School-related Gender-based Violence

A global review of current issues and approaches in policy, programming and implementation responses to School-Related Gender-Based Violence (SRGBV) for the Education Sector

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CFS	Child Friendly Schools
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EFA	Education For All
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GBV	Gender Based Violence
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
IOE	Institute of Education, London
IRC	International Rescue Committee
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
LGBTI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans-gendered and inter-sex
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MSC	Most Significant Change
MTR	Mid Term Review
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PLA	Participatory Learning and Action
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
SC	Save the Children
SMC	School Management Committee
SRGBV	School-related Gender-based Violence
SRSG	Special Representative of the Secretary General
SVAGS	Stop Violence against Girls in Schools
TEGINT	Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania
UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAGS	Violence against Girls in Schools
WASH	Water, sanitation and hygiene promotion

1. Overview

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a global phenomenon that knows no geographical, cultural, social, economic, ethnic, or other boundaries. It occurs across all societies and represents a brutal violation of human rights, the worst manifestation of gender-based discrimination and a major obstacle to the achievement of gender equality. It is tolerated and sustained by social institutions, including the school, the very place where we expect our children to be safe and protected. It is a serious obstacle to the right to education and learning, with implications for the ways that people understand and enact their social lives and exercise their citizenship.

The extent to which children are exposed to school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) was brought to the attention of the international community by two studies commissioned by the United Nations Secretary-General in the past decade: the Global Study on Violence against Children[1] and the In-depth Study on All Forms of Violence against Women, both published in 2006.[2] The global presence of SRGBV seriously compromises the ability of UNESCO's Member States and the international community to meet commitments towards the provision of human rights.

Major international frameworks, such as the UN Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and the UN 4th World Conference on Women - Beijing Platform for Action denounce violence and call for measures to protect all human beings, especially women and girls, from all forms of violence. Article 19 of the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) calls on State Parties to take all appropriate measures, including through education, to protect children from all forms of violence, including sexual abuse. UN Resolution 61/143 (2007) regarding the 'Intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women', calls upon the international community, including the United Nations system, to enhance national efforts to eliminate violence against women and girls, including through 'the sharing of guidelines, methodologies and best practices'. Until the World Report on Violence against Children was published in 2006, however, little attention was paid to the school as a forum for violence against children. Since then, it has received increasing attention in national and international agendas. The priority theme of the 57th session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), planned for March 2013, is the 'Elimination and prevention of all forms of violence against women and girls', with prevention and the provision of support services to victims/survivors being the main focus.

In preparation for the CSW meeting, an experts meeting on GBV was held in Bangkok in September 2012, in order to explore ways of preventing and addressing GBV through a multi-sectoral approach with a focus on legal and policy guidelines. Education has been identified as one of the priority areas for strategic intervention. However, the

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[1] United Nations (2006) World Report on Violence against Children, New York: UN
http://www.unviolencestudy.org/
[2] United Nations (2006) In-depth Study on all Forms of Violence against Women, New York: UN
http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/SGstudyvaw.htm.

transformative potential of schools to empower individuals, to champion gender equality and challenge violence against women and girls depends on a school environment that is itself safe and violence free. This review of current issues and approaches in policy, programming and implementation responses to SRGBV has been commissioned by the HIV and Health Education section in the Education Sector at UNESCO to contribute to the development of comprehensive evidence-informed policy guidelines for the prevention and elimination of SRGBV in and through education.

Despite the call for action and the increasing awareness among governments, civil society and the international community of the scale of SRGBV, efforts to address it have been patchy and largely ineffective. The evidence base for the global scale and nature of the problem is limited and there is little collective intelligence to date on best practice in either prevention or response, e.g. on what makes intervention successful, how to measure success and how to scale up promising initiatives. Yet, we know that SRGBV continues to be a serious barrier to educational participation, especially of girls, and casts doubt on the school as an appropriate forum for educating young people about gender equality, non-violent behaviour and sexual and reproductive health. Schools have the potential to bring about change but this cannot be effective if they are simultaneously sites of gender inequality and violence. This review seeks to advance our knowledge and learning in this field, both in terms of what we know about the phenomenon and its impact on individuals, and on how best to address it, including through education.

We start the review with a brief explanation of the conceptual framework and of the problematic nature of definitions of GBV, followed by a brief note on our methodology. The substance of the review follows, first summarising the research evidence on SRGBV by region, and then outlining approaches to policy, programming and implementation, with key messages for the education sector and for UNESCO's role in the post-MDG era.

2. Conceptual Frames for SRGBV

The right to education and gender equality are central to development objectives described both in the Education for All (EFA) agenda and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). These objectives have been important in drawing international attention and effort to educational issues and over time considerable gains in access to education have been realised. Nevertheless, there are still over 60 million children out-of school globally, with some 57% being girls.[3] As such, gender equality is integral to the achievement of universal access to education.[4] We know that GBV within and around schools has a significant impact on educational participation and gender equality[5] and that it requires particular attention in the continuing drive towards EFA and the achievement of the MDGs, and will need to remain firmly on the international agenda in

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[3] UNESCO (2012) Reaching out-of-school children is crucial for development. GMR Policy Paper 4, June 2012, Paris, UNESCO

[4] Unterhalter, E. (2005) Global inequality, capabilities, social justice: The millennium development goal for gender equality in education. *International Journal of Educational Development 25* (2005) 111–122

[5] Leach, F. and Mitchell, C. (eds) (2006) *Combating Gender Violence in and around Schools*, Stoke-on-Trent, UK and Sterling, USA: Trentham

the post-2015 era. We also know that it can heighten the risk of HIV infection for children and adolescents, which also has an impact on enrolment and retention.

At a fundamental level, a conceptual grasp of both educational access and gender equality is vital to understandings of progress towards achieving the EFA goals and the education-related MDGs and where and how we might support intervention for further progress. As the international education goals stipulate, it is access to quality education that is important and this clearly goes far beyond simple enrolment.[6] Likewise, gender parity in the number of children gaining admission to school is only a first base indicator of gender equality. While it is an important statistic, it cannot inform us much about how gender plays out with respect to the broader notion of educational participation. The greater difficulties experienced by girls in gaining admission **to** school indicate forms of gender discrimination that are socially and culturally embedded within communities, while the higher proportions of female drop-outs[7] also suggest that forms of gender discrimination **in** school are working to push out those who have managed to get into school. Gender inequalities are most apparent in societies characterised by deeply ingrained structures of authoritarianism and patriarchy, in which women are particularly powerless. At the same time, gender inequalities interact with other social markers such as class, ethnicity, race, caste, sexuality and religion to create complex patterns of discrimination which are difficult both to map out and to address.

Recent education research has reflected this complexity, moving from definitions based on the binary categories of female and male to more contextualised understandings of gender as a social construction comprising multi-faceted and shifting identities. Nevertheless, confusion over what we mean by 'gender' and also by 'violence', and the link between them in educational settings has impeded efforts to provide a comprehensive and reliable picture of the nature and scale of SRGBV globally.

Understandings of what constitutes GBV vary. 'Gender', a social construct, is often conflated with 'female', a biological classification. This confusion has led to GBV being widely interpreted as 'violence against women', as in the 1993 UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, where it is defined as 'any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life' (Article 1). The prevalent view is that GBV is mostly about what men do to women; so, in an educational context, perpetrators of violence are assumed to be male students and teachers and their victims to be female students (and sometimes female teachers). Yet, identity construction is complex and violence can be perpetrated **within** as well as **across** gender lines (i.e. by both males and females on both males and females). To add further complexity, what constitutes a violent act is not straightforward: the earlier narrow interpretation of violence as purely physical has given way to a wider and more nuanced understanding which includes

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[6] CREATE (2011) Making Rights Realities: Researching Educational Access, Transitions and Equity, University of Sussex, CREATE

[7] Sabates,R., Akyeampong,K.,Westbrook, J. and Hunt, F. (2011) School Drop out: Patterns, Causes, Changes and Policies. Background paper prepared for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001907/190771e.pdf

psychological and emotional forms such as name-calling, humiliating punishments and threats. Determining acts of sexual violence is particularly problematic as the boundaries between coercive and consensual sex are often blurred by the economic, social and/or cultural constraints which afford limited life choices, for girls in particular. Corporal punishment, too, is classified by some as violence and a human rights violation, whereas to others it is a valid and effective form of discipline. UNESCO supports the global consensus that it is ineffective and dangerous.

One definition of SRGBV, from Plan International,[8] reflects the position adopted in this review: SRGBV 'refers to acts of sexual, physical or psychological violence inflicted on children in and around schools because of stereotypes and roles or norms attributed to or expected of them because of their sex or gendered identity. It also refers to the differences between girls' and boys' experience of and vulnerabilities to violence.'

The concept of gender as a social construct means that it is amenable to change. The dynamic nature of our interlinked identities allows for individual agency within institutional structures and provides space for manoeuvre, social change and intervention by governments, communities and international agencies. In other words, interventions can be designed to encourage changes in those attitudes, beliefs and behaviours around gender and gender relations that produce inequality, discrimination and violence.

The school, the home and the community are all prime sites for the construction of gender identities and gender relations built on socially sanctioned inequalities. However informal they may appear, these social institutions are organised by different power and authority structures that describe different roles or social positions and functions for different members.[9] In families, for example, both gender and age confer differences in status, privileges, responsibilities and everyday activities. This hierarchy operates in a similar way in schools and provides an important basis for relations between teachers and students and among students, in which gender interacts with age and authority to create a powerful form of control. Those who do not accept the dominant norms promoted through this institutional hierarchy risk discrimination, victimisation and exclusion.

Traditions of institutional practice work to 'normalise' forms of discrimination and violence to make them appear to be 'the ways things are' and not available to change. These everyday practices reinforce and perpetuate notions of adult authority over the child and of male superiority over females already learnt in the home. Much institutionalised violence is low key and taken for granted; in this way, it goes unnoticed, unpunished and often condoned. In educational settings where scrutiny and accountability are weak, or where staff are poorly trained, paid and motivated, vulnerable students, such as those who struggle to pay fees and other costs or who are 'different' in some way, are more likely to experience violence. Female students living in

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[8] Greene, M., Robles, O., Stout, K. and Suvilaakso, T. (2013) *A girl's right to learn without fear: working to end gender-based violence at school.* Woking: Plan International

[9] Dunne, M. (2008) *Gender, sexuality and development: education and society in sub-Saharan Africa.* Rotterdam, Sense Publishers.

poverty are at particular risk of sexual exploitation, often accompanied by increased exposure to HIV. [10]

To understand gender as a social construction acknowledges the significance of context to the production of gender identities, with essentialised and stereotypical notions of gender based on male and female being replaced by multiple and shifting identities. In working cross-culturally, therefore, it is important not to make assumptions about social rules, norms and meanings, nor about terminology, especially when it involves meanings around gender and sexuality.[11] This is especially the case as research and public knowledge about the global South is often cast in theoretical and ethical terms that emanate from dominant perspectives in the global North, whose citizens tend to regard themselves as more gender equal. In the same vein, in these latter contexts, we witness the imposition of middle class cultural sensibilities through constructions of social 'respectability' that describe deeply gendered codes of acceptable social behaviour, as for example highly classed images of 'ladies and gentlemen'.[12]

Understanding the local circumstances, cultures and traditions that produce context-specific manifestations of, and responses to, GBV, is vital if interventions are to be intelligently designed and implemented. They need to be based on situational analyses through which manifestations of gender inequality and forms of SRGBV are understood, and appropriate indicators with which to monitor and evaluate the intervention developed. The difficulties associated with this should not be underestimated given the often normalised and mundane incidence of certain forms of violence, the challenge this may offer to entrenched social and cultural norms and the sensitivities around gendered and sexual behaviours.

3. Defining the problem

Since the publication of the UN World Report on Violence against Children in 2006, a wide range of initiatives have been undertaken to combat violence against children, including in schools. Their efforts, however, have not on the whole had a strong gender focus. The most common typology of school violence used in both research and intervention identifies three types - physical, sexual and psychological – which refer to three main forms: a) corporal punishment, b) sexual violence and c) bullying (although they are not necessarily exclusive to each other, e.g. bullying may be physical or psychological, and it usually has sexual overtones). Unfortunately, this typology has often resulted in the term GBV being conflated with sexual violence, with corporal punishment and bullying set apart as gender-neutral phenomena.[13] The term GBV has

[10] Mirembe, R. and Davies, L. (2001) Is Schooling a Risk? Gender, Power Relations, and School Culture in Uganda, *Gender and Education*, 13, 401-416

[11] Oyěwùmí, O. (2002) Conceptualizing gender: the Eurocentric foundations of feminist concepts and the challenge of African epistemologies. *JENDA: A Journal of Culture and African Women's Studies*, 2(1) www.jendajournal.com

[12] Skeggs, B. (1997) *Formations of Class and Gender: Becoming respectable*. London: Sage

[13] In one study in Malawi funded by ActionAid and UNICEF (Bisika, T. et al, 2009, Gender violence and education in Malawi: a study of violence against girls as an obstruction to universal primary school education, *Journal of Gender Studies*, 18: 3, 287-294) gender violence is defined as unsolicited and inappropriate touching (mostly of girls) while in another in Ghana (Proulx, G., 2011, Male sexual and gender-based violence in schools: barriers to community action and strategies for change, the case of Awaso, Ghana, Master's thesis University of Ottawa), it is equated solely with male sexual violence.

also been used inconsistently among the many international agencies who have adopted it. This makes assessing the scale and nature of school violence very difficult.

