly three types of analysis was considered: descriptive, inferential and correlation and regression analysis. The descriptive analysis mainly summarizes and describes the features of the data which addressed the first research questions and similar Chi-square/Fisher exact test and ANOVA made inferences and predictions about a population based on a sample of the data. Similarly, regression examines the relationships between variables and predicts major ideas of the research. The following research questions and analytical tool that was used during the research.

Table 1

Research Questions and Analytical Tool

S.N.	Research Questions	Tool of the Analysis
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1	What are the differences in Knowledge, attitude and Practice of violence against children between parents from private and public schools within the demographic information?	Descriptive analysis, Frequency, crosstab, and Central Tendency
2	What is the relation between the components of the TPB of the parents between private and government schools about the violence against children's practices	Chi-Square/Fisher Exact test, t-test/ANOVA
3	To what extent do parents' scores on the components of the Theory of Planned Behavior (knowledge, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, intentions, and practices) vary?	Bivariate regression analysis OLS/Multivariate Regression
4	How do sociodemographic factors predict parents' knowledge, attitudes, perceived behavioral control, and practices related to violence against children in public and private school settings, based on the Theory of Planned Behavior?	Semi-Structured Analysis

The analysis flow is designed to move from descriptive to association, then to prediction, and finally to explanation of how demographic and Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) factors relate to violence-against-children practices. Descriptive statistics, crosstabs, and measures of central tendency are needed first to summarize the sample and show how knowledge, attitude, and practice differ across private and public-school parents before testing whether those differences are statistically meaningful.

Each stage then feeds the next one: chi-square/Fisher's exact tests and t-tests/ANOVA examine whether school type is associated with TPB components and practices, while regression goes further by estimating how strongly knowledge, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, intentions, and sociodemographic factors predict outcomes when variables are considered together. The semi-structured analysis adds depth by capturing parents' explanations and experiences that may not appear in numeric data, helping interpret why the patterns occur and how social context shapes them, which strengthens the overall TPB-based interpretation.

Validity and Reliability

This research used quantitative data to address the research questions and main objective of the research. Therefore, during the research, I, as a researcher, followed the principles of reliability, validity, and internal consistency in the overall process of the design, analysis, and use of the results. The reliability and validity of the study were maintained in the quantitative data collection, analysis, and design. During the research, I followed the following principles of reliability, namely stability and internal consistency. For stability, the split-half technique was used to complete the reliability test.

For reliability, the split-half method was used. Split-half reliability is assessed by partitioning the full set of items (such as questions) that pertain to a certain construct of interest into two halves, namely the odd-numbered and even-numbered questions. The collected results from these two subsets are then compared to evaluate the reliability (Pronk et al., 2022). Further, the correlation between the two half scores was used as the index of the reliability (Pronk et al., 2022). Reliability is essentially synonymous with dependability, consistency, and replicability across time, instruments, and groups of responders (Cohen et al., 2007). To establish trust in the quantitative instrument, it is necessary to report two types of reliability. One aspect to consider is the instrument's temporal stability, which may be assessed by the test-retest method. The second aspect is the internal consistency of the items in the instruments, which is quantified by a reliability coefficient (Cohen et al., 2007). For my research, I considered both parts of the reliability test. I followed all the mandatory tool design processes by doing the test and re-test methods using the pilot test.

For internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha test was used. The acceptable reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha tests was considered the 0.7 (Collins, 2007; Taber, 2018). The Cronbach's alpha value less than 0.7 was not considered and did not indicate the strength of the data for addressing the research finding (Cohen et al., 2007). A total of 43 observations were classified as navigating during the pilot test, which exceeds 10% of the total sample data. The Cronbach's alpha during the pilot test was 81% or higher. Similarly, the final data also assessed Cronbach's alpha in various components of the TPB, ranging from 72% to 90%.

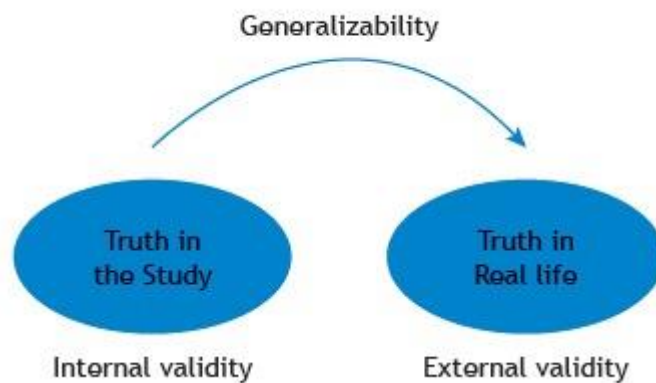
Validity allows us to determine whether we are measuring according to our plan (or not). Validity is a critical component of a study and involves both internal

and external validity. Internal validity ensures that what we saw in terms of differences in knowledge, attitudes and practice between parents from private and public schools are accurate, without the occurrence of methodological errors (e.g., measurement errors, biased selection of participants).

External validity refers to the extent and manner in which we can apply findings from an experiment to other people, settings, researchers, and perhaps, assessments (Perry, 2011). Random sampling can help increase this. For high external validity, results must be generalizable to parents from private and public schools throughout other communities, or settings. This makes sure that those selected for the study depict the larger group of interest to whom we want to have apply study findings. Thus, both forms of validity are important components of a study so that findings are dependable and applicable across settings.

Figure 7

Generalizability for Validity



(Patino & Ferreira, 2018)

Throughout the study process, including design, implementation, and utilization, I was primarily focused on addressing all types of validity concerns to ensure the quality of the research. I randomly chose a sample from the school population to visit caretakers or parents. The random sample technique is employed to verify that any observed differences are attributable to the type of school (private vs public) rather than other variables.

Consistent with the research objective of generalizing findings to the entire population, the sample consisted of parents from both private and public schools, who served as representatives of the population. To do this, I employed stratified random sampling within the Secondary Sampling Units (SSU). In addition, I was guaranteed

that the content validity of the measurement tool/area is comprehensive, encompassing all essential features of the topics under study. Relevant literature and expert knowledge in the field were considered to ensure the legitimacy of the information. I incorporated the active participation of experts in the process of designing instruments/tools by utilizing the Delphi techniques. (Landeta, 2006; Naisola-Ruiter, 2022).

In addition, I ensured the construct validity of the research by creating precise operational definitions for the knowledge, attitudes, and practices related to violence against children. To ensure the accurate construction of the tool, I referred to the MICS report, UNICEF definition, Nepal Act and policy, published literature, and international declarations to identify the key factors. Furthermore, the criterion validity, I compared the result both pilot and main survey with the other established measures of knowledge, attitudes and practices regarding the violence against children to ensure that it is related to each other. I did a pilot test to ensure that my research or measurement tool appears to measure the intended constraints based on subjective judgment. Obtain feedback from the experts, and participants to confirm the face validity of the tool.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations in educational research require professional codes, guidelines, and laws to prevent deviations (Afshar et al., 2011). Before collecting data, we got informed consent from all participants who participated in the interview i.e., with caregiver. During the interview, enumerators shared all the information regarding the objectives, methodologies, and ways to ensure confidentiality. Also informed that participants can withdraw their interview at any time in the interview section. To protect the confidentiality of the participants, we did not capture the names of the participants and used the code. Similarly, the child's information is also collected using the code, which is kept separately.

Chapter Summary

This research used a quantitative design based on a post-positivist paradigm. The study utilized a cross-sectional survey design to gather data from parents whose children were in Grades 3-5 in private and public schools and used a sample size of 387, calculated using Cochran's formula, with a multi-stage sampling strategy, though constraints of time and funding meant the use of convenience sampling strategies within each municipality. Data was collected electronically via the Kobo Toolbox to

allow enumerators to carry the survey, in person, to households. This study also ensures validity and reliability through the reviews by an expert and a pilot test to ensure the tool.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

In this analysis, both descriptive and inferential statistical methods were employed using STATA version 17.0. Descriptive statistics were initially used to examine eight background variables; age, gender, location, education level, family size, occupation, and household wealth quintile on special education, and others—as well as six core variables informed by the Theory of Planned Behavior: behavioral beliefs, evaluation of outcomes, subjective norms, motivation to comply, self-efficacy, and control beliefs. Cross-tabulations were created to investigate correlations between different variables. To determine if any differences were significant in mean scores, independent sample t-tests and ANOVA were conducted, and the results reported are mean values and standard deviations. All inferential analyses were conducted using two-tailed tests with a significance level of $\alpha = .05$.

Demographic Information

The demographic examination of respondents in both government and private schools (n= 180, n= 220 respectively), showed significant differences in the balance of gender representation, ethnicity, family structure, and socio-economic status. These differences may illustrate other societal and economic factors that have implications for patterns of enrollment in education.

Table 2

Demographic Information of the Respondents

Respondent's demographic	Government school (n=180)	Private school (n=220)
Gender of respondent		
Female	124 (68.9%)	136 (61.8%)
Male	56 (31.1%)	84 (38.2%)
Is the respondent's household head		
Yes	119 (66.1%)	150 (68.2%)
No	61 (33.9%)	70 (31.8%)
The highest level of education of the respondent		
Literate only	75 (41.7%)	38 (17.3%)
Basic Level	69 (38.3%)	66 (30.0%)
Secondary Level	27 (15.0%)	78 (35.5%)
Above Secondary level	9 (5.0%)	38 (17.3%)

The Highest Education level of the respondent's spouse

Literate only	47 (44.3%)	14 (11.5%)
Basic Level	33 (31.1%)	36 (29.5%)
Secondary Level	16 (15.1%)	49 (40.2%)
Above Secondary level	10 (9.4%)	23 (18.9%)

The gender distribution of respondents shows a higher proportion of females in both government and private school categories. In government institutions, 68.9% of all respondents were female, while 31.1% were male respondents. Similarly, in the private school phase, the plurality of respondents was female (61.8%), while males accounted for 38.2%. This shows that mothers or female guardians were more readily accessible or inclined to participate in the study across both categories of schools where the research was conducted.

When asked if they were the head of their household, the majority of respondents in both groups acknowledged their status. More specifically, 66.1% of government school respondents and 68.2% of private school respondents identified as the head of their household. This similarity highlights that the perspectives obtained are in fact those of the family decision-makers, irrespective of their child's attendance at a government-funded or private school.

A similar observation emerged for spouses of interviewees with respect to educational attainment background. Only 9.4% of spousal partners of families in a government schooling option went beyond secondary education and 44.3% of spouses were only literate. In contrast, private school spouse attendees reported educational attainment at a higher rate, with only 11.5% reported only literacy and 18.9% reported pursuing education beyond secondary schooling. Furthermore, the proportion of spouses who had completed secondary education was higher in private schools (40.2%) compared to government schools (15.1%).

Table 3

Demographic Information of the Respondent's Household Level

Demographic	Government school (n=180) Frequency (Percentage)	Private school (n=220) Frequency (Percentage)
Family type		
Joint	55 (30.6%)	87 (39.5%)
Single	125 (69.4%)	133 (60.5%)
Gender of the Household head		

Female	79 (43.9%)	121 (55.0%)
Male	101 (56.1%)	99 (45.0%)
Child's parents' status at home or not		
Both	106 (58.9%)	122 (55.5%)
Father only	14 (7.8%)	20 (9.1%)
Mother only	50 (27.8%)	69 (31.4%)
Neither is at home	10 (5.6%)	9 (4.1%)
Wealth Quintile		
Poorest	9 (5.0%)	2 (0.9%)
Poor	24 (13.3%)	6 (2.7%)
Average	40 (22.2%)	24 (10.9%)
Rich	53 (29.4%)	68 (30.9%)
Richest	54 (30.0%)	120 (54.5%)
Ethnicity of the respondent		
Brahmin/Chhetri	73 (40.6%)	131 (59.5%)
Janajati	44 (24.4%)	43 (19.5%)
Dalit	44 (24.4%)	19 (8.6%)
Other	19 (10.6%)	27 (12.3%)
Sources of income		
Agriculture	63 (35.0%)	54 (24.5%)
Foreign employment	44 (24.4%)	77 (35.0%)
Business	17 (9.4%)	29 (13.2%)
Daily labor	45 (25.0%)	32 (14.5%)
Other	11 (6.1%)	28 (12.7%)

The majority of respondents in both groups live in nuclear or single-family households. In government school households, 69.4% were from single-family settings, while the remaining 30.6% lived in joint families. By contrast, a higher percentage of private school families (39.6%) indicated living in joint family arrangements, while the remainder lived in a single-family arrangement (60.5). This difference may suggest that joint families either have a higher economic capacity or a cultural preference to send their children to private schools, drawing upon pooled financial and caregiving resources.

A higher percentage of private school families were female-headed households compared to government school families (55.0% vs. 43.9%). This finding is rather surprising, considering female-headed households are frequently associated with increased economic risk. However, it may also suggest that in urban or semi-urban contexts where private schools are more accessible, women are increasingly

taking on decision-making roles or that male members are away for employment (e.g., foreign labor migration), placing women in household leadership roles.

Across both groups, over half of the children lived with both parents, 58.9% in government schools and 55.5% in private schools. However, a considerable proportion of children lived with only one parent. In private schools, 31.4% lived with only their mother, slightly higher than 27.8% in government schools. Children living only with their father were relatively few in both groups. The presence of both parents at home was low overall but slightly higher in government school households (5.6% vs. 4.1%).

Brahmin/Chhetri respondents constituted a higher proportion in private schools (59.6%) than in government institutions (40.6%). Janajati represented 24.4% of government schools and 19.6% of private schools. Notably, Dalit households were more likely to attend government schools (24.4%) than private schools (8.6%), indicating potential differences in access to private education based on social identity. This implies that, despite increased educational access, caste and ethnicity continue to influence school selection and opportunity.

Table 4

Demographic Information of the Respondent's Child

Demographic	Government school (n=180) Frequency (Percentage)	Private school (n=220) Frequency (Percentage)
Gender of Child		
Boys	85 (47.2%)	119 (54.1%)
Girls	95 (52.8%)	101 (45.9%)
Grade reference child's studying		
3	54 (30.0%)	72 (32.7%)
4	58 (32.2%)	77 (35.0%)
5	68 (37.8%)	71 (32.3%)
Age of the Child		
8	22 (12.2%)	13 (5.9%)
9	45 (25.0%)	62 (28.2%)
10	41 (22.8%)	64 (29.1%)
11	72 (40.0%)	81 (36.8%)

Grade 5 had the highest percentage of pupils studying in government schools (37.8%) whereas Grades 3 and 4 have the highest percentage of pupils attending

private schools (32.7% and 35.0%). This was a somewhat even distribution of pupils across grades for both types of schools. This may reflect retention differences; private schools may have more consistent enrollment over the early grades, while government schools may have a larger proportion of pupils advancing to higher grades. Indicating that students in private schools may drop off in later grades due to more rigorous academic screening after Grade 5.

Most students in both types of schools fell into the 9-11 age range which would be normal for elementary school students. However, the share of ten-year-old pupils in private schools was higher (29.1% vs. 22.8%), while the share of eleven-year-old pupils in government schools was higher (40.0% vs. 36.8%). Private schools may have a more stringent age-grade alignment, while government schools may have more older children due to late enrollment or retention policies. They may have older children due to skipped grades or late enrollment.

Table 5

Mean Value of the KAP and Other TPB Components, Compared to the Government School and the Private School

Variables	Government school (n=180)	Private school (n=220)	p-value
	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	
Knowledge	3.57 (1.13)	3.94 (0.76)	<0.001
Attitude towards Punishment	3.73 (0.25)	3.84 (0.40)	0.001
Subjective norms	3.87 (0.39)	4.04 (0.45)	<0.001
Perceived Behavior Control	2.65 (0.72)	3.02 (0.83)	<0.001
Intention	3.18 (1.18)	3.12 (1.07)	0.594
Expectation	2.98 (1.05)	3.24 (1.07)	0.019
Practices	4.24 (0.35)	4.27 (0.49)	0.493
Positive Parenting	3.10 (1.09)	3.68 (1.11)	<0.001
Physical Aggression	4.37 (0.55)	4.30 (0.63)	0.289
Physical Punishment	4.76 (0.45)	4.57 (0.61)	<0.001

The analysis of caregiver responses indicates notable disparities in knowledge and behavioral determinants between caregivers affiliated with government and

private schools. Caregivers from private schools exhibited a markedly superior mean knowledge score (3.94) in contrast to their counterparts from government schools (3.57), with a highly significant p-value (<0.001). This suggests that caregivers of private schools have a more profound comprehension of concerns about violence against children.

Supporting this trend, caregivers in private schools have dramatically higher subjective norms (4.04 versus 3.87), higher perceptions of behavioral control (3.02 versus 2.65), and significantly more positive attitudes toward non-violent discipline (means = 3.84 versus 3.73) (all $p \leq 0.001$). The Theory of Planned Behavior is made up of some parts. These parts show that people who take care of kids in schools are more likely to be nice and gentle with them. They also know more about how to be parents. When we looked at how much people wanted to be parents we did not see a big difference between the two groups of people we were studying. We did see that people really wanted to be good parents, which means that things outside of their control like what other people think might be affecting how they behave.

We wanted to see how the parts of the Theory of Planned Behavior work with kinds of people. So, we looked at eight things that can be different, about people: how old they are, if they are a man or a woman, where they live how education they have, if they have been trained to teach kids with special needs if they have met people with intellectual disabilities before how long they have been teaching and what level they are currently teaching. These variables were analyzed in relation to each TPB construct attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, intention, and classroom practices to better understand teachers' perspectives on inclusive education at a micro level.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 were evaluated using one-way ANOVA and independent sample t-tests. The subsequent subsections present the analysis for each TPB construct as a dependent variable, with the demographic factors serving as independent variables.

Caregivers' Knowledge on Violence Against Children

This section compares government and private school settings by analyzing caregiver knowledge scores across several demographic characteristics. Tables 5, 6, and 7 show that parents of students attending private schools are continuously more knowledgeable than those at public schools. These differences are especially pronounced among caregivers with lower education levels, female respondents, male-

headed households, economically marginalized groups, and caregivers of older or higher-grade children.

Table 6

Caregiver Knowledge Scores by Caregiver's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government	Private school	p-value
	school		
	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	
Education level of the Caregiver			
Literate only	3.33 (1.24)	3.99 (0.68)	0.003
Basic Level	3.60 (1.08)	3.95 (0.83)	0.036
Secondary Level	3.94 (0.88)	3.80 (0.83)	0.449
Above Secondary level	4.22 (0.36)	4.13 (0.47)	0.595
Gender of respondent			
Female	3.56 (1.18)	4.20 (0.59)	<0.001
Male	3.60 (1.00)	3.51 (0.81)	0.575
Caregiver is household			
Yes	3.70 (0.95)	3.82 (0.79)	0.251
No	3.33 (1.38)	4.19 (0.62)	<0.001

Table 6 presents comparative caregiver knowledge scores across caregiver demographic factors within government and private school contexts. The data clearly indicates that the caregiver's education level is a significant contributor to their knowledge scores. Private school caregivers consistently scored better than government school caregivers, especially at lower levels of educational attainment. For example, caregivers who are solely literate scored significantly lower at government schools (mean = 3.33) than private school caregivers (mean = 3.99, $p = 0.003$). A similarly significant difference was noted in caregivers at the basic education level ($p = 0.036$). It was interesting that the difference in knowledge began to shrink and become statistically non-significant with higher levels of education. Caregivers, with at least a secondary level of education, had relatively high and comparable mean knowledge scores across both school types. This reflects that private school caregivers who completed less education may be more affected by

school conditions or extrinsic factors that support their knowledge on methods and practices for child protection.

This trend is even more pronounced in comparison of gender and household roles. Female caregivers from private schools had a highly significant p-value (<0.001) and reported knowledge scores statistically higher (4.20) than their government counterparts (3.56). The data demonstrates a substantive gendered knowledge difference favoring private schools. The male caregivers however showed no difference by school type. The results also showed a major difference between caregivers who were not-head of household and caregivers who were-head of household. Private school caregivers had a score of 4.19 while the government caregivers scored lower at 3.33 ($p < 0.001$). This may suggest involvement and/or knowledge from extended or non-head caregivers in private school settings more than in government schools, perhaps due to community participation or school outreach initiatives. The patterns in this evidence broadly support the ideas of home roles, gender, educational levels of caregivers, and school type affecting knowledge levels. Protective knowledge may be nurtured in private schools, especially for caregiver groups largely marginalized in the underlying population bases.

Table 7

Caregiver Knowledge Scores by Household's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government	Private school	p-value
	school		
	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	
Gender of the household head			
Female	3.74 (0.96)	3.77 (0.83)	0.826
Male	3.44 (1.23)	4.14 (0.61)	<0.001
Family type			
Joint	3.70 (1.04)	4.05 (0.63)	0.013
Single	3.52 (1.16)	3.86 (0.83)	0.006
Both parents' status at home			
Both at home	3.53 (1.15)	3.89 (0.72)	0.004
Father only	3.50 (1.37)	4.12 (0.86)	0.112
Mother only	3.69 (1.02)	3.94 (0.82)	0.139

Variables	Government school	Private school	p-value
	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	
Neither is at home	3.50 (1.18)	4.06 (0.63)	0.226
Wealth Quintile			
Poorest	3.89 (0.65)	4.25 (0.35)	0.479
Poor	4.04 (0.72)	4.17 (0.68)	0.704
Average	3.35 (1.33)	3.79 (0.81)	0.146
Rich	3.35 (1.26)	3.85 (0.70)	0.007
Richest	3.69 (0.96)	4.00 (0.79)	0.029
Ethnicity of respondent			
Brahmin/Chhetri	3.59 (1.14)	3.96 (0.81)	0.007
Janajati	3.48 (1.18)	3.95 (0.70)	0.025
Dalit	3.70 (0.97)	3.76 (0.69)	0.813
Other	3.42 (1.30)	3.91 (0.65)	0.102
Sources of income (top three)			
Agriculture	3.43 (1.28)	3.78 (0.73)	0.079
Foreign employment	3.74 (1.00)	3.99 (0.79)	0.134
Business	4.12 (0.33)	3.66 (0.93)	0.054
Daily labor	3.34 (1.23)	4.14 (0.60)	0.001
Other	3.82 (0.64)	4.16 (0.58)	0.115

Table (7) shows the results of a comparison of caregiver knowledge ratings, based on demographic variables, at the household level in both a government and private school context. A key finding from this study was the large disparity in knowledge scores for male-headed households. The knowledge of the caregivers reported in the private setting (mean = 4.14) was far greater than those in government schools (mean = 3.44, $p < 0.001$). The significant difference was not present with female-headed households as the scores were virtually the same amongst the parents. This indicates that perhaps the private context was assisting generally less involved male heads of the household to learn more, possibly because of more communication between the school and the family, or more information was being received.

It also looks like family structure affects how much people know. Caregivers from joint families knew a lot more in private schools (4.05) than in government

schools (3.70, $p = 0.013$). A similar pattern was found among small-sized households ($p = 0.006$). Having both parents at home made this pattern even stronger and significant. Caregivers from two-parent families in private schools scored far higher on knowledge tests than those in government schools (3.89 vs. 3.53, $p = 0.004$). These results show how the structure and makeup of a family can work with the type of school to affect how much caregivers know. Interestingly, families with only one or no parent present also did better in private schools, but these advantages were not statistically significant. This could be because the sample numbers were smaller or because the roles of caregivers were more varied in these situations.

Wealth quintiles show that socioeconomic position is growing the difference in knowledge at the top end of the economic spectrum. The rich and richest families who sent their kids to private schools scored much higher on tests of knowledge than those who sent their kids to government schools ($p = 0.007$ and 0.029 , respectively). But there were no significant disparities between the lowest and average-income households. This means that private school caregivers who have more money may be able to get more information, awareness initiatives, or social networks that help them learn about child protection. Ethnicity is also important. Caregivers from the Brahmin/Chhetri and Janajati communities who have children that study in schools do really well on knowledge tests. They score much higher than the caregivers from the Brahmin/Chhetri and Janajati communities who have children that study in government schools. The Brahmin/Chhetri and Janajati communities have a difference in test scores. It is not the same for the Dalits or other ethnic groups. The Dalits or other ethnic groups do not have a difference in test scores. This tells us that there may be differences in how people from the Brahmin/Chhetri and Janajati communities get information and the resources they need. The Brahmin/Chhetri and Janajati communities may have access to information and resources, then other communities. This is not fair. It is a problem that needs to be fixed.

Table 8

Caregiver Knowledge Scores by Child's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	Private school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	p-value
Gender of the Child			
Boy	3.58 (1.19)	3.99 (0.77)	0.003
Girl	3.57 (1.07)	3.87 (0.75)	0.022

Variables	Government school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	Private school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	p-value
Age of the Child			
Age-8	3.89 (0.75)	4.23 (0.39)	0.137
Age-9	3.51 (1.19)	3.92 (0.70)	0.029
Age-10	3.59 (1.20)	3.78 (0.92)	0.349
Age-11	3.51 (1.14)	4.02 (0.69)	<0.001
Education level of the child			
Class_3	3.56 (1.09)	3.80 (0.83)	0.157
Class_4	3.67 (1.20)	3.97 (0.78)	0.080
Class_5	3.50 (1.10)	4.04 (0.65)	<0.001

In Table 8, the variation in caregiver knowledge scores between government and private school contexts is presented, considering child demographic factors. Regarding the child's gender, caregivers at private schools demonstrate a substantially higher level of knowledge compared to those at government schools. It demonstrates that the boy's knowledge in private and government schools is marginally higher than the girl's knowledge. This suggests that the parents of the boy's household possess greater knowledge than the parents of the girls and are more proficient in the VAC at the private school. Additionally, the caregiver of the having child age 11 years found better knowledge with caregiver in the government school.

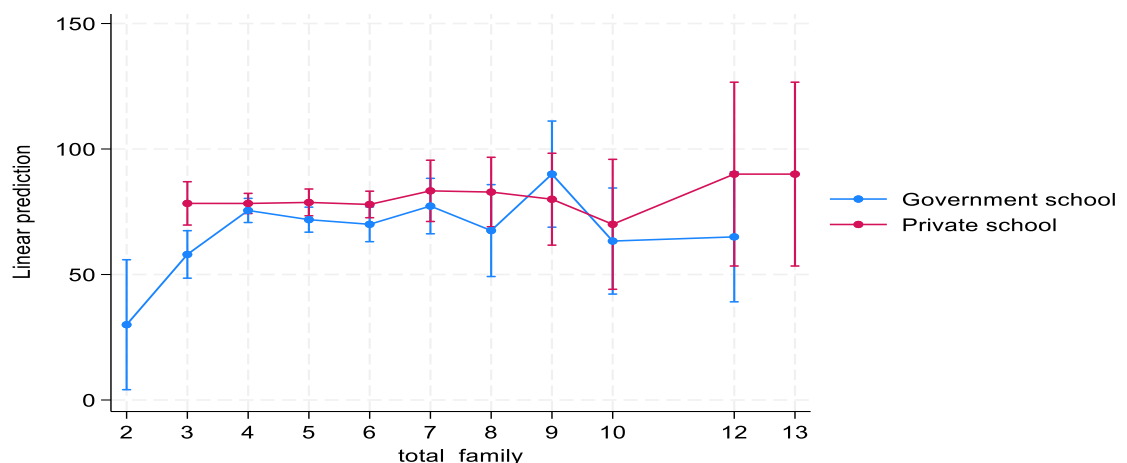
The most significant difference in children's educational levels emerges in Class 5, where private school caregivers perform much better on knowledge assessments (4.04) than government school caregivers (3.50, $p < 0.001$). Private school caregivers score higher than government school caregivers in Class 3 and Class 4, but the differences are not statistically significant. These findings indicate that as students develop and transition into higher grades (especially Class 5—a year designated for transition), private schools may play a larger role in better understanding non-violent methods of safeguarding and disciplining children. Once again, the results showed a consistent pattern across various demographic variables: Enrollment of a child in a private school is generally associated with a higher level of caregiver awareness regarding safeguarding children. These patterns illustrate the ability of school-based interventions to mobilize caregiver engagement through the education of their children.

Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children

The bivariate regression analysis examining the relationship between family size and school type on caregiver knowledge revealed multiple statistically significant results. In government schools, families with smaller sizes exhibited substantially higher knowledge scores compared to those with larger sizes, with differences ranging from 28 to 60 points ($p < 0.05$ for families comprising three to nine members). However, there is no significant difference in the effect of the association with the private school ($\beta = 25$, $p = 0.274$). The correlation between school types and family size is not significant (all $p > 0.19$). Adjusted predictions from the margins analysis indicated that knowledge levels were consistently elevated in private schools across most family sizes, with the most significant disparities noted in smaller families (e.g., 78.3 vs. 58 for 3-member families). It's interesting to note that families with 10 or more members had more variation. For example, families with 10 members had lower knowledge scores in government schools (63.3) but higher scores in private schools (70–90). These findings indicate that family size independently influences caregiver knowledge, and that private schooling may offer an additional advantage, especially for mid-sized families.

Figure 8

Bivariate Regression on Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children



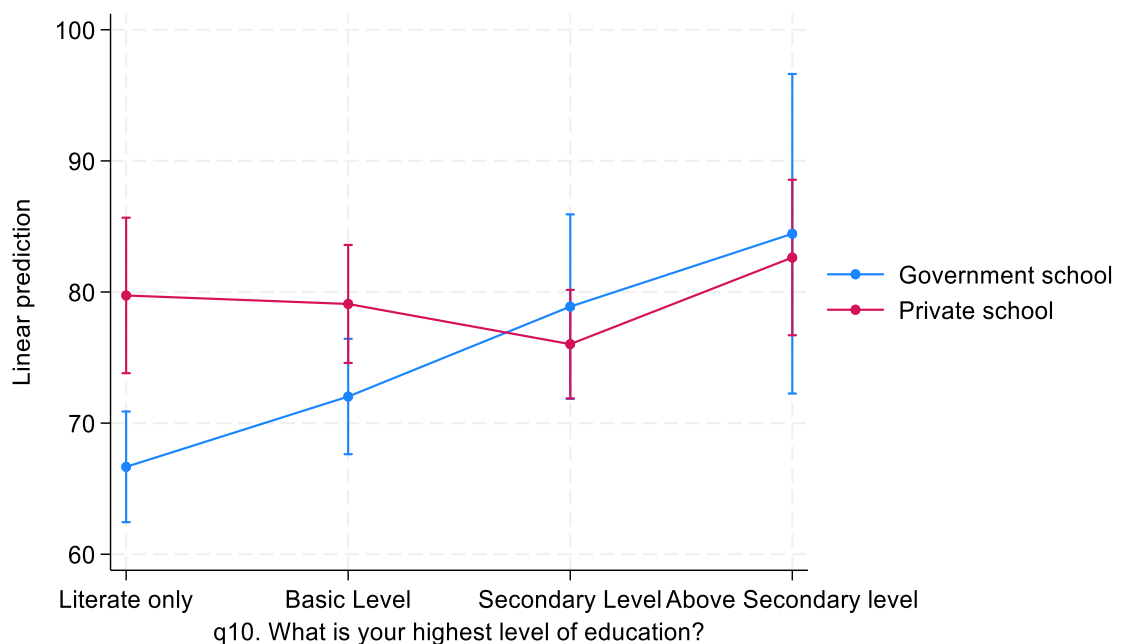
Respondent Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children

The bivariate regression analysis of the Figure 9 shows the shows the knowledge on VAC between private school and government school's caregiver by their education level. First, higher levels of education were consistently linked to greater knowledge. For example, caregivers with more than a high school diploma

scored 17.78 points higher than caregivers who were only literate in government schools ($p=0.007$). There was a strong main effect for private school attendance, with caregivers scoring 13.07 points higher than those who went to government schools ($p<0.001$). Similarly, the result above the parents' knowledge above secondary level has significantly better with the government school's parents. The margin analysis indicated that caregivers with only literacy had the greatest advantage from a private school over a government school (79.74 v 66.67), while caregivers with secondary education or above experienced smaller differences in knowledge by school type. Therefore, while private schools are of substantial advantage to caregivers who are less educated, government schools may provide somewhat greater benefits to the knowledge growth of more educated caregivers. The overall model explained 7.6% of the variance in knowledge ($p=0.0001$), suggesting that, while education and school type are important predictors of caregiver knowledge, they are not completely predictive.

Figure 9

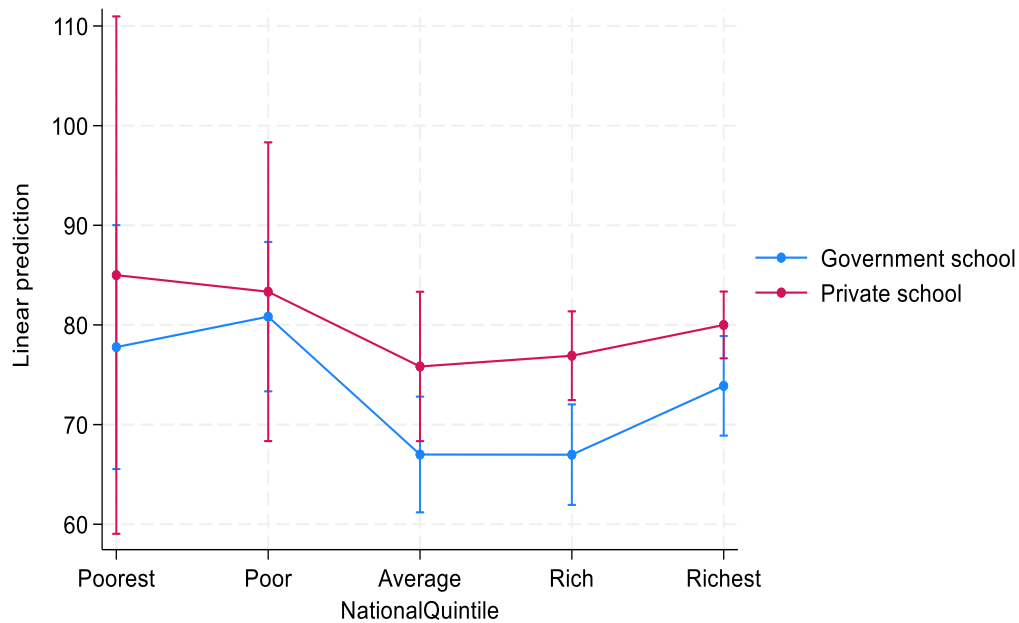
Bivariate Regression on Respondent Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children



Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children

Figure 10

Bivariate Regression on Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children



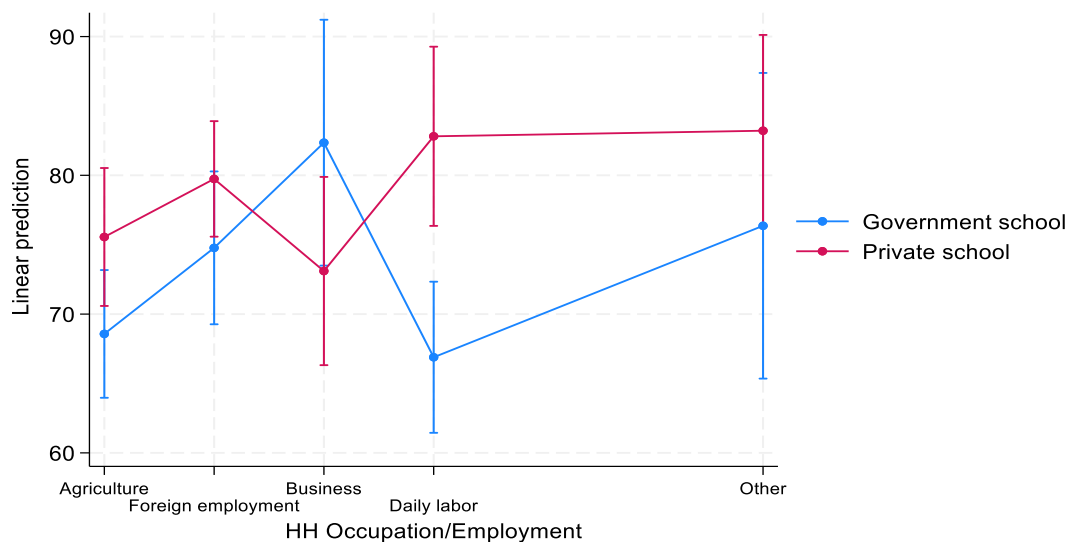
The bivariate regression analysis investigating the interaction between national wealth quintiles and school type on caregiver knowledge regarding violence against children yielded several significant findings. The overall model was statistically significant ($p=0.0005$), accounting for 7.3% of the variance; however, most individual coefficients lacked statistical significance. The base model indicated that caregivers in the lowest quintile (Q1) attending government schools had an average knowledge score of 77.78. When considering wealth interactions as variables, private school attendance had a positive correlation that was not statistically significant (+7.22 points, $p=0.621$). Margin analysis determined that the private school students, no matter their wealth status, had higher knowledge scores than public school students (for private schools, scores were in the range of 75.83 to 85 and, for public schools, scores ranged from 66.98 to 80.83). The largest difference between private and public schools occurred with Q1 (+7.22), and the smallest difference was in Q5 (+6.11). The knowledge scores in public schooling were more variable along with wealth quintiles (66.98-80.83) compared to knowledge scores in private schools (75.83-85). This suggests that private schools may help to dampen the effects of wealth-based differences in knowledge. Finally, none of the interaction terms between wealth quintiles and school status were statistically significant, which suggests that private schooling benefits students relatively uniformly across all wealthy conditions. In other

words, we see relationships with students in private schooling benefiting from high outcomes, but these outcomes do not have a substantive level of comparison for how household wealth status could possibly moderate academic success.

HH Occupation/Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children

Figure 11

Bivariate Regression on HH Occupation/Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children



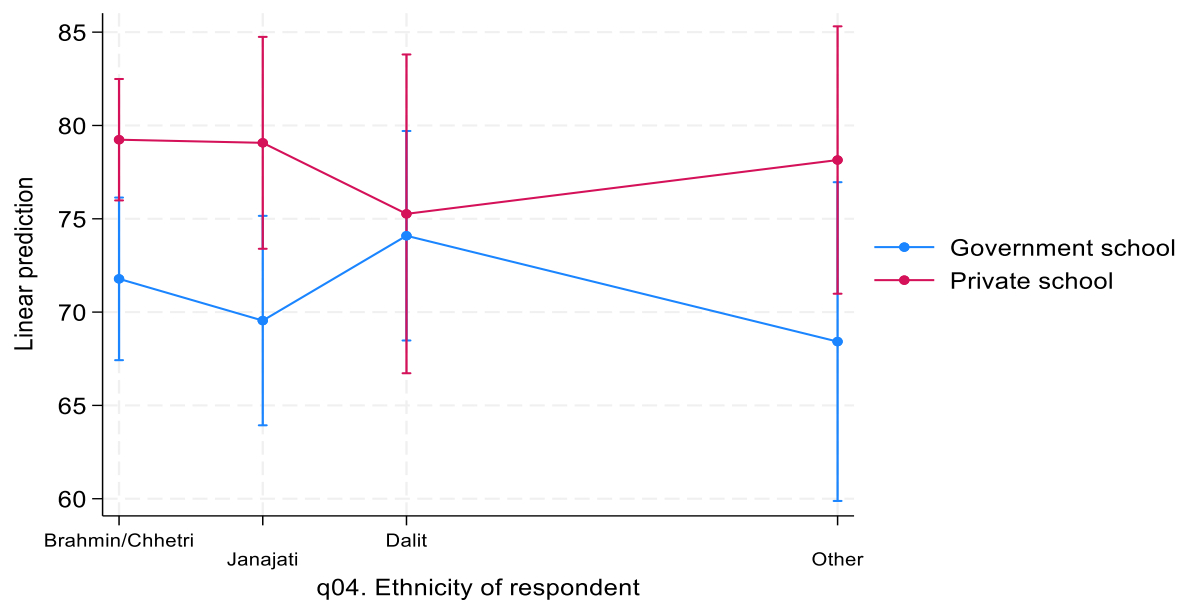
Bivariate regression analysis assessing the interaction between caregivers' employment status and school type on knowledge of violence against children identified several patterns of note. The overall model was statistically significant ($p=0.0001$) and explained 8.3% of the variance in knowledge scores. Caregivers in business sectors had significantly greater baseline levels of knowledge than agriculture workers (+13.78 points, $p=0.007$), and attendance at a private school was independently related to greater knowledge (+6.98 points, $p=0.043$). There was, however, a significant interaction effect for business sector caregivers attending a private school (-16.23 points, $p=0.015$) suggesting that they lose their advantage in knowledge when in the private school context. Marginal effects analysis revealed the most stark private school benefit observed was for daily laborers (+15.92 points in private vs government schools), while business caregivers scored lower for knowledge in private school (73.10) compared to government schools (82.35). Caregivers employed internationally had consistent knowledge advantages when attending a private school (+4.97 points), although this interaction was not significant.

These results suggest that while private school attendance generally provides an increase in knowledge for caregivers, this impact is shaped by their type of employment, possibly reflecting different levels of occupational exposure to child protection information or levels of engagement in parenting programs in the school context relative to each professional group.

Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children

Figure 12

Bivariate Regression on Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children



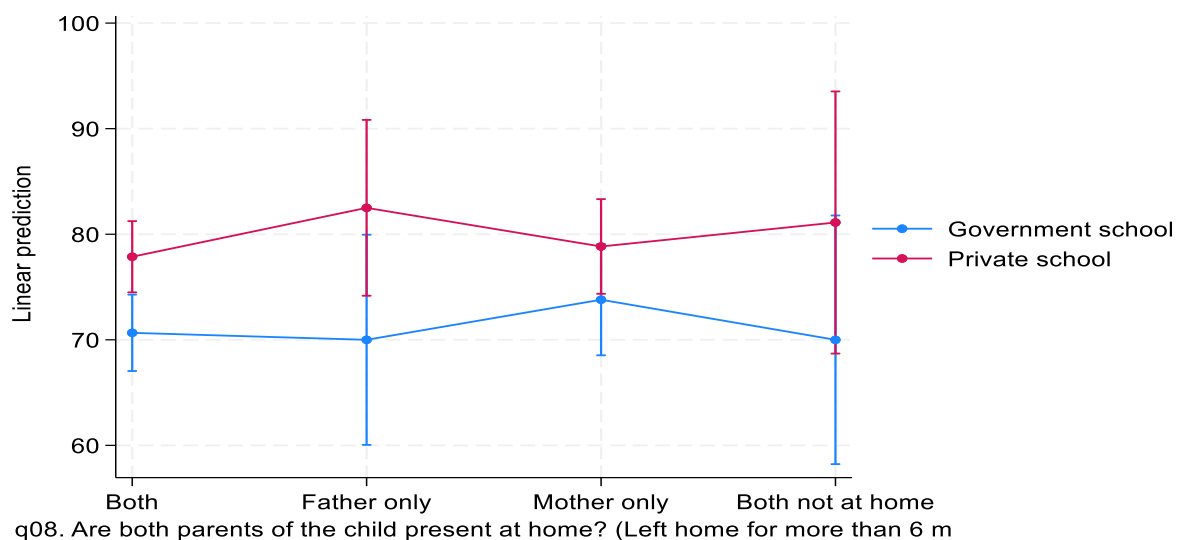
The bivariate regression analysis investigating the interplay between ethnicity and school type on caregiver awareness of violence against children yielded several significant findings. The overall model was statistically significant ($p=0.018$), but it only accounted for 4.2% of the variance in knowledge scores. The relationship between private school attendance and greater knowledge was significant across all ethnicities (+7.46 points, $p=0.007$). Caregivers who were Brahmin/Chhetri in private schools had the highest knowledge (79.24) compared to caregivers who were Brahmin/Chhetri in government schools (71.78). Margin analyses reveal that in private schools all ethnic groups had better knowledge scores than their counterparts in government schools, with the smallest difference for Dalit caregivers (+1.17 points) and the highest for Other (+9.73 points). None of the specific interactions terms for ethnicity approached significance indicating that the private school benefit largely

applied equally across each group. It is interesting to note that Dalit caregivers had the highest baseline knowledge while in government schools (74.09) whereas Other ethnic groups had the lowest baseline (68.42-71.78), although differences were not statistically significant. These findings suggest that while private school attendance generally leads to increased knowledge each ethnic group may experience a different extent of benefit from private schooling, with Dalit caregivers the least impacted. This implies further research is warranted to explore the cultural and institutional factors that may be influencing how each ethnic community acquires knowledge regarding violence prevention.

Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children

Figure 13

Bivariate Regression on Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Knowledge about Violence Against Children



The bivariate regression analysis examining the relationship between parental presence in the home and the type of school on caregiver knowledge of violence against children identified some noteworthy findings. The overall model was significant ($p = 0.020$), but it accounted for only 4.1% of the variance in knowledge scores. Attending private school was significantly associated with more knowledge (+7.21 points, $p = 0.004$) regardless of whether parents were present. Marginal comparisons indicated that regardless of parental presence, the children in private school always had caregivers with higher mean knowledge scores in all parental presence categories. The largest difference was observed between father-only

households (+12.5 points: 82.5 vs 70) and mother-only households (+5.04 points: 78.84 vs 73.8). Interestingly, across groups, the lower base knowledge of caregivers in government schools (below the overall mean of 70) was the same group that benefited the most when attending private schools.

Caregivers' Attitude on Violence Against Children

The result of the Table (9) shows the caregiver's attitude toward VAC by the demographic factors of the caregiver. For the most part, caregivers who are affiliated with private schools exhibit slightly more progressive or non-violent attitudes than those in government schools, regardless of the demographic. It seems that caregiver attitudes are influenced by education level, although the effect is not universally significant. The average attitude scores of caregivers affiliated with private schools are significantly higher (3.85) than those affiliated with government schools (3.70), with a statistically significant p-value of 0.010. This is the case with only literacy abilities. Nevertheless, the disparities in attitudes among individuals with basic or secondary education are not statistically significant, indicating that the influence of education on attitudes may reach a nadir at higher education levels. The scores of caregivers with education beyond the secondary level were nearly identical across all school categories, suggesting that there was minimal variation at the highest level of education.

Table 9

Caregiver Attitude on Violence Against Children Scores by Caregiver's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government	Private school	p-value
	school		
	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	$\bar{x}$ (σ)	
Education level of the Caregiver			
Literate only	3.70 (0.21)	3.85 (0.39)	0.010
Basic Level	3.76 (0.23)	3.85 (0.41)	0.106
Secondary Level	3.72 (0.35)	3.84 (0.45)	0.197
Above Secondary level	3.81 (0.31)	3.83 (0.29)	0.898
Gender of respondent			
Female	3.77 (0.25)	3.92 (0.39)	<0.001
Male	3.65 (0.23)	3.72 (0.38)	0.210

Caregiver is household			
Yes	3.72 (0.22)	3.77 (0.33)	0.144
No	3.75 (0.30)	3.99 (0.49)	0.001

Attitudes were also markedly different between men and women. The p-value (<0.001) was highly significant, as female caregivers from private schools exhibited substantially more favorable attitudes (mean = 3.92) than females from government schools (mean = 3.77). Although private school males exhibited marginally higher mean scores (3.72 vs. 3.65), the difference was not statistically significant for male caregivers. The findings of this study indicate that the type of school may have a more significant impact on the attitudes of female caregivers toward child discipline and violence. In comparison to their counterparts in government schools (mean = 3.75), non-primary caregivers (those who are not the primary household caregiver) in private schools scored substantially higher (mean = 3.99) in their household caregiving status (p-value = 0.001). The difference was not statistically significant among primary caregivers. This may suggest that non-household caregivers who are affiliated with private schools assume more progressive child-rearing beliefs, which may be indicative of broader institutional or socio-economic influences.

Caregivers who identified as female, non-household and were affiliated with private institutions with lower education levels were more likely to endorse non-violent attitudes toward children based on the data. In conclusion? The implications of these findings highlight the importance of both school contexts and caregiving roles in the development of social norms around the care of children. It also indicates the potential of delivering targeted intervention strategies within government school communities that may support reduced risk to children and close attitudinal gaps.

Table 10

Caregiver Attitude on Violence Against Children Scores by Child's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	Private school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	p-value
Gender of the Child			
Boy	3.71 (0.28)	3.86 (0.41)	0.003
Girl	3.76 (0.21)	3.83 (0.39)	0.123
Age of the Child			
Age-8	3.77 (0.20)	3.94 (0.32)	0.061
Age-9	3.75 (0.23)	3.81 (0.38)	0.327

Age-10	3.77 (0.23)	3.81 (0.37)	0.528
Age-11	3.69 (0.28)	3.88 (0.44)	0.002
Education level of the child			
Class_3	3.76 (0.22)	3.78 (0.38)	0.629
Class_4	3.76 (0.22)	3.83 (0.39)	0.171
Class_5	3.69 (0.29)	3.91 (0.42)	<0.001

The analysis of caregiver attitudes toward violence against children, which is based on the child's demographic characteristics and school type, reveals substantial variation, particularly across child gender, age, and educational level. The average non-violent attitudes of caregivers of boys attending private schools were significantly greater (3.86) compared with boys who were in government school (3.71) with a p-value of 0.003. It is important to note that a similar trend was seen for girls, but while caregivers in private schools scored higher (3.83) than those in government schools scored higher (3.76), this difference was not significant ($p = 0.123$). These findings suggest that caregiver attitudes are impacted by their child's gender, and boys in private schools may benefit primarily by belonging to school environments that may facilitate the opportunities for less violent ways of punishing.

Significant differences were also highlighted by comparing the ages of the children. As shown, the largest difference among children was found among those in the 11 age group, with private school caregivers scoring 3.88 compared with 3.69 in government school ($p = 0.002$). Even with a statistically significant p-value for 8-year-olds, (0.061), private school caregivers had a significantly higher score (3.94 vs. 3.77) than caregivers in government school. These findings may reflect developmental expectations, but variations in discipline approaches will vary with children as they mature. Caregivers of Class 5 children attending private schools (3.91) had significantly higher non-violent attitude scores related to the child's educational level than caregivers of government school students (3.69), $p < 0.001$. There was not the same distinction for the lower grades (3 and 4), where mean differences were small and not significant.

Table 11

Caregiver Attitude on Violence Against Children Scores by Household's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	Private school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	p-value
Gender of the household head			
Female	3.77 (0.21)	3.77 (0.32)	0.981
Male	3.70 (0.27)	3.93 (0.46)	<0.001
Family type			
Joint	3.66 (0.30)	3.89 (0.38)	<0.001
Single	3.77 (0.21)	3.81 (0.41)	0.259
Both parents' status at home			
Both at home	3.71 (0.22)	3.86 (0.38)	<0.001
Father only	3.73 (0.23)	3.89 (0.50)	0.278
Mother only	3.80 (0.25)	3.80 (0.41)	0.906
Neither is at home	3.62 (0.41)	3.82 (0.32)	0.247
Wealth Quintile			
Poorest	3.72 (0.09)	3.69 (0.12)	0.782
Poor	3.77 (0.22)	3.79 (0.14)	0.867
Average	3.73 (0.29)	3.72 (0.34)	0.899
Rich	3.68 (0.26)	3.77 (0.35)	0.151
Richest	3.77 (0.23)	3.92 (0.43)	0.019
Ethnicity of respondent			
Brahmin/Chhetri	3.71 (0.27)	3.88 (0.43)	0.002
Janajati	3.74 (0.21)	3.83 (0.35)	0.181
Dalit	3.75 (0.29)	3.70 (0.27)	0.594
Other	3.77 (0.14)	3.79 (0.36)	0.871
Sources of income (top three)			
Agriculture	3.74 (0.26)	3.83 (0.38)	0.149
Foreign employment	3.73 (0.28)	3.82 (0.43)	0.218
Business	3.66 (0.28)	3.78 (0.47)	0.336
Daily labor	3.75 (0.19)	3.89 (0.35)	0.032
Other	3.74 (0.22)	3.95 (0.32)	0.048

There are numerous critical insights into the ways in which family structures, economic status, and cultural contexts influence disciplinary norms that are revealed by the household-level analysis of caregiver attitudes toward violence against children, which is disaggregated by school type. Further, the result of the caregiver's attitude on VAC are not similar with the gender of the household head. Male headed household has better attitude on VAC in the private school but found opposite status in the government school. Female-headed households did not exhibit any difference (mean = 3.77 for both school types). This implies that private school environments may have a beneficial impact on attitudes toward non-violent child-rearing practices in male-headed households.

Additionally, it seems that family structure is a factor. Caregivers from joint families affiliated with private schools reported substantially higher attitude scores (3.89) than those from government schools (3.66), suggesting that collective caregiving contexts in private school settings may promote less violent norms ($p < 0.001$). Nevertheless, no statistically significant difference was observed among single-family households, which implies that joint families may be more susceptible to external influences, such as school values or peer environments, in structuring disciplinary beliefs. In the same vein, private school caregivers exhibited more non-violent attitudes when both parents were present in the household (3.86 vs. 3.71, $p < 0.001$).

Wealth categories, representing economic status, revealed dramatic differences in the wealthiest category. Caregivers in private schools reported a significantly higher non-violent attitude score (3.92) than caregivers in government schools (3.77, $p = 0.019$). However, no significant differences were found in the other wealth categories - poorest, average, and poorest. This suggests that economic ability alone does not consistently influence attitudes. However, it may be that private schooling influences more progressive beliefs among wealthiest households, possibly.

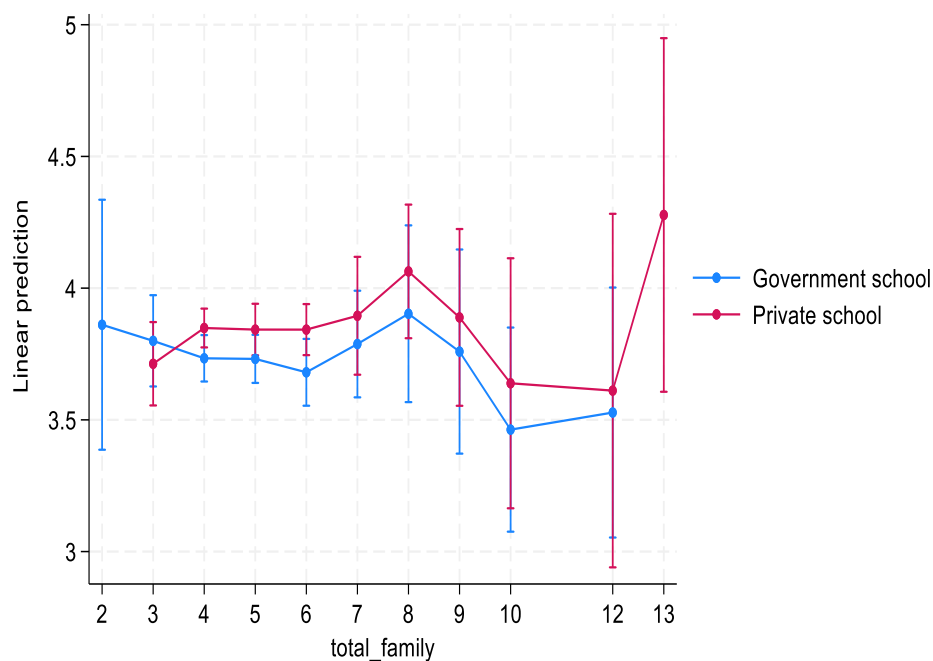
There were differences in caregiver ethnicity and income level. Participants from private schools reported substantially greater non-violent attitudes (3.88) than government school caregivers (3.71, $p = 0.002$) among Brahmin/Chhetri caregivers. There were no differences for Janajati, Dalit, or other ethnic group caregivers. This could suggest that culture and normal beliefs vary across ethnic groups relative to the school type. Caregiver attitudes for those who work with daily laborers or if a number rented in were found to be statistically different as being more favorable with private

school participants ($p = 0.032$ and $p = 0.048$) for both groups of livelihoods. This suggests that private inquiry schools may exert a more transformational effect for some vulnerable occupational groups. Overall, the findings emphasize that private schools exhibit relatively positive caregiver attitudes when grouped for multiple household characteristics. As variability is a central focus, it clear as to the educational contexts of private schools, the most identifiable effects of caregiver attitudes (and ultimately the potential impacts for children's education, etc.) have been noted among certain sub-groups of caregivers (i.e. male-headed, joint/wealthier households, and certain ethnicities).

Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children

Figure 14

Bivariate Regression on Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children



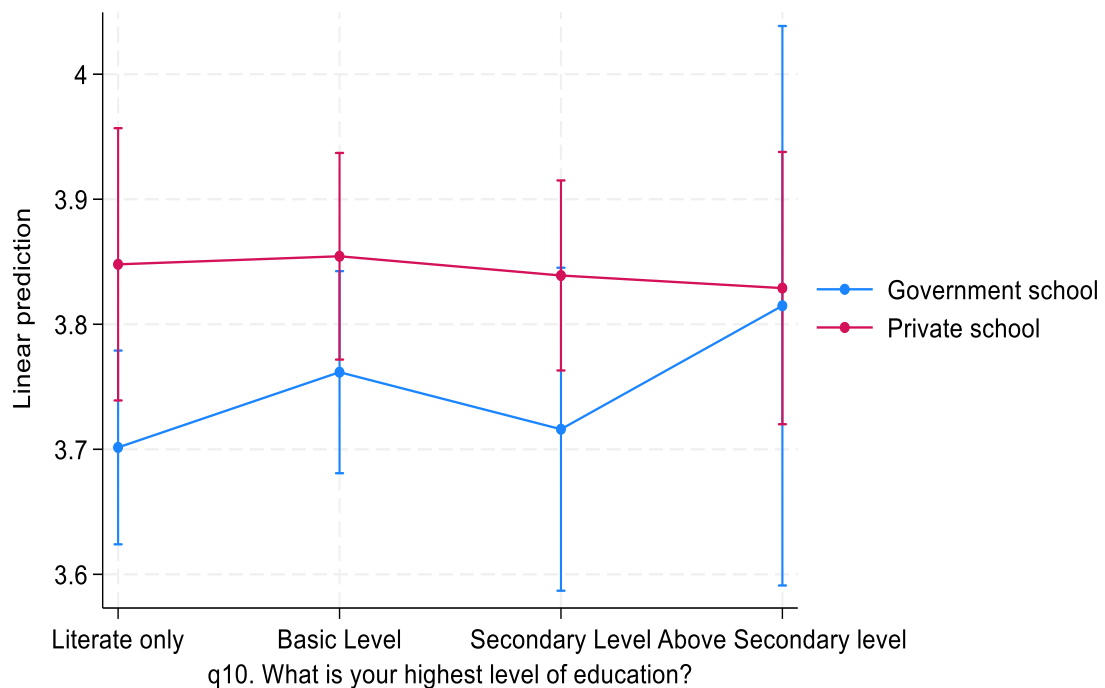
The bivariate regression analysis examining family size and school-type differences in caregiver attitudes about violence against children revealed several notable patterns, though the overall model was not statistically significant ($p=0.185$). While family size had no significant effect on attitudes (all $p>0.20$), private school attendance was associated with slightly more favorable attitudes across most family sizes, with the greatest differences reported in 8-member households (4.06 vs 3.90) and 13-member families (4.28). However, these differences were not statistically

significant (interaction p-values greater than 0.85). Margin analysis revealed that government school caregivers in two-person households had the highest baseline attitude scores (3.86), while those in ten-person families had the lowest (3.46). The results suggest that while family size may have a minimal independent influence on caregiver attitudes, private schooling appears to be weakly associated with more positive attitudes across nearly all family sizes, particularly in larger households.

Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children

Figure 15

Bivariate Regression on Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children



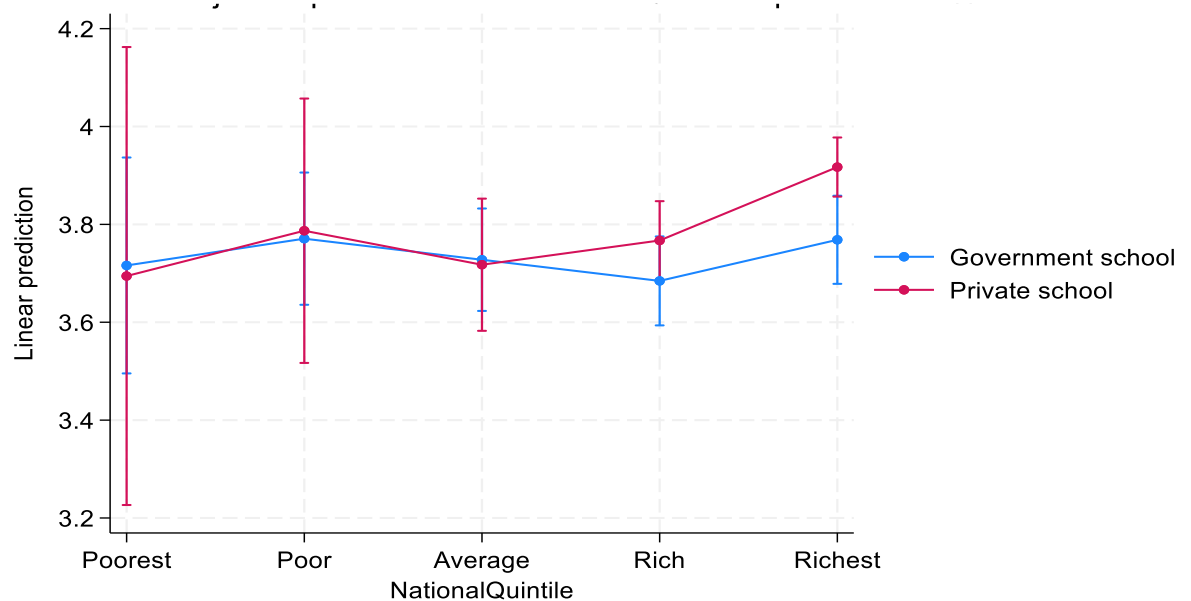
The bivariate regression analysis investigating caregiver education and school-type disparities in attitudes towards violence against children yielded several significant findings, although the overall model demonstrated only marginal significance ($p=0.094$). Attending a private school was linked to a small but statistically significant positive change in attitudes (+0.15 points, $p=0.032$). On the other hand, just having a higher level of education did not significantly predict attitudes (all $p>0.29$). Margin analysis indicated that caregivers in private schools consistently exhibited marginally more favorable attitudes across all educational levels, with the most significant disparity noted among literate-only caregivers (3.85

compared to 3.70 in government schools) and the least significant difference among those with above-secondary education (3.83 compared to 3.81). Nonetheless, none of the education-specific interaction factors were statistically significant (all $p > 0.35$), indicating that the private school advantage was rather persistent across educational levels. These data suggest that private schooling may somewhat improve attitudes toward violence prevention, regardless of caregiver education level; nevertheless, education does not appear to be a reliable independent predictor of attitudes in this situation.

Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children

Figure 16

Bivariate Regression on Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children



The bivariate regression analysis examining wealth quintile and school-type differences in caregiver attitudes about violence against children revealed some important patterns. While the overall model was significant ($p = 0.003$) and explained 6.2% of the variance, there were no significant main effects for individual wealth quintiles (all $p > 0.66$) or for attending a private school ($\beta = -0.02$, $p = 0.94$). However, marginal comparisons revealed that wealthiest caregivers (Richest quintile) at private schools expressed the most positive sentiments (3.92) in comparison to wealthiest caregivers at government schools (3.77), indicating a potential difference of 0.15 points. This positive private school effect appeared to decrease across the remaining

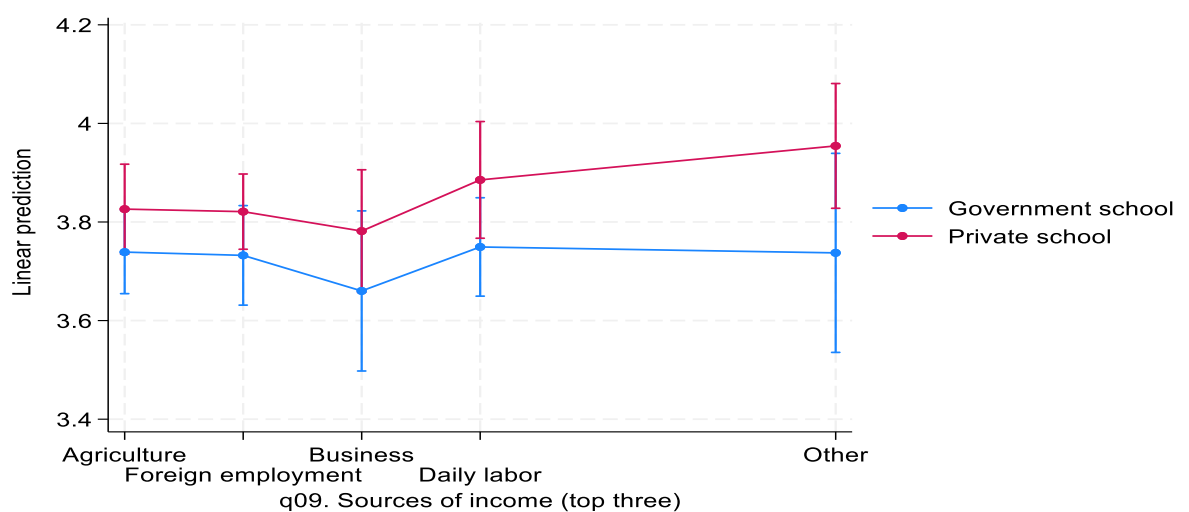
three wealth quintiles. In fact, in the poorest quintile, caregivers at private schools had slightly lower attitudes than caregivers at government schools (3.69 vs. 3.72).

Nonetheless, none of the interaction terms between wealth quintiles and types of schools were significant (all $p > 0.52$) which suggests that the differences observed may not be strong. Overall, the results suggest that wealthier caregivers at private schools may have slightly more positive attitudes toward stress prevention, however, the relationship between socioeconomic status, type of school, and attitudes is complicated and may only manifest in the wealthiest quintile of families.

Occupation and Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children

Figure 17

Bivariate Regression on Occupation and Employment and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children



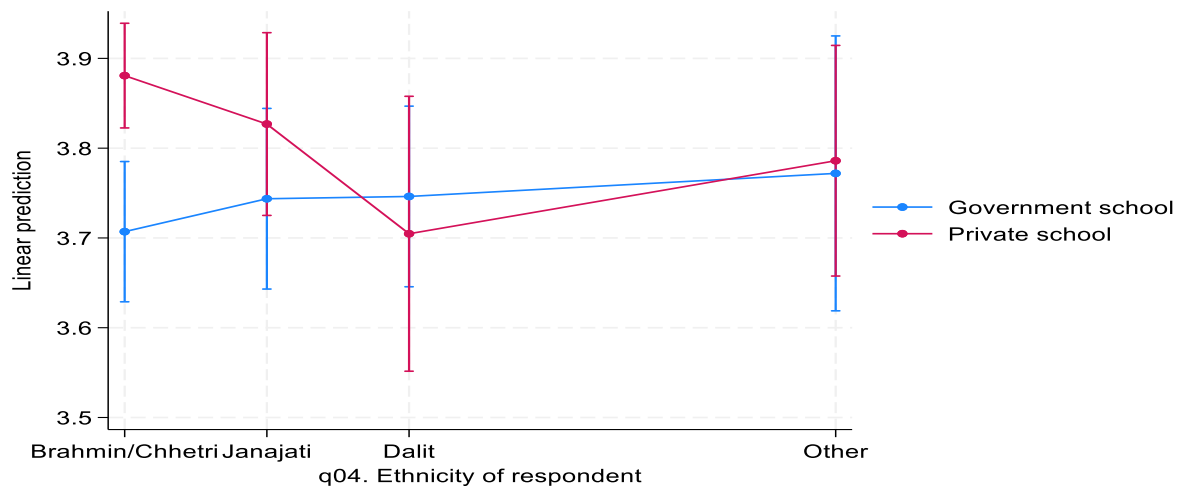
The bivariate regression analysis examining household occupation/employment and school-type differences in caregiver attitudes toward violence against children has produced some notable results. The overall model was marginally significant ($p=0.064$) and explained 4.0% of the variance; when considering household employment type only, neither employment type (all $p > 0.39$), nor private schooling alone ($\beta=0.09$, $p=0.17$) yielded any significant results. However, marginal analysis indicated that caregivers associated with private schools endorsed slightly more positive attitudes regarding violence against children; this was consistent across each of the household employment categories. The largest difference in caregiver attitudes was found among caregivers associated with "Other" occupations who had more positive attitudes (+0.22 points), this was followed by

daily laborers who reported more positive attitudes compared to caregivers at government schools (+0.14 points). It is noteworthy that caregivers whose household employment was in the business sector and were engaged in government schools reported the lowest average attitudes (3.66), while caregivers whose household employment was in the "Other" category with private schooling reported the highest overall attitudes (3.95). Overall, the differences in caregiver attitudes, considering household employment while also accounting for schooling type, were nonexistent in the interaction-based variables as none were statistically significant (all $p > 0.34$) indicating some inconsistency of difference. These findings suggest that there is a very modest association of private schooling with more positive attitudes throughout a variety of household occupational categories.

Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children

Figure 18

Bivariate Regression on Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children



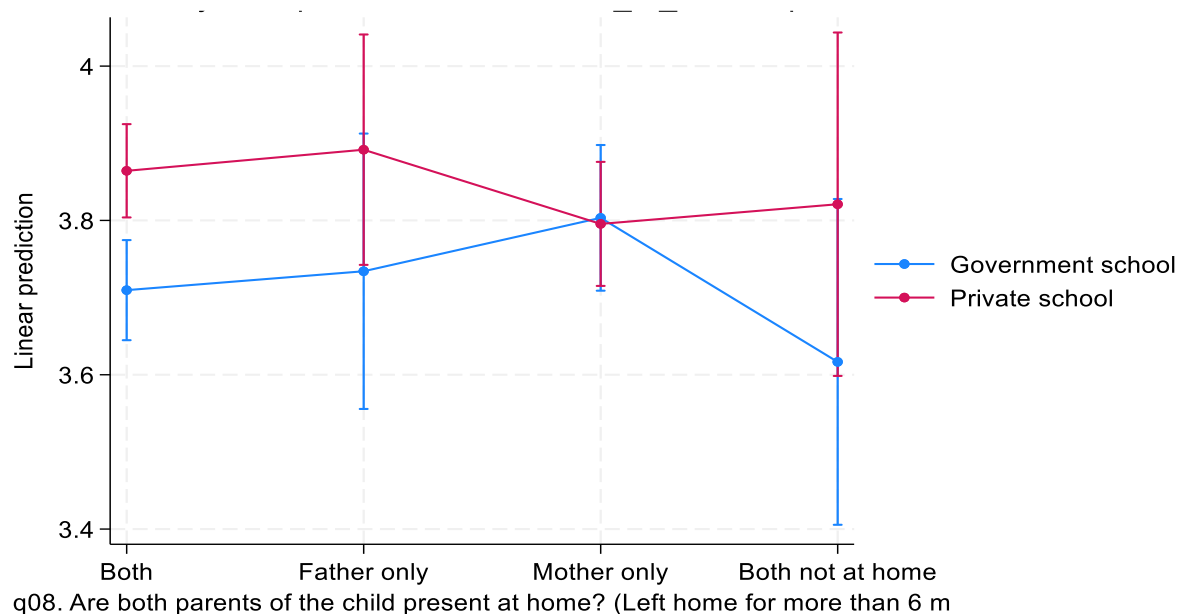
The bivariate regression analysis that assessed the role of ethnicity and type of school on caregivers' attitudes toward violence against children demonstrated clear distinctions among groups. Caregivers who reported attending a private school described a more favorable attitude than those who attended government school ($\beta=0.17$, $p=0.001$), but the benefits in attitudes were markedly different depending on ethnicity. Specifically, caregivers of Brahmin/Chhetri students attending a private school reported more favorable sentiments (3.88) than caregivers of Brahmin/Chhetri students attending a government school (3.71). In contrast, caregivers belonging to the

Dalit caste had an almost opposite trend with their attitudes toward violence being slightly less favorable when they attended a private school compared to government school, (3.70 versus 3.75, $p=0.042$). These findings suggest the possibility of systemic barriers that prevent a marginalized caste from receiving the anticipated benefits of private schooling. The caregivers of Janajati students and other ethnic groups did exhibit moderate advantages from private schooling (3.83 and 3.79 respectively) but overall, a divide remained among ethnic groups within schooling options. Findings inform us how ethnic gaps persist in educational settings and instead of narrowing the gap, private school attendance may enhance inequalities among caregiver attitudes toward violence prevention, especially within Dalit communities that historically experience inequities. Findings thus speak to the relevance of equity-based measures in both the school systems to ensure all ethnic groups benefit from educational options equitably.

Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children

Figure 19

Bivariate Regression on Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Violence Against Children



The bivariate regression analysis of parent presence in the home and the difference in types of schools indicating caregiver attitudes about violence against children indicated several important trends. Private school attendance overall had a significant positive association with more favorable attitudes ($\beta=0.15$, $p=0.001$);

however, this benefit was influenced substantially by household composition. Households with two parents in private school had the highest positive opinions (3.86), while mother-only households had no significant advantage between private and government (3.80 in both; $p=0.037$ for negative interaction) whereas father-only households had a more positive opinion in private compared to government (3.89).

These caregivers had the highest improvement compared to a government school (+0.20 improvement to 3.82) indicating private school may provide important support for children of vulnerable households. In government, households with both parents do not have the lowest average baseline attitudes (3.62). While these results support private schools will generally improve caregiver attitudes, efficacy of improvement differed by family type. In summary, children of fathers only or households without parents benefit most from privatization, while maternal households with an already generally positive baseline attitude showed relevance in attitude change.

Caregivers' Practice on Violence Against Children

Table 12

Caregiver Practice on Violence Against Children Scores by Caregiver's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	Private school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	p-value
Education Level of the Caregiver			
Literate only	4.22 (0.46)	4.17 (0.52)	0.661
Basic Level	4.28 (0.23)	4.32 (0.51)	0.577
Secondary Level	4.21 (0.25)	4.32 (0.51)	0.296
Above Secondary level	4.14 (0.26)	4.17 (0.39)	0.871
Gender of respondent			
Female	4.21 (0.37)	4.48 (0.29)	<0.001
Male	4.30 (0.29)	3.92 (0.55)	<0.001
Caregiver is household			
Yes	4.24 (0.37)	4.15 (0.50)	0.117
No	4.23 (0.32)	4.51 (0.38)	<0.001

The comparison of caregivers' self-reported practices regarding violence against children appears to exhibit a complex relationship across different demographics, particularly when analyzed by school classification. There is no direct evidence indicating that caregivers' practices vary based on education level; the average scores for both government and private school groups were similarly high, reflecting fewer violent practices. There appear to be no statistically significant differences. This indicates that caregivers may be engaging in equally appropriate disciplinary behaviors, potentially influenced more by socio-cultural or institutional factors than by educational attainment.

Still, there is a notable difference in relation to gender with female caregivers from private schools indicating significantly less violent practices (mean = 4.48) than female caregivers from government schools (4.21). In opposition, male caregivers of the government school reported a higher level of non-violent practice than the private school. This may suggest that private school environments are more effective in influencing non-violent practices among female caregivers, whereas males are more likely to be affiliated with government schools, which is associated with more favorable practices. Furthermore, caregivers who are not primary household caregivers but are associated with private schools reported the highest non-violent practice scores (4.51), which were substantially higher than their counterparts in government schools (4.23). These findings indicate that the school context and gender roles interact to influence the actual disciplinary practices, with private school environments potentially having a transformative effect, particularly on female caregivers and non-household caregivers.

Table 13

Caregiver Practice on Violence Against Children Scores by Child's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	Private school $\bar{x}$ (σ)	p-value
Gender of the Child			
Boy	4.28 (0.26)	4.30 (0.47)	0.696
Girl	4.20 (0.41)	4.23 (0.52)	0.680
Age of the Child			
Age-8	4.25 (0.27)	4.09 (0.42)	0.165

Age-9	4.28 (0.28)	4.18 (0.52)	0.237
Age-10	4.24 (0.50)	4.32 (0.50)	0.441
Age-11	4.20 (0.32)	4.32 (0.47)	0.071
Education level of the child			
Class_3	4.29 (0.45)	4.19 (0.49)	0.248
Class_4	4.27 (0.29)	4.27 (0.48)	0.896
Class_5	4.16 (0.30)	4.35 (0.51)	0.010

The analysis of caregiver practices toward children, which is based on the demographic characteristics of the child and the type of school, reveals primarily consistent patterns across groups, with a few notable exceptions. In general, the practices reported by caregivers are consistently high across both government and private institutions, suggesting a general trend toward non-violent disciplinary practices. The small and statistically insignificant differences in practice scores according to child's gender reveals that a caregiver does not differ significantly in their discipline behavior based on child's gender.

Caregivers of children who are in Private schools, in Class 5 and age 10 or 11 years of age, and based on their reporting practices, participated significantly more in non-violent practices (mean = 4.35) than caregivers of children in Government schools (mean = 4.16). This suggests that in Grade schools, especially children who are close to the end of primary school, Private school caretakers may be employing more positive discipline practices. This behavior may be attributed to school norms, awareness programs, and or child development. This study's findings highlight the potential impact of the type of school and the child's age on caregiver behavior regarding a non-violent child discipline.

Table 14

Caregiver Practice on Violence Against Children Scores by Household's Demographic Factors: Comparison Between Private and Government Schools

Variables	Government school	Private school	
	$\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ (σ)	$\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ (σ)	p-value
Gender of the household head			
Female	4.19 (0.40)	4.08 (0.50)	0.099
Male	4.27 (0.31)	4.50 (0.38)	<0.001

Family type			
Joint	4.20 (0.50)	4.36 (0.46)	0.054
Single	4.25 (0.26)	4.21 (0.51)	0.368
Both parents' status at home			
Both at home	4.21 (0.40)	4.26 (0.50)	0.451
Father only	4.33 (0.22)	4.31 (0.40)	0.895
Mother only	4.25 (0.29)	4.28 (0.51)	0.676
Neither is at home	4.29 (0.16)	4.15 (0.59)	0.475
Wealth Quintile			
Poorest	4.15 (0.24)	4.36 (0.20)	0.298
Poor	4.17 (0.62)	4.23 (0.39)	0.827
Average	4.22 (0.29)	4.29 (0.43)	0.420
Rich	4.27 (0.29)	4.24 (0.52)	0.772
Richest	4.26 (0.30)	4.27 (0.50)	0.880
Ethnicity of respondent			
Brahmin/Chhetri	4.30 (0.26)	4.34 (0.53)	0.513
Janajati	4.21 (0.29)	4.06 (0.45)	0.067
Dalit	4.15 (0.53)	4.21 (0.34)	0.675
Other	4.26 (0.19)	4.28 (0.38)	0.839
Sources of income (top three)			
Agriculture	4.26 (0.30)	4.34 (0.48)	0.318
Foreign employment	4.27 (0.23)	4.28 (0.49)	0.851
Business	4.28 (0.24)	4.14 (0.58)	0.334
Daily labor	4.17 (0.53)	4.15 (0.52)	0.907
Other	4.17 (0.19)	4.35 (0.38)	0.138

Nuanced differences are revealed in the analysis of caregiver practices regarding violence against children across various household demographic factors, particularly when disaggregated by school type. The gender of the domestic head is one of the most significant discoveries. In male-headed households, caregivers associated with private schools' report substantially higher non-violent practice scores (mean = 4.50) than their counterparts in government schools (mean = 4.27), with a highly significant p-value (<0.001). Nevertheless, the trend is slightly reversed in female-headed households, with government school caregivers achieving slightly

higher scores than those in private schools, albeit the difference is not statistically significant ($p = 0.099$). This implies that private school environments may be particularly effective in influencing non-violent practices in traditionally male-led households. This may be due to their increased exposure to school-based child protection messages or their more active engagement with school-parents.

Furthermore, the behavior of caregivers also seems to be influenced by family structure. Interestingly, there is a small difference in the single-family households. This could indicate that joint or extended family structures are more influenced by an outside institution, such as private schooling, when it comes to parent non-violent behaviors. This could also be related to the shared caregiving practices and shared decisions around child discipline.

The practices of caregivers appear to be minimally affected by household economic status as measured by wealth quintiles. There were no statistically significant differences identified in any wealth quintile, and practice scores were high in both school category types. Even more interesting, even in the poorest households, caregivers whose children attend a private school had slightly higher practice results, although the difference was unqualified ($p = 0.298$). Furthermore, caregiver behavior appears to be affected by family structure. Caregivers residing in joint family arrangements with children enrolled in private schools have a non-violent practice score of 4.36, marginally higher than that of caregivers in joint family households with children attending government schools (4.20), a difference that approaches statistical significance ($p = 0.054$). Notably, there is a minor variation in single-family households. This may suggest that joint or extended family arrangements are more affected by external institutions, such as private education, concerning parents' non-violent conduct. This may also pertain to the collaborative caregiving practices and joint decisions regarding child discipline.

The practices of caregivers seem to be minimally influenced by household economic status, as determined by wealth quintiles. No statistically significant differences were observed across any wealth quintile, and practice scores were consistently high in both types of school categories. Furthermore, even within the most impoverished households, caregivers of children enrolled in private schools demonstrated marginally higher practice outcomes, although the difference was not statistically significant ($p = 0.298$). This consistency may also indicate that

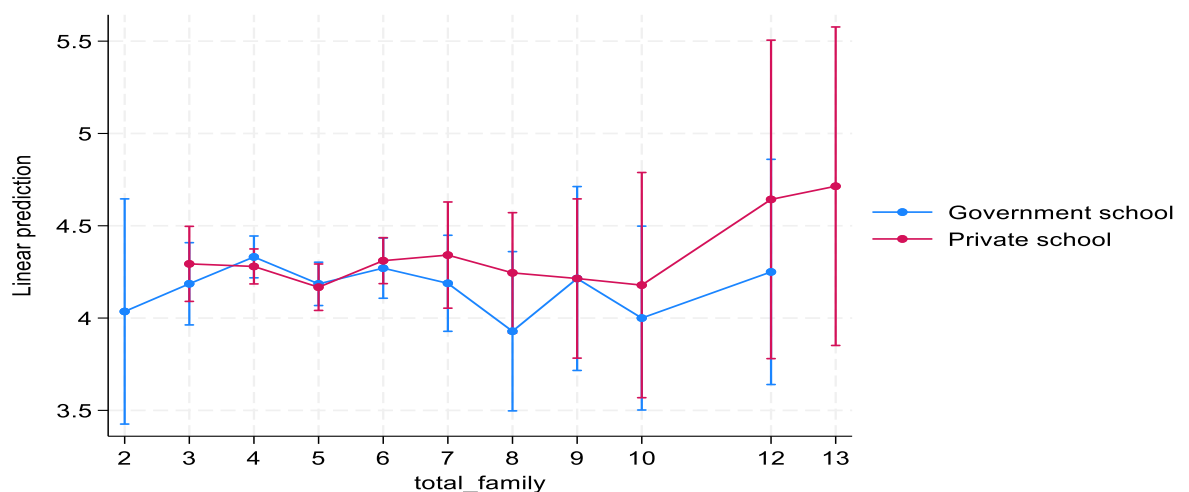
socioeconomic status does not appear to significantly influence the utilization of non-violent child discipline methods.