An alternative approach to the separation of sexual violence from other forms of violence is one which accepts that all manifestations of violence, including corporal punishment and bullying, have their roots in inequitable gender relations. Indeed, it can be argued that the three types of violence are inter-related and difficult to isolate both conceptually and practically. For example, a schoolgirl who grants sexual favours to a male teacher will expect to avoid being beaten, whereas one who turns the teacher down might risk being singled out for beating or other forms of victimisation; boys who are themselves beaten or observe male teachers behaving inappropriately with certain girls may also use physical violence to procure sexual favours and other benefits for themselves. According to this viewpoint, research that does not engage with the gendered nature of school violence, and the gender regime that encourages it, is unlikely to advance understanding of the issues, and subsequent interventions are unlikely to be effective. This has implications for strategies to address corporal punishment and bullying.

Most of what is labelled 'bullying' is in fact GBV, and is often overtly sexualised, although bullying and sexual violence continue to be treated separately in much of the literature.[14] Early studies of school bullying, informed by psychological perspectives, tended to ignore societal influences,[15] focusing instead on explanations framed in terms of individual deviance or aberration. Individual pathologies, however, deflect attention away from the social and institutional settings that are the contexts within which bullying and other forms of coercion take place. More recent studies reveal a shift towards understanding the school and peer cultures which encourage bullying behaviour and an acknowledgement that bullying takes gender differentiated forms, e.g. boys use physical aggression while girls tend to use relational bullying or indirect aggression.[16] There is an important legal difference too: the gender-neutral term 'bullying' acts as a euphemism for more troubling behaviours such as racism, homophobia and sexism, conveniently sidesteps human rights legislation that is applicable in cases of sexual violence, and deflects the school's legal responsibility to provide a safe and equitable learning environment.[17] We therefore consider bullying as a form of GBV in this review and treat it as such. We will pay particular attention to homophobic bullying.

The most widely reported form of school violence is in fact corporal punishment. The recommendations made in the UN World Report on Violence against Children has galvanised the global campaign formed in 2001 to eliminate all corporal and other

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[14] e.g. Plan (2008) The Global Campaign to End Violence in Schools, Woking: Plan Limited; Jones N. et al. (2008) Painful Lessons: the politics of preventing sexual violence and bullying at school, Working paper 295, London/Woking: ODI/Plan; UN (2006) op.cit.; Strauss, S (2011) *Sexual Harassment and Bullying: A Guide to Keeping Kids Safe and Holding Schools*, Rowman and Littlefield

[15] e.g. Olweus, D. (1999) *Bullying at School: what we know and what we can do*, Oxford: Blackwell; Smith, P. (ed) (2003) *Violence in Schools: the response in Europe*. London and New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

[16] Dunne, M., Sabates, R., Bosumtwi-Sam, C., & Owusu, A. (2012) School Violence and School Attendance: Analyses of Bullying in Senior High Schools in Ghana. *Journal of Development Studies*, 1-16

[17] Stein, N (2003) Bullying or sexual harassment? The missing discourse of rights in an era of zero tolerance, *Arizona Law Review*, 45,783-799

humiliating punishments against children, whether in the school, home and the community.[18] Save the Children, Plan International and UNICEF (through its Child-Friendly Schools programme) have been at the forefront of these efforts in educational settings. Disappointingly, however, the campaign has failed to embrace corporal punishment as a gendered practice, linked to performances of aggressive masculinity and pivotal in sustaining the gender (and age) regimes of schools.[19] It is known that male teachers are more likely to make use of physical punishment in disciplining boys, as a means of asserting male authority and toughening them up in a rite of passage into male adulthood, while female teachers' preference for verbal chastisement may stem from the fear that male students, particularly older ones, will contest female authority and refuse punishment, as well as from a dislike of physical exertion as 'unladylike'. Where girls are beaten, this is supposed to be socialising them to be obedient wives and mothers. The persistence and widespread misuse of corporal punishment implicitly endorses physical violence in school relations, and its elimination will require addressing the gender-inequitable regime that allows it to flourish and which endorses aggressive masculinities.

A further difficulty in gathering research evidence on SRGBV arises from the varying terminology used. The incidence of violence reported in interviews and surveys depends heavily on the term used, on how widely or narrowly it is interpreted and whether the questions relate to perceptions of violence or personal experience. For example, sexual abuse is generally defined as the sexual exploitation of children by adults, and therefore more serious than sexual harassment, which is interpreted more widely as any unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature intended to offend, humiliate or intimidate, and usually refers to adolescents and adults. However, this distinction is not always made. In turn, sexual violence may be interpreted narrowly as referring only to serious assault and rape, or more widely to include sexualised taunts, gossip, humiliation or intimidation. Furthermore, regardless of terminology, the data gathered are not always disaggregated and analysed by gender, and, if quantitative data, preclude the possibility of exploring the context-specific realities that help explain the emerging complex patterns of inequality and discrimination.

In seeking to understand the nature of GBV in schools, it is important to draw a distinction between explicit and implicit, or symbolic, forms of violence. *Explicit* SRGBV may include unwelcome and unsolicited physical contact such as kissing, touching, pinching or groping, sexual advances, name calling, taunts, and verbal abuse - including teachers' sexist or derogatory comments in class – which is intended to humiliate or intimidate (as when using words such as 'slut', 'whore', 'bitch', 'slag', 'gay' or 'fag'), ostracising and silencing tactics, coerced viewing of sex acts or pornography, beatings, sexual assault, forced sex and rape. Implicit or *symbolic* SRGBV covers actions that are less visible and more mundane, and which are endorsed and reinforced by the everyday practices and structures that fill the school day with rules, norms and symbols that guide and regulate behaviour and legitimise discrimination against those who resist. These

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[18] Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children
http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org/pages/reform/campaigns.html
[19] Humphreys, S. (2008) Gendering corporal punishment: beyond the discourse of human rights, *Gender and Education*, 20,5, 527-540

taken-for-granted, routine practices of schooling (sometimes referred to as the 'hidden curriculum') are dominated by a normative heterosexuality in which masculinity is associated with aggression and superiority, while femininity requires obedience, acquiescence and making oneself attractive to boys.[20] So, certain forms of behaviour may be trivialised as a natural sex-related characteristic, such as 'boys will be boys' or 'schoolgirl gossip'. Girls and boys who step beyond this 'gender regime' know that they may well become the target of varying types and degrees of violence. Yet, despite the importance attached to discipline by school personnel, acts of violence often go unreported and unpunished. Students may not report incidents out of fear of victimisation, punishment or ridicule, or because they accept violence as normalised and an accepted part of school life, and teachers may consider such incidents as not worthy of reprimand and may discourage formal complaints so as to protect colleagues. In this way, violence becomes accepted in adolescent relationships and perpetuated into adulthood.[21]

Most of the early studies of SRGBV (usually framed as the sexual abuse of girls) focused on heterosexual violence, but recent studies have grappled with a more complex categorisation, moving beyond the scenario of male perpetrator and female victim to uncover new patterns of violence both *among* males and *among* females (rather than between them). These include homophobic violence towards lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender students (and teachers) on the grounds of their sexual orientation, and new forms which confound the usual authority/age hierarchy, e.g. sexual violence perpetrated by students (usually male) on teachers (usually young and female) and female teachers procuring sex from male students. Homophobic violence, realised in forms of physical and sexual violence, is compounded by forms of symbolic violence produced also by the exclusion of anything other than heteronormative versions of gender and sexual identities and relations within educational discourse and curriculum texts.

A recent report on a baseline study of violence against girls in schools in three African countries conducted by ActionAid with the Institute of Education in London[22] identifies three separate strands of research on SRGBV. The first strand is preoccupied with uncovering the incidence and prevalence of individual acts of violence. The second shifts the focus from individuals and acts to institutions and social structures and the ways in which these produce violence and perpetuate unequal gender relations. The third strand focuses on interactions and the ways in which violence is enacted within and through everyday relations, including how violence is experienced, negotiated and resisted within the school and beyond. While the strands are not intended to be chronological, most of the early research on SRGBV fits within the first strand, which continues to be

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[20] Dunne, M., Leach, F. et al. (2005) *Gendered school experiences: the impacts on retention and achievement in Botswana and Ghana.* London: DFID

[21] Dunne, M., Humphreys, S. and Leach, F. (2006) Gender Violence in Schools in the Developing World, *Gender and Education*, 18, 1, 75-98; Leach, F. et al. (2003) *An Investigative Study of the Abuse of Girls in African Schools.* Education Research Report No. 54. London: DFID; Mirsky, J. (2003) *Beyond Victims and Villains: addressing sexual violence in the education sector.* London: Panos

[22] Parkes, J. and Heslop, J. (2011) A Cross-country Analysis of Baseline Research from Kenya, Ghana and Mozambique http://www.ActionAid.org/publications/cross-country-analysis-baseline-research-kenya-ghana-and-mozambique

influential with policymakers who demand hard evidence of the scale of the problem before they are willing to consider new polices and/or legislation. Many within the UN family and some bilateral agencies and INGOs have focused on gathering and acting on this kind of evidence. There is however increasing acceptance that, without an understanding of the social and institutional structures that create and perpetuate violence, and the ways in which unequal gender relations underpin violence and disproportionately affect women and girls, policymaking and legislation will not be effective.

This review takes SRGBV to include all forms of violence, including fear of violence, that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm to both females and males. It covers both explicit and symbolic forms of violence, violence which takes place on school premises, on the journey to and from school, and in school dormitories and other school related facilities; violence perpetrated by teachers and other education personnel, students and community members, both female and male, and both across and within gender lines. Individuals may be victims or perpetrators, or both.[23]

4. Study methodology

This global review is based on a systematic search of research-based evidence on SRGBV and on responses by international and national agencies to the phenomenon. We have used personal knowledge and contacts, Google Scholar and other internet resources, including the websites of organisations known to work in this field, also email enquiries and published material. We have drawn heavily on a recent review of promising practice in addressing SRGBV completed for the INGO Concern Worldwide, during the preparation of which numerous skype conversations were held.[24] Additional searches were made for recent material using search terms such as violence, gender based, school based violence, in school violence, masculinity, sexuality, HIV and AIDS, with emphasis on post-2008 material and on countries in the global South.

We move now to a brief synthesis of recent research evidence regarding SRGBV in different regions of the world, identifying important gaps in our knowledge, the link between SRGBV and HIV, and particular challenges of engaging in research in this field. This will be followed by an assessment of the impact of policy, programming and implementation responses to SRGBV, highlighting a number of interventions as examples of promising practice and pinpointing challenges that emerge from the review, including in monitoring and evaluation. We then outline some of the opportunities for, and experiences from, the education sector in addressing SRGBV, and identify key messages in global guidance. A number of recommendations useful for the post-MDG era are offered.

A list of resources and individuals contacted is listed in Annex 1.

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[23] Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is usually considered a form of gender-based violence. This will not be covered here as it does not relate directly to schooling.

[24] Leach, F, Slade, E and Dunne, M (2012) Desk Review for Concern Worldwide: Promising Practice in School Related Gender Based Violence Prevention and Response Programming Globally. Concern Worldwide, Dublin, August

5. Research-based Evidence on SRGBV

5.1. Current knowledge of the nature, scale, causes and consequences of SRGBV

This section provides a brief overview of current knowledge of the nature and scale of the problem by region. There are few large scale national or multi-country studies, such as those carried out by the Population Council in the field of reproductive health, poverty and HIV/AIDS which can provide statistical data to illuminate the scale of the problem and convince policymakers and politicians of the urgency of action. Although research into violence in schools has been carried out by a number of international development and UN agencies, most studies which have been underpinned by a *comprehensive gender analysis* have been carried out by academics and researchers, and by INGOs such as ActionAid and national NGOs such as Raising Voices, a Ugandan NGO which works across the region to mobilise communities against GBV and AIDS, and Instituto Promundo, a Brazilian NGO which works internationally to promote caring, non-violent and equitable masculinities and gender relations. The need for governments to develop a national research agenda, employing both qualitative and quantitative methodologies and generating data disaggregated by sex and age, was one of the recommendations made in the 2006 UN Report on Violence against Children. There has been limited progress in this respect.

5.1.1. Nature and scale

Almost all the studies that have consistently framed violence in schools in gendered terms have focused on one region of the world, namely Sub-Saharan Africa, much of it concerned with the sexual abuse of girls. This may be in part due to international concern over the high level of young people's exposure to HIV in that region, to more tolerant social attitudes towards sex outside marriage and to the need to address sexual violence of girls and young women in conflict settings such as Rwanda, Sudan and the DRC. Funding of research studies on girls' education by bilateral donors anxious to close the gender gap may also have contributed to interest in this aspect of school violence. This is in sharp contrast to countries of the global North and the Asian, Latin American and Caribbean regions, where until recently violence in schools has been largely regarded in gender-neutral terms as bullying or gang violence and not perceived as being rooted in unequal gender relations, and where sexual harassment has been largely seen as confined to universities. In all locations where there is ongoing military or civil conflict, fear of rape by soldiers or rebels is an additional burden for school-going girls (and to a lesser degree boys). The range of different emphases in researching school violence together with the predominance of gender-based research from a single region has complicated the search for a balanced and reliable global picture. Nevertheless, studies and reports have started to emerge which suggest that in most regions SRGBV is a common phenomenon.