Finally, distinctions around ethnicity and income source contextualize the distinctions further. Janajati caregivers attending government schools are reported to score higher practice scores than Janajati caregivers attending private schools among ethnic groups. The relationship was near significant ($p=0.067$) and is only mentioned for context and potential future exploration of survey data and participant factors. This may be indicative of cultural or community-specific cultural beliefs regarding discipline. No significant differences were observed in other ethnic categories. Minimal variation is observed between school categories among caregivers who are engaged in daily labor or foreign employment in terms of income sources. It is worth mentioning that caregivers who noted "other" sources of income achieved somewhat higher practice scores at private schools (4.35 vs. 4.17) although they were not statistically significant. Overall, the results suggest that household characteristics interact with educational contexts in complex ways to influence child discipline practices. Private education, in particular, has the capacity to be a moderating factor for more non-violent parenting, especially among male-headed, joint households.

Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children

Figure 20

Bivariate Regression on Family Size and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children

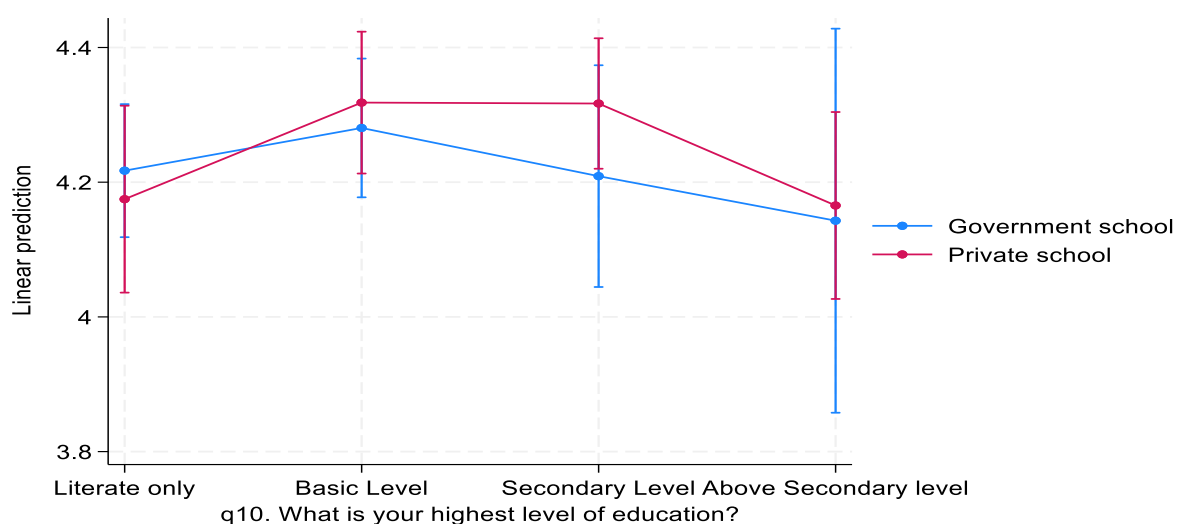


The analysis of bivariate regression of family size and school-type exposures with caregiver practices related to violence against children (measured on a 1-5 scale where higher scores indicate better practices) highlighted several different trends, even though the model overall was not statistically significant ($p=0.839$). There was no significant effect for family size on its own (all $p>0.34$) and a positive but non-significant association for private school exposure with better practices (+0.39 points, $p=0.465$). The margin analysis showed that private school caregivers mostly had a higher practice score than parents of government school students by about a quarter point across most family sizes; the most marked, but still non-significant, differences were in family sizes of 8 (+0.32 points) and 12/ 13 members (+0.39-0.46 points). However, the possible benefits of private schooling were not consistent across member family size; families sized 9-10 (for example) showed less associated benefit or even negative effects. Private school caregivers had the highest total practice scores living in exceptionally large families (12-13 members: 4.64-4.71 overall) while caregivers living with 8 member families attending government schools had the lowest practice scores (3.93). Overall, despite some evidence of differences in practice scores among private school exposures, particularly for those with large families, the relationship between family size, school type, and violence against children's practices was nuanced and inconsistent.

Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children

Figure 21

Bivariate Regression on Caregiver Education and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children

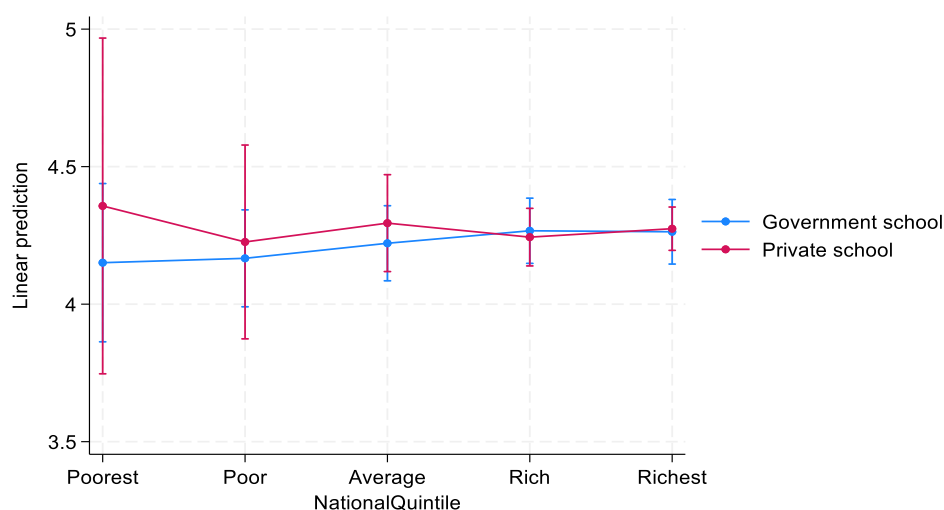


Bivariate regression analyses investigating the relationship between caregiver education level and school-type differences in caregiver practices related to violence against children (measured on a 1-5 scale, with higher scores indicating more favorable practices) revealed several notable patterns, despite the overall model being non-significant ($p=0.375$). Caregiver education (all $p > 0.38$) and private school attendance ($\beta = -0.04$, $p = 0.63$) did not exert a significant or independent effect on practice scores. Margin analyses revealed that caregivers with a basic education at private schools achieved the highest practice scores (4.32), followed by those with secondary education in private schools (4.32). The differences in practice scores among above-secondary educated caregivers were minimal, with private school caregivers scoring 4.17 and government school caregivers 4.14. Notably, in the group of the literate only caregivers, government schools (4.22) have positive practices that are higher than private schools (4.17). These findings indicate that caregiver education and school type have minimal independent or interactive effects on violence prevention practices, and other unassessed factors are likely influencing caregiver behaviors. The findings indicate the necessity for interventions that target caregiver practices beyond merely education and school type.

Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children

Figure 22

Bivariate Regression on Wealth Quintile and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children



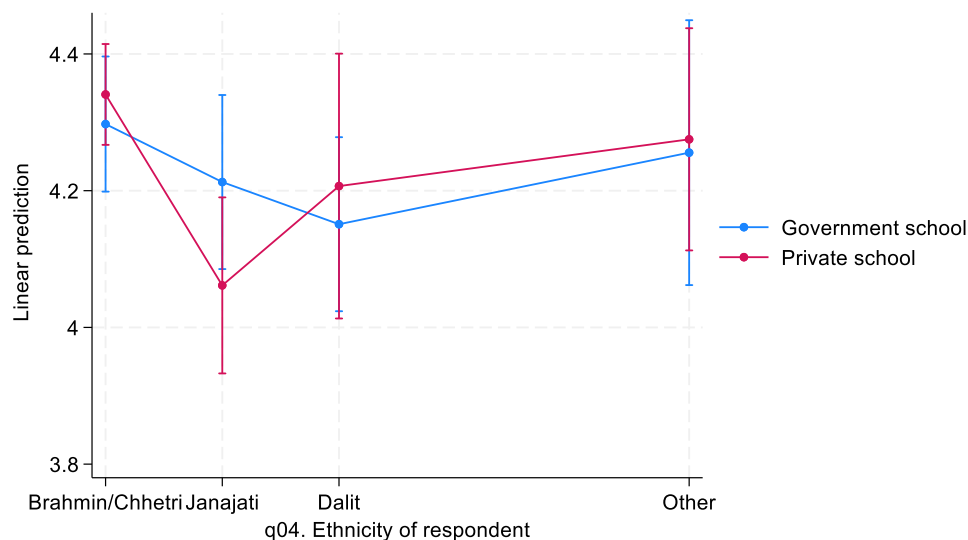
The analysis of wealth quintile and school type differences in caregiver practices regarding violence against children (measured on a 1-5 scale with higher

scores indicating better practices) revealed minimally significant patterns, with no statistical significance found in the overall model ($p=0.984$). Neither wealth quintile (all $p>0.46$) nor private school attendance ($\beta=0.21$, $p=0.55$) demonstrated significant independent effects on practice scores, and none of the interaction terms reached significance (all $p>0.51$). Margin analysis revealed relatively high practice scores across all categories (range from 4.15 to 4.36), with private school caregivers in the poorest quintile having the highest score (4.36) and government school caregivers in the poorest quintile having the lowest (4.15). However, these differences were slight and inconsistent across wealth categories, with caregivers in the richest quintile scoring nearly identically across school types (4.27 private versus 4.26 government). The findings indicate that socioeconomic position and school type have minor impact on caregiver practices in this context, as all groups maintained comparably good practice scores regardless of wealth or school environment.

Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Practice Against Children

Figure 23

Bivariate Regression on Ethnicity and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Attitude about Practice Against Children



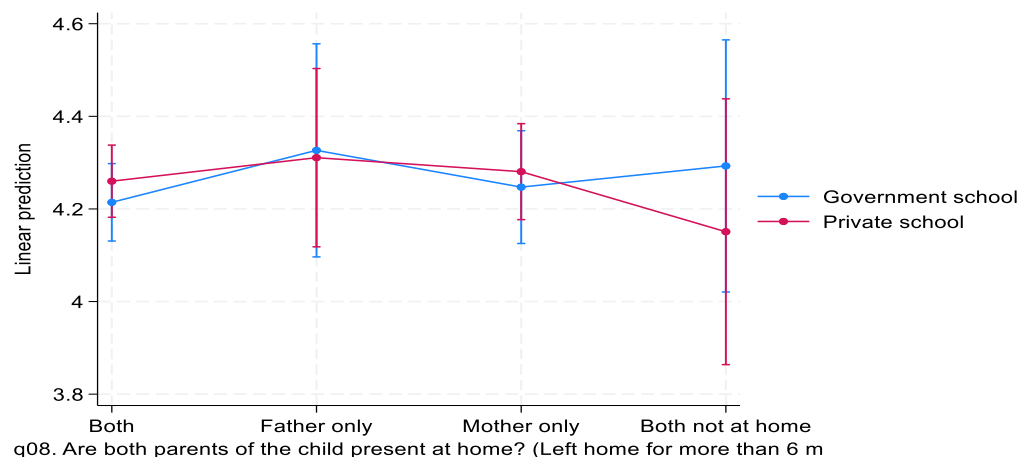
Key findings were drawn from the regression analysis of caregiver practices toward children that involve violence, examining ethnicity and school type (government vs. private). The model overall was significant ($F(7, 392) = 2.57$, $*p* = 0.014$) but explained only 4.4% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.044$). Caregivers from Brahmin/Chhetri ethnicity (reference group) and caregivers of children in government

schools had the highest mean scores ($M = 4.30$). Caregivers from the Janajati ethnicity had somewhat lower scores ($B = -0.08$, $*p^* = 0.302$), and caregivers who identified as Dalit had a marginally significant effect whose score decreased ($B = -0.15$, $*p^* = 0.075$). There was no significant prediction from school type or private ($B = 0.04$, $*p^* = 0.490$). However, the interaction between both Janajati ethnicity and private school was marginally significant ($B = -0.19$, $*p^* = 0.082$) indicating possibly a worse practice for both. Based on the adjusted expectations, caregivers who identified as Brahmin/Chhetri and had children in private school scored the highest ($M = 4.34$) while caregivers who identified as Janajati received the lowest score ($M = 4.06$). These findings indicate some moderate ethnic differences in caregiver practices, and school type was a minor moderate variable.

Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children

Figure 24

Bivariate Regression on Parents at Home Status and School-Type Differences in Caregiver Practice about Violence Against Children



The regression analysis investigating the association between parents' status at home, type of school (private vs. government), and caregiver practices relating to violence against children (where a higher score indicates better practices) did not show statistically significant effects. There was a non-significant overall model ($F(7, 392) = 0.35$, $p = 0.930$) which only explained 0.6% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.006$). The interactions between parents' status and school type were also non-significant ($p > 0.37$). Caregivers from families with both parents present, and children in a private school had slightly higher scores ($M = 4.26$) compared with government school children ($M = 4.21$).

Relation Between Variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior

The variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) show distinct but complementary patterns whereby knowledge is a strong predictor of both intent and behavior, and perceived behavioral control (PBC) drives intent in both contexts, particularly in the case of private schools. As well, subjective norms (social expectations) impact caregivers across school types, especially for government school caregivers, while attitude exhibits less impact on child-rearing behavior for caregivers from both school types. Negative practices (physical aggression/punishment) are always linked together, and positive parenting is positively associated with greater PBC and positive expectations. This requires a focus on knowledge, social norms, and empowerment that minimize violence through interventions.

The Relation Between the Variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior in a Government School

In the context of government schools, correlation analysis provides important insights into the relationships between caregivers' beliefs and actions and violence against children, relying on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). Knowledge is strongly and significantly positively correlated with subjective norms ($r = 0.329^{***}$), perceived behavioral control ($r = 0.234^{***}$), intention ($r = 0.406^{***}$), and expectation ($r = 0.431^{***}$), suggesting caregivers who are more knowledgeable are more likely to hold positive behavioral intentions and expectations that align with nonviolent caregiving behaviors. Subjective norms and perceived behavioral control are also strongly significantly related to intention and positive parenting, suggesting societal pressure and perceived ability may influence nonviolent acts.

Positive parenting has strong positive correlations with intention, expectations, and perceived control, but strong negative correlations with physical aggressiveness ($r = -0.414^{***}$), indicating that positive parenting may help deter physical punishment. Physical punishment and physical aggressiveness were also strongly related to violent practices ($r = 0.743^{***}$ and $r = 0.661^{***}$ respectively), indicating that harmful practices often co-occur. Attitudes interestingly had few or no significant correlations with most TPB variables, indicating that caregiver attitudes may not serve as a good proxy for behavior in this context.

The Relation Between the Variables of the Theory of Planned Behavior in Private Schools

The correlation table indicates several noteworthy patterns among private school parents. Knowledge is significantly positively correlated with attitudes ($r = 0.515$, $p < 0.001$) and practices ($r = 0.436$, $p < 0.001$), meaning the more informed the parents were, the more positive indication they had about their attitudes and those practicing better activities for violence prevention. Likewise, Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) has a remarkably high correlation with both intention ($r = 0.771$, $p < 0.001$) and expectation ($r = 0.775$, $p < 0.001$), indicating PBC may potentially motivate parents to achieve behavioral goals. Subjective Norms have a modest correlation with Practice ($r = 0.106$, ns), which indicates that perceived social pressure may not have a role in the parents' behavior. Positive Parenting is associated with higher PBC ($r = 0.396$, $p < 0.001$) and Expectation ($r = 0.481$, $p < 0.001$), but negatively with Physical Aggression ($r = -0.136$, $p < 0.05$). Conversely, Physical Punishment and Aggression show strong intercorrelation ($r = 0.776$, $p < 0.001$) and tie closely to Practices ($r = 0.835$, $p < 0.001$), showing these behaviors often co-occur. The weak-to-moderate correlations between TPB constructs (e.g., Attitude-Intention: $r = 0.411$) and behavioral outcomes suggest other unmeasured factors may also drive practices.

Table 15*Pairwise Correlations Between Government School and Private Schools*

Variables (Government School)	-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7	-8	-9	-10
(1) Knowledge	1									
(2) Attitude	-0.023	1								
(3) Subjective norms	0.329***	0.182*	1							
(4) Perceived Behavior Control	0.234***	-0.084	0.264***	1						
(5) Intention	0.406***	0.01	0.259***	0.317***	1					
(6) Expectation	0.431***	-0.108	0.336***	0.574***	0.576***	1				
(7) Practices	0.172**	-0.089	0.096	0.101	0.071	0.076	1			
(8) Positive Parenting	0.166**	-0.062	0.241***	0.400***	0.216***	0.532***	0.316***	1		
(9) Physical Aggression	-0.002	-0.09	-0.1	-0.159***	-0.081	-0.289***	0.661***	-0.414***	1	
(10) Physical Punishment	0.136*	0.029	0.009	-0.125*	-0.04	-0.179**	0.743***	-0.151	0.566***	1

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Variables (Private School)	-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7	-8	-9	-10
(1) Knowledge	1									
(2) Attitude	0.515***	1								
(3) Subjective norms	0.241***	0.186***	1							
(4) Perceived Behavior Control	0.129*	0.310***	0.352***	1						
(5) Intention	0.253***	0.411***	0.281***	0.771***	1					
(6) Expectation	0.242***	0.321***	0.321***	0.775***	0.840***	1				
(7) Practices	0.436***	0.356***	0.106	0.207***	0.265***	0.247***	1			
(8) Positive Parenting	0.036	0.183***	0.210***	0.396***	0.454***	0.481***	0.381***	1		
(9) Physical Aggression	0.421***	0.309***	-0.053	-0.046	0.018	-0.032	0.822***	-0.136**	1	
(10) Physical Punishment	0.429***	0.225***	0.077	0.093	0.083	0.076	0.835***	-0.059	0.776***	1

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

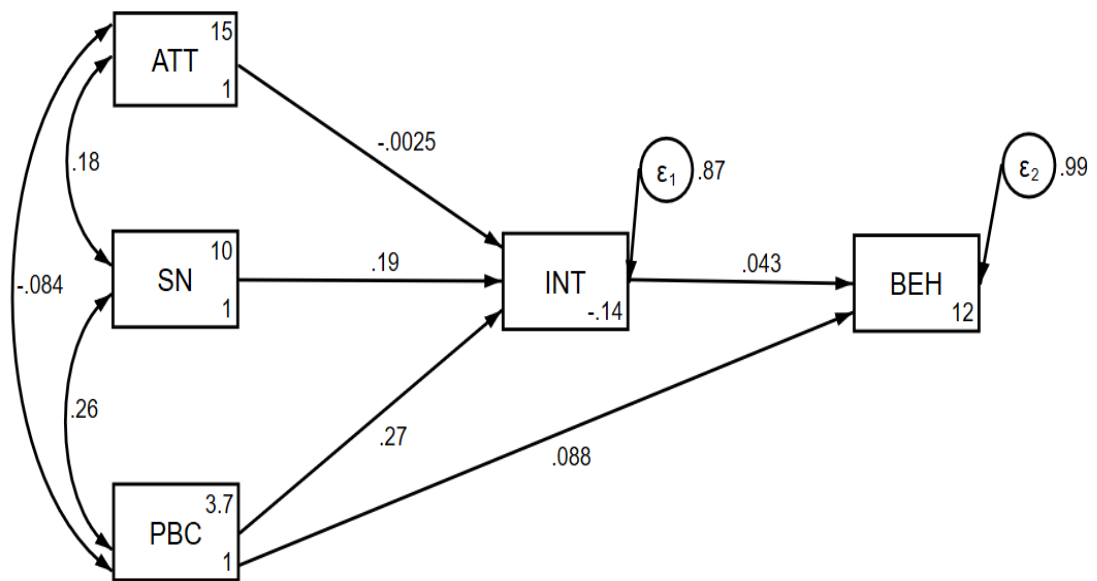
Exploring the Influence of TPB Components on Caregiver Intentions by School Context Using the Semi-Structured Analysis

I used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to look at how the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) components of Attitude, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioral Control affect people's plans and actions to stop violence against children. The study looked at both government and private schools and examined how TPB components were related to each other while adjusting for covariances. We looked at the model fit indices to make sure that the theoretical framework was built up correctly for several types of schools.

Semi-Structured Analysis of the Government School

Figure 25

Semi-Structured Analysis of the Government School.



The figure 25 shows the structural equation modeling (SEM) results to measure the TBP components among the caregivers of the government school on VAC. Specifically, PBC (coef = 0.267, $p < 0.001$) had the strongest and most significant influence on intention, suggesting that students who feel more control over their ability to act against violence are more likely to have a strong intention to do so. Subjective norms have a significantly positive relation (coef = 0.189, $p < 0.01$) with the intention of the caregiver. However, Attitude (ATT) towards anti-violent behavior

was not locally significant for intention (coef = -0.003, $p = 0.972$), meaning that the students' own attitude to the event was not enough to create intention to fight against the act.

When behavior (BEH) was analyzed on its own, neither intention (coef = 0.043, $p = 0.581$) nor PBC (coef = 0.088, $p = 0.261$) predicted the behavior. This shows that even if students felt that they could act, and intend to do so, the beliefs did not translate to all to behavior. This discrepancy between intention and behavior could be related to contextual factors, institutional restraints, and the overall lack of systems to proactively report and intervene in anti-social behavior.

The covariance of the above result in Figure 25 measures write down a strong, positive correlation between ATT and SN (cov = 0.182, $p = 0.011$) and SN and PBC (cov = 0.264, $p < 0.001$). In other words, children with good social support would feel more in control of their behaviors and have more positive attitudes. Moreover, for children in government schools, Subjective Norms (SN) and Perceived Control (PBC) are important for developing intentions to act against violence, but this does not mean that these intentions will always translate into action. For students to act on their belief systems effectively the findings suggest the need for interventions that not only increase awareness and change societal norms but also provide children with genuine opportunities and supportive social environments to act.

Table 16

Structural Equation Modeling Results for Government School Parents: TPB Predictors of Violence Prevention Intentions and Behaviors

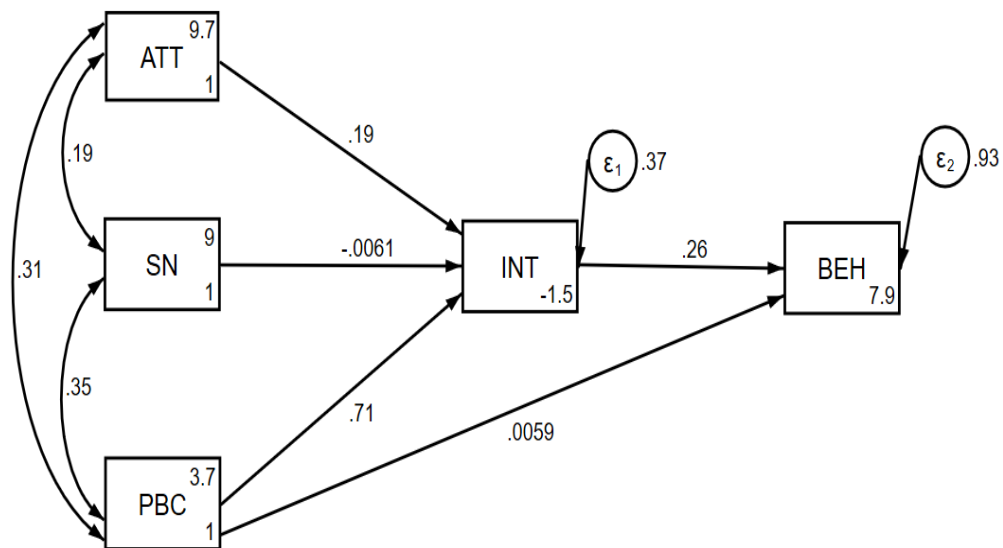
Paths and Covariances	β (Std. Coeff.)	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	95% CI
Predictors of INT					
Attitude (ATT)	-0.003	0.071	-0.04	0.972	[-0.142, 0.137]
Subjective Norms (SN)	0.189**	0.073	2.61	0.009	[0.047, 0.331]
PBC	0.267***	0.07	3.79	<0.001	[0.129, 0.404]
Predictors of BEH					
Intention (INT)	0.043	0.078	0.55	0.581	[-0.110, 0.196]
PBC	0.088	0.078	1.13	0.261	[-0.065, 0.240]
Covariances					
ATT $\leftrightarrow$ SN	0.182*	0.072	2.53	0.011	[0.041, 0.323]
ATT $\leftrightarrow$ PBC	-0.084	0.074	-1.13	0.257	[-0.229, 0.061]
SN $\leftrightarrow$ PBC	0.264***	0.069	3.81	<0.001	[0.128, 0.400]

Paths and Covariances	β (Std. Coeff.)	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	95% CI
Model Fit	$\chi^2 (2) =$			$*p^* =$	
	2.56			0.278	

$*p < 0.001$, $**p < 0.01$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.10$ (marginally significant)

Figure 26

Components of TBC Using the Semi-Structured Analysis of the Private School



The examination of private school students' responses using the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) offers valuable insights into the factors that shape students' attitudes and actions toward the prevention and intervention of violence against children. Both Attitude (ATT) and Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) serve as significant predictors of Intention (INT) among students in private schools. Notably, PBC has a strong and significant effect on intention (standardized coefficient = 0.714, $p < 0.001$), meaning that students who feel more capable and confident in controlling or influencing situations related to violence are far more likely to intend to take action. Strong anti-violence sentiments are associated with higher motivation to act (coef = 0.191, $p < 0.001$) among students. However, Subjective Norms (SN), which represent the impact of others, have no significant effect on intention (coef = -0.006, $p = 0.891$), implying that peer or social pressure plays a minor role in influencing students' intentions in the private school context.

The results show that for behavioral engagement (BEH) a significant relationship exists between intention (INT) and actual behavior (BEH) (coef=0.026, $p=0.010$), showing that more valued intentions and commitment to preventing or intervening with violence predict higher likelihood of performing the intentions for engagement. However, the perceived behavioral control (PBC) does not directly predict engagement (coef=0.006, $p=0.954$), showing that holding capability beliefs does not directly lead to action without intention factoring in the mediation.

Moreover, the results also show strong and significant covariances between the constructs; attitude, subjective norms and perceived control constructs are highly covariant. Even though it is unclear the direction of influence, we essentially do see a strong association between ATT and PBC, $\text{cov}(\text{Attitude}, \text{PBC}) = 0.310$, $p<0.001$, and between SN and PBC ($\text{cov}=0.352$, $p<0.001$). This confirms that students who feel comfortable acting (controlled) are more likely to have favorable social norms and attitudes about reducing violence than pupils who do not feel so confident.

Moreover, expectations of control of action as well as attitudes are more predictive of intention among private school children than subjective norms, which is significant because intention is the primary mediator to actual engagement behavior. Thus, in designing programs around violence reduction among school children, it will be important to improve students' self-efficacy and develop strong, positive attitudes around interventions, as subjective norms (peer influence) may not be as efficacious in a school environment.

Table 17

Structural Equation Modeling Results for Private School Parents: TPB Predictors of Violence Prevention Intentions and Behaviors

Paths and Covariances	β (Std. Coeff.)	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	95% CI
Predictors of INT					
Attitude (ATT)	0.191***	0.044	4.38	<0.001	[0.105, 0.276]
Subjective Norms (SN)	-0.006	0.044	-0.14	0.891	[-0.093, 0.080]
PBC	0.714***	0.036	19.85	<0.001	[0.643, 0.784]
Predictors of BEH					
Intention (INT)	0.260*	0.101	2.59	0.01	[0.063, 0.458]
PBC	0.006	0.102	0.06	0.954	[-0.194, 0.206]
Covariances					
ATT $\leftrightarrow$ SN	0.186**	0.065	2.86	0.004	[0.059, 0.314]

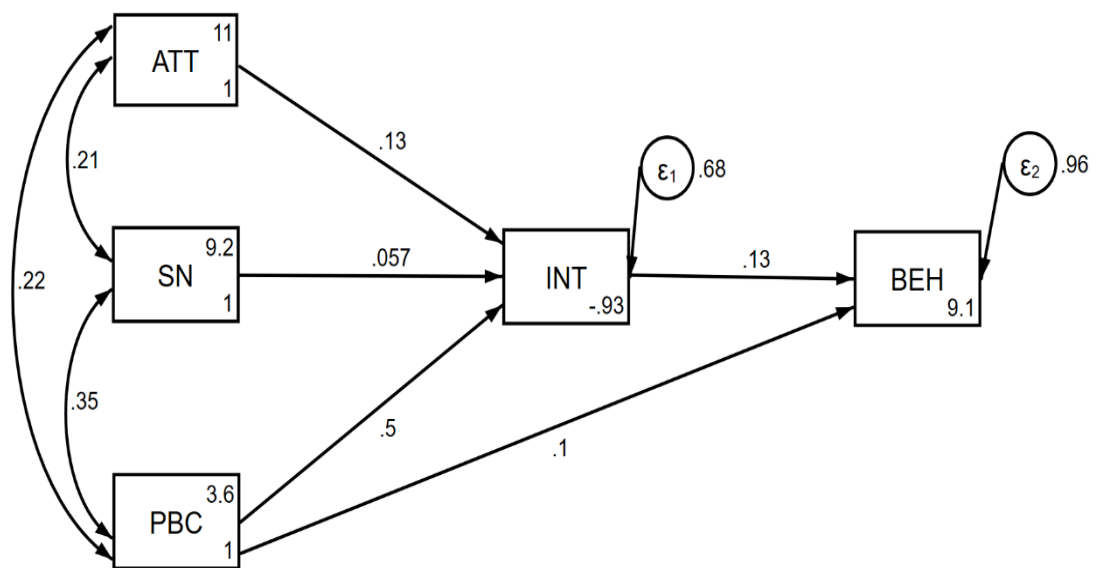
ATT ↔ PBC	0.310***	0.061	5.08	<0.001	[0.190, 0.429]
SN ↔ PBC	0.352***	0.059	5.96	<0.001	[0.236, 0.468]
Model Fit	$\chi^2 (2) =$			*p* =	
	18.11			0.0001	

*p < 0.001, **p < 0.01*, p < 0.05, p < 0.10 (marginally significant)

TBC Using the Semi-Structured Analysis of the Both School.

Figure 27

TBC Using the Semi-Structured Analysis of the Whole School



The combined analysis of both private and government schools using the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) sheds light on the psychological factors that influence caregivers' intentions and behaviors toward preventing or addressing violence against children. In this model, Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) appeared as the strongest and most significant predictor of Intention (INT) (standardized coefficient = 0.499, $p < 0.001$). The results show that the parents who feel more confident and capable of acting on VAC are more likely to intend to act violently. Additionally, the caregiver's attitude also shows a significant positive association with intention (coef = 0.130, $p = 0.002$), showing that caregivers with stronger positive parental beliefs are more likely to engage in positive actions and intentions. Similarly, in other contexts, subjective norms, also referred to as social impressions and pressures, did not significantly influence the

intention to VAC (coefficient = 0.057, $p = 0.203$). This shows that caregiver intentions are not powerfully shaped by the caregivers' beliefs. Perceived behavioral control and personal attitudes are important predictors of student intentions to address violence across all school settings. Intentions are only partly predictive of behaviors, leaving a gap between wanting to act and actually acting. This highlights the benefits of interventions at school that not only promote positive attitudes and trust in their own behavior but also create safe and effective environments in which students can act against violence.

Table 18

Structural Equation Modeling Results: Theory of Planned Behavior Predictors of Intention and Behavior Regarding Violence Against Children in Both Schools

Variable	β (Std. Coeff.)	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	95% CI
Predictors of INT					
Attitude (ATT)	0.130*	0.042	3.06	0.002	[0.047, 0.213]
Subjective Norms (SN)	0.057	0.044	1.27	0.203	[-0.031, 0.144]
PBC	0.499***	0.04	12.56	<0.001	[0.421, 0.577]
Predictors of BEH					
Intention (INT)	0.127*	0.058	2.19	0.029	[0.013, 0.241]
PBC	0.104†	0.058	1.79	0.073	[-0.010, 0.219]
Covariances					
ATT ↔ SN	0.209***	0.048	4.38	<0.001	[0.116, 0.303]
ATT ↔ PBC	0.217***	0.048	4.55	<0.001	[0.123, 0.310]
SN ↔ PBC	0.350***	0.044	7.97	<0.001	[0.264, 0.436]
Model Fit	$\chi^2 (2) =$			* $p^* =$	
	15.91			0.0004	

* $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.10$ (marginally significant)

Predicting Parental Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices on Child Violence Through Sociodemographic

Here, I examined how various sociodemographic factors predict parental outcomes related to violence against children, applying the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) framework. The TPB outcomes include Knowledge, Attitude, Perceived Behavioral Control, and Practice toward preventing violence against children. I model each TPB part independently as a dependent variable in order to analyze these results using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression. This allows for

the assessment of how specific background characteristics influence multiple aspects of parental behaviors and intentions. The analysis suggests differences in how these characteristics acted by comparing public and private school responses.

A diverse range of sociodemographic characteristics are captured in independent (control) variables, including child gender, age and grade level; gender of the head of the household; household family type (e.g., single or joint); parental presence in the home; household wealth quintile; and ethnicity. More characteristics include caregiver gender, caregiver educational attainment, head of household status, and the primary source of household income (e.g., business, agriculture, overseas work). These characteristics, together, serve as the explanatory variables for this study because, in determining differences in TPB-related outcomes, they may help identify which groups may have more knowledge, more supportive attitudes, better perceived control, or are less willing to use violent behaviors around child protection.

Predicting Parental Knowledge

In this study, Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression was used to investigate the factors determining parental knowledge regarding violence against children. Results were compared across government and private schools as well as in the overall sample. Parental knowledge served as the dependent variable, while several socioeconomic and demographic factors - including gender (head of household, respondent, and child), family structure, parental presence, ethnicity, occupation, education, household wealth, and child's age - served as the independent variables. The aim was to determine factors that had a significant influence on parental knowledge, and whether or not the influence differed based on school type. Model fit measures proved that private schools had the highest explanatory power ($R^2 = 0.366$), followed by government schools ($R^2 = 0.195$), and the combined sample ($R^2 = 0.127$) (Result below in Table 19, annex-02).

In private schools, several of the predictors were significantly associated with parental knowledge. Specifically, fathers of the household had higher knowledge scores than mothers ($\beta = 0.330$, $p < 0.001$) but, surprisingly, male respondents had significantly lower knowledge than female respondents ($\beta = -0.692$, $p < 0.001$). While parents were employed in labor ($\beta = 0.479$, $p < 0.001$) and other occupations ($\beta = 0.333$, $p < 0.05$), they had significantly higher knowledge scores than parents working in agriculture. For government school parents, notable predictors were in business ($\beta = 0.597$, $p < 0.05$) and having secondary or higher education ($\beta = 0.757$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta =$

1.236, $p < 0.001$). The broader model continued to indicate higher education was significant, secondary education was moderately increased knowledge ($\beta = 0.322$, $p < 0.05$), and above secondary education had the strongest positive association ($\beta = 0.512$, $p < 0.001$). In the broader model, male respondents continued to have the lowest knowledge ($\beta = -0.356$, $p < 0.001$). However, while prior knowledge was present in the broader model ($\beta = 0.289$, $p < 0.05$), those in 'other' occupations had higher knowledge than those working in agriculture.

Results, indicators, and measures of parental knowledge significantly differed by school type. In government schools, a caregiver's education level was the most consistent and significant indicator; however, caregiver gender and employment had smaller or non-significant effects. In private schools, however, gender differences were even more pronounced as male-headed households tended to perform better, and female respondents had significantly more knowledge than male respondents. Unexpectedly, at a private school, knowledge relationships were positive for certain vocations, for example, daily work, which are often linked with having a lower socioeconomic status. The results of the combined model moderated the role of gender and education levels but still showed the significance of the variables.

Findings discuss that although there are school context variations, gender and education are potential predictors of parents' knowledge of violence against children. Parents with students enrolled in a government school may have benefited to a greater extent from enhanced education-related interventions, especially those parents who had little formal education. Although males may often wield more authority and power in decisions related to their children, they have less knowledge; therefore, efforts in private schools should be aimed at reducing gendered knowledge gaps. The interesting positive correlation of daily work and knowledge in the context of a private school may be due to the potential for a relatively higher number of exposures to community-level activities and possibly targeted awareness efforts. Further work should investigate occupational pathways of influence and interventions in order to develop fair strategies for engaging mothers and fathers, regardless of occupation or educational attainment.

Predicting Parental Attitude

Employing a variety of linear regression model(s), this study examined the predictors of attitudes of caregivers' and parents about violence against children (VAC), with schools categorized as government and private. The study researched if

demographic and socioeconomic characteristics were significantly related to parental attitudes: gender (of the household head, the responder, and the child), family structure, caregiver education, occupation, ethnicity, and wealth position—were significantly related to parental attitudes. The attitudes were captured using a standardized scale; the model fit was captured using R^2 and BIC values. The government and private school models explained approximately 18.5% and 18.8% of the variance, respectively; while the aggregate model explained 10.9%—suggesting that the disaggregated models picked up some school-specific nuances. (Results below in Table 20, annex-02)

In the private school model, several predictors were statistically significant. Male household heads had significantly more favorable attitudes toward preventing VAC compared to female heads ($\beta = 0.130$, $p < 0.05$), while male respondents (compared to female respondents) had significantly less favorable attitudes ($\beta = -0.197$, $p < 0.001$). Among wealth variables, those in the highest quintile had significantly more positive attitudes than the poorest ($\beta = 0.392$, $p < 0.01$), and those classified as rich also had significantly better attitudes ($\beta = 0.260$, $p < 0.05$). The government school model found that caregivers in single-parent households had higher favorable sentiments than those in joint families ($\beta = 0.102$, $p < 0.05$). In the combined model, male respondents again showed less favorable attitudes ($\beta = -0.156$, $p < 0.001$), and respondents from the richest households had more favorable attitudes ($\beta = 0.143$, $p < 0.05$).

The results suggest that interventions need to be targeted toward transforming attitudes toward violence against children, particularly among male caregivers who were consistently less positive in all situations. In the case of private schools, the interventions could be centered around gendered power and privilege, and ensuring the discourse and sensitization education includes men who may be heads of household and have some privilege. For government schools, noticing the relative strengths of single parent households could be a target of help via peer education or parenting groups. The significance of wealth shows an influence on positive attitudes in the private school context and the need to democratize access to knowledge and parenting tools across socioeconomic categories. Future research could explore the extent the attitudes manifest into actual behavior and whether similar patterns of attitudes exist for the other domains of the TPB such perceived behavioral control and intention.

Predicting Subjective Norms

The research explored the influence of a variety of sociodemographic variables on parental subjective norms towards violence against children (VAC) for three samples formed government, private, and a combination of schools. Parent subjective norms are a key part of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), that entails how much social pressures from others, (e.g., family, peers, community) caregivers feel to conform to or endorse behaviors with respect to disciplining children or preventing child violence. The study used multiple regression approaches that included predictors like gender, ethnicity, caregiver education, family structure, household wealth, and child factors. The study sought to help comprehend what influences parents' views on social norms and expectations towards VAC, particularly across the different school sample contexts (See the results in Table 21, Annex-02).

Multiple predictors emerged as statistically significant. The male respondents across all models were significantly less likely to report strong social norms against violence in a similar way as female respondents (Government: $\beta = -0.190$, $p < 0.01$; Private: $\beta = -0.158$, $p < 0.01$; Combined: $\beta = -0.183$, $p < 0.001$), which suggests a gender gap exists in terms of social influences regarding VAC. Janajati caregivers in the combined model also reported significantly higher subjective norms than Brahmin or Chhetri caregivers ($\beta = 0.109$, $p < 0.05$), possibly indicating different community pressures related to child abuse in the two groups. Moreover, caregivers who achieved higher education, mainly caregivers with education at the above secondary level, reported significantly higher subjective norms in all models analyzed (e.g., Private: $\beta = 0.513$, $p < 0.001$; Combined: $\beta = 0.530$, $p < 0.001$). Education at the secondary level was also considered significant in the government and combined models.

The private school model explained a slightly larger proportion of the variation in subjective norms ($R^2 = 0.225$) than the government school model ($R^2 = 0.187$), indicating that sociodemographic predictors may have stronger explanatory power in private school contexts. Additionally, the caregiver of the private school shows more positive and correlated with the education level compared to the caregiver of the government school. Male respondents were less likely to report perceptions of social obligation to avoid VAC. Ethnicity only has a positive effect in the model of both schools together and do not have an effect once the schools' sample are combined. This indicates that contextual and institutional factors might interact differently based on the context of schooling.

The findings highlight the importance of more intentionally engaging male caregivers in shifts in social norms against VAC. Another strong influence on subjective norms is education. Education conveys that parenting education, media, and school-based efforts can influence and change community-level norms. The effect of ethnicity in the combined sample will require consideration for more culturally proficient interventions - as we noted norms of discipline differ for ethnic groups. Subsequent research recommendation could investigate relations among subjective norms that influence behavioral change, as well as the broader dynamics among intention and control as another part of TPB.

Predicting Perceived Behaviors

The aim of this analysis was to explore how sociodemographic characteristics affect parental perceived behaviors to prevent or lessen violence against children in schools using the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). Predictors were analyzed separately for government and private schools followed by a combined sample and used Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression models. The results reveal which characteristics predict a significant amount of parental behavior as defined by the parental respondents which help find when and who to target for programming in both types of educational settings. (Results provided for below in Table 22, Annex-02). In the government school model, parents with education above secondary level ($\beta = 0.735, p < 0.05$) and from the poorest, poor, and richest wealth quintiles (β ranging from 0.449 to 0.532, all $p < 0.05$) showed significantly higher levels of perceived behavioral action against violence. In private schools, significant positive predictors included father-only caregivers ($\beta = 0.468, p < 0.05$), above secondary education ($\beta = 0.543, p < 0.05$), and those from average ($\beta = 0.818, p < 0.01$), rich ($\beta = 0.603, p < 0.05$), and richest ($\beta = 0.856, p < 0.01$) wealth quintiles. In the combined model, caregivers with secondary ($\beta = 0.271, p < 0.05$) and above secondary education ($\beta = 0.687, p < 0.001$), and those from poorer to richest wealth quintiles all showed significantly higher perceived behaviors.

Wealth quintile was once again a strong and consistent predictor across all models when looking across school types; more wealthy families were associated with more reported behaviors in both private and government schools. However, education was a more consistent predictor and model effect in the combined model. The benefits of secondary and even more so higher education were positively associated with better outcomes for reported behaviors. The influence of caretakers

(and the effect of father-only caretakers) was statistically significant for private school households, but not in government school families, showing potentially different caregiving dynamics. Model fit was stronger in the government sample ($R^2 = 0.25$) compared to private school families ($R^2 = 0.182$), lending more support to a consistent predictive pattern for government school respondents.

Overall, this suggests the need for educational and economic empowerment of parents/caregivers to influence parental behaviors about violence against children. VAC prevention interventions in particular should be adapted to target the poorest and least educated parent/caregiver where change in behaviors may be incremental or take longer. The father's influence in father-only households in private school children showed a different caregiving dynamic where useful future qualitative work should explore as a potential impact on the experiences of VAC toward children.

Predicting Intention

This study uses the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as a framework for investigating how different sociodemographic variables predicted parents' intention to intervene in child violence. This study utilized multiple linear regression models across three samples: government school with parental disputes, private school with parental disputes, and an overall sample of both government and private school parents, with parental intention seen as a significant predictor of behavior under TPB, and knowing its predictors will help inform strategies to reduce violence towards children in parent focused interventions in different school contexts. (Results below in Table 23, Annex-02)

In the government school model, Dalit caregivers ($\beta = 0.649$, $p < 0.01$) and those with secondary ($\beta = 0.757$, $p < 0.05$) and above secondary education ($\beta = 0.849$, $p < 0.05$) had significantly higher intention scores compared to their reference groups. In the private school model, male household heads ($\beta = 0.605$, $p < 0.001$), caregivers with above secondary education ($\beta = 0.727$, $p < 0.01$), and those from the richest wealth quintile ($\beta = 0.912$, $p < 0.01$) showed significantly higher intentions. Significant predictors for the combined sample were male household heads ($\beta = 0.345$, $p < 0.01$), Dalit caregivers ($\beta = 0.467$, $p < 0.01$), and caregivers with secondary ($\beta = 0.368$, $p < 0.05$) and above secondary education ($\beta = 0.759$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, those in the poor wealth quintile ($\beta = 0.749$, $p < 0.05$) showed higher intention.

When comparing school types, education level appears as a consistent and powerful predictor of intention, particularly in government and combined samples. Nonetheless, it seems that wealth has a more salient effect in private school, where the higher wealth levels (especially the richest) have a strong positive effect on intention. Ethnicity (Dalit) had a positive and significant effect only in the government and mixed models, suggesting structural community level effects depending on the type of school. Interestingly, respondent gender was not a significant predictor in any of the models, which contradicted earlier findings for attitudes and subjective standards, where male respondents scored lower.

These findings offer numerous practical insights. First, improving caregiver education, particularly beyond the secondary level, may increase parental motivation to reduce VAC, especially in government schools. Second, the importance of wealth in the private school model implies that economic empowerment may encourage proactive parenting behaviors in metropolitan or resource-rich environments. Finally, the continuous positive effect of Dalit ethnicity on intention of child protection can also suggest greater exposure to child protection messages in the contemporary study among the marginalized group or greater efforts for change. Future interventions should use the targeted messaging of school type and should also create multi-level initiatives to address education and socioeconomic empowerment in combination to more broadly affect behavioral intentions.

Predicating Practice

The regression study intended to predict parental aggression against children in Nepal's government, private, and combination school settings. Parental practice was rated on a scale of 1 to 5, with higher ratings showing more positive (nonviolent) conduct and behaviors. Independent factors included household and responder characteristics like gender, ethnicity, education, occupation, wealth, and child demographics. The goal was to decide the characteristics that have a substantial impact on better caregiving practices. (Result below in Table 24, Annex-02)

In the private school framework, male household heads were more likely to report positive practices than female heads of households ($\beta = 0.338$, $p < 0.001$) while male respondents were less likely to report the same ($\beta = -0.543$, $p < 0.001$). Finally, in the private school model, secondary education had a positive and significant effect overall ($\beta = 0.204$, $p < 0.05$), adding further evidence of the role of education in parental behavior.

Across the school types, the private school model explains a bit less variance ($R^2 = 0.182$) than the government school model ($R^2 = 0.25$), but both show moderate predictive power. A striking contrast appears in the role of gender: male household heads have a significantly stronger positive effect in private schools than in government schools (non-significant in government, significant in private). On the other hand, male respondents consistently show negative associations with best parenting practices across models but were substantially stronger in private schools. Ethnicity inequities were only significant in the combined model showing that pooling the sample may uncover inequities that would not be seen overall within each school group. Education had different effects, only showing significance in private schools, which may stand for a greater willingness to respond to education-based interventions with disparate resources.

First, male caregivers, at least, particularly replies, had a lower positive practice score, and would likely become important participants for parenting programs. Gender sensitive awareness initiatives in private school contexts may lead to much change. Second, addressing ethnic inequities could be of paramount importance to address lower results among Janajati and Dalit households which may suggest further marginalization, lack of access to support resources, or cultural norms related to discipline affecting parenting behaviors among the group. Therefore, interventions should focus on culturally assessed methods for engaging parents and fair access to parenting information. Finally, a potential role of education as an important known variable, specifically in secondary educational learners, may suggest an important avenue for capitalizing on existing frameworks that are prioritizing protection and childcare for itinerant family visits to capitalize on all populations in the long term parental behaviors and are addressing universal considerations.

Summary of the Findings

This study examined caregivers' attitudes, practices, and knowledge about the use of violence against children in both public and private institutions, based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze data from 400 caregivers, with a sample of 180 from public schools and 220 in private schools. The study focused on TPB constructs which are key to intentions: practices, subjective norms, behavioral beliefs, and perceived behavioral control. The analysis revealed a spectrum of disparities between caregivers in private and public schools. Private school caregivers expressed greater confidence in their capacity to

regulate children's behavior, demonstrated stronger support for nonviolent disciplinary methods, and owned a higher level of knowledge on the subject. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) showed that perceived behavioral control was the most significant predictor of the intention to refrain from employing violent disciplinary practices, particularly within the private caregiver group. Subjective norms were shown to be a significant predictor of the intention among public school caregivers. Socioeconomic factors played a significant role in the regression analysis; nonviolent practices showed no correlation with either education or income levels, and male caregivers, particularly in private institutions, were the least likely to report engaging in nonviolent practices.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS

The results of this study illustrate the effectiveness of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) in elucidating caregiver discipline practices with children across both public and private educational settings. Caregivers of the private school shows more positive attitude toward non-violent practices. Education of caregivers also plays role in reducing the VAC. This shows that caregivers are more inclined to develop the intention to manage their child's behavior when they perceive themselves as capable of doing so without resorting to violence. By studying the relationships among cognitive, normative, and control beliefs, the findings aligned with the Theory of Planned Behaviors (TPB) and contextual differences between school types were noted throughout.

The findings indicate that efforts to decrease violence against children should focus on strengthening perceived behavioral control, especially among governmental agencies that may already engage caregivers and perceive themselves as unable to adopt alternative disciplinary methods. Implementing interventions that encompass school-based educational initiatives, caregiver seminars, and accessible educational resources may enhance behavioral confidence about non-violent disciplinary approaches. Interventions that engage the community and awareness campaigns aimed at transforming subjective norms should also help to foster a shift in beliefs regarding corporal punishment within government and community school settings, where children are at increased risk of violence. Additionally, the gender disparities that were found indicated that a lower level of adherence to non-violent practices were reported by male caregivers and needed interventions that engage fathers and male caregivers in programs on positive parenting. Overall, the TPB framework offers an important perspective on the development of multi-level interventions that prevent violence against children across settings that address education, social norms, and perceived behavior control.

Differences in Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP) Between Private and Government School Parents

The study revealed considerable differences in knowledge and attitudes — although not necessarily in the practices — of parents of children in private and public

schools, concerning violence against children (VAC). Parents of children in private schools had a higher level of knowledge about VAC prevention and non-violent caregiving than parents of children in public schools (Joshi et al., 2024) reported that private school caregivers demonstrate a higher level of awareness regarding child education and nutrition. This pattern is consistent with their findings. Private schools are generally more frequent in teacher-parent interactions on children's rights, perhaps impacting the greater levels of awareness (Sah et al., 2022). Conversely, parents of children attending a government school are often absent from this type of family-school engagement, indicative of systemic barriers, limited institutional outreach, or possibly lower socioeconomic status.

Educated caregivers are an important explanatory factor related to KAP gaps. In general, parents of private school children have received a greater level of formal educational attainment than parents of government school children (Dahal et al. (2020) and Guragain et al. (2019) have previously reported that parental education, particularly maternal education, is positively correlated with KAP on VAC. According to Wiesner et al. (1994) and El Bilbeisi et al. (2025), higher education provides parents with a more comprehensive understanding of child rights, legal frameworks, and protective strategies, which in turn promote proactive parental behaviors and positive attitudes. Also, educated parents are more likely to use non-violent disciplinary strategies, collaborate with schools, and seek information about child welfare (Corroon et al., 2014; Hossain & Nikolov, 2023).

In addition to education, the economic backgrounds of families contribute positively to KAP formation. Households enrolled in private schools were less likely to have agriculture or day labor as the main way of making a living, and more likely to be smaller and economically stable, with caregivers working in business, abroad, or both, the evidence shows. Economic stability makes families more aware of VAC because it provides access to media, educational resources, and child protection methods (Pinheiro, 2006; Stoltenborgh et al., 2015). However, parents from agricultural backgrounds, who are more dominant among parents of the child attending government schools, which may have limited access to this information and services about the VAC. Exposure and interaction with external environments are also significant factors, as VAC is significantly influenced by the sights, sounds, and experiences of parents in their communities (Finkelhor et al., 2013).

I find it interesting that the results showed many female-headed households were associated with families in private schools. This may partly explain the more progressive attitudes in private-school families than other families, as women are usually more attentive to child welfare issues given their societal caregiving roles.(Garcia-Moreno et al., 2006). Research has shown that female higher levels of education are more likely to be part of "no violence" dyads (Garcia-Moreno et al., 2006). In the other side, female caregivers from the lower socioeconomic and educational backgrounds are more likely to engage in VAC. Both IPV and VAC produce negative effects on child well-being (Carlson et al., 2020; Cerna-Turoff et al., 2021).

These findings exemplify the intersectional consideration of education, gender, and economic status in terms of parent attitudes and behaviors, regarding VAC. Economic security and parents' level of educational attainment are protective factors whereas lower SES, caregiver mental distress, state-dependent alcohol use, and a reduced emotional connection in the home are risk factors that increase the risk of IPV and VAC (Carlson et al., 2020). Additionally, the argument for gender-sensitive, education-supportive interventions that can address both parenting skills, and the household is accentuated given that mothers are often the predominant perpetrator of VAC (Barchi & AbiNader, 2025).

There are a variety of shareable factors that could be assessed in the comparison of KAP of parents of children in private schools to that of parents of children in public schools. Some researchers claim that traditional gender power relations and gender roles within patriarchal households interfere with violence prevention and constitute the contexts in which violence is normalized and expressed in parenting (Jiang et al., 2017). It would, for example, be possible to examine a number of these interrelated components together to examine differences in KAP for parents of private and government school children. Francis et al. (2023) highlights in his research that gender power matters in household violence and child rearing. Parents who do not have access to educational resources, especially in some of the government school communities, are most likely to have these risk factors. In contrast, private school parents may have more chance to know about alternative non-violent strategies of educating their children. Researchers indicate that overall, using proactive parenting strategies, like interventions to enhance parent-child relations and

positive punishment, significantly reduces violence to children, improves children's behavior, and improves parents' own well-being.

Caregiver's Knowledge on Violence Against Children (VAC)

Additionally, the knowledge scored differs among individuals with varying demographic circumstances, as evidenced by differences in family size, education, equity quintile, employment, ethnicity, and parental status at home. The education level of the respondents below the secondary level was found to be substantially different between private school parents and government parents. The knowledge of private school parents was found to be higher on the VAC than that of government school parents, even though their educational background was below the secondary level. The VAC revealed that the parents of government school students had a slightly higher level of education beyond the secondary level than those of private school students. However, this disparity in knowledge is non-significant. A study found that higher education of caregivers and family income levels are significantly associated with better parental knowledge of child abuse and neglect (Alsalman et al., 2023).

Poverty, unemployment, higher family size, and economic disparities are environmental risk factors for knowledge and increase risk of child abuse (Martins et al., 2023). Similarly, parenting knowledge and education are linked with the knowledge of the VAC of the caregivers and parents (Martins et al., 2023). Additionally, a study found that the age of the child and the education of the caregivers are significantly correlated with the parents' knowledge of verbal abuse, but economic status did not correlate with knowledge (Herwandar et al., 2022)

Parents' Attitude on Violence against Children (VAC)

Again, disparities are observed in the attitudes of parents toward VAC between private and government school parents, contingent upon demographic status. A more positive attitude toward violence against minors is indicated by a higher level of attitude. Upon further examination of the data, the respondents' attitudes toward violence against children were found to be more favorable toward those with a higher level of knowledge. However, there was no significant difference in the attitudes of parents with upper-level education. Conversely, parents who were only literate exhibited significantly higher attitudes toward violence against children in private schools than in government schools.

The level of attitude was substantially higher in the private school than in the government school when the respondents were female or the parents were female.

However, the male parents did not find the difference to be significant. Similarly, the family of the wealthiest household between the parents of the government and private school found a significant increase in the parents' attitude toward the private school compared to the parents of the government school. There was no notable change in the other categories of the household. The attitude of parents of government institutions and private school parents is not significantly different, with the exception of the Brahmin/Chhetri community. The parents of private schools have a more positive attitude toward the VAC than those of government schools. Additionally, there was no discernible distinction in the attitudes of the various households according to their professions.

Through three fundamental constructs, subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioral control (PBC), and attitude toward the behavior (ATT), the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) elucidates parental actions with respect to violence against children (VAC) (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms are indicative of perceived social pressures, attitudes influence assessments of VAC, and PBC gauges individuals' assurance in refraining from violent conduct. SN and PBC have been identified as significant predictors of intentions to commit VAC in earlier studies that have applied TPB to VAC. However, ATT has exhibited inconsistent effects. The interaction of these constructs varies across contexts, emphasizing the influence of socio-cultural environments on parental behavior.