The Global North: Most large scale studies of school violence to date have been carried out in the global North, especially the USA and Western Europe; they have mostly

focused on bullying and rely on a superficial analysis of quantitative data which precludes exploring the social and institutional factors which underpin the phenomenon.[25] A few qualitative studies have raised the issue of violent behaviours in exploring gender and sexuality issues in education.[26] Despite widespread concern about the high incidence of male sexual violence against women in society, there is surprisingly limited research into sexual violence in schools.[27] More recently, however, studies of dating violence, cyber-bullying and homophobic violence, as well as heightened concerns over the frequency of school shootings in the USA by disaffected adolescent males, has turned attention towards a broader understanding of schools as sites of violence.

Sub-Saharan Africa: Much of the early research on SRGBV in Sub-Saharan Africa consisted of small case studies focusing on the sexual abuse of girls, with qualitative data generated from interviews, focus group discussions or questionnaires with small samples of respondents. Since 1998, studies have been carried out in schools in at least 15 Anglophone countries, seven Francophone countries and one Lusophone (Mozambique) in the region. They concur in reporting consistent patterns of violence against girls by both male students and teachers, ranging from low-level gratuitous taunts, threats and gossip, through unsolicited physical contact such as touching of breasts or buttocks to convey subtle messages of power, to serious sexual assault and rape.[28] Figures for the rape of school-age girls in Southern Africa are staggering.[29] Older male students are most often the perpetrators, but there are consistent and widespread reports from both girls and boys, including in primary schools, that teachers demand sexual favours from girls, often in exchange for goods or preferential treatment: this might comprise money, gifts or food, or special attention in class, high grades in tests and exams, protection from corporal punishment, private tuition or promises of marriage, with threats of exam failure, punishment or public ridicule if their demands are not met. Statistical

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[25] e.g. Akiba, M., LeTendre, G.K., Baker, D.P. and Goesling, B. (2002) School victimization: national and school system effects on school violence in 37 nations, *American Educational Research Journal,* 39,4, 829-853; Smith (2003) op.cit.; Debarbieux, E. (2011) A l'Ecole des Enfants Heureux… Enfin Presque, Observatoire International de la Violence à l'Ecole, UNICEF France

[26] e.g. Kehily, M.J. (2002) *Sexuality, Gender and Schooling: Shifting Agendas in Social Learning.* London: Routledge Falmer; Mac an Ghaill,M. (1994) *The Making of Men: masculinities, sexualities and schooling.* Milton Keynes, Open University Press

[27] Exceptions include: AAUW (2011) Crossing the Line: Sexual harassment at school, Washington DC: AAUW Educational Foundation; Stein (2003) op.cit. (in the USA); Duncan, N. (1999) *Sexual Bullying: Gender Conflict and Pupil Culture in Secondary Schools.* London, Routledge (in the UK); Timmermann, G. (2003) Sexual harassment of adolescents perpetrated by teachers and by peers: an exploration of the dynamics of power, culture and gender in secondary schools, *Sex Roles*, 58, 5-6 (in the Netherlands)

[28] For references, see Parkes and Heslop (2011) op.cit.; UNICEF, Plan International, Save the Children Sweden and ActionAid (2010) *Too Often in Silence: A Report on School-Based Violence in West and Central Africa*, Nairobi: UNICEF www.e4conference.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/04/14en.pdf; UN (2006) op. cit.; Leach and Mitchell, op.cit.; USAID (2003) *Unsafe Schools: A literature Review of School-Related Gender-Based Violence in Developing Countries* (Washington, DC: USAID) www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/pubs/unsafe_schools_literature_review.pdf; Devers, M. et al (2012) *Les Violence de genre en Milieu Scolaire en Afrique Subsaharienne Francophone.* ADEA/Ministère des Affairs étrangères et européeennes

[29] According to one source, more than 30% of girls in southern Africa are raped in and around school (Prinsloo, S., 2006, Sexual harassment and violence in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education* 26, 2, 305–1); according to another, 17% of school-going adolescent girls reported being raped at school (cited in M. Geldenhuys, 2011, Gender-based Violence in the Age of AIDS, Masters thesis, University of Kwazulu-Natal), and more than 55,000 cases of rape are reported annually (South African Police Services, 2010).

information is hard to find as few quantitative surveys have been carried out and – surprisingly given their emphasis on sexual violence - the data are not always disaggregated by sex.[30] Nevertheless, police statistics on rape and sexual assault, and media coverage of individual cases, provide compelling evidence to back up the research findings.

Although a clear pattern is impossible to obtain, it is likely that girls are at greatest risk in countries with poorly resourced and managed educational systems, and high levels of poverty, food insecurity and gender inequality.[31] Sexual abuse by teachers is reported to be high in regions experiencing conflict and in refugee camps.[32] Likewise, children with disabilities, children from ethnic minorities, orphans and children affected by AIDS are particularly vulnerable.[33] However, we now know that sexual exploitation by those with a duty of care for children and the vulnerable is not exclusively a problem for the poor and disadvantaged, as the recent scandal of widespread sexual abuse by Catholic priests and the regular trials of paedophile teachers in Europe, the United States and Australia make clear.

The research shows that responses by education authorities to allegations of teacher sexual misconduct have usually been marked by complacency and obfuscation and that government action has been limited to tightening teachers' codes of conduct and legislating to make sexual relations with students a prosecutable offence. The lack of reliable statistical evidence with which to convince policymakers of the need to take action, the silence surrounding what is seen as a sensitive issue, traditional cultural views that find sex between older men and young girls acceptable, and uncertainty among teachers, parents and children about how to report incidents are contributing factors. Teachers are rarely expelled from the profession, even when the student is pregnant; at most, the offending teacher is transferred to another school.[34] Indeed, not all education officials, parents, teachers and the girls themselves disapprove of teachers having sexual liaisons with their students, especially in rural areas where marriage to a man with a government salary is much valued. Some female students choose to use their sexuality

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[30] e.g. Burton, P. (2005) Suffering at School: results of the Malawi Gender-based Violence in Schools Survey, National Statistical Office, Malawi; Wane, N. (2009) Sexual violence and HIV/AIDS risks in Kenyan and Ugandan schools: social implications for educational policy development, *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, 4,1; Burton, P. (2008) Merchants, Skollies and Stones: experiences of school violence in South Africa, Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, Monograph No 4, Cape Town (12,794 learners at primary and secondary level).
[31] Irish Joint Consortium on Gender Based Violence (2010) Effective Responses to Gender Based Violence: MDG 1 (Poverty and Hunger) and GBV. Learning Brief No 5
[32] e.g. INEE, The Multiple Faces of Education in Conflict-affected and Fragile Contexts. INEE Working Group on Education and Fragility http://www.ineesite.org/en/education-fragility/multiple-faces-of-education; Sharkey, D. (2008) Contradictions in girls' education in a post-conflict setting, *Compare*, 38,5, 569-579; Kirk, J. and Winthrop, R. (2006) Eliminating the sexual exploitation of girls in refugee schools on West Africa: what classroom assistants can do. In Leach and Mitchell, op.cit.
[33] UNICEF, *Summary Report: Violence against Disabled Children* (Nairobi: UNICEF, 2005), available at www.unicef.org/videoaudio/PDFs/UNICEF_Violence_Against_Disabled_Children_Report_Distributed_Version.pdf; United Nations (2012) Tackling Violence in Schools: a global perspective. New York Office of the Special Representative on Violence against Children.
[34] Leach et al (2003) op.cit. Kenya provides one exception: over 1000 male teachers were reportedly dismissed over a two year period for sexual misconduct with schoolgirls. BBC 7 October 2010 http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-africa-11492499

as a commodity for economic or academic gain, or to gain status among their peers. Poor levels of accountability, lack of good management and professional integrity in the educational system allow teachers to act with impunity, to the point where in some situations the phenomenon is, if not endemic, a common and even accepted part of school life. This discourages victims from coming forward.

Because of the differing conceptualisations of GBV and its associated terminology, as well as the different age cohorts involved and varying methods of data collection, the research findings on levels of SRGBV vary widely. For example, one study of the sexual abuse of girls in schools in remote locations in Botswana in 2000, involving 422 schoolgirls aged 13-16,[35] found that 40% of the girls reported having experienced sexual harassment at school, with ten girls reporting that a teacher had asked them for sex (0.24%); this contrasted with a study the following year, covering a similar level of schooling and location,[36] which reported that 67% of the 560 mainly female students had experienced sexual harassment by a teacher, of whom 20% (roughly 75 girls) had been asked by teachers for sex (of whom 42% had accepted). When the term 'abuse' is used rather than 'harassment', figures tend to be lower. In a 2002 survey of primary and secondary students in Ghana,[37] only 47 (13.5%) out of 347 girls and 5 (4.2%) out of 119 boys said that they were a victim of sexual abuse at school, and of these only three (5.7%) indicated that a teacher was the perpetrator. The ActionAid/Institute of Education survey (referred to above) of 1082 girls in Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique showed that only in Kenya did any girls at all say that they had been forced to have sex with a teacher (3.1%), although teachers having sex with students was mentioned regularly in focus group discussions and in the media.[38]

Alongside these overt forms of GBV are more 'taken for granted' symbolic acts of violence. The research showed that, in co-educational schools in Sub-Saharan Africa, teachers were often found to tolerate male students' domination of the physical and verbal space in class at the expense of girls' participation in lessons; that more public and higher status tasks and responsibilities were allocated to male students and teachers (e.g. boys ringing the bell for assembly, teachers organising sports days and managing budgets) and private domestic-related ones to female students and teachers (e.g. teachers counselling students, meeting parents and serving the tea at staff meetings, girls cleaning the classrooms); that students were pushed into gender-stereotyped subjects (maths and hard sciences for boys, languages and domestic science for girls), and subtle messages about gender were conveyed through curriculum texts; that rules on 'appropriate' male and female dress and conduct were enforced; that verbal abuse and bullying behaviour were considered a natural part of growing up; and that teachers felt entitled to use free student labour, especially that of girls. Actions that encourage fear of violence, such as the teacher carrying a cane or stick, or being shouted, glared at, or publicly humiliated, were also subtle gendered reminders of authority. Masculine

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[35] Rivers, C, R (2000) Shattered Hopes: study of sexual abuse of girls, prepared for Metlhaetsile Women's Information Centre, funded by UNICEF Botswana
[36] Rossetti, S. (2001) Children in School: a safe place? Gabarone, Botswana: UNESCO
[37] Brown, C.K. (2002) A Study of Sexual Abuse in Schools in Ghana, funded by UNICEF and the French Government
[38] Parkes and Heslop (2011) op.cit.; see also footnote 30

competitiveness (which inevitably leads to aggressive jockeying for position in the peer hierarchy) is celebrated but female assertiveness, ambition or academic achievement is frowned on.[39]

Asia: In Asia, research on school violence has until recently focused on corporal punishment, which is widespread and often brutal, but is dealt with largely in gender-neutral terms.[40] This is a challenging environment for investigation of GBV, and sexual violence in particular, because of the cultural taboo about discussing sexual matters and extreme reluctance to recognise that young people may be sexually active outside marriage. Nevertheless, a few small studies in East Asia[41] and some from South Asia, where female sexuality is fiercely protected as a matter of family honour and honour killings are common, have highlighted the problem.[42] It is well known that girls in South Asia suffer from sexual harassment (called 'eve teasing') and assault on the way to and from school, especially on public transport, but less is known about what goes on inside schools, apart from acid-throwing, an all too frequent and horrific form of GBV perpetrated on women and girls, for example for daring to snub a boy, turn down an offer of marriage or even for going to school. Levels of violence against women and girls are very high in these countries but there are no statistics specific to school violence. In one study of 1040 Indian boys aged 10-16 living in Mumbai,[43] one third reported witnessing violence by their peers against girlfriends or female friends, and one-third witnessed their father beating or abusing their mother at home; more than eight out of 10 boys had themselves been the victims of violence, in some instances sexual violence in the home, community or school.

South Asia has a history of curriculum ideology which constructs an aggressive national identity based on religious (e.g. Muslim versus Hindu) difference and militaristic fervour, in a way which celebrates aggressive masculinities and marginalises women as submissive, silent and largely absent.[44] This low regard for women translates in the wider society into violent practices such as the gang rape of alarming numbers of women by young men, and the trafficking of girls for sex (this happens in a wide range of countries, including South Africa, India,[45] parts of Latin America and South Asia[46]). Schools may be

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[39] Hamlall, V. and Morrell, R. (2012) Conflict, provocation and fights among boys in a South African high school. *Gender and Education*, 24, 5, 483-498; Dunne, Humphreys and Leach (2006) op.cit.