Beliefs about discipline, child-rearing norms, and broader cultural values all contribute to parental attitudes. Biased cognitive schemas have been linked to inadequate parenting, and both explicit and implicit views influence behavior (Camilo et al., 2022). Rachmawati et al (2022) did not identify a direct correlation and association between attitudes and intentions on VAC.

The subjective norms of the caregivers are a major element in the children's VAC. Similarly, the caregivers who have been seeing VAC acceptance in their community are more likely with the VAC practice in their reality. Further positive parenting environment also a better form for the children on VAC (Rachmawati et al., 2022; UNICEF, 2021). As the reference, this research also found the SN has an underlying contribution in ATT and PBC in the caregivers of the government school. In private schools, while ATT, SN and PBC were associated, SN appeared to be an overarching category of personal beliefs, social pressure, and beliefs of control.

A parent's confidence in managing conflict and discipline without resorting to violence is indicative of their behavioral control. Those with higher intentions to perpetrate VAC show lower PBC (Rachmawati et al., 2022). The results of this study show that SN mediates the relationship between ATT and PBC for parents in government schools and indicates a need for a community-level intervention to improve control and improve norms. Parents of private school children seem to also be in a reinforcing cycle of high PBC, high SN and high ATT. Therefore, interventions in these contexts can improve parent's individual capability while maximally leveraging favorable social contexts. These differences mean that VAC prevention efforts will need to be adapted to the specific social/cultural/institutional contexts of different parent groups.

Parents' Practice on Violence Against Children (VAC)

Parents' gender and their education are the key factors to reduce the practice on VAC and increase positive parenting. Additionally, the private school performed substantially better than the government school's parents when the respondent was not the household head.

In a similar vein, the parents of the 11-year-old child reported a significantly higher level of satisfaction with the private school. However, the 11-year-old child in the government school and the 9- and 10-year-old child in the private school reported a significantly lower practice score, indicating that they are experiencing more linkage than the other age groups. Similarly, the caregiver of the children who study fifth grade of the government school and third grade of the private school shows the higher level of violence on VAC. Furthermore, the parents of the fifth-grade students observed a substantial distinction between private and government schools, with the former exhibiting superior practices. Additionally, private school's parents are doing better parenting compared to the government if there is male household head. Violence against children (VAC) in educational contexts comprises physical, emotional, and sexual abuse, neglect, and exploitation, with corporal punishment and bullying being common expressions (UNICEF, 2019; WHO, 2022). Legal and cultural contexts for parents regarding VAC are not similar on the parents of government schools and private schools (Allison et al., 2023; Gershoff & Font, 2016). Further caregivers' practice on the VAC was attributed to demographic, cultural norms, and beliefs (Chiocca, 2017; Lareau & Goyette, 2014). And, if there are a safe environment and disciplined practice in the school and home also contribute for better

parenting (Burgess et al., 2015; Goldring & Phillips, 2008). Following the above finding, male caregivers of the government school and female of the private school show higher level of positive parenting.

The rate, frequency and kind of VAC are also influenced by school type. According to different studies, public schools may have higher rates of physical violence, whereas private schools may experience more bullying (Afolabi & Deji, 2014; Crooks et al., 2011; Rachel's Challenge, 2025). These distinctions may explain why parents of fifth graders in the study believed private schools had superior VAC practices. The preferences of fathers / male caregivers and mothers / female caregivers are likely influenced by gendered differences in attitudes towards physical punishment (Chiocca, 2017) and both perceptions of the school climate, where female caregivers preferred safe and supportive social environments, and male caregivers occasionally revered traditional discipline principles or underpinnings to social relationships and ties of community.

The literature and regression findings reveal that household headship is a significant predictor (Lareau & Goyette, 2014). Parents who did not lead households evaluated private schools higher, possibly because they perceived superior safety, resources, or support, regardless of their direct role in school choice.

To examine relationships and predictions of parents' intention and behavior toward VAC, I used structural equation modeling (SEM) to illustrate the relationship and prediction to parents' intention and behavior toward violence against children.

Prediction Intention and Behaviors

To examine relationships and predictions of parents' intention and behavior toward VAC, I used structural equation modeling (SEM) to illustrate the relationship and prediction to parents' intention and behavior toward violence against children.

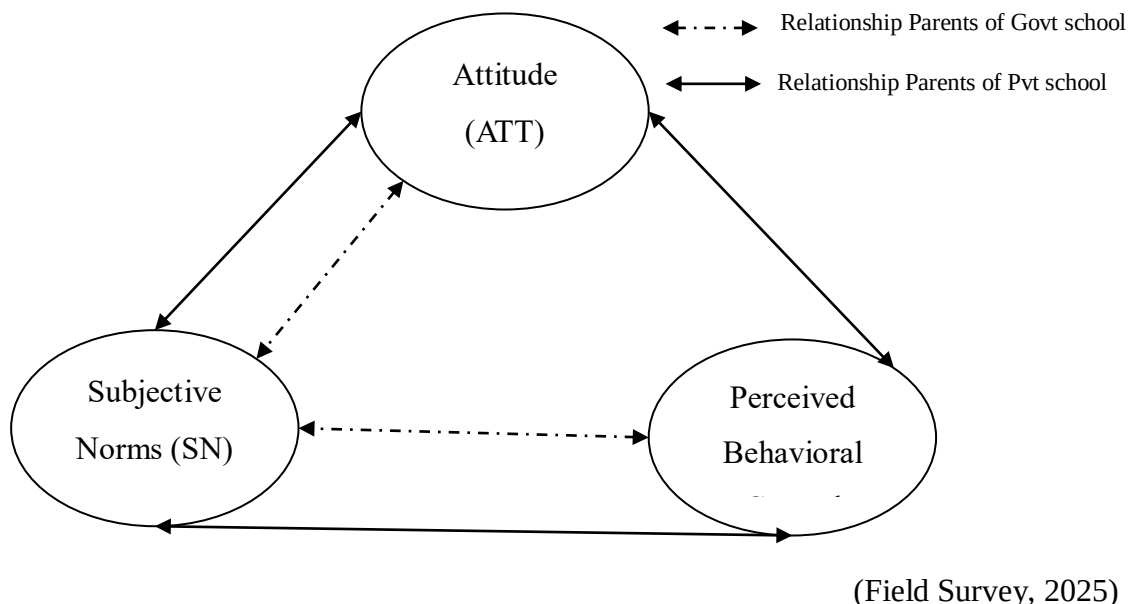
Relationship Between Attitude (ATT), Subjective Norms (SN), and Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) on Violence Against Children

Considering the SEM model, the three predicting components for the Intention (INT) and Behavioral (BEH) were found to have positive correlation with each other. In the parents of the government school were found significant positive relationship between ATT and SC and between SN and PBC. It shows that the constructions are interrelated. In other words, parents of the government school with strong social support also tend to perceive more control over their actions and hold more favorable attitudes on VAC. Like a private school, there are strong and significant covariances

between the constructs of attitude, subjective norms and perceived control with positive interrelated. This suggests that parents who feel in control also tend to have supportive social perceptions and positive attitudes toward VAC. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) elucidates that attitudes toward the behavior (ATT), subjective norms (SN), and perceived behavioral control (PBC) influence intentions and, consequently, behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). SN captures perceived social approbation or disapproval, ATT reflects parental evaluations of disciplinary practices in the context of violence against children (VAC), and PBC refers to a parent's perceived capacity to manage child behavior without violence. Previous research shows that SN and PBC may be more useful predictors of intentions toward VAC than ATT, and that perceived control and social norm have substantial effects (Rachmawati et al., 2022). Another study suggests that ATT has an indirect effect on intentions toward VAC through its relationships with SN and PBC, manifesting that maladaptive parenting and biased attitudes toward parenting their own children (Camilo et al., 2022).

Figure 28

Relationship Between Attitude, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioral Control Between Private School and Government School Parents Based on the Results



This distinction suggests an ability to tailor interventions. For example, indirectly enhancing attitudes and perceptions of control for parents of children at government schools may occur with strengthening social support networks at the community level. These strategies tailored to context follow from the evidence that

cognitive and social factors interact in complex ways in their relationship with VAC-related intentions and behaviors (UNICEF, 2014; Zhou et al., 2018)

Pathways to Non-Violent Parenting: A Theory of Planned Behavior Perspective

The examination of the pathway analysis to predictors of the intention in the government school found standardized path coefficients indicate that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control are strong predictors of intention to act VAC. Specifically, PBC has the largest and most robust effect, suggesting that parents who feel they have more control over their ability to act VAC, they have a stronger intention to act VAC. It means that parents' intention on the VAC is positively control by their ability to decrease the VAC. Similarly, subjective norms also had a positive and significant influence on intention, indicating that peer, family or social expectations play a significant role in reducing VAC in the parents of the government school.

The SEM analysis indicated that the attitudes and perceived control of private school children strongly affected their intentions to combat violence against children (VAC), whereas social norms exerted negligible influence (Wang et al., 2020). Intention significantly forecasted actual behavior, whereas perceived control alone did not precipitate action, so affirming that intention mediates the connection between beliefs and behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998; McCaul et al., 1993).

The findings of the study corroborate the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), emphasizing the roles of subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (PBC) in shaping parents' intentions to reduce VAC, especially among parents of students attending publicly funded schools (Hamilton et al., 2020; Setijanto et al., 2019). Caregivers of the children show that their education and values is an important predictor for non-violent practice (Abdullah et al., 2020). Taylor et al., (2011) also indicate that family size correlated with child discipline. Therefore, program and advocacy should focus on enhancing self-efficacy of the caregivers or closer stakeholders with the child.

It appears to promote a school culture that honors autonomy more than collective standards (Armitage & Conner, 2001). On one hand, even though these participants reported a high level of perceived control as part of the quantitative evaluations, scholastic change only took place when the participants had shown strong intentions so confirming the Theory of Planned Behavior that purpose is the best predictor of behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). The differences between

government and private schools emphasize the distinction in the way the TPB routes differ based on groups and context (Khaleghi et al., 2023; Finigan-Carr et al., 2015). Beyond that, demographic properties such as peer influence and the usefulness of school-based forces may be exerted on aggression prevention differently (Khaleghi et al., 2023) and suggest a real need for rehabilitation methods that are sensitive to particular social and bio-social situations.

This study identifies PBC and subjective norms as primary influences on government school parents, while demonstrating that attitudes shape intents in private school pupils, thereby enhancing options for non-violent parenting interventions across various educational contexts. A study in Malaysian society found that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control significantly link with intention to report child abuse, but not with behavioral (Abdullah et al., 2020)

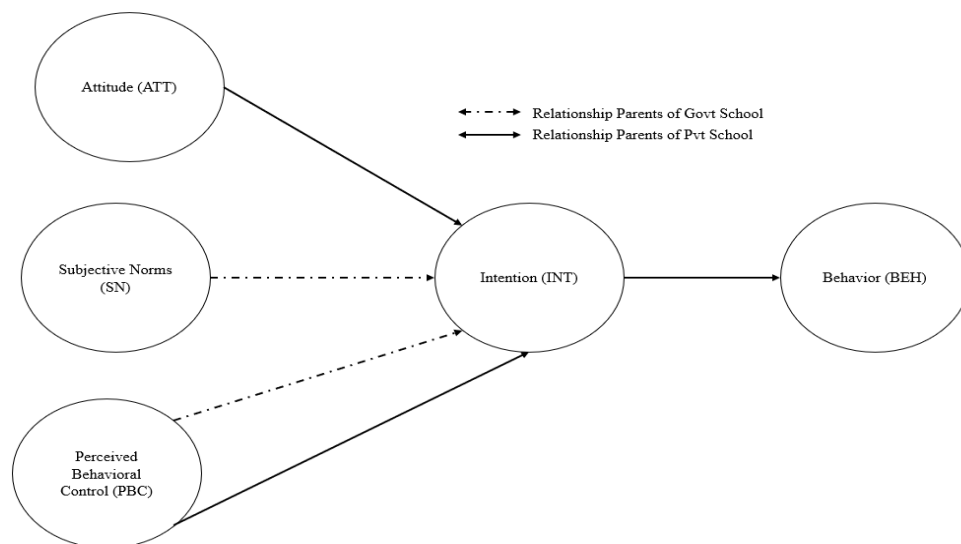
The study indicates that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are determinants of parent-for-child health behaviors, especially the perceived behavioral control and planning will have a direct relationship to the behavior. It emphasizes the importance of these constructs for interventions that facilitate health-parenting behaviors (Hamilton et al., 2020). Additionally, another research shows that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral controls are likelihood with parent-child behaviors. It also highlighted that intention significantly enhances effective parenting practices (Hamilton et al., 2020).

The research focuses on the Theory of Planned Behavior in predicting fighting intentions among African American and Latino adolescents, stressing attitudes, subjective standards, and perceived behavioral control; however, it does not discuss nonviolent parenting or the precise routes stated in your question (Jemmott et al., 2001). Another study has demonstrated that perceived control is a more robust predictor of health-promoting behaviors than self-efficacy. The study highlights that perceived social norms, especially those conveyed by professionals and family endorsement, play a substantial role in influencing parents' perceptions and beliefs regarding corporal punishment. The study demonstrates how perceived social norms, particularly approval from professionals and family members, significantly influence parents' beliefs regarding corporal punishment. It facilitates targeted interventions to modify perceived norms and strengthen parents' perceived authority over nonviolent parenting practices (Taylor et al., 2011).

The research emphasizes that perceived behavioral control (PBC) and peer influence have a significant impact on aggressive behaviors and weapon carrying in urban African American youth, implying that improving self-control and supportive relationships can reduce violence, which aligns with the Theory of Planned Behavior (Finigan-Carr et al., 2015). The study found that perceived behavioral control (PBC) had a substantial impact on nonviolent parenting intentions, particularly among government school parents. It emphasizes the importance of focused interventions to improve PBC and supportive social contexts that promote nonviolent parenting behaviors (Armitage & Conner, 2001). This study investigates the Theory of Planned Behavior, which shows that attitudes, as well as perceived behavioral control (PBC), significantly impact mothers' intentions to teach preschoolers how to adequately brush their teeth, with PBC being the most significant contributor to positive oral hygiene behavior (Setijanto et al., 2019). The paper indicates that parents' perceived behavioral control and attitudes significantly influence intentions to use physical violence for discipline, while subjective norms had no significant impact.

Figure 29

Pathway Between the Government Schools and Private School's Children's Parents on TPB



(Field Survey, 2025)

Predicting Components of the Theory of Planned Behavior

The analysis predicting the elements of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) was performed via multivariate OLS regression. The components of the Theory of

Planned Behavior, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, intention, and behavior were analyzed separately among parents from both private and public schools concerning violence against children (VAC).

Predicting Parents' knowledge Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools

The regression analysis of parental knowledge demonstrated significant differences among the different school types. Among parents of private school students, male heads of households had much higher levels of knowledge, but male respondents had much lower knowledge than female respondents. Knowledge levels were also much higher among parents in daily wage labor or other non-agricultural occupations. In contrast, among parents of public-school students, those who worked in industry and those with a secondary or higher level of education had much higher levels of knowledge. The results suggest the influence of gender roles, work categories, and educational attainment on parental knowledge of violence against children, but the patterns of parenting were divergent between groups of private and public-school parents.

The regression study identified numerous significant predictors of views toward violence against children, varying by school type, namely, private and government school parents. Male household heads among private school parents exhibited markedly more favorable responses than their female counterparts, although male respondents demonstrated fewer favorable responses than female respondents. Additionally, the higher level of household wealth quartile is also positively associated with positive parenting of the caregiver.

Furthermore, the regression results reveal substantial differences in parental attitudes regarding violence against children (VAC) influenced by school type, gender, family structure, and socioeconomic status. In private school families, male heads of households demonstrated more positive sentiments than their female counterparts; yet, males, in general, were less favorable than females, indicating complex gender dynamics (Kulakci-Altintas & Ayaz-Alkaya, 2019). This coincides with research linking patriarchal values to greater acceptance of harsh discipline, duty of care, and ethical responsibility in hierarchical environments like private schools (UNICEF, 2021).

Berger (2005) and Markowitz (2001) also highlighted in their research that economic status is a predictor. HH wealth certainly facilitates access to alternative

disciplinary measures and mitigates stress-related aggressiveness. Parents in private schools, which usually serve wealthy families, may develop a common attitude of preventing violence due to having access to resources and social values (Markowitz, 2001). Parents in government schools, with their diverse socioeconomic background, presented mixed parenting practices; single-parent families may work better with anti-violence messaging but requires further consideration.

Private school programs may confront gendered power dynamics by incorporating father-inclusive parenting instruction, whereas government school initiatives could merge economic assistance with stress-management tools for single-parent families (Kulakci-Altintas & Ayaz-Alkaya, 2019). Universal policies must tackle income inequality, as economic empowerment is consistently associated with positive parenting (Save the Children, 2023). Future study ought to directly examine the dynamics of different school types utilizing standardized metrics to elucidate ambiguities, including the paradoxical gender findings and patterns associated with single-parent households.

Predicting Parents' Subjective Norms Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools

The multivariate regression analysis of parental subjective norms concerning violence against children indicates that male respondents in both government and private school contexts were significantly less inclined to possess robust protective norms, suggesting an increased propensity to justify or tolerate violence. Conversely, schooling contributed positively to the reinforcement of these standards. Caregiver's education level and their subjective norms are likely where found better in the private schools' parents. The findings indicate that elevated education levels correlate with more favorable social norms that mitigate violence against children, whereas male respondents may necessitate more focused involvement to alter detrimental perceptions and attitudes.

The data indicated that male caregivers employed in either public or private institutions exhibited lower protective norms against violence toward children, implying a greater propensity to justify violence against a child (Ajzen, 1991; Cialdini et al., 1991). This is in line with wider work that shows gender has a large influence on discipline attitudes - fathers are more likely than mothers to support physical punishment especially with men adhering to traditional masculine norms (UNESCO, 2025). Therefore, mothers, specifically mothers who believe in a democratic style of

parenting are less likely to support violence, thus reinforcing the arguments for a gendered approach to support services.

Parents from private institutions, particularly those with higher education, exhibited a stronger opposition to violence, indicating that education was a significant predictor of protective norms (Vargas et al., 1995). Policies set forth by institutions and groups of classmates may reinforce these norms for private school teachers where they also have greater social status. In contrast, parents from government schools, particularly single-parent families, faced economic stressors that were related to mixed views (Berger, 2005). The difference suggests that interventions must be able to change norms through both economic security and educational access.

The educational institution itself may serve as a contributing factor. For instance, private schools serve families with greater financial means and may effectively promote consistent anti-violence norms through the curriculum and family engagement (Vargas et al., 1995). Community-based evidence-based solutions are necessary to address the stressors faced by teachers when implementing punitive disciplinary practices in government schools characterized by greater socioeconomic diversity (Lilleston et al., 2017). The regression result indicates that schooling predicts protective norms regardless of prior attitudes suggests that educational institutional environments significantly influence parental beliefs, which are of considerable importance. Future research may investigate the mechanisms of exacerbation (e.g., teacher training, parent seminars, etc.) across various categories of educational institutions.

Predicting Parents' Perceived Behavioral Control.

The multivariate regression results regarding parental perceived behavioral control over violence against children are significantly associated with the caregivers' sense of agency. In private schools, male caregivers who are alone show more control for the children. Parents possessing post-secondary education exhibited a heightened sense of perceived control in both public and private educational institutions, suggesting that education augments parents' capacity for protective action. Additionally, household wealth played a significant role; parents from richer households, especially in private schools, demonstrated significantly stronger perceived control.

In China, where cultural beliefs regarding such practices persist, physical violence is also normalized through cultural norms, specifically the belief that

"employing physical disciplinary actions fosters obedience" (Wang et al., 2020).

Therefore, family violence is regarded as a continuous pattern of harm that can be reduced through the family's education and economic background. Families with a well-developed sense of self-efficacy, particularly mothers, are more likely to employ non-violent, non-coercive disciplinary methods that positively influence child development in later childhood (Abarashi et al., 2014). Other avenues of research, including the World Health Organization's child development programs that enhance parental self-efficacy, demonstrate that skill development and increased parental awareness can reduce violence (Abarashi et al., 2014).

Alternatively, government institutions that serve a more diverse population reflecting various socioeconomic circumstances may face additional challenges due to parental stress and a reduced availability of supportive services (Berger, 2005). Furthermore, research on homeschooling offers a perspective that challenges this belief system and supports the reporting of reduced rates of abuse among children who are home-educated. Internationally, organizations such as the United Nations and Save the Children (2023) underscored the importance of education, economic development, and community-driven approaches to promote context-specific PBC practices for parents. Collectively, these observations endorse the implementation of innovative, comprehensive, and multifaceted interventions that utilize school-based strategies to promote protective changes in parental norms that oppose violence, while also addressing structural inequalities.

Predicting Parents' Intention Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools

The multivariate regression study on parental intentions to prevent violence against children has identified significant variations between groups. In private schools, male heads of households showed more intention to reduce the VAC than the female caregivers. Parents with education beyond the high school level showed more intention across schools, suggesting that education is beneficial. Among parents of children in government schools, those who identified as Dalit and those with education secondary grade 12 or higher exhibited more intention. Similarly, in private schools, middle-class and wealthy parents had greater intention regardless of each other in reporting parent intentions, suggesting financial stability increases efforts made to look after their children. Each study supports the influence of gender, caste, money and education on proactive parenting intentions.

The regression analysis revealed significant disparities in parents' intentions to refrain from violence against children, depending on whether they attended private or public-school environments, with education, gender, caste, and socioeconomic status serving as predictors. Result shows that the caregiver of the private school's male head households has better and stronger intentions than the females, and education also correlated with the intentions of the caregivers of both schools (Khosravan et al., 2018). Mattonet et al, (2024) highlighted that education matters for positive parenting and caring for children. The gender gap may represent the ongoing shifts in gender roles, as research has demonstrated that less traditional conceptions of gender are associated with reduced levels of antagonism between parent and child. Intentions were also greater among parents of private school students who belonged to upper middle-class and higher socioeconomic groups, consistent with prior research suggesting that financial stability reduces parental stress and enhances child safety (Martins et al., 2023). There was also a notable pattern of socio-economic disparities. For example, many members of the Dalit community exhibited a high degree of intent when studying in government schools and education, a finding which indicates that education can help marginalized individuals break through systemic barriers (Jiwani et al., 2022). These findings indicate that education functions as a personal resource and may also serve to mitigate structural disadvantages by providing an equalizing factor.

Predicting Parents' Practice Towards Violence Against Children Between Private and Government Schools

The multivariate regression results concerning parental behaviors aimed at decreasing violence against children demonstrate consistent patterns across different school categories. Household leaders of private schools were significantly more likely to adopt effective parenting practices if they were male. Furthermore, although men were more likely to demonstrate these behaviors than women, they were observed to employ effective parenting practices at a substantially lower rate than women across all categories of household heads. Parents with secondary school education in private schools clearly showed better behaviors than those with only basic education.

The regression analysis identified a significant difference in the VAC between the caregivers of the private school and the government school. It found the difference in where education and gender play a key role. Morris (2009) and Romero-Martínez et al. (2014) highlighted in their research that household gender plays a key role and

male headed household has better in positive practice on parenting. Generally, fathers demonstrated a greater overall deficiency in practices compared to mothers, despite being positioned opposite to the family duties described earlier, highlighting the complexity of gender roles within household responsibilities. Fulu et al. (2017) indicate that disciplinary practices are influenced by gender roles.

Private school programs should address gender role disparities through father-inclusive parental education (Gagné et al., 2023), whereas government school initiatives necessitate community-level approaches that address systemic stressors (Backhaus et al., 2023). Future studies must include both quantitative and qualitative methods to better understand the mechanisms creating the distinctions among types of schools, especially concerning the unexpected patterns of gender found in private education and the unknown determinants of violence in government funded systems. A thorough understanding of these issues is important for designing context-specific strategies to prevent children's exposure to violence in schools.

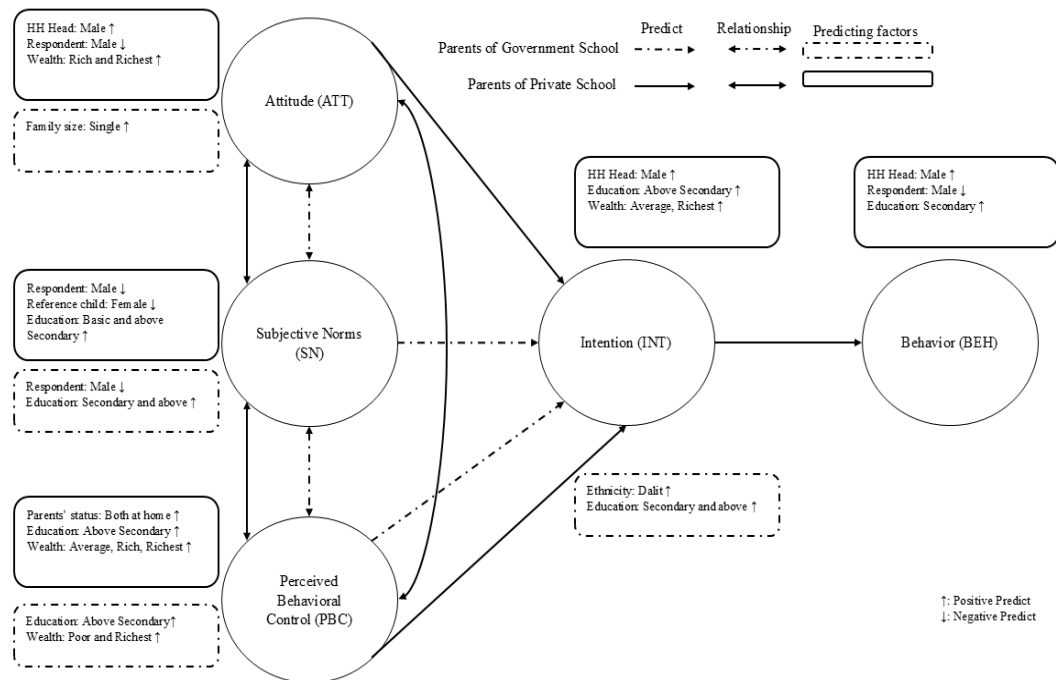
Research-Based Design of the Theory of Planned Behaviors on VAC between Parents of Private and Government Schools

The path analysis of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) demonstrated positive correlations among the components of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), attitude, subjective standards, and perceived behavioral control in forecasting parents' intentions and behaviors regarding violence against children (VAC). In government schools, parental attitudes and social support were strongly associated with perceived control, suggesting that enhanced social backing increases parents' confidence and positive attitudes towards mitigating VAC. Similarly, the caregivers of the private school show that significantly correlated with ATT, SN and PBC, which collectively support increasing the intention on positive VAC. The analysis indicated that perceived control and subjective norms strongly forecast intention in government schools, but intention was the primary determinant of behavior in private schools.

The regression analysis of identified specific factors associated with each TPB component that are related to VAC among parents of private and government school students. Parents' knowledge varied according to gender, employment status, and educational background, with male managers of households demonstrating greater awareness in private school environments, whereas parents with higher educational attainment exhibited increased knowledge levels in government schools. Education, caste, gender, and economic status were all linked to parental attitudes toward VAC,

with parents possessing higher levels of education and greater wealth showing a stronger propensity to respond to VAC compared to their less educated and less affluent counterparts. Parenting methods were analyzed across both private and government school groups, with significant differences in parenting practices with private school caregivers performing better. Single-parent families exhibited reduced rates of positive practice. Physical violence and punishment correlated with the education level of the household, and their education level positively.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) describes the intentions and behavior of parents towards VAC. The degrees of interrelationship between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are strong (Ajzen, 1991). With the path analysis of government schools, the closest path was between perceived control, parental attitudes, and social support, which suggests that enhanced social support supports enhanced parent perceived control and attitudes towards preventing VAC (Hamilton et al., 2020). Alternatively, parents of children in private schools had strong association with the three components of TPB theory and indicative of increased perceived control of VAC preventative capacity parallel with having socially supportive normative beliefs and attitudes, cascading to the intention to act on VAC preventative activities (Jeihooni et al., 2022). Internal to government schools, perceived control and subjective norm were predictors of intention, however when it came to private schools it was intention that was the motivational component for behavior and specificity showed that behavioral pathways differed based on school context (Ajzen, 1991).

Figure 30*Final TPB Model*

(Field Survey, 2025)

Regression analysis further support measuring the impact of the demographic and socioeconomic factors for VAC using the TBP model. More specifically, although educated parents demonstrated higher levels of subjective norms compared to fathers in private school environments, gender differences appeared to be associated with parents' attitudes toward VAC—indicating that socioeconomic factors and/or family structures may have shaped parents' normative beliefs influenced by VAC (Bandura, 1982). Although affluent and educated parents demonstrated greater perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991), the association between the intention to prevent VAC and factors such as economic status, caste, and education suggested that wealthier and more educated parents exhibited higher perceived behavioral control and stronger resolve to act, reflecting disparities in care and protection systems within child-rearing practices.

Additional parental practices also differed according to the type of school. Parents from upper socioeconomic private schools, particularly those who are household heads and identify as male, exhibited more positive behaviors in their interactions with children, whereas single-parent households displayed less favorable

patterns of care—an anticipated finding. Interventions should also address the systemic barriers related to economic inequality and gender, as these obstacles hinder effective intervention against VAC.

Chapter Summary

This study employs the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to determine significant predictors of caregivers' disciplinary behaviors. This indicates that caregivers use PBC as a factor in their decision making and only engage in violence when they believe they have the ability to do so. Conversely, subjective norms (social pressures) in government schools are coded with a greater influence in caregiver decisions. There are also differences in socioeconomic status — caregivers in private schools tend to be wealthier, more educated, and have more access to and openness to using non-violent forms of discipline. Alternatively, the tenuous relationship between attitudes and practice also highlights that entrenched cultural norms are still problematic. Finally, any intervention will need to be pervasive for the specific context and will be able to improve PBC in government contexts using skill building and resource allocation, while also being able to disturb unhealthy social norms at the community level to address levels of violence against children.

CHAPTER VI

RECAPITULATION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This summary highlights the study, including idea generation, methods, and key findings. The findings are presented concisely to make them easier to follow. The recommendations are organized into categories: general advice, guidance for concerned stakeholders, policy implications, and directions for future researchers.

Recapitulation

The research conducted a thorough statistical analysis utilizing both descriptive and inferential methods to examine parental behaviors and attitudes related to violence against children (VAC) in both government and private institutions. The study was based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), which examines the impact of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control on intention and action. STATA 18.0 was employed to analyze data collected from 400 caregivers, 180 from government schools and 220 from private schools. Data were analyzed based on two sets of data: demographic characteristics as well as TPB (theory of planned behavior) constructs such as behavioral belief(s), subjective norm(s), motivation to comply, self-efficacy, and belief in control. Normality was confirmed using skewness and kurtosis assessment and a Shapiro-Wilk test, thus establishing that parametric tests were appropriate for use in subsequent analysis. Given that statistical significance was established at the 0.05 (α) level, cross tabulations, t-tests; and ANOVA were used to detect differences between groups.

The demographic analysis revealed distinct differences between individuals from government and private institutions. In both settings, most caregivers were women. However, a higher percentage of participants in government schools had female caregivers. Only 17.3% of parents in private schools had education beyond secondary school, while the educational level of their children was significantly higher, reaching 17.3%. Only 5.0% of parents of students in government schools possessed education beyond the secondary level. The house structure also varied; children attending private schools predominantly came from families more likely to be joint households and of greater affluence, as evidenced by a higher proportion of private school families belonging to the affluent and richest quintiles. In government institutions, Dalit families were more prevalent than Brahmin or Chhettri families.

Therefore, ethnic distinctions became apparent. Therefore, the demographic factors are also associated to caregivers' attitude, intention and practice on the VAC.

In general, caregivers from private schools exhibited a higher level of knowledge regarding the VAC, which also reflects an overall greater understanding compared to caregivers from government institutions. However, if parental education levels increase, the results and assumptions differ; the data indicate that parents in government schools demonstrate greater awareness, intention, and practice regarding VAC compared to parents in private schools. The gendered knowledge gap is noted, as female caregivers in private schools scored substantially higher than both male caregivers in private schools and male and female caregivers in government schools. Female caregivers in joint families at private schools also reported higher levels of knowledge, which was affected by family household structure. Wealthier families in private schools reported a higher level of awareness, suggesting that being in the highest wealth quintile increases access to information. These scores emphasize the intersection of education, gender, and socioeconomic status in impacting parents' knowledge.

Caregivers also indicated a higher level of support for non-violent discipline methods in private institutions and more positive attitudes toward VAC. Furthermore, male-headed households in private schools reported substantially more progressive attitudes, while female caregivers in these settings also scored higher. Attitudes were significantly influenced by education level, with caregivers in private schools who were literate demonstrating significant improvements in comparison to their counterparts in government schools. The link between economic status and parenting norms was further reinforced by the more positive attitudes exhibited by wealthier households, particularly those in private institutions. Subjective norms, perceived social expectations regarding discipline, were more prevalent among educated parents, particularly in private institutions. In both categories of schools, male respondents reported that the norms against violence were weaker, which is consistent with the broader findings that fathers are more likely to recommend physical punishment.

In private schools, there was a higher level of perceived behavioral control (PBC), which refers to the confidence of parents in managing behavior non-violently. This was particularly true for educated and high-income caregivers. In these contexts, male-headed households reported a higher prevalence of breast cancer (PBC), which

may be attributed to institutional support or resource access. Single fathers in private institutions engaged in caregiving roles with much greater parental efficacy than their government school counterparts, possibly reflecting responsibilities for extended family and community. Parental efficacy in the government schools could have been somewhat attenuated by the effects of socioeconomic conditions and stressors, as the parents in government schools were the least efficacious of the three groups. The findings suggest that parents have a greater feeling of efficacy in private schools because of the greater structural autonomy provided to both parents and educators working in these institutions, which is predominately not the case in government schools, where they struggled with institutional and social conditions for which many of their students had no agency.

PBC and subjective norms were highly predictive of VAC prevention intentions in government schools, and parental attitudes and PBC strongly influenced parents' intentions in private schools. In both school types, educated and wealthy parents, as well as household heads, exhibited stronger VAC prevention intentions, particularly in private institutions.

The regression analyses conducted in the study provided additional insight into the predictors of TPB components and identified the factors. The most important predictors observed in the knowledge gaps are income and gender. Gender, economic stratification, and family structures were the key factors of shaping people's attitudes. PBC was higher in economically stable households, and subjective norms were weakened among male respondents. Education and affluence served to reinforce intentions, while practices were influenced by intricate interplays between gender, authority, and institutional support. These findings underscore the necessity of multilevel interventions and the multifaceted influences on parental behavior.

Educational institutions, given their distinctive role, should question conventional perspectives and offer resources alongside designated spaces for parental education. In this study, we contribute to the literature on the Theory of Planned Behavior by demonstrating that school type functions as a moderator of the relationship and by extending this concept to include under-resourced settings. The findings of this study also offer valuable insights into the significance of customizing approaches, such as child protection, to account for social circumstances in relation to child protection and other domains. Future research should elucidate the implications for intervention strategies aimed at reducing the disparity between intention and

behavior within underserved communities and, more specifically. Ultimately, the protection of children will be achieved through the examination of both personal convictions and the underlying systems that generate these beliefs.

Conclusion

Through this research shows a large gap between the parents of kids attending private vs public schools and their experience with violence against children. Overall private school parents have more knowledge, more progressive views on physical punishment, and greater confidence in their ability to use nonviolent discipline. This indicates that the school setting of a private school, which typically has more frequent parent/teacher contact and greater resource accessibility, contributes to a safer way for parents.

A major takeaway is that even if someone has good intentions to stop committing acts of violence, those intentions will not necessarily be enough changing behaviours. For parents who live in conditions of high socio-economic distress and want to stop behaving violently toward their children, the "intention-behaviour gap" will be one of the barriers they face. The research reinforces the need for parents to have access to more than just information on how to stop using violence; they also need access to emotional support resources and practical assistance to support them in changing their behaviours. The degree to which parents have differently treated their children according to the different socio-economic circumstances that they came from, such as their wealth or educational attainment, has been demonstrated through various studies (including my own work). For example, well-off and well-educated parents will tend to be much more likely to positively reinforce their child's behaviour, as well as understand their rights as parents. Conversely, parents who are employed in government buildings or come from a farming or skilled labour background will have far greater difficulty learning about both these concepts of treating children well and understanding what their parental rights are. This is not to say that they do not care, but rather that they have had very limited exposure to information or to supportive systems that could help them learn and understand.

The dynamics between males and females are very strongly affected by the gender of the caregiver, with female caregivers showing support for the most progressive attitude towards discipline and children in private facilities. On the other hand, male caregivers in both types of schools tended to support the traditional harsher forms of discipline towards children. The evidence suggests we must focus

our efforts on working with fathers and other masculine family members when trying to prevent violence against children to help change the existing view that using physical "control" over children is an important part of being a parent.

The evidence shows that there are three steps that need to be undertaken in order to change the behavior of parents. These are; to improve parents' personal attitudes towards parenting, to change the social "norms" of their community to remove the norm of violence toward children, and to help parents feel more confident that they can manage their children's behavior without resorting to physical punishment or yelling.

Finally, the educational institution that a child is enrolled in is more than an educational institution; it is a part of an overall social and economic support system that is linked directly to a child being safe at home. To effect true change in the way that we help raise our children, we must move the resources and support that exist in private school settings to the government school setting, which will assure that all parents, no matter what their income or background, have the tools and confidence to raise their child without using violence.

Lastly, this dissertation functions as a wake-up call for Nepalese policymakers. The laws and constitutional provisions that are in place to safeguard children are not yet completely implemented in the homes of the most vulnerable. We can establish a society in which all children are safeguarded by informed and empowered parents by emphasizing school-based parent education and community-led programs, thereby bridging the divide between the private and public sectors.

Recommendation

Recommendations of my research is grouped into different sections and for the different stakeholders, of which details are given below.

Parents, educators, and community leaders should prioritize awareness campaigns that highlight nonviolent disciplinary approaches, especially in government schools where knowledge gaps are more severe. Caregivers should be encouraged to adopt healthy parenting behaviors by utilizing educational materials and peer support networks. Male caregivers, particularly those in private schools, should actively participate in parenting programs to reduce attitudinal and behavioral differences. Schools should encourage better parent-teacher interactions to enforce child protection standards and ensure that socioeconomically disadvantaged families receive targeted assistance.

Households should foster joint family structures and economically secure surroundings, as these are associated with increased awareness and fewer violent disciplinary methods. Caregivers with less education should have training on child rights and nonviolent dispute resolution.

While the data indicate that joint family structures correlate with higher knowledge scores—likely due to shared caregiving wisdom—it is recognized that rapid urbanization is making nuclear families the norm. Therefore, creating community-based "Parenting Support Circles" is recommended. These circles can replicate the "shared wisdom" of extended families by providing nuclear-family parents with guidance and emotional support from their peers. This, in turn, can improve their Perceived Behavioral Control in urban settings.

Concerned Stakeholders

School administrators should consider integrating child protection modules to foster parent engagement beyond the capacity of private and public schools to address knowledge and attitude deficiencies. Educators should receive training on how to recognize and report signs of violence against children and on promoting constructive discipline within the classroom.

Therefore, creating community-based "Parenting Support Circles" is recommended. These circles can replicate the "shared wisdom" of extended families by providing nuclear-family parents with guidance and emotional support from their peers. This, in turn, can improve their Perceived Behavioral Control in urban settings. Males assuming primary parental responsibilities necessitate awareness-raising, even when females possess greater knowledge on the subject, to effectively advocate for and transform cultural paradigms in the absence of a paternal figure.

Further, here I have prepared my recommendation to the different stakeholders specifies where are as follows.

In addition to establishing regulations, local governments should initiate the establishment of "Parenting Support Circles" in each ward. Research suggests that the government can replicate the "shared wisdom" of joint families in cities by creating peer-support groups for parents. Additionally, they should prioritize funding for awareness campaigns in neighborhoods with government schools, as these areas presently have the most significant knowledge and resource gaps.

It is necessary that school leaders, particularly those in government institutions, recognize their role as the most critical intermediary between the

protection of children and their parents. Schools should serve as more than just educational institutions for children; they should also serve as centers for parent education. Schools could benefit from holding informal "tea sessions" on a regular basis. These gatherings would provide a space for parents to talk about their discipline struggles. They could also learn non-violent techniques from experts, or even from other parents who have found success in this area.

Frequently, educators are the first to observe indications of domestic violence. They should be trained to serve as mentors for parents, in addition to instructing them on subjects. Rather than merely complaining to parents about a child's "bad behavior," educators should provide parents with positive discipline strategies that they can implement at home. Teachers can contribute to the establishment of a safer environment for their pupils by establishing a partnership with parents that is founded on support rather than judgment.

Although Nepal has effective laws against corporal punishment, this dissertation demonstrates that they are not being applied equally to all individuals. It is imperative that lawmakers guarantee that child protection laws are supported by "Parenting Education Policies." The prohibition of hitting is insufficient; the law should also require that schools and local institutions offer free parenting classes. Moreover, it's important to focus on making child protection services more accessible to people in the lowest income groups, since they are currently the most disadvantaged.

In the future, qualitative studies, including long-term observation or interviews, should be used to ascertain the "intention-behavior gap." While this study provides a good overview statistically, we need to tell the stories behind the reasons why parents engage in VAC or in positive parenting, knowing it to be wrong. Additionally, I suggest that parents in Nepal investigate the significance of digital literacy and social media, as these platforms are increasingly influential in the dissemination of information, whether for positive or negative reasons. Additionally, researchers who continue to pursue this research can observe its influence on the well-being of children, learning achievement, goal setting, and preparedness by extending it to other domains.

This study further assists policymakers in decreasing the incidence of violence against minors. MICS 2019 indicates a higher prevalence of physical punishment and aggression in Nepal and also demonstrates that parents consider such punishment

essential for child discipline. Furthermore, this investigation indicates the actual differences between caregivers of private and government school students regarding VAC. It supports the development of specific policies to reduce VAC and promote positive parenting. Research indicates the necessity for all three levels of government to independently consider the needs of parents associated with government and private schools and to formulate policies tailored to each group.

My Learning and Way Out

What I thought before I started this research was very different from what I found in the end. People who send their kids to private schools are mostly thought to do so for "control." I thought that since they pay a lot of money, they might be more open to harsh punishments and violence against children (VAC) as a way to make sure their kids are well-behaved and successful. I thought that they would be more willing to accept punishment and that their scores on nonviolent views would be very low, probably below the average of 2.5.

But now that I've looked at the data and seen the real results, I have a totally different opinion. I had a lot more respect among parents of private school kids than I thought I would. They weren't more violent than parents in government schools; in fact, they knew more and had more positive, nonviolent views. I came to a very important discovery about this. The "private school" factor is not only about economic power, but also educational quality, both of which can be viewed through the lens of resources and literature. Likewise, parents of children who attend government-run schools may not be as violent as those of their counterparts in private school; yet they have equal educational status due to the way that educational facilities operate.

Another determining factor in whether or not parents will send their children to private schools is the surrounding educational setting, accessibility of information and interaction with school leadership. I was wrong when I first thought that parents of kids in government schools might be "kinder" because they aren't paying for "control." The truth is that parents don't always have many options besides using stricter forms of discipline because the government sector lacks tools and help. I've learned from this that the best ways to change how parents think about and use punishment are through education and easy access to services.

The most important finding from my research is that other people could benefit from what I have found out, that the environment of the parent, including the

school of their child, is also an important variable in determining how effective a parent will be as compared to what they have experienced in their own childhood. Although parents are usually accused of being "harsh," this research has shown that parents can become more nurturing with the help of their child's school community and through greater access to information about their parenting options. It provides evidence that if we want change to happen in relation to how someone behaves. We first need to change that person's environment and the means available for that person to receive assistance.

It's also important to understand the "intention-behavior gap." A lot of people believe that if someone knows they are doing something wrong, they will change. But this study shows that a lot of parents want to stop being violent but don't know how to deal with their own stress or how to handle their child's behavior when things get bad. We need to stop giving "advice" and start giving "skills." This is a very important lesson for people who work in education or social work.

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APPENDICES

Study Tool

KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES, AND PRACTICE OF PARENTS FROM PRIVATE
AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS ON VIOLENCE AGAINST CHILDREN IN NEPAL: A
COMPARATIVE STUDY

नमस्ते! मेरो नाम पेशल कुमार पुरी हो, र म काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालयमा एमफिल गर्दैछु। हाल, म बालबालिकामाथि हिंसा रोकथामसँग सम्बन्धित अभिभावकको दृष्टिकोण, ज्ञान र व्यवहारको अध्ययन गर्दै छु। तपाईंलाई "अर्जुनधारा नगरपालिका, झापाका निजी र सार्वजनिक विद्यालयका अभिभावकहरू बीच बालबालिकामाथि हिंसासम्बन्धी ज्ञान, दृष्टिकोण र व्यवहारहरूको तुलनात्मक अध्ययन" शीर्षकको अनुसन्धान अध्ययनमा भाग लिन निमन्त्रणा दिइएको छ। यस अध्ययनको उद्देश्य सार्वजनिक र निजी विद्यालयको वातावरणमा बालबालिकामाथि हिंसा र त्यसको प्रतिवाद सम्बन्धी अभिभावकहरूको बुझाइ, विश्वास र व्यवहारको तुलनात्मक अध्ययन गर्नु हो। तपाईंको सहभागिताले हामीलाई यस अध्ययनमा सहि ज्ञान प्राप्त गर्न मद्दत पुर्याउनेछ र भिन्न शैक्षिक वातावरणमा यी तत्वहरूको भिन्नता बुझ्नमा सहयोग पुर्याउनेछ। यसले सम्भावित हस्तक्षेप र सहयोगका क्षेत्रमा पहिचान गर्न मद्दत गर्नेछ।

यस अध्ययनमा भाग लिन पूर्णतया स्वेच्छिक हो, र तपाईं कुनै पनि समयमा बिना कुनै परिणामको जानकारी गर्न सक्नुहुन्छ। हामी तपाईंको गोपनीयता सुनिश्चित गर्नेछौं र तपाईंको व्यक्तिगत जानकारीलाई गोप्य राख्नेछौं। संकलित डाटा केवल अनुसन्धानका लागि मात्र प्रयोग गरिनेछ र तपाईंको पहिचानलाई सुरक्षित राख्नका लागि अज्ञात (anonymized) गरिनेछ। व्यक्तिगत जवाफहरू अनुसन्धान टोली बाहेक कुनै अन्य व्यक्तिसँग साझा गरिनेछैन।

भाग लिँदा तपाईंले बाल सुरक्षा र हिंसा रोकथामका बारेमा अभिभावकहरूको ज्ञान र अभ्यासलाई बुझ्नमा योगदान पुर्याउनु हुनेछ। यदि तपाईंलाई कुनै पनि प्रश्न वा चिन्ता छ भने कृपया प्रक्रिया अघि बढाउनुअघि अनुसन्धान टोलीसँग सम्पर्क गर्न सक्नुहुन्छ। तपाईंको सहमति धेरै सराहनीय हुनेछ।

यो छलफल लगभग ३० मिनेट लाग्नेछ। यदि छलफलकोको क्रममा तपाईंलाई कुनै प्रश्नहरू छन् भने कृपया नहिचकिचाई सोध्नुहोस्। यस महत्वपूर्ण अनुसन्धान अध्ययनमा तपाईंको समय र सहभागिताका लागि धन्यवाद।

यदि तपाईंलाई यस अध्ययन वा हाम्रो टोली वा अनुसन्धानका बारेमा कुनै प्रश्न वा गुनासो छ भने, कृपया मलाई ९८६१०१६६२५ मा सम्पर्क गर्नुहोस् वा ईमेल मार्फत peshal_mpps2023@kusoed.edu.np मा लेख्नुहोस्

Section A: Household Demography

क्र.सं.	प्रश्न	उत्तर	स्किप
101	उत्तर कोड		
102	नगरपालिका		
103	वडाको नम्बर		
104	लिङ्ग उत्तरदाताको	१. पुरुष २. महिला	

क्र.सं.	प्रश्न	उत्तर	स्किप
105	उत्तरदाताको जातियता	१. ब्राह्मण/क्षेत्री/दश्रामी २. जनजाति ३. दलित ४. नेवार ५. मुस्लिम/मधेसी ६. अन्य	
106	के तपाईं घरमूली हो?	१. हो २. होइन	
107	परिवारको प्रकार	१. संयुक्त २. एकल	
108	घरमूलीको लिंग के हो?	१. पुरुष २. महिला	
109	के घरमा बच्चाका दुबै अभिभावक हुनुहुन्छ? (घर छोडेको समय ६ महिनाभन्दा बढी)	१. छन दुबै २. बुबा मात्र ३. आमा मात्र ४. दुबै घरमा छैनन्	
110	आम्दानीका स्रोत (मुख्य तीन शीर्ष स्थान)	१. खेती २. विदेश रोजगारी ३. व्यापार ४. दैनिकी श्रम ५. निजी क्षेत्रको जागिर ६. सरकारी क्षेत्रको जागिर ७. अन्य	
111	तपाईंको उच्चतम शिक्षा स्तर के हो?	१. निरक्षर २. साक्षर ३. आधारभूत स्तर ४. माध्यमिक स्तर ५. स्नातक स्तर ६. स्नातकोत्तर र माथि	
112	तपाईंको जीवनसाथीको उच्चतम शिक्षा स्तर के हो?	१. निरक्षर २. साक्षर ३. आधारभूत स्तर ४. माध्यमिक स्तर ५. स्नातक स्तर ६. स्नातकोत्तर र माथि	If 109=1
113	तपाईंको घरमा कति जना परिवार सदस्यहरू छन्?	१. पुरुष >= १८ वर्ष २. महिला >= १८ वर्ष ३. बच्चा <१८ वर्ष (आफैं)	

क्र.सं.	प्रश्न	उत्तर	स्किप
114	यदि दुबै घरमा छैनन् भने, किन?	१. विदेश रोजगारीको लागि २. देशभित्रको रोजगारीको लागि ३. सम्बन्ध विच्छेद/अलगाव ४. मृत्यु ५. अन्य खुलाउनुहोस	
115	बच्चा दर्ता	कक्षा ३-५ पढ्ने बच्चाको मात्र लिन	(Sampled Child)
१	बच्चाको उमेर कति हो? (पुरा भएको वर्ष)		
२	लिङ्ग	केटा केटी	
४	उनी कुन विद्यालयमा अध्ययन गर्दै छन्?	सरकारी विद्यालय निजी विद्यालय	
५	के यस बच्चालाई कुनै अपाङ्गता छ?	छ छैन	
६	यदि हो भने, उनीसँग कुन प्रकारको कार्ड छ?	रातो निलो पहेँलो सेतो कुनै कार्ड छैन	

Wealth quintiles

क्र.सं.	प्रश्न	उत्तर	स्किप
Eq01	के तपाईंको घरमा टेलिभिजन छ?	छ छैन	
Eq02	के तपाईंको घरमा पङ्खा छ?	छ छैन	
Eq03	के तपाईंको घरमा दराज छ?	छ छैन	
Eq04	के तपाईंको घरमा टेबल छ?	छ छैन	
Eq05	के तपाईंको घरमा फ्रिज छ?	छ छैन	
Eq06	तपाईंको घरमा खाना पकाउनको लागि मुख्य रूपमा कुन प्रकारको चुलो प्रयोग गरिन्छ?	द्रव पेट्रोलियम ग्यास/पकाउने ग्यास अन्य प्रकारका चुलो	
Eq07	खाना पकाउनका लागि कुन प्रकारको इन्धन वा ऊर्जा स्रोत प्रयोग गरिन्छ?	दाउरा अन्य प्रकारका इन्धन स्रोत	

क्र.सं.	प्रश्न	उत्तर	स्किप
Eq08	तपाईंको घरको बाहिरी पर्खालको मुख्य सामग्री के हो?	सिमेन्ट अन्य पर्खाल सामग्री	
Eq09	तपाईंको घरको छानाको मुख्य सामग्री के हो?	सिमेन्ट अन्य छानो सामग्री	

Section B: Knowledge questions

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	स हि	गल त	थाहा छैन
१	kn01. शारीरिक सजायले बालबालिकाको मस्तिष्कको विकासमा दीर्घकालीन असर पुर्याउन सक्छ?			
२	kn02. शारीरिक सजायले बालबालिकाको सिकाइमा असर पुर्याउँछ ।			
३	kn03. शारीरिक सजायले बालबालिकालाई आफ्ना भावना (मनको कुरा) व्यक्त गर्न गाह्रो बनाउँछ?			
४	kn04. शारीरिक सजायले बालबालिकामा चिन्ता जस्ता मानसिक स्वास्थ्य समस्याहरू ल्याउन सक्छ?			
५	kn05. शारीरिक सजाय भोगेका बालबालिकाहरू जोखिमपूर्ण व्यवहार (जस्तै लागू पदार्थको सेवन) मा बढी संलग्न हुन सक्छन्?			
६	kn06. बालबालिकाहरूको अधिकारको उल्लङ्घन गर्नेलाई कानुनी सजाय दिने नेपालमा कानुन छ ।			
७	kn07. शारीरिक सजाय दिनु कानुनी रूपमा दण्डनिय गरिएको छ ।			
८	kn08. बालबालिका भन्नाले नेपालमा २० वर्ष भन्दा कम उमेरकालाई जनाउँछ ।			
९	kn09. बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक तथा मानसिक सजाय दिएमा कानुन अनुसार नगद जरिमान पनि हुन्छ ।			
१०	kn10. बिद्यालय शान्ति क्षेत्र हो भन्ने कानुन प्रबधान छ ।			
११	kn11. गैरकानुनि विवाह भनेको १८ वर्ष भन्दा कम उमेरको बालबालिकाले गरेको विवाह हो ।			
१२	kn12. बालबालिकाविरुद्ध हिंसाका घटना रिपोर्ट प्रहरीमा मात्र गर्ने गर्नु पर्छ ।			

Section C: Attitudes

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	एकदम असहमत	असहमत	अनिर्णय	सहमत	एकदम सहमत
1	at01. बालबालिकाले घरका ठुला मानिससँग मुख लाग्नु (मुख फर्काउनु) हुँदैन।					
2	at02. म सानो हुँदा, बालबालिका बढी अनुशासित थिए।					
3	at03. बालबालिकालाई पिट्नु अनुशासनको प्रभावकारी तरिका (बिधि) हो ।					

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	एकदम असहमत	असहमत	अनिर्णय	सहमत	एकदम सहमत
4	at04. बालबालिकाई शारीरिक सजाय बिना पनि ब्यावहार गर्न सकिन्छ ।					
6	at05. पुरुष र महिला दुबैले बालबालिकाको पालनपोषणमा समान जिम्मेवारी लिनु पर्छ।					
7	at06. केटीलाई शारीरिक सजाय दिनु केटालाई दिनु भन्दा खराब हो।					
8	at07. अभिभावकले आफ्नो बालबालिकालाई अनुसासन राख्न आफुलाई सहि लाग्ने विधि (तरिका) अप्नाउन सक्छन ।					
9	at08. कुनै पनि अभिभावकलाई बालबालिकालाई पालनपोषण गर्ने तरिका सिकाउन मिल्दैन ।					
10	at09. अनुशासनको लागि बालबालिकाई सजाय (सारिरिक) नगर्ने अभिभावक राम्रो हैन ।					
11	at10. बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय गर्दा नराम्रो व्यवहार दोहोर्‍याउन्दैनन् ।					
12	at11. बालबालिकालाई यौन शोषण प्रायः बालबालिकाले चिनेका वा नजिकका व्यक्तिबाट हुन्छ ।					
13	at12. गालि गरेर बालबालिकालाई आज्ञाकारी बानाउन सकिन्छ भन्ने म विश्वास गर्छु ।					
14	at13. अभिभावकहरु एक आपसमा झगडा गर्दा त्यसको असर बालबालिकामा पर्छ भन्ने मलाई विश्वास लाग्छ ।					
15	at14. यदि तपाईं बालबालिकालाई पिट्नुहुन्न भने, ऊ बिग्रिन्छ।					
16	at15. अभिभावकले बालबालिकाई कहिलेकाहि कुट्नु बालबालिकाको भलाईको लागि हो ।					
17	at16. शिक्षकले चोटनलाग्ने गरि कुट्नु बालबालिकाको हितको लागि हो ।					
18	at17. शिक्षकले बालबालिकी अर्को नामले (अपमानित नाम) गालि गर्नु बालबालिकाको हितको लागि हो ।					
19	at18. बालबालिकाको शारीरिक सजाय राम्रो होइन, तर कहिलेकाहीँ अनिवार्य हुन्छ।					