[40] UNICEF (2001) Corporal Punishment in Schools in South Asia, UNICEF regional office for South Asia

[41] French, H. (2003) Victims Say Japan Ignores Sex Crimes Committed by Teachers, *New York Times,* 29 June, www.nytimes.com; Tang, C. (2002) Childhood Experience of Sexual Abuse among Hong Kong Chinese College Students, *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 26, 23–37. In Thailand, the Ministry of Education stated in 2005 that every week at least one schoolteacher sexually abuses a student (UN, 2006, op.cit.).

[42] UN (2005) *Regional Consultation on Violence against Children in South Asia: Islamabad, Pakistan, 19–21 May,* New York: United Nations, available at www.unicef.org/rosa/VAC.pdf. In conservative communities in Western countries, too, honour killings take place; www.guardian.co.uk/uk/2011/dec/03/honour-crimes-cases

[43] Das, M et al (2012) Gender attitudes and violence among urban adolescent boys in India, *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, DOI:10.1080/02673843.2012.716762

[44] Durrani, N. Identity wars in the curriculum: gender and the military in Pakistani national identity. In Leach, F. and Dunne, M. (2007) Education, Conflict and Reconciliation: international perspectives. Bern: Peter Lang.

[45] as documented by the Verma report produced in the aftermath of the gang rape and murder of a student in Delhi in December 2012 (Verma, J.S., Seth, L. and Subramanium, G., Report of the Committee on Amendments to Criminal Law, 23 January 2013. http://www.prsindia.org/parliamenttrack/report-summaries/justice-verma-committee-report-summary-2628/)

used as ideological battlegrounds during periods of conflict, placing girls at increased risk of sexual violence from soldiers and rebels. In the South Asian region, male teachers are less likely to have the opportunity to demand sexual favours of girls because primary schools are usually segregated and few girls go to mixed secondary schools but the abuse may take more subtle and secretive forms, with some evidence that the sexual abuse of boys is widespread.[47] Several small studies in Bangladesh, Pakistan, India and Nepal[48] provide examples of inappropriate sexualised behaviour by teachers towards girls, with several reports of teachers raping schoolgirls (India) and serious sexual abuse by teachers (Nepal).[49] There is, however, little evidence of prosecution.

Latin America and the Caribbean: Here, the preoccupation has been very much with school violence as the product of youth gangs involved with guns and drugs, with little understanding of the way in which a school culture which promotes hyper-masculinity encourages such violence. Several large scale studies have been carried out but they are largely silent on gender issues,[50] although a more recent study from Brazil gives more prominence to gender as an analytical dimension for examining school violence.[51] The region is known for high levels of family and community violence, however, especially the sexual abuse of women and girls. The broad social tolerance of such violence, including in educational institutions, has resulted in weak policy enforcement and evidence-gathering, and provided the social context for sexual violence by both male students and teachers.[52] For example, in Peru in one year alone (2007), 169 teachers were reported for rape and 'acts against decency' with students, with many of the aggressors merely moving to administrative positions or to other schools.[53] At the same time, there is concern that boys are being turned towards risk-taking, hyper-masculine physical activities, such as bullying, harassment, crime, violence and sexual risk, by gender taboos which means that boys who achieve academically are regarded as

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[46] For example, in Cambodia http://www.iasociety.org/Default.aspx?pageId=11&abstractId=2170532

[47] Daily Times, 9 December 2004 and Frontpagemag 21 December 2005, cited in UN (2006) op.cit.

[48] UNICEF (2004) Violence against Children in Nepal: a study of the system of school discipline in Nepal, UNICEF Nepal with the Centre for Victims of Torture, Nepal; Alam, N., Roy, S. and Ahmed, T. (2010) Sexually Harassing Behavior against Adolescent Girls in Rural Bangladesh: Implications for Achieving Millennium Development Goals, *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25, 443–456; Brohi, N. and Ajaib, A. (2006) Violence against Girls in the Education System of Pakistan', in Leach and Mitchell, op.cit.; Leach, F. and Sitaram, S. (2007) The Sexual Harassment and Abuse of Adolescent Schoolgirls in South India' *Journal of Education, Citizenship and Social Justice*, 2, 257–277.

[49] UN (2006) op.cit. cites several studies, including one from Nepal that found that 9 per cent of children had experienced severe sexual abuse (kissing of sensitive parts, oral sex and penetration) and that 18 per cent of the abuse had taken place at school (though it is not known whether the victims were boys or girls)

[50] Chevannes, P (2004) Preliminary Study on Violence in Caribbean Schools. Change from Within Project, University of the West Indies; Abramovay, M. and Rua, M. (2005) Violences in Schools, Brasilia: UNESCO

[51] Abramovay, M., (ed.) (2009) Revelando tramas, descobrindo segredos: violência e convivência nas escolas, Brasília: Rede de Informação Tecnológica Latino-americana - RITLA, Secretaria de Estado de Educação do Distrito Federal – SEEDF.

[52] Girls in the Dominican Republic, Honduras, Guatemala, Mexico and Panama reported sexual coercion from teachers with threats that their grades could suffer (UN, 2006, op.cit). A study of Ecuadorean female adolescent victims of sexual violence found that 36.9 per cent of perpetrators were teachers (cited in Moore, K., Jones, N. and Broadbent, E., 2008, School Violence in OECD countries. London: ODI, for Plan International)

[53] *El Comercio*, 13 December 2007, p. 4 cited by Moore, Jones and Broadbent (2008) op.cit.

'suspect' by their peers.[54]

The Middle East and North Africa: This is another very difficult region from which to gather data but research evidence is gradually emerging of sexual violence in schools, although the widespread practice of corporal punishment continues to receive the most attention. A 2011 report by Save the Children Sweden drew on data from three countries in the Middle East and North Africa[55] to reveal that, despite the taboo surrounding the topic, sexual violence in and around schools is being talked about and acknowledged; one study in Yemen found that 31.4% of schoolchildren were exposed to sexual harassment and abuse, while in Morocco, between January and October 2010 eight cases of sexual abuse were reported to the National Observatory for Child Rights, six of them boys, and in Lebanon 16% of children surveyed in a 2008 study had experienced sexual abuse, with the majority being girls. Another recent study by UNESCO in Lebanon,[56] based on analysis of 2976 questionnaires completed by students aged 12-18 (and 1479 university students) and 151 FGDs with children aged 5-11 and adult stakeholders, showed that what was defined as psychological (or 'moral') violence was the most prevalent, followed by physical violence, with sexual violence being the least reported – while also noting the under-reporting of incidents of sexual violence, due to victims not knowing how to report cases, thinking such violence was 'normal' or feeling too ashamed.

5.1.2 Other forms of SRGBV

The above studies have explored the incidence of SRGBV within the context of a normative heterosexuality. The focus has been overwhelmingly on violence against girls, with some isolated reports of boys being sexually assaulted or raped but without any details of the circumstances. Surprisingly, data from a large survey of over 12000 learners in South Africa in 2008 showed that more boys than girls reported having been forced to engage in sexual activity at school (2.5% of boys compared to 0.2% of girls, although more girls than boys reported experiences of sexual violence generally).[57]

It is now recognised that individuals identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans-gendered and inter-sex (LGBTI) are disproportionately at risk of, and affected by, SRGBV. This might take the form of teasing, name calling and public ridicule, spreading rumours, intimidation, pushing and hitting, stealing or damaging belongings, social isolation, cyber bullying, physical or sexual assault, and death threats.[58] Although recent years have witnessed a growing awareness of the scale of homophobic violence in schools in some countries in the global North,[59] there are as yet few studies elsewhere that address the

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[54] Plummer, D. (2009) Masculinity + HIV = risk: exploring the relationship between masculinities, education and HIV in the Caribbean. In J.F. Klot and V-K Nguyen, *The Fourth Wave: Violence, Gender, Culture and HIV in the 21st Century,* Paris: UNESCO

[55] Save the Children Sweden (2011) Violence against Children in Schools: a regional analysis of Lebanon, Morocco and Yemen. Save the Children Sweden (funded by SIDA)

[56] UNESCO (21012) School-Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV) in Lebanon, UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in the Arab States, Beirut

[57] Burton, op.cit.; Rossetti, op.cit. in Botswana and Brown, op.cit. in Ghana also reported a few incidents.

[58] UNESCO (2012) Education Sector Responses to Homophobic Bullying, Paris: UNESCO http://photos.state.gov/libraries/unesco/231771/pdfs/Homophobic%20Bullying%20GPP%204%20May.pdf

[59] UNESCO (2012) op.cit.

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issue. Yet, we know that individuals who do not conform to socially and culturally accepted norms of gender and sexual identity risk retribution and that homophobic violence is more likely to occur in schools where there is aggressive policing of heterosexual boundaries or where the molestation of girls is very risky, as in South Asia. In some contexts homosexuality has been formally regulated in law, with severe punishment including life imprisonment (even the death sentence was proposed recently in the Ugandan Parliament).[60]

Early evidence of the difficulties that gay and lesbian students in Southern Africa experience in negotiating their sexual identities in schools in the face of considerable harassment and pressure to conform to heterosexual norms was uncovered by a five-country study in 2003.[61] More recently, a 2011 study by the South African Gay and Lesbian Network revealed extensive homophobia in schools in one South African region (Pietermaritzburg).[62] Although no race difference was picked up by the study, significant gender differences were found to affect reactions to non-heterosexuality: male learners were in fact more likely to be aggressive towards gays and lesbians than females. These findings are mirrored by a small study of the school experiences of 14 black queer participants in the Durban area of South Africa.[63] Teachers who engage in same-sex relations may prefer to present themselves at school as heterosexual, either from fear of discrimination or because they believe that teachers should serve as exemplary role models in a predominantly heterosexual world.[64]

Homophobia is frequent in Asian educational institutions: a study in India and Bangladesh found that 50% of homosexual men experienced harassment from learners or teachers in school or college and in Japan 83% of gay and bisexual men reported that they had experienced homophobic bullying at school.[65] In Latin America, a positive correlation between sexual orientation and bullying was found: non-heterosexual learners reported homophobic bullying in Chile (68%), Guatemala (53%), Mexico (61%) and Peru (66%).[66] In Brazil, 27% of participants said that they did not want to have homosexual classmates, while 63.1% of students in another survey had observed

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[60] Uganda will pass anti-homosexuality bill this year, says Speaker, The Guardian 26 November 2012 http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2012/nov/26/uganda-anti-homosexuality-bill
[61] Human Rights Watch/International Gay and Lesbian Human Rights Commission (2003) More than a Name: state-sponsored homophobia and its consequences in Southern Africa, New York: HRW
[62] Gay and Lesbian Network (2011), *Homophobia in schools in Pietermaritzburg*. Pietermaritzburg: Gay and Lesbian Network. http://www.gaylesbiankzn.org/resources/HOMOPHOBIA%20IN%20SCHOOLS%20IN%20PIETERMARI TZBURG%202011%20REPORT.pdf
[63] Msibi, T. (2012): 'I'm used to it now': experiences of homophobia among queer youth in South African township schools, *Gender and Education*, 24,5, 515-533
[64] Richardson, E.M. and Archer, B.E. Two teachers: male, black, queer negotiating identities in South Africa, in Dunne (2008) op.cit.
[65] UNESCO (2012), op.cit.
[66] Caceres, C. (2011) Estudio a través de Internet sobre "Bullying", y sus manifestaciones homofóbicas en escuelas de Chile, Guatemala, México y Perú, y su impacto en la salud de jóvenes varones entre 18 y 24 años, Instituto de Estudios en Salud, Sexualidad y Desarrollo Humano / Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia en colaboración con la Organización Panamericana de la Salud, Lima, http://www.iessdeh.org/usuario/ftp/Informe%20Final%20Bullying.pdf

episodes of homophobic harassment.[67] Homophobic victimisation was found to be negatively correlated to, and a significant predictor of, students' commitment to school, reconfirming that it is a serious barrier to educational attainment.[68]

There is general agreement that it is not possible to address issues related to homophobia in schools without addressing dominant notions of masculinity in society. The assumption of heteronormativity is a form of symbolic violence and homophobic behaviours are tools for marginalising non-normative sexualities; these use violence to enforce and regulate sexualities, and in turn to keep patriarchy and heteronormativity in place.[69] The research also indicates that other social identifiers trigger homophobic reactions on school premises - the intersection of sexuality with class, race, and gender puts a heavier strain on non-heterosexual learners' ability to succeed in school.

Another largely unexplored form of gender violence is that perpetrated by girls, usually girl-on-girl violence but also girl-on-boy violence. Although the phenomenon is well known in some parts of the global North,[70] and includes girls' involvement in street gangs and criminal activity, this is a relatively new area of research. Brazil and South Africa appear to remain to date the only countries from the global South to have started to engage with girl violence.[71] Girls have traditionally been portrayed as victims or survivors of violence and femininity is not usually associated with the perpetration of violence. However, research shows that violence by girls is often less overt and physical than that by boys, and hence less easily recognised. Nevertheless, cases have been documented in South Africa of female students being physically violent towards other female *and* male students, and sexually taunting boys, in Malawi of girls peeping at boys' private parts in the toilets, physically touching them, attempting to force boys into sexual relationships for material gain, stealing from younger students, and fighting other girls, and in Uganda of girls sexually harassing boys. Gossiping, spreading false rumours and ostracising other girls are also recognised forms of GBV practised by girls, with serious negative impacts.[72] Making girls' violence visible serves to promote understanding of multiple femininities and challenges gender stereotyping; yet, at the

[67] Abramovay, M., Castro, M. G., & Silva, L. B. (2004). *Juventudes e sexualidade*. Brasília, Brazil: UNESCO Brasil; Abramovay, M., Cunha, A. L., & Calaf, P. P. (2009). *Revelando tramas, descobrindo segredos: Violência e convivência nas escolas*. Brasília, Brazil: Rede de Informação Tecnologica Latino-Americana, Secretaria de Estado de Educação do Distrito Federal

[68] Alexander, M.M. et al. (2011) Effects of Homophobic versus Non-homophobic Victimization on School Commitment and the Moderating Effect of Teacher Attitudes in Brazilian Public Schools, *Journal of LGBT Youth*, 8:4, pp. 289-308.

[69] Hamlall and Morrell, op.cit.; Mbisi, op.cit.

[70] Duncan, N. (2006) Girls' violence and aggression against other girls: femininity and bullying in UK schools. In Leach and Mitchell (op. cit.); Chesney-Lind, M. and Sheldon, R.G. (2004) Girls, Delinquency and Juvenile Justice. Belmont CA: Wadsworth

[71] Neves, P.R.C. (2008) As meninas de agora estão piores do que os meninos: gênero, conflito e violência na escola, Masters thesis, Universidade de São Paulo; Bhana, D. (2008) Girls hit! Constructing and negotiating violent African femininities in a working-class primary school. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 29:3, pp. 401–415; Bhana, D. & Pillay, N. (2011): Beyond passivity: constructions of femininities in a single-sex South African school, *Educational Review*, 63:1, 65-78; Swart, E. and Bredekamp, J. (2009) Non-physical bullying: exploring the perspectives of grade 5 girls. *South African Journal of Education*, 29, 405-425

[72] Centre for Educational Research and Training (CERT) and DevTech (2008) The Safe Schools Program: A qualitative study to examine school-related gender-based violence in Malawi. Washington, DC: USAID. Leach et al. (2003), op.cit.

same time, it exposes girls' violence as an expression of heterosexual normativity, in that girls fight primarily over boys.[73]

Although there are many advocates of same-sex schools, who argue that they provide girls with a safe environment in which to flourish, the increasing visibility of girls' violence suggests that same-sex institutions are not a panacea for female drop out and under-achievement. Instead, the social dynamics and institutional hierarchies tend to reproduce the patterns of behaviour found in mixed-sex schools.

The rapid growth in access to the internet, and the increasing sophistication of computers, mobile phones and other hand-held devices, has brought with it a new and rapidly expanding type of GBV known as 'cyber-bullying'. Social networking through Facebook, Twitter and other electronic networks has transformed people's ability to communicate with friends and family but it has also brought dangers, particularly to children, in the more electronically advanced societies. Cyber-bullying can consist of abusive, malicious, intimidating and sexually explicit text messages and images ('sexts'), 'tweets' and offensive or pornographic digital images of children, which can be circulated anonymously around the globe, sometimes to millions of viewers; online chat rooms and forums make sexual abuse, 'grooming' and exploitation by adults all too easy.[74] Those who are regarded as 'different' are more likely to be exposed to cyber-bullying: in one US study non-heterosexual adolescents were twice as likely to experience it as their heterosexual peers (33% v. 15%).[75]

Cyber-bullying presents new threats even in the poorer countries of the global South, although research is limited due to the novelty of the phenomenon. In South Africa, one study of cyber-bullying found that almost half of the 1,726 respondents between the ages of 12 and 24 (46.8%) had experienced it in some form.[76] In Thailand, a study linked good family relationships with less exposure to cyber-bullying in a sample of 1,200 respondents.[77]

5.1.3. Links between SRGBV and HIV/AIDS

AIDS poses a serious global challenge to the achievement of EFA and the MDGs, not least in Sub-Saharan Africa. According to UNAIDS, 42% of new HIV infections in 2010 were in the age group 15-24, of whom 80% are living in Sub-Saharan Africa.[78] Globally, young women in this age group have HIV infection rates twice as high as young men, and they account for 31% of new infections in Sub-Saharan Africa. Gender inequalities and GBV

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[73] Neves, op.cit., Bhana (2008) op.cit., Swart, E. and Bredekamp, op.cit.

[74] Shariff, S. (2008) *Cyber-bullying: issues and solutions for the school, the classroom and the home.* Abingdon and New York: Routledge; Muir, D (2005) Violence against Children in Cyberspace, ECPAT

[75] Schneider, K. et al. (2012) Cyberbullying, School Bullying, and Psychological Distress: A Regional Census of High School Students. *American Journal of Public Health*, 102(1) 171-177

[76] Burton, P. and Mutongwizo, T. (2009) Inescapable violence: Cyber-bullying and electronic violence against young people in South Africa, Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention CJCP Issue paper No 8

[77] Songsiri, N. and Musikaphan, W. (2011) Cyber-bullying among secondary and vocational students in Bangkok. *Journal of Population and Social Studies*, 19:2, 235-242

[78] UN AIDS factsheet http://www.unaids.org/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/factsheet/2012/20120417_FS_adolescentsyoungpeoplehiv_en.pdf)

have given the AIDS epidemic a gendered face: the World Health Organisation (WHO) found that the prevalence of forced first sex among adolescent girls younger than 15 years ranges between 11% and 48% globally,[79] indicating that the relative powerlessness of many girls and women to negotiate safe sex is fuelling the epidemic.[80] Moreover, the experience of first sex is known to be an important predictor for future patterns of sexual activity, i.e. forced or consensual, with or without condoms etc. The lack of effective legislation prohibiting violence against women and its tacit endorsement by large sections of society challenges the notion of women's consent in many contexts.

Communities which experience high levels of GBV, including those in which first sexual experience is forced and conservative gender norms encourage men's sexual risk-taking, are likely to also have higher rates of HIV. Unless the issue of GBV is tackled robustly, the billions of dollars that have been pumped into HIV/AIDS prevention and treatment will not be effective. Schools that tolerate sexual violence are increasing the vulnerability of girls to HIV infection and, in regions where the epidemic is fuelled by unsafe sex between men and/or where the sexual abuse of boys is widespread, boys are also at heightened risk. One study of male teachers' perceptions of gender violence in a South African school showed that they enforced the respect that they felt was due to them as men from female students through inappropriate sexualised behaviour, including demands for sex, and that they expected female teachers to acquiesce to their superior position and power.[81]

At the same time, there is overwhelming evidence that schooling has considerable benefits for girls, including reduced teenage pregnancy, delayed marriage and reduced child labour. Educational attainment is now more likely to be associated with a lower risk of HIV infection than earlier in the epidemic,[82] with evidence of behavioural changes, such as waiting longer to be sexually active, having fewer sexual partners and an increased use of condoms among young people with multiple partners, contributing to a decline in some high prevalence countries. There is also new evidence that keeping boys in school increases gender equality and has the potential to reduce GBV. Data from a recent multi-country household survey (the International Men and Gender Equality Survey - IMAGES) found that educational attainment was a key factor associated with men's attitudes toward gender roles and support for policies relating to gender equality. Men with lower education attainment had more rigid attitudes, and were more likely to have used intimate partner violence and to hold homophobic attitudes.[83]

The role of education in raising awareness of the risks of early sexual activity and multiple partners through programmes of HIV/AIDS prevention is pivotal. However, as

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[79] UNAIDS factsheet, op.cit.
[80] Unsafe sex is sometimes demanded as proof of genuine intention and trust in a new relationship, despite the known risk of HIV. Reddy, S. & Dunne, M. (2008) Heterosexual masculinities in the South African context of HIV/AIDS, in Dunne (ed) op.cit., 159-172
[81] Bhana, D., De Lange, N. and Mitchell, C. (2009) Male teachers talk about gender violence: "Zulu men demand respect", *Educational Review*, 61:1, 49-62
[82] Jukes, M., Simmons, S. and Bundy, D. (2008) Education and vulnerability: the role of schools in protecting young women and girls from HIV in southern Africa, *AIDS* 22, S41-56
[83] Barker G. *et al*. (2012) Boys and Education in the Global South: Emerging Vulnerabilities and New Opportunities for Promoting Changes in Gender Norms, *Journal of Boyhood Studies*, pp. 137-150.

long as schools allow violence to flourish on their premises and place young girls at risk, their suitability for this role is in question. Moreover, poor quality curricula, lack of properly trained teachers, and inappropriate teaching methods and learning materials (which provide information but fail to engage children and to address attitudes, skills and behaviours)[84] have undermined the potential for schools to provide children with the knowledge and skills to deal with either violent behaviours or with HIV risk.

5.1.4. Consequences of SRGBV

A range of negative impacts result from SRGBV:[85]

1) Health and psychological impacts: Early experience of forced sex may increase risk-taking behaviours, including early onset of consensual sex, multiple partners and the non-use of condoms. The immediate risks of physical harm and of sexually transmitted infections, including HIV, may be accompanied by psychological damage, including the impairment of emotional development and long-term mental distress and ill-health, which can contribute to physical ill-health. WHO studies show that sexually abused children often develop eating disorders, depression, insomnia, feelings of guilt, anxiety and suicidal tendencies.[86] They may also develop highly aggressive behaviour of a sexual nature. Corporal punishment, verbal abuse, bullying and the fear of violence can inhibit the development of social skills and undermine self-esteem.

2) Pregnancy, the risk of HIV and ineffective HIV education: In sub-Saharan Africa in particular, there are high levels of dropout among female students who become pregnant, some as a result of sexual liaisons with teachers and male students. Pregnancy usually signals the end of the girl's education. The stigma of being an unmarried teenage mother may push some girls to illegal abortion, infanticide, child abandonment or suicide. Those rejected by family and friends may be forced to enter sexual relationships with older men in order to support themselves and their child(ren). This increases the risk of HIV infection and makes it more difficult for them to insist on safe sex. In turn, the contradiction between the school as a place to learn about safe sex and other life skills, and as a site of GBV in which the sexual misdemeanours of some education personnel produce a lack of trust in teachers, limits the effectiveness of HIV and sexuality education programmes.

3) Low achievement: Students, especially girls and non-heterosexual students, may be deterred from participating actively in class and seeking academic excellence for fear of attracting unwanted attention from teachers and their peers. Teachers' tolerance of

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[84] UNESCO (2011) UNESCO's Strategy for HIV and AIDS
[85] Information for this section draws heavily on: Management Systems International (MSI) (2008) Are Schools Safe Havens for Children? Examining school-related gender-based violence, Washington D.C.: USAID; Pereznieto, P., Harper, C., Clench, B. and Coarasa, J. (2010) The Economic Impact of School Violence. Woking/London: Plan/ODI; WHO (1998) *Violence Prevention: An Important Element of a Health-Promoting School*, Information Series on School Health Document no. 3, Geneva: WHO www.who.int/school_youth_health/resources/en.
[86] A study in West Africa found alarming levels of acute suicide risks amongst girls who were victims of sexual violence: Behrendt, A., and Mor Mbaye, S., (2008) The Psychosocial Impact of Parental Loss and Orphanhood on Children in an Area of high HIV Prevalence: a Cross Section Study in the North West Section of Cameroon, PLAN, USAID, FHI, AWARE.

boys' domination of physical and verbal space in the classroom and the playground, verbal abuse and the fear of punishment, creates a stressful and intimidating learning environment for girls, lowers concentration and motivation and contributes to low self-esteem and poor performance. Girls may avoid attending classes taken by certain teachers. Boys' achievement may also be affected by a discouraging, threatening or disruptive classroom environment in which male teachers pay more attention to girls (or occasionally to boys) for inappropriate reasons. Low achievement in turn increases the risk of dropout.

4) Disrupted studies and dropout: An intimidating classroom environment and fear of sexual advances by other students or by teachers can lead to a loss of interest in school, truancy and dropout among girls, resulting in lost opportunities for cognitive development, future careers and improved socio-economic status. It can increase the likelihood of sexually risky behaviours, forced migration and trafficking. The prevalence of corporal punishment encourages both girls and boys to drop out. Violence, and the fear of violence, undermines opportunities for children to learn about, and gain access to, information about their rights and available support services. In the Middle East and South Asia in particular, such fears may persuade parents to terminate their daughters' education at an early age.

5) Negative impact on the portrayal of women and girls in society: The sexual exploitation of girls by male students and education personnel, reinforced by a gender inequitable school culture, not only devalues education in the eyes of society, it devalues female achievement and leadership. The notion that girls do well because of favouritism from male teachers, and that their achievement is the result of their sexuality rather than their intellect breeds resentment and scorn among boys. This persists even where females are clearly outperforming males academically, as in Latin America and some parts of Southern Africa, and aggravates the already widely held view in many societies that women are inferior and subordinate to men, that they are the property of men and are expected to gratify male sexual desire. It is more difficult to promote equal and consensual sexual and gender relations in such circumstances.

6) Economic and social costs: SRGBV incurs costs through negative impacts on individuals, families, schools, communities and society as a whole. It has consequences for government expenditure and the economy (through wasted investments in schooling, lower earnings and tax revenues, costs to health services etc), as well as for human and social capital e.g. lost potential and lower levels of community trust.[87] The casting of girls within domestic roles as future carers and mothers by the school reduces the perceived importance of schooling, examination success and careers for females, which undermines their future personal, social and economic value and position in society. Research suggests that exposure to violence during childhood increases the likelihood of violence acceptance either as a victim or perpetrator in future partnerships and high-risk situations.[88] Female leadership, career development and engagement in

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[87] Pereznieto et al., op.cit.
[88] International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW) and Instituto Promundo (2010) International Men and Gender Equality Survey; Lundgren, R. (2013) Intimate partner and sexual violence among adolescents: Reviewing the evidence and identifying the way forward. Paper for Expert Group Meeting on Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health, 4-6 February

the labour market is negatively influenced by gender inequalities and has associated personal and social costs.

5.2. Gaps in our knowledge

1) As has been shown, research into SRGBV is still extremely limited outside of Sub-Saharan Africa and to a lesser extent North America and Northern Europe. In the former region, the evidence continues to come from small scale qualitative studies and from surveys that lack rigorous gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data. Although the rich descriptions obtained through small ethnographic studies have done much to advance our knowledge of the causes of SRGBV and the negative consequences for individuals, there is an urgent need for this to be complemented and extended by statistical data from large comparative surveys and multi-country studies. Without stronger and wider scale evidence policymakers, the police, the judiciary and education authorities may not be convinced of the need to take action. Evidence provided by the country reports submitted to the UN Global Study of Violence Against Children and a few small independent studies already testify to the fact that SRGBV is a global phenomenon and that the gender regime of schools helps to perpetuate it. Even in countries with strong religious and cultural traditions of gender segregation such as in the Middle East and South Asia, sexual violence in schools exists, despite – or perhaps because of – communities' efforts to keep males and females separate. At the same time, the growth of digital technologies has allowed cyber-bullying and paedophile stalking of online chat rooms to impact on increasing numbers of schoolchildren. This needs to be researched to understand its multiple modes and to enable effective interventions to be developed.

2) There is little research as yet on SRGBV which goes beyond examining heterosexual forms of violence perpetrated mostly by male teachers and students on female students. Nevertheless, there is sufficient evidence to show that male students, female teachers, those who are identified as lesbian or gay, and those who are from minority groups or who suffer from physical or learning difficulties are also at risk. More systematic attention needs to be devoted to this. In particular, we cannot ignore the strong likelihood that the sexual abuse of boys, whether in heterosexual or homosexual encounters, occurs in school and that widespread homophobia exposes female and male students and teachers who do not conform to socially acceptable gender and sexual norms to discrimination and violence.

3) Corporal punishment is the most widely reported form of violence against children, despite the fact that 117 countries worldwide have banned its use in school.[89] Its practice persists in many countries, despite evidence that it can result in psychological problems, including depression, serious injury, truancy and drop-out.[90] It is proving to be the most intransigent form of school-related violence to eradicate, not just because of a lack of capacity and resources to enforce the ban but also because it remains widely

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[89] Only 33 states have banned all forms of corporal punishment on children, including in the home. http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org.
[90] Hart, S.N. (ed) (2005) *Eliminating Corporal Punishment*. Paris: UNESCO

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condoned by parents and teachers, who believe that children need strong discipline and have no confidence in alternative 'positive discipline' measures. As a result, in many countries the ban is not enforced and only modest efforts are made to eradicate it. The resistance to its elimination in schools and families indicates a social acceptance of this form of GBV. Understanding that this resistance to its elimination in schools and families is closely linked to the social acceptance of other forms of GBV such as domestic violence and child sexual abuse, and to the culture of hyper-masculinity which prevails in many school settings, has important implications for effective intervention, and in the long term for the achievement of the MDGs.[91]

4) The same applies to bullying; a lack of awareness of the gender dimensions of bullying behaviour among children and adults and the tendency to treat it as a phenomenon separate from GBV is not helpful in either understanding the scale of the problem or in how best to address it.

5) The fact that teachers, especially young female teachers, are also exposed to sexual violence, either by other staff or by older (usually male) students, has been largely ignored. There have been cases of sexual assaults on female teachers by male students reported in the media and widespread evidence that teachers are exposed to a torrent of abusive sexist language from children as young as five, in the UK, Australia and elsewhere.[92] The above mentioned survey of over 12,000 learners in South African schools found that 2.4% of primary school principals and 2.2% of secondary school principals (out of a total of 264) reported cases of learner on educator sexual violence.[93] Passing reference is also made to female teachers having sexual relations with male students in other studies but without details.[94] This is an area that needs further investigation.

6) Little research has been carried out into teachers' perceptions of GBV, how they experience it themselves and how they deal with in the school environment. The achievement of gender equality depends a great deal on how teachers construct their own gendered identities: if female teachers subscribe to dominant cultural norms and values which promote rigid notions of masculinities and a patriarchal social order in which men continue to justify violence against women, they cannot act as agents of change; likewise, male teachers will not automatically enact new discourses of gender equality which threaten their traditional position of superiority and privilege. We need to know more about the factors which can influence teachers' changes in attitude and behaviour regarding the institutional violence that they witness, and often take part in,

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[91] See 'Prohibiting and eliminating corporal punishment of children – a key element of state responsibility for eliminating violence against women and girls', submission to the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, Global Initiative to End all Corporal Punishment of Children.
http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org/pages/pdfs/submissions/Global%20Initiative%20submission%20to%20SR%20study%20on%20eliminating%20violence%20against%20women.pdf
[92] e.g. 'Boy pleads guilty to raping teacher' *The Guardian* 3 May 2005,
http://www.guardian.co.uk/uk/2005/may/03/ classroomviolence.schools?INTCMP=SRCH; 'Young pupils abuse teachers with sexual swear words' *The Times*, 24 November 2006; West, D. The impact of student violence on teachers: a South Australian study, in F. Leach and M. Dunne (2007) *Education, Conflict and Reconciliation: International perspectives*, Berne: Peter Lang, 168-185
[93] Burton (2008) op.cit.
[94] Dunne, Leach et al. (2005) op.cit.

on a daily basis. Given the silence which usually envelops the issues of sex and sexuality, we also need to know more about how teachers mediate and relay messages about HIV/AIDS and sexuality to their students, if schools are to serve as an effective arena for teaching about safe sex.[95]

7) Although we recognise that SRGBV constitutes a major barrier to educational access and participation as well as to the achievement of quality and equality, we know little about how this violence impacts on retention and achievement. The link is still tenuous. An early study of 12 schools in Botswana and Ghana revealed a highly gendered school environment which encouraged low expectations of girls' abilities and in which girls almost always achieved at a lower level than boys and more girls dropped out than boys.[96] Another more recent study in Ghana showed that bullying affected school attendance but in gender differentiated ways.[97] A study in the UK presented empirical results that confirm that wage levels (at ages 23 and 33) are higher for those individuals who did not experience bullying (controlling for other factors) than for those who did, and that the wage differential is highest between those who were never bullied and those who were bullied frequently at school.[98] An international study examining the link between school violence and educational achievement among immigrant students, using 2007 TIMSS data for mathematics across 47 educational systems,[99] found an international pattern of association between violence and achievement, albeit to varying degrees.

8) The links between SRGBV and other social arena are under-developed. The naturalisation of gender differences and its use as a default explanation of gendered outcomes is self-fulfilling and features in common sense explanations, theorisation and research discourse. This works to de-problematise SRGBV and insulate it from insights into social behaviour that can be drawn from studies in other fields such as organisational and professional practice, conflict resolution or analyses of the intersection between gender, sexual and other identities (race, class, religion etc). The incidence of SRGBV emerges from a social field with complex power relations and hierarchies that require complex and multi-level approaches to understanding and addressing it. To add to these absences, in many contexts a language with which to begin to open out the gender and age inequalities that lie at the heart of SRGBV is replete with taboos and censorship.

5.3. Limitations and challenges of research into SRGBV

5.3.1. Methodological challenges
Large scale comparative or multi-country research studies, of the sort recommended above, present major logistical and methodological challenges to design,

[95] De Lange (2012) op.cit.; Baxen, J. Teacher identity and the challenge of teaching about, and within, the context of HIV/AIDS. In Dunne (ed) (2008), op.cit., 173-183

[96] Dunne, Leach et al. (2005) op.cit.

[97] Dunne et al. (2012) op.cit.

[98] Brown, S. and Taylor, K. (2008) Bullying, education and earnings: evidence from the National Child Development Study, *Economics of Education Review* 27: 4, 387-401

[99] Rutkowski, L., Rutkowski, D and Engel L (2013) Sharp contrasts at the boundaries: school violence and educational outcomes internationally, *Comparative Education Review* (000), accessed 25/2/2013.

implementation and evaluation. Poor school and district record-keeping and ineffective data storage and management make a common research framework problematic and inevitably result in varying amounts of data of variable quality, which can inject serious distortions into the analysis. Interpreting data collected by a large number of researchers in different locations, with different understandings of the research process and of the concepts of gender and GBV, also presents problems of consistency and context-sensitive interpretation.

Recognition of the advantages and strengths of **multi-level multi-stakeholder** interventions, but also their complexities, requires long term commitment and skilled personnel. This is particularly the case with rural and/or more conservative communities, where gender inequalities and discrimination tend to be higher and the impact of campaigns and training to be lower.

There is as yet no proven methodology for researching sensitive behaviours among young people, although it has been recognised for some time that standard interviewing and survey methods are generally less reliable with children and adolescents, especially when sensitive questions around sex and sexuality are being asked.[100] These may not generate meaningful answers, if any answers at all. Questions about teacher malpractices, including sexual misconduct and the unauthorised use of corporal punishment, may also generate unreliable answers, whether during interviews or in anonymised questionnaires.

Identifying a suitable methodology for interviewing children on sensitive topics is complex and challenging. The interviewing style, the unnaturalness of the interview setting, the location (interviews are usually held on school premises), the time available, the power relations between researcher and researched (in terms of age and authority as well as gender), social conventions and the fear of opprobrium all have a bearing on the data generated. The interview is a social space with recognised rules of interaction which inevitably help shape the data: variations in findings may have much to do with the respondents' level of trust in the interviewer and the interview experience. Research from Africa suggests that girls tend to downplay their sexual activities and are more reluctant than boys to portray themselves in anything but conventional terms whereas boys are usually more frank and enjoy talking about male sexual prowess and exploits. They may over-report the extent of sexual activity in the school, especially between girls and teachers, as well as the extent to which boys compete over, and secure, girlfriends within the school.[101]

A range of alternatives have been proposed to get round this methodological challenge. One alternative to standard self-administered survey questionnaires is the use of audio computer-assisted self-interviewing (ACASI) which has been used by the Population Council to collect data on sexual behaviour and views of sexuality and HIV/AIDS among

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[100] Christensen, P. and James, A. (eds) (2000) *Research with Children: perspectives and practices.* London and New York: Falmer Press; Powell, A. et al. (2012) *International Literature Review: ethical issues in undertaking research with children and young people,* Lismore: Southern Cross University/ Dunedin: University of Otago

[101] Dunne, Leach et al. (2005); Parkes and Heslop (2011) op.cit.

adolescents in India as well as in a number of African countries.[102] In qualitative research, alternatives to face-to-face interviewing include a wide range of participatory methodologies which involve participants as active agents in the research process rather than treating them as the object of the research. Children have been involved as researchers in peer-led focus group discussions and interviews, in diary and narrative essay writing, discussion of hypothetical stories, video documentaries and arts-based visual work which includes photography and photo-voice, and role play and drama, including pupil-scripted role play.[103] These participatory methods are most useful in creating a relaxed climate in which sensitive sexual issues can be discussed with children and adolescents and their suggestions gathered on how to combat GBV, but they do not generate statistical or comparative data of the type usually required by policymakers. Designing reliable instruments for use in investigating and monitoring SRGBV remains a challenge.

5.3.2. Ethical challenges

The most serious challenge for those involved in SRGBV work, with the greatest risk of potential harm, lies in the need to ask children to recount their experiences of violence at the hands of adults. The numerous ethical issues surrounding children's involvement in both research studies and externally funded interventions have been widely debated over recent years, including in development contexts.[104] Schoolchildren are particularly vulnerable when taking part in research studies, as they risk retaliation from teachers or other students who believe that their actions have been reported. If they are encouraged to speak out and report violent incidents without the necessary support mechanisms being in place to protect and assist them, or if they have not been made aware of them or know how to access them, they can be left exposed and at risk of victimisation or stigmatisation. Research protocols dealing with issues of confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent, how to respond to evidence of sexual abuse, and data storage and reporting are not always given the careful consideration they require.

This fear of the consequences of reporting cases of abuse and the taboo on speaking about sex and sexuality in many cultures, especially in relation to children, makes it very difficult to establish a true picture of the scale of GBV in and around schools. The silence and secrecy around the issue is widely reported in the research; it is a major factor in the non-reporting of incidents and makes the monitoring of reported cases complex and sensitive.

There are also numerous pitfalls to using the group of participatory methodologies commonly known as PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) or PLA (Participatory Learning

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[102] http://www.popcouncil.org/projects/246_ACASI.asp. Trials with 6000 adolescents were conducted in Kenya; see Mensch, B., Hewett, P.C. and Erulkar, A.S. (2003) The reporting of sensitive behaviour by adolescents: a methodological experiment in Kenya. *Demography,* 40(2), 247-268

[103] See Leach and Mitchell, op.cit., for some examples

[104] Morrow, V. (2009) *The Ethics of Social Research with Children and Families in Young Lives,* Young Lives: an International Study of Childhood Poverty, Working Paper No. 53; Christensen, P. and James, A. (2008) *Research with Children: perspectives and practices.* 2nd ed. New York and London: Jessica Kingsley; Leach, F. (2006) Researching gender violence in schools: methodological and ethical considerations, *World Development,* 34, 6, 1129-1147

and Action) in research studies involving children.[105] This is sometimes accused of being exploitative, given the likely gap between involving children in the research and 'doing something meaningful' with the results. The same with regard to interventions: the danger exists that policymakers merely subscribe to the 'rhetorical orthodoxy' of children's participation and that NGOs see this as a strategy to attract sponsorship. Participation is not always in the children's best interests and any anticipated benefits should not allow a disregard of possible risks to the individuals who take part.

Although there is little concrete evidence of repercussions for children in the documentation made available for this desk review, certain research-related aspects of the interventions cause unease. For example, relying on community representatives or district officials to collect data from schools on cases of GBV who may not be appropriately trained in how to handle confidential information, as occurred on one USAID project, may not only result in poorly collected, incomplete or non-existent data; it can also put children at risk of victimisation either in the school or the community. Collection of data by individuals in positions of authority may also serve as a deterrent to reporting.

The ethical challenges of working with children to combat SRGBV should not lead to inaction, as project teams will always face the dilemma of being unable to confirm that all the children who come within the project frame have both the appropriate knowledge and means of access to support and assistance if required. However, extreme care needs to be taken at all times. One approach that can be productive is to engage children directly in the research process e.g. as peer interviewers, and in project monitoring, e.g. as participant observers. If handled well (avoiding the risk that they are viewed as spying by teachers or their peers), this can produce very rich and reliable data. The literature documents considerable experience in this field.[106]

5.4. Recommendations for research

1) **Multi-country comparative studies** based on commonly agreed typologies of school violence underpinned by a strong gender analysis and robust research methodologies, with shared understandings of what is meant by 'gender' and 'violence'

2) **Large scale national surveys** providing conclusive evidence in the form of statistical sex-disaggregated data with which to persuade governments to take action

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[105] See, for example, Johnson, V. et al. (1998) *Stepping Forward: children and young peoples' participation in the development process,* London: Intermediate Technology

[106] Plan Togo (2006) Monitoring and evaluation with children (http://plan-international.org/where-we-work/africa/publications/monitoring-and-evaluation-with-children); Boyden, J (2000) Conducting Research with War-Affected and Displaced Children, in Rethinking Childhood: Perspectives on children's rights, Special issue of *Cultural Survival Quarterly*, Issue 24.2; Save the Children (2002) Children and Participation: Research, monitoring and evaluation with children and young people; Hart, J. and Tyrer, B (2006) Research with children living in situations of armed conflict: concepts, ethics and methods, Refugee Studies Centre, Oxford (http://www.rsc.ox.ac.uk/publications/working-papers-folder_contents/RSCworkingpaper30.pdf/view?searchterm=research%20with%20children)

3) **Research from regions outside Sub-Saharan Africa,** especially gender-based quantitative and qualitative studies from Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia, the Middle East and North Africa; also gender-based ethnographic studies from Southern and Eastern Europe

4) **Research in conflict and post conflict settings** to highlight the importance of understanding GBV and the need to include gender equality in programmes of reconstruction and reconciliation

5) **Research that goes beyond examining heterosexual forms of violence** to examine less recognised forms of SRGBV such as the sexual abuse of boys (especially in Asia), sexual assaults on female teachers, homophobic bullying, girl-on-girl violence and cyber-bullying; also intersectional analysis that explores the ways that gender and other identities interact, e.g. for minority and marginalised groups

6) **Research into the impact of SRGBV on educational access, retention and achievement,** in particular on achievement

7) **Rigorous evaluation of interventions to address SRGBV**, which can provide examples of good practice, possible models and lessons learned; wide dissemination of findings.

6. Policy, programming and implementation responses to SRGBV

The first part of this section examines policy, programming and implementation approaches to addressing SRGBV, with a number of interventions highlighting examples of promising practice at the school, community and national level. The second part elaborates on the key challenges emerging from this review of responses to SRGBV, including in monitoring and evaluation. The third part outlines some of the opportunities and experiences of using the education sector to address the problem of SRGBV.

6.1. Policy

Global initiatives to address violence against children have accelerated in the wake of the 2006 UN report on Violence against Children. An Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary General on Violence against Children (SRSG) was established to assist governments, international organisations, civil society, research institutions and others to work towards ending all forms of violence against children. The SRSG has collaborated with regional organisations as well as with national governments. Regional initiatives such as the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, the Africa Child Policy Forum and the South Asia Initiative to End Violence Against Children (SAIEVAC), and the Keeping Children Safe network of 27 NGOs from Europe, Asia and Africa, are examples of organisations which are attempting to address the recommendations of the UN 2006 report and work to reduce the abuse and exploitation of children.[107]

Global and regional policy initiatives specific to addressing violence in schools are less

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[107] Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary General on Violence against Children (SRSG) (2012) Tackling Violence in Schools: a global perspective bridging the gap between standards and practice. New York: SRSG

common and they have tended to focus on eliminating bullying and corporal punishment. The Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children is the most high profile global campaign[108] while the Council of Europe's campaign for prohibition of all corporal punishment across its 47 member states and its 'One in Five' campaign to stop sexual violence against children, are examples of regional initiatives.[109] Tackling the AIDS pandemic from within the education sector are numerous inter-governmental and international initiatives, e.g. EDUCAIDS, the UNAIDS Inter-agency Task Team on Education and the HIV and AIDS Education Clearinghouse, all led by UNESCO, whose work on advocacy, knowledge dissemination and exchange relating to HIV and AIDS contributes indirectly to efforts to reduce GBV in schools.

However, the UN global update on violence against children five years after the launching of the Secretary General's report[110] presents a depressing picture of very slow progress worldwide in eliminating violence against children, with little evidence that anything has been achieved in schools beyond an increase in the number of countries which have introduced a ban on corporal punishment and a small range of initiatives, mainly by Plan, UNICEF and Save the Children, to encourage and train teachers to adopt positive discipline alternatives, sometimes with accompanying manuals.[111]

While international initiatives to eliminate corporal punishment and bullying in schools may be delivering results, they exclude GBV from the mainstream discourse on education and relegate it to the policy agendas of those working to eliminate violence against women more generally, much of which focuses on domestic and intimate partner violence. This means that there is insufficient attention given to the special vulnerabilities of children and adolescents, especially girls, within the context-specific circumstances of schooling, and a risk that this particular barrier to participation in education will be marginalised by governments and agencies preoccupied with implementing gender-blind interventions to address corporal punishment and, to a lesser extent, bullying.

There continues to be a dearth of multi-agency, multi-government and multi-sectoral initiatives to improve either prevention of, or response to, SRGBV. Most legal and policy frameworks have been developed at the national level, and, in terms of GBV, have focused narrowly on sexual violence. Corporal punishment in education is dealt with separately by policymakers, who argue that it is no longer acceptable in a progressive society and needs to be replaced by alternative methods; no connection is made between the persistence of, and public support for, corporal punishment and other mutually-reinforcing manifestations of violence both in the school and the wider society which are underpinned by a set of norms and practices based on social inequalities and injustices, including gender.

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[108] It claims that in two years, anti-violence campaign messages have reached 94 million adults and children through radio and television shows, leaflets, training sessions and workshops (SRSG).

[109] SRSG (2012) op.cit.

[110] UN (2011) Five Years On: a global update on violence against children. Report from the NGO Advisory Council for follow-up to the UN Secretary-General's Study on Violence Against Children

[111] e.g. Save the Children (2007) Positive Discipline Manual: what it is and how to do it, author: J.E. Durrant; Save the Children (2008) Positive Discipline Techniques to Promote Positive Behavior in Children, Training Manual for Facilitators.

National government responses to research evidence about SRGBV and lobbying from grassroots groups and national and international agencies, have consisted mainly of drafting legislation to make it an offence for teachers and other professionals to have sex with children in their care, to make prosecution of offending individuals more straightforward, to tighten Teachers' Codes of Conduct and in some cases to change the policy on allowing pregnant schoolgirls to continue their education after giving birth. Follow through however has been weak, due to lack of political will, poor institutional capacity, cultural barriers and lack of resources. It is of note that sex between teachers and their students is not illegal in many countries, unless the student is under the age of consent - it was only in 2000 that legislation was passed in the UK making it a criminal offence for a person in a position of trust to engage in sexual activity with a person under 18. Kenya has offered an exception in reportedly having dismissed 1000 male teachers for sexual misconduct with their students over a two year period.[112] Ministries of Education have also sought to provide greater guidance on ethical conduct in their teacher training programmes but again implementation has been patchy.

The lack of coordination by governments, ministries and agencies in efforts to tackle school violence and the need for more joined up action both globally and nationally on policy and programming has already been highlighted in several reports.[113] One report by the Overseas Development Institute in London commissioned by Plan International identifies particular shortcomings in terms of:

a) the limited evidence base (lack of comparative longitudinal surveys and, in particular in Asia, of qualitative ethnographic studies; lack of national, regional and international databases on school-based violence)

b) the lack of coordinated design, implementation and monitoring of policies and programmes (lack of joined up services, capacity building for service providers and inter-sectoral coordination and cross-sectoral service provision - with school violence being marginalised and narrowly defined as an issue of child protection only)

c) the lack of a multi-stakeholder approach (which recognises the multi-dimensional nature of violence against children and its prevalence in the home and community as well as in school).

To this one should add the lack of recognition of the inter-linked nature of manifestations of school violence, and the multi-faceted authoritarian and gendered school culture which continues to foster violence, especially against girls. It is somewhat ironic that, while there is much emphasis placed on the need for coordinated effort to tackle violence in schools, the strategies that are recommended usually suggest dealing with each form of violence in isolation (i.e. dealing with corporal punishment separately from bullying and sexual violence) rather than adopting an integrated approach. Unless

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[112] see footnote 30

[113] e.g. Jones, N. (2008) Increasing visibility and promoting policy action to tackle sexual exploitation in and around schools in Africa: A briefing paper with a focus on West Africa Plan West Africa; Management Systems International (MSI), op.cit.

deeply entrenched cultures that tolerate and perpetuate all forms of school violence are addressed holistically, policies and programmes will be ineffective.

6.2. Programming

Most agencies active in this field have implemented country specific programmes, although a few international players have coordinated projects across several countries. There are a few (non gender-based) programmes that are used more widely, e.g. the Olweus Bullying Prevention Programme is used in a number of countries in the global North, and the Council of Europe supports a programme of violence reduction in schools in its member states which provides teacher training and human rights education.[114] Plan International includes violence reduction strategies in its education and child protection programmes as part of its global Learn without Fear Campaign (some of which are gender-based, see Annex 2). The network of child helplines across 133 countries is a related global initiative, although of course their remit goes beyond schools.[115]

A comprehensive review of the programming choices of the major international and national players in this field reveals that most cover both prevention of, and response to, school violence. Within this are four broad options:

1) **separate or integrated**: some programmes deal with the various types of school violence as separate from each other (as explained in the previous section) i.e. they focus on corporal punishment or on sexual violence or on bullying, or sometimes a combination (e.g. sexual violence and bullying), whereas others address forms of school violence as interlinked and underpinned by a set of institutional structures and practices, including those marked by gender differentiation and discrimination. Those that fall within the latter category are surprisingly few. At the forefront are four international agencies: ActionAid, Concern, Plan International and USAID. Their interventions (Table 1) have consistently taken a strong GBV approach and, not surprisingly, share broadly overlapping objectives, expected outcomes and activities, as laid out in Annex 2.

Most international agencies have adopted the former approach. UNICEF, Save the Children, Plan International and Oxfam all have a global reach in their support for basic education and child protection, with a particular focus on girls, and they are at the forefront of the international drive to make schools safe and free of all forms of violence. Like other international agencies, they make reference to the above typology of physical, sexual and psychological violence (as explained in Section 3) and distinguish between the three main forms of school violence (corporal punishment, sexual violence and bullying), although they have not always done this consistently. Since the 2006 UN Report on Violence against Children, they have also made a significant contribution to the global campaign to eliminate corporal punishment on children.

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[114] SRSG, op.cit.

[115] Child Helpline International (2011) *Using Child Helplines to Protect Children from School Violence*. http://plan-international.org/learnwithoutfear/resources/publications/using-child-helplines-to-protect-children-from-school-violence

For example, Save the Children has mounted a successful global campaign entitled *Rewrite the Future*, which provides education in 20 conflict-affected countries and promotes positive discipline while UNICEF's flagship initiative *Child Friendly Schools* (CFS) has been rolled out in as many as 90 countries across the world.[116] The CFS framework encompasses child-centred, gender-sensitive, inclusive, environmentally friendly, protective and healthy approaches to schooling and out-of-school education, with a child-centred pedagogy and curriculum development. It often includes good school design and layout and the provision of water and sanitation and encourages links with the local community.[117] The International Rescue Committee's *Healing Classrooms Initiative* draws on the CFS model for its education programmes in conflict and post-conflict settings.[118] Oxfam's *WASH* (water, sanitation and hygiene promotion) programme in schools, including in emergency settings such as refugee and IDP camps, provides sex-specific toilets, safe water supplies, and improved infrastructure such as redecorated classrooms, new or repaired fences and tree planting in an effort to make schools more attractive to students, especially girls.[119] Plan International straddles the two approaches, adopting a gender-based approach to several of its programmes (see Annex 2).

In the above programmes the various forms of school violence are not seen as inter-linked and mutually reinforcing. A SRGBV approach on the other hand is supported by programmes which are consistently underpinned by gender analysis, i.e. they use gender-sensitive outcomes and indicators, gather sex-disaggregated data to measure the extent to which the gender-sensitive outcomes have been met, and subject the data to systematic scrutiny through a gender lens. Without this, the data cannot inform effective responses to the violence that is fuelled by the school culture.

2) **'girls only' or 'boys and girls'**. Two of the SRGBV projects which feature in this review addressed girls' needs only, although they also engaged boys in some activities. The Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT) project and the Stop Violence against Girls in School (SVAGS) project are both implemented by ActionAid with the Institute of Education in London (Table 1). They differ from the more inclusive approach taken by the other projects covered by this review, where both boys and girls were project beneficiaries, although they also recognised that girls were usually more disadvantaged and needed additional targeted inputs. The rationale behind the 'girls only' approach is that the achievement of universal primary education and the elimination of gender disparities in education is being impeded by school violence perpetrated mostly against girls, and that a collaborative action space needs to be

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[116] UNICEF (2009) Child Friendly Schools Programming: global evaluation report; http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/files/Global_CFS_Evaluation_Report_Uploaded_Version.pdf; Child Friendly Schools Manual http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/Child_Friendly_Schools_Manual_EN_040809.pdf.

[117] A toolkit 'Building Gender Friendly Schools' has been developed by Education International, the Education Development Centre and WHO and is currently being used in 35 countries; it covers physical safety, conduct and the 'culture' of the learning institution as well as other curriculum, training and policy issues (UNESCO, 2012, Gender Equality, HIV and Education, Good Policy and Practice in HIV and Health Education, Booklet 7)

[118] www.healingclassrooms.com

[119] See for example, Dieu Chi, Nguyen (2011) Gender, WASH and education case study: An insight paper from Viet Nam. http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications

created in which girls' individual and collective agency can be strengthened and their life choices increased. The risk of this approach is that boys may become resentful at being left out and, seeing their dominance in and around the school being eroded, try and disrupt the girls' activities. Indeed this happened, and SVAGS in Ghana and Kenya formed boys' clubs to overcome this hostility, recognising that boys need to be on girls' side if change in behaviour within schools is to be realised.

3) **single or multiple input**: the USA and the UK have been at the forefront of interventions which adopt a GBV approach but most have been of the single stand-alone type. Typically these offer a series of short inputs such as courses on gender awareness or anger management, or how to recognise and deal with sexual harassment, often delivered in schools by an outside trained facilitator. Although they have been developed for culturally specific settings around dating, teenage sex, gangs etc (e.g. the Safe Dates and Expect Respect programmes in the USA, Zero Tolerance in the UK), their methodology of providing short education and training inputs is similar to that of many of the responses to SRGBV in the global South.[120]

Similar stand-alone inputs have been delivered in development contexts (especially Sub-Saharan Africa) as life skills classes or curriculum materials to address issues around GBV, sexuality and HIV/AIDS. While some of these interventions are small scale and school-based, delivered variously by teachers, health educators, counsellors or peer facilitators, others address large audiences using multi-media mass communication, such as magazines, radio and TV. The best known of these is the social mobilisation programme Soul City, which operates across Southern Africa, combining messages about sexual and reproductive health and HIV/AIDS with GBV. The table in Annex 3 provides brief details of some of the best known stand-alone interventions in development contexts.

A multiple-input or multi-level approach is one in which different levels of the educational system and different groups of stakeholders are targeted simultaneously. This approach is informed by the growing realisation that such single stand-alone inputs have had little impact in addressing violence and do not appear to translate into lasting behaviour change. Instead, the multi-level project seeks to create synergies between different levels (e.g. macro, meso, micro /national, local, school) and types of engagement which, it is hoped, will cumulatively have an impact on the complex factors which contribute to SRGBV. For example, gains at the micro (school) level can be consolidated through awareness raising and capacity building at the meso (district/community) level and feed into policy and legal reform at the macro (national) level, and vice versa. This is premised on the belief that addressing a complex issue such as SRGBV in a way that will bring about sustainable change requires a comprehensive and context-sensitive response involving many categories of stakeholder.

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[120] There is some evidence of cross-cultural transferability, although this has usually been between countries in the global South, e.g. between Latin America, Africa and Asia, not between those in the North. See Ricardo, C., Eads, M. and Barker, G. (2011) *Engaging Boys and Young Men in the Prevention of Sexual Violence: A systematic and global review of evaluated interventions,* Sexual Violence Research Initiative (hosted by the Medical Research Council, South Africa) for the Oak Foundation.

One example of the interconnectivity between inputs came from the Safe Schools project in Malawi, where the *Doorways I* student programme prompted discussions on early marriage, which were then picked up by the Community Action Planning Committee and the messages of the importance of staying in school emphasised through the *Doorways II* community counsellor programme. The momentum brought about by this combination of mutually supporting actions led to reported cases of child brides re-enrolling in school.

However, the complexity and challenges of working simultaneously with structures at numerous levels poses risks. The optimum intervention points, the different influences and pressures which come to bear on actors and the ways in which different interventions can contribute to the overall goal of reducing SRGBV need to be clearly identified and understood at each level. This strategy also requires a strong, thorough appreciation of the differing contexts in which programmes operate, with key stakeholders, structures, legislative frameworks etc. identified in each national and local context, along with the mechanisms to support legislation and policy implementation, and an assessment of their capacity to function (e.g. child welfare or protection committees). There are many examples of excellent policies that have not been funded or implemented to the intended effect. The most obvious is the revised Teachers' Code of Conduct, which makes sanctions for teacher sexual misconduct more robust and explicit, yet students, parents, and sometimes teachers themselves, do not know what is in it, and its enforcement is erratic. Nevertheless, the multi-level approach has clear advantages and is recommended in many of the reports on tackling school violence.

4) 'whole school' or 'violence only'. The efficacy of a holistic 'whole school' approach versus the narrow 'violence only' approach is a subject of debate. The rationale for integrating issues around SRGBV into a broad programme of educational support is that it allows for linkages and synergies to be made with other components of the programme, such as teacher training, curriculum revision, school governance, educational financing and infrastructural support, in a way that can be mutually beneficial and not available to a project devoted exclusively to addressing violence. It may also offer a more subtle means of lobbying and negotiating with officials who may otherwise be irritated by what they see as a relentless Western obsession with gender, e.g. by linking GBV to discussions around eliminating corporal punishment, reducing dropout and truancy, or increasing girls' enrolment.

On the down side, there is a risk that the SRGBV related inputs can be overwhelmed by other objectives and priorities so that attempts to infuse or disperse SRGBV elements in activities designed to address other outcomes will be diluted to the point where they can have little impact. This may be especially the case if there are numerous identified outcomes and available resources have to be spread quite thinly. Moreover, if the SRGBV related activities are not monitored or evaluated separately, i.e. if they are subsumed within a wider objective such as challenging gender discrimination or promoting girls' rights in school, their effectiveness cannot be measured.

Of the two SRGBV projects implemented by ActionAid with the Institute of Education in London which feature in this review, the Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and

Tanzania (TEGINT) project adopts the holistic 'whole school' approach whereas the Stop Violence against Girls in School (SVAGS) project adopts the 'violence only' approach. In terms of *measuring* impact of the various inputs on levels of violence in the project schools, the latter has a clear advantage but the whole school approach may bring about *more lasting change*.

6.3. Implementation - selected SRGBV interventions

When considering examples of good practice in implementing SRGBV interventions, we have drawn mainly on a small number of multi-level projects which have adopted a clear gender analytical frame and have carried out a baseline survey and some form of end of project evaluation. Without the baseline and final evaluation, it would not be possible to make any assessment as to which activities or strategies were successful and which were not.

Those projects which provide the most relevant and reliable information about what works and what does not in addressing SRGBV are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Selected SRGBV Projects

ActionAid with IOE, London	*Stop Violence against Girls in School (SVAGS)*	2008-13	Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique
	Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT)	2007-12	Nigeria and Tanzania
Concern Worldwide	*Promoting Equal Access to Quality Primary Education for Girls and Most Vulnerable Children*	2009-14	Malawi
	Equitable and Safe Quality Primary Education	2008-13	Liberia
	Improving School Education (ISED)	2006-10	Sierra Leone
Plan International	*Promoting Safe, Child-friendly Schools*	2008-11	Uganda
	Learn without Fear	2008-10	Malawi
	Reducing Violence against Girls in Schools	2009-12	Ecuador
(with Raising Voices, Uganda)	*Prevention of School Related Gender Based Violence*	2012-14	Uganda
USAID	*Safe Schools Program*	2003-08	Ghana and Malawi
	Safe Schools and the Reduction of School-related Gender-based Violence (training only)	2010	Tajikistan
(with FHI 360)	*C-Change: Preventing School-Related Gender-Based Violence in Katanga Province, DRC*	2010-12	Democratic Republic of Congo

It is of note that all are funded and managed by external agencies and only two are located outside Sub-Saharan Africa: in Ecuador and Tajikistan (the latter consisting only of a short five day awareness raising course). Details of their aims, objectives, anticipated outcomes, activities and indicators are provided in Annex 2.

USAID's Safe Schools project, with over 1500 participants in 40 primary schools in Ghana and Malawi (2003-8), was the first international project to address SRGBV on a large scale. Plan International started working in this field in the year in which the USAID project was completed, as part of its global Learn Without Fear campaign;[121] it has implemented a number of SRGBV projects, including Promoting Safe, Child-friendly Schools in Uganda (467 participants in 30 primary and secondary schools). Concern Worldwide entered the field in 2009, having made a commitment several years earlier to address GBV in all its programmes; it did this by embedding actions to counteract GBV in schools within some of its existing programmes of support to basic education, with the most progress made in three African countries, Malawi, Sierra Leone and Liberia (working with 25, 66 and 30 schools respectively).[122] ActionAid International has had a long involvement in promoting and supporting girls' education and was one of the first INGOs to start campaigning to eradicate violence against girls in school. It has recently collaborated with the Institute of Education (IOE) in London on the above mentioned projects: SVAGS, with 2757 participants in 44 primary schools in Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique, and TEGINT, with 2788 participants in 129 primary and junior secondary schools in Nigeria and Tanzania.

The SVAGS project, the four Plan projects listed in the above Table, and the two USAID projects all adopt a narrow very focused approach, which is underpinned by recognition that targeting SRGBV is an essential strategy for meeting the broader aim of increasing participation in education and providing an enabling child-friendly environment. In contrast, the TEGINT project and the three Concern projects have adopted a holistic 'whole school' approach. In this respect, they follow the approach taken by UNICEF's *Child Friendly Schools*, Save the Children's *Rewrite the Future* and the IRC's *Healing Classrooms Initiative*.

Most of the projects have focused on school children living in areas of considerable poverty, where this and other forms of social inequality magnify gender disparities in access to schooling, with girls' lives in particular hugely affected by, and vulnerable to, multiple forms of violence. Conscious of the sensitive and challenging nature of their proposed input, most were located in areas where the agency already had a significant presence and had worked on education and/or women's rights issues, as this allowed them to build on existing good working relationships. In some project communities, the incidence of GBV was greater in the home and the community than in the school, which

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[121]The aims of this campaign are to ensure that: laws protecting children against violence in schools exist and are enforced in every country, all governments recognise the scale and severity of school violence and ensure provision of appropriate care and support, and children and adults respect and promote children's right to protection. By 2011 the campaign was active in 44 countries and its anti-violence campaign messages are claimed to have reached 94 million adults and children through radio and television shows, leaflets, training sessions and workshops (SRSG 2012). http://plan-international.org/learnwithoutfear/files/third-progress-report.

[122] SRGBV was part of the initial design in Liberia

presented additional challenges.[123]

A range of activities was targeted at each level so as to maximise impact and bring about systemic change. They included activities to: increase awareness, knowledge and understanding among stakeholders about SRGBV and children's rights to a violence free education; increase community engagement in addressing SRGBV and promoting safe schools; provide children with skills and confidence to confront violence in their school; change attitudes towards gender relations and violence, including acceptance and adoption of positive discipline measures to replace corporal punishment; and improve prevention and response mechanisms for reporting cases of violence or sexual abuse. Most also lobbied for national level policy and legal reforms, including revisions to teachers' codes of conductm so as to deal more effectively and openly with the issue of SRGBV.

Most of the projects also sought to raise knowledge and awareness around HIV and AIDS. TEGINT, the Concern projects and the two USAID projects contained explicit objectives to this effect, with curriculum materials (e.g. *Safe Schools* Doorways Manuals) and awareness raising for students, teachers and communities being the main inputs.

6.4. Evidence of impact

Conclusive