Subjective Norms (सरोकारवालाहरुको धाररणा)

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	एकदम असहमत	असहमत	अनिर्णय	सहमत	एकदम सहमत
1	sn01. समाजमा धेरै मानिसहरुले बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय गर्नु एक प्रभावकारी तरिका मान्दछन् भन्ने विश्वास गर्छु ।					

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	एकदम असहमत	असहमत	अनिर्णय	सहमत	एकदम सहमत
२	sn02. मलाई विश्वास छ, परिवारका सदस्यहरूले बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय दिनु सामान्य मान्छन्।					
३	sn03. छिमेकीहरू शारीरिक सजायको प्रयोगलाई सामान्य मान्दछन् भन्ने म बिश्वास गर्छु ।					
४	sn04. मलाई विश्वास छ, धेरै अभिभावकहरू शारीरिक सजायलाई बालबालिकालाई अनुशासन गर्ने तरिकाको रूपमा लिन्छन् ।					
५	sn05. समाजले बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय दिनु एक ठिक कुरा मान्नेमा मलाई बिश्वास लाग्छ ।					
६	sn06. बिद्यालयमा बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय दिनु एक ठीक तरिकाको रूपमा लिन्छन् भन्ने बिश्वास लाग्छ ।					
७	sn07. मलाई विश्वास छ, यदि म बच्चाहरूलाई सजाय दिन्न भने परिवारका अन्य सदस्यहरूले यसलाई गलत मान्नेछन्।					
८	sn08. मेरो समुदायमा शारीरिक सजायको दिनुलाई धेरै मानिसहरू नराम्रो मान्ने गर्छन् भन्ने मलाई बिश्वास लाग्छ ।					
९	sn09. समाजमा शिक्षा बढ्दा शारीरिक सजायको प्रयोग घट्नेछ भन्ने मलाई विश्वास छ।					
	sn10. घरपरिवारमा बालबालिकालाई अर्को नामले गालि गर्नु तिनिहरूको भलाईकै लागि हो भन्ने मलाई बिश्वास लाग्छ ।					

Perceived behavior control (बालबालिकामा हुने हिंसाको सम्बन्धमा आत्म प्रभावकारिता)

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	एकदम असहमत	असहमत	अनिर्णय	सहमत	एकदम सहमत
१	pb01. शारीरिक सजाय नगरी बालबालिकाको व्यवहार सुधार गर्न म सक्छु भन्ने मलाई विश्वास छ ।					
२	pb02. मेरो परिवारको सहयोग बिना बालबालिकालाई राम्रोसँग अनुशासित गर्न गाह्रो हुन्छ भन्ने मलाई लाग्छ ।					
३	pb03. घरायसि काम (जस्तै घरको काम, खेती, वा अन्य जिम्मेवारी)ले बालबालिकालाई अनुशासित गर्न तरिका (जस्तै कुरा गर्नु, समय दिनु, वा खेल खेलाउनु)मा असर गर्छ भन्ने मलाई लाग्छ ।					
४	pb04. समाजले शारीरिक सजाय दिनको लागि मलाई दबाब दिन्छ, तर म यो दबाब नमान्न म सक्षम छु भन्ने मलाई लाग्छ ।					

क्र. सं.	प्रश्न	एकदम असहमत	असहमत	अनिर्णय	सहमत	एकदम सहमत
१	In01. शारीरिक सजाय नगरी बालबालिकाको अनुशासन दिन म सक्षम छु भन्ने मलाई लाग्छ ।					
२	In02. शारीरिक सजाय बिना बालबालिकाको व्यवहार सुधार गर्न म चाहन्छु भन्नेमा म विश्वस्त छु ।					
३	In03. बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय विना पढाउन सकिन्छ भन्नेमा शिक्षक संग छलफल गर्न म सक्छु भन्नेमा मलाई विश्वस्त छु ।					
४	In04. मलाई विश्वास छु, म बालबालिकालाई शारीरिक सजाय नगरी राम्रो व्यवहार सिकाउन चाहन्छु।					
५	In05. म स्थानिय सरकार (पालिका वा वडा) सग बालबालिकाको हितको लागि कुरा गर्न सक्छु भन्नेमा म विश्वस्त छु ।					
६	In06. मलाई विश्वास छ, म मेरो परिवारको सहयोग बिना पनि शारीरिक सजाय नगरी बालबालिकालाई राम्रोसँग अनुशासित गर्न चाहन्छु।					
७	In07. बालबालिकाई अर्को नामले गालि नगरिपनि अनुशासनमा राख्न म चाहन्छु ।					

Section D: Practice-A ()

QN	विधि	कहिले नगरेको	एकदम कम, कहिल्यै नगरेको	आधा समय	प्रायः	सबै समय वा लगभग सबै	मलाई थाहा छैन/ उत्तर दिन
1	p01. म, आफु असहमत भएको कुराम बालबालिकालाई सोध्ने गर्छु ।						
2	p02. म बालबालिको व्यवहार गलत भएको उनिहरुलाई बताउँछु?						
3	p03. मैले, बालबालिकाहरुले गलत गर्दा पकडेर (हात वा सरीरमा झक्झकाउने) सम्झाउँछु ।						
4	p04. मैले मेरो बालबालिकालाई ठूलो स्वरमा कराएको छु ।						
5	p05. बालबालकहरुले गरेको कुनै गल्ति उनिहरुको उमेरको कारण हो जस्तो लागेर केहि गर्दिन						
6	p06. म बालबालिकालाई पिठ्युमा (सरिरमा) थप्पडले पिट्छु।						

QN	विधि	कहिले नगरेको	एकदम कम, कटिबेक्कटि	आधा समय	प्रायः	सबै समय वा लगभग सबै	मलाई थाहा छैन/ उत्तर दिन
7	p07. म बालबालिकालाई पिठ्यु (शरीर) को अन्य भागमा ठोस (जस्तो लाठी वा अन्य ठोस) वस्तुबाट हिर्काउँछु।						
8	p08. म बालबालिकालाई गालि (जस्तै मूर्ख, अलिख वा यस्ता) शब्दहरू प्रयोग गर्छु ।						
9	p09. म बालबालिकालाई शरीरको माथिल्लो भाग (जस्तो अनुहार, टाउको वा कान) मा थप्पड हिर्काउनुछु ।						
10	p10. म बालबालिकालाई शरीरको अन्य (जस्तो हात, खुट्टा वा शरीरको अन्य भाग) मा थप्पड हिर्काउनुछु ।						
11	p11. म बालबालिकालाई कहिलेकाहि लगातार (जस्तो १ भन्दा बढी पटक) हिर्काउँछु।						
12	p12. म बालबालिकालाई गाली (जस्तै गालि, श्राप,) दिन्छु?						
13	p13. म बालबालिकालाई घरबाट निकाल्ने धम्की दिन्छु? (जस्तै घरबाट निकलि)						
14	p14. म बालबालिकालाई थप्पड हिर्काउने वा हिर्काउने धम्की मात्र दिन्छु (तर हिर्काउदिन) ।						

धन्यवाद

Regression Tables

Table 19

Predicting Parental Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices on Child Violence Through Sociodemographic and TPB Constructs

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Household Head Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	-0.36 (0.20)	0.330*** (0.09)	-0.008 (0.10)
Respondent Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	0.184 (0.19)	-0.692*** (0.09)	-0.356*** (0.10)
Child Gender			
Girl (Ref: Boy)	0.09 (0.18)	-0.03 (0.10)	-0.037 (0.10)
Family Structure			
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	-0.344 (0.18)	-0.105 (0.09)	-0.0206
Parents at Home			
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.07 (0.42)	0.282 (0.24)	0.104 (0.21)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	-0.051 (0.24)	0.106 (0.14)	-0.003 (0.13)
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	-0.396 (0.40)	0.214 (0.23)	0.051 (0.26)
Ethnicity			
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.021 (0.23)	0.106 (0.12)	-0.032 (0.13)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.106 (0.24)	-0.249 (0.16)	-0.141 (0.15)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.046 (0.33)	0.004 (0.12)	-0.079 (0.17)
Occupation			
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	0.192 (0.30)	0.155 (0.15)	0.22 (0.16)
Business (Ref: Ag.)	0.597* (0.23)	0.004 (0.18)	0.14 (0.15)
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.144 (0.24)	0.479*** (0.14)	0.04 (0.16)
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.001 (0.23)	0.333* (0.14)	0.289* (0.14)
Education			
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	0.343 (0.22)	-0.029 (0.15)	0.242 (0.14)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	0.757** (0.29)	-0.112 (0.14)	0.322* (0.15)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	1.236*** (0.29)	0.007 (0.16)	0.512*** (0.15)
Wealth Quintile			
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	0.235 (0.29)	0.383 (0.35)	0.153 (0.24)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	-0.18009	-0.006 (0.31)	-0.11316
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	-0.15314	0.131 (0.29)	-0.10428
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	-0.19313	0.17 (0.30)	-0.381 (0.22)
Child Age			
9 years (Ref: 8)	-0.222 (0.31)	-0.249 (0.17)	-0.21 (0.16)
10 years (Ref: 8)	-0.323 (0.31)	-0.0934	-0.328 (0.17)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
11 years (Ref: 8)	-0.118 (0.25)	-0.19 (0.18)	-0.145 (0.15)
Constant	4.193*** (0.44)	4.075*** (0.35)	4.309*** (0.29)
Model Fit			
R ²	0.195	0.366	0.127
BIC	643.4	537.2	1196

Table 20*Predicting Parental Attitude on Violence against*

Predictor (Reference Group)- Attitude of the Caregiver and parents on Violence against Children	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Household Head Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	-0.03 (0.05)	0.130* (0.06)	0.032 (0.04)
Respondent Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	-0.084 (0.05)	-0.197*** (0.05)	-0.156*** (0.04)
Child Gender			
Girl (Ref: Boy)	0.054 (0.04)	0.01 (0.06)	0.009 (0.04)
Family Structure			
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	0.102* (0.05)	-0.051 (0.06)	0.004 (0.04)
Parents at Home			
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.09 (0.09)	0.052 (0.14)	0.073 (0.08)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	0.10 (0.06)	-0.086 (0.09)	0.013 (0.05)
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	0.052 (0.12)	-0.094 (0.13)	-0.008 (0.09)
Ethnicity			
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.022 (0.04)	-0.019 (0.07)	-0.009 (0.04)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.032 (0.05)	-0.16 (0.08)	-0.078 (0.05)

Predictor (Reference Group)- Attitude of the Caregiver and parents on Violence against Children	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.025 (0.06)	-0.038 (0.08)	-0.033 (0.05)
Occupation			
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	-0.13 (0.07)	0.052 (0.09)	-0.035 (0.06)
Business (Ref: Ag.)	-0.111 (0.07)	-0.029 (0.10)	-0.069 (0.07)
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.002 (0.04)	0.109 (0.08)	0.041 (0.04)
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.038 (0.07)	0.118 (0.10)	0.078 (0.07)
Education			
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	0.073 (0.04)	-0.033 (0.08)	0.041 (0.04)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	0.014 (0.09)	-0.077 (0.09)	0.02 (0.06)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	0.128 (0.11)	-0.193 (0.12)	-0.03 (0.07)
Wealth Quintile			
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	0.077 (0.06)	0.212 (0.13)	0.057 (0.06)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	0 (0.06)	0.188 (0.13)	0.001 (0.06)
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	0.026 (0.06)	0.260* (0.13)	0.011 (0.05)
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	0.08 (0.07)	0.392** (0.13)	0.143* (0.06)
Child Age			
9 years (Ref: 8)	0.029 (0.07)	-0.124 (0.12)	-0.015 (0.06)

Predictor (Reference Group)- Attitude of the Caregiver and parents on Violence against Children	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
10 years (Ref: 8)	0.026 (0.06)	-0.155 (0.12)	-0.024 (0.06)
11 years (Ref: 8)	-0.028 (0.06)	-0.097 (0.12)	-0.022 (0.06)
Constant	3.588*** (0.12)	3.756*** (0.18)	3.770*** (0.09)
Model Fit			
R ²	0.185	0.188	0.109
BIC	100.9	308.4	383.3

Table 21*Predicting Parental Subjective Norms on Violence against Children by School Types*

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Household Head Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	-0.07 (0.09)	0.036 (0.06)	-0.052 (0.04)
Respondent Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	-0.190** (0.07)	-0.158** (0.06)	-0.183*** (0.04)
Child Gender			
Girl (Ref: Boy)	0.021 (0.06)	-0.023 (0.06)	-0.007 (0.04)
Family Structure			
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	-0.032 (0.06)	-0.00786	-0.00368
Parents at Home			
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.064 (0.13)	0.033 (0.13)	0.067 (0.09)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	0.103 (0.10)	-0.017 (0.09)	0.048 (0.06)
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	0.066 (0.14)	0.205 (0.15)	0.136 (0.11)
Ethnicity			
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.101 (0.08)	0.158 (0.08)	0.109* (0.05)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.004 (0.08)	0.091 (0.11)	-0.009 (0.06)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.013 (0.10)	0.131 (0.10)	0.063 (0.07)
Occupation			
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	-0.178 (0.10)	-0.114 (0.10)	-0.01015
Business (Ref: Ag.)	0.034 (0.10)	0.005 (0.10)	0.007 (0.07)
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.048 (0.08)	-0.056 (0.09)	-0.057 (0.06)
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.241 (0.13)	-0.061 (0.12)	-0.126 (0.09)
Education			
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	0.134 (0.07)	0.236* (0.10)	0.185*** (0.05)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	0.249* (0.10)	0.089 (0.10)	0.158* (0.06)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	0.359* (0.18)	0.513*** (0.12)	0.530*** (0.08)
Wealth Quintile			
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	0.043 (0.11)	0.186 (0.17)	0.080 (0.09)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	0.025 (0.10)	0.195 (0.15)	0.079 (0.07)
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	0.042 (0.09)	0.196 (0.17)	0.069 (0.07)
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	0.054 (0.10)	0.234 (0.16)	0.125 (0.07)
Child Age			
9 years (Ref: 8)	-0.019 (0.09)	-0.021 (0.13)	-0.001 (0.07)
10 years (Ref: 8)	0.131 (0.10)	-0.015 (0.13)	0.074 (0.08)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
11 years (Ref: 8)	0.017 (0.09)	0.050 (0.14)	0.065 (0.08)
Constant	3.805*** (0.15)	3.758*** (0.19)	3.825*** (0.11)
Model Fit			
R ²	0.187	0.225	0.186
BIC	261.7	351.6	530.7

Table 22*Predicting Parental Perceived Behaviors on Violence against Children by School Types*

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Household Head Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	0.083 (0.13)	0.170 (0.12)	0.098 (0.08)
Respondent Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	0.210 (0.14)	-0.152 (0.11)	-0.009 (0.08)
Child Gender			
Girl (Ref: Boy)	-0.054 (0.11)	-0.047 (0.12)	-0.047 (0.08)
Family Structure			
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	-0.081 (0.13)	-0.170 (0.12)	-0.156 (0.09)
Parents at Home			
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.047 (0.23)	0.468* (0.23)	0.288 (0.17)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	0.266 (0.15)	0.128 (0.17)	0.171 (0.11)
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	0.595 (0.32)	0.479 (0.36)	0.473* (0.22)
Ethnicity			
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.126 (0.13)	0.002 (0.13)	-0.059 (0.09)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.131 (0.16)	0.408 (0.25)	0.192 (0.13)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.147 (0.20)	0.249 (0.20)	0.078 (0.14)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Occupation			
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	-0.342 (0.20)	-0.239 (0.21)	-0.253 (0.14)
Business (Ref: Ag.)	0.267 (0.19)	-0.184 (0.21)	-0.010 (0.15)
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.208 (0.12)	-0.253 (0.17)	-0.0254
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.451 (0.27)	-0.134 (0.23)	-0.182 (0.18)
Education			
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	0.137 (0.11)	0.182 (0.18)	0.158 (0.10)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	0.157 (0.19)	0.243 (0.19)	0.271* (0.12)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	0.735* (0.32)	0.543* (0.23)	0.687*** (0.17)
Wealth Quintile			
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	0.449* (0.19)	0.810 (0.52)	0.515** (0.17)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	0.308 (0.19)	0.818** (0.29)	0.477*** (0.14)
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	0.200 (0.18)	0.603* (0.27)	0.343** (0.12)
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	0.532* (0.22)	0.856** (0.27)	0.606*** (0.13)
Child Age			
9 years (Ref: 8)	-0.082 (0.17)	-0.071 (0.25)	0.026 (0.14)
10 years (Ref: 8)	0.171 (0.17)	-0.049 (0.26)	0.174 (0.15)
11 years (Ref: 8)	0.157 (0.16)	-0.155 (0.26)	0.098 (0.14)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Constant	2.123*** (0.31)	2.208*** (0.36)	2.173*** (0.21)
Model Fit			
R ²	0.25	0.182	0.18
BIC	467.9	630	1025.3

Table 23*Predicting Parental Intention on Violence against Children by School Types*

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Household Head Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	-0.256 (0.23)	0.605*** (0.15)	0.345** (0.12)
Respondent Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	0.361 (0.19)	-0.04494	-0.139 (0.11)
Child Gender			
Girl (Ref: Boy)	0.157 (0.18)	0.016 (0.15)	0.090 (0.12)
Family Structure			
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	-0.032 (0.20)	-0.075 (0.15)	-0.030 (0.12)
Parents at Home			
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.250 (0.40)	0.442 (0.29)	0.303 (0.23)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	0.056 (0.26)	0.018 (0.21)	0.093 (0.16)
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	0.266 (0.43)	0.613 (0.43)	0.569 (0.29)
Ethnicity			
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.468 (0.26)	-0.114 (0.18)	0.077 (0.14)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.649** (0.23)	0.458 (0.26)	0.467** (0.17)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.151 (0.35)	0.016 (0.22)	-0.029 (0.19)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Occupation			
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	-0.512 (0.30)	0.185 (0.24)	-0.108 (0.18)
Business (Ref: Ag.)	0.219 (0.34)	0.080 (0.24)	0.173 (0.20)
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.187 (0.25)	-0.031 (0.21)	-0.124 (0.17)
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.025 (0.45)	0.014 (0.27)	0.025 (0.23)
Education			
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	0.213 (0.21)	0.238 (0.20)	0.223 (0.15)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	0.757* (0.29)	0.307 (0.21)	0.368* (0.17)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	0.849* (0.39)	0.727** (0.27)	0.759*** (0.21)
Wealth Quintile			
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	0.874 (0.49)	0.763 (0.58)	0.749* (0.37)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	0.304 (0.47)	0.787* (0.34)	0.199 (0.32)
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	0.515 (0.45)	0.638 (0.34)	0.094 (0.31)
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	0.636 (0.47)	0.912** (0.34)	0.303 (0.31)
Child Age			
9 years (Ref: 8)	-0.373 (0.31)	0.087 (0.26)	-0.112 (0.21)
10 years (Ref: 8)	0.084 (0.29)	-0.093 (0.27)	-0.046 (0.21)
11 years (Ref: 8)	-0.412 (0.27)	-0.237 (0.26)	-0.339 (0.20)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Constant	2.438*** (0.56)	1.826*** (0.43)	2.525*** (0.37)
Model Fit			
R ²	0.194	0.267	0.144
BIC	660.1	721.2	1313.4

Table 24*Predicting Parental Practice on Violence against Children by School Types*

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Household Head Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	0.082 (0.06)	0.338*** (0.05)	0.265*** (0.04)
Respondent Gender			
Male (Ref: Female)	0.059 (0.05)	-0.543*** (0.06)	-0.313*** (0.04)
Child Gender			
Girl (Ref: Boy)	-0.096 (0.07)	-0.011 (0.05)	-0.053 (0.04)
Family Structure			
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	0.127 (0.09)	-0.095 (0.05)	-0.028 (0.05)
Parents at Home			
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.025 (0.08)	0.137 (0.10)	0.091 (0.07)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	0.069 (0.08)	-0.043 (0.08)	0.011 (0.06)
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	0.192 (0.11)	-0.074 (0.17)	0.020 (0.10)
Ethnicity			
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.00804	-0.127 (0.07)	-0.141** (0.05)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.153 (0.09)	-0.01899	-0.181** (0.06)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.032 (0.07)	0.041 (0.06)	-0.008 (0.05)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Occupation			
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	-0.039 (0.09)	-0.008 (0.09)	0.012 (0.06)
Business (Ref: Ag.)	-0.018 (0.07)	-0.01791	-0.075 (0.07)
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.083 (0.10)	-0.053 (0.08)	-0.078 (0.07)
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.078 (0.09)	-0.018 (0.09)	0.038 (0.07)
Education			
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	-0.010 (0.05)	0.139 (0.08)	0.071 (0.05)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	-0.133 (0.07)	0.204* (0.09)	0.070 (0.06)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	-0.211 (0.12)	-0.061 (0.10)	-0.01272
Wealth Quintile			
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	-0.041 (0.18)	0.103 (0.20)	-0.076 (0.14)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	-0.033 (0.13)	0.204 (0.13)	-0.040 (0.10)
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	0.014 (0.12)	0.141 (0.14)	-0.086 (0.10)
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	0.050 (0.13)	0.118 (0.14)	-0.103 (0.10)
Child Age			
9 years (Ref: 8)	-0.022 (0.08)	0.105 (0.10)	0.070 (0.07)
10 years (Ref: 8)	-0.068 (0.11)	0.186 (0.10)	0.089 (0.08)
11 years (Ref: 8)	-0.111 (0.08)	0.193 (0.11)	0.060 (0.06)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School β (SE)	Private School β (SE)	Combined β (SE)
Constant	4.307*** (0.16)	4.074*** (0.17)	4.333*** (0.13)
Model Fit			
R ²	0.25	0.182	0.18
BIC	467.9	630	1025.3

Table 25*Predicting Parental Positive Punishment and Humiliating Practices on Violence against Children by School Types*

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School			Private School		
	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment
Household Head Gender						
Male (Ref: Female)	0.374 (0.20)	-0.029 (0.09)	0.040 (0.07)	0.558*** (0.15)	0.272*** (0.08)	0.284*** (0.07)
Respondent Gender						
Male (Ref: Female)	0.102 (0.17)	0.139 (0.08)	-0.063 (0.08)	0.179 (0.15)	-0.708*** (0.08)	-0.778*** (0.08)
Child Gender						
Girl (Ref: Boy)	-0.014 (0.15)	-0.090 (0.10)	-0.154 (0.09)	-0.117 (0.15)	0.037 (0.07)	-0.005 (0.06)
Family Structure						
Single parent (Ref: Joint)	-0.041 (0.17)	0.132 (0.12)	0.220 (0.12)	-0.528*** (0.14)	0.030 (0.08)	0.015 (0.07)
Parents at Home						
Father only (Ref: Both)	0.114 (0.34)	-0.051 (0.16)	0.063 (0.09)	0.069 (0.28)	0.092 (0.14)	0.231* (0.11)
Mother only (Ref: Both)	0.545* (0.22)	-0.107 (0.12)	-0.006 (0.07)	0.109 (0.22)	-0.092 (0.11)	-0.076 (0.08)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School			Private School		
	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment
Neither parent (Ref: Both)	0.130 (0.33)	0.148 (0.19)	0.283 (0.15)	-0.318 (0.37)	0.087 (0.22)	-0.121 (0.20)
Ethnicity						
Janajati (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.058 (0.21)	-0.172 (0.11)	-0.135 (0.08)	-0.528** (0.20)	-0.015 (0.09)	-0.023 (0.09)
Dalit (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	0.108 (0.21)	-0.220 (0.13)	-0.228 (0.12)	-0.411 (0.28)	-0.207 (0.16)	-0.097 (0.10)
Other (Ref: Brahmin/Chhetri)	-0.12912	0.100 (0.11)	0.114 (0.09)	0.019 (0.23)	0.023 (0.10)	0.077 (0.09)
Occupation						
Foreign employment (Ref: Ag.)	-0.738** (0.25)	0.287* (0.13)	-0.012 (0.10)	0.047 (0.23)	0.001 (0.12)	-0.052 (0.09)
Business (Ref: Ag.)	0.130 (0.26)	-0.007 (0.11)	-0.121 (0.08)	-0.237 (0.25)	-0.099 (0.13)	-0.0354
Daily labor (Ref: Ag.)	-0.532** (0.20)	0.179 (0.13)	-0.128 (0.13)	-0.233 (0.24)	0.036 (0.13)	-0.050 (0.10)
Other (Ref: Ag.)	-0.924** (0.29)	0.255 (0.15)	0.029 (0.09)	-0.181 (0.24)	0.040 (0.13)	0.012 (0.10)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School			Private School		
	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment
Education						
Basic level (Ref: Literate)	0.092 (0.18)	-0.075 (0.09)	0.008 (0.06)	0.531* (0.24)	0.098 (0.12)	-0.047 (0.10)
Secondary level (Ref: Literate)	0.311 (0.24)	-0.381** (0.14)	-0.101 (0.08)	0.655** (0.24)	0.075 (0.13)	0.089 (0.11)
Above secondary (Ref: Literate)	0.301 (0.34)	-0.532** (0.20)	-0.133 (0.13)	0.333 (0.26)	-0.253 (0.14)	-0.066 (0.11)
Wealth Quintile						
Poor (Ref: Poorest)	0.665* (0.33)	-0.238 (0.22)	-0.227 (0.22)	-0.188 (0.85)	0.124 (0.28)	0.253 (0.23)
Average (Ref: Poorest)	0.863** (0.32)	-0.0684	-0.154 (0.13)	0.565 (0.71)	0.098 (0.21)	0.114 (0.15)
Rich (Ref: Poorest)	0.984*** (0.29)	-0.286 (0.16)	-0.210 (0.14)	0.291 (0.70)	0.082 (0.21)	0.123 (0.13)
Richest (Ref: Poorest)	1.437*** (0.30)	-0.06048	-0.268 (0.14)	0.509 (0.70)	-0.006 (0.21)	0.033 (0.14)
Child Age						
9 years (Ref: 8)	-0.197 (0.24)	-0.006 (0.11)	0.063 (0.10)	0.488 (0.31)	-0.002 (0.17)	0.005 (0.12)

Predictor (Reference Group)	Government School			Private School		
	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment	Pos. Parenting	Phys. Aggression	Phys. Punishment
10 years (Ref: 8)	0.123 (0.26)	-0.138 (0.16)	-0.098 (0.14)	0.112 (0.32)	0.245 (0.17)	0.161 (0.12)
11 years (Ref: 8)	-0.074 (0.23)	-0.183 (0.11)	-0.047 (0.08)	0.186 (0.32)	0.229 (0.17)	0.154 (0.12)
Constant	2.082*** (0.44)	4.809*** (0.24)	5.041*** (0.19)	2.803*** (0.76)	4.249*** (0.27)	4.626*** (0.20)
Model Fit						
R ²	0.372	0.231	0.159	0.319	0.441	0.532
BIC	585.9	377.8	323.2	719.8	428.1	372.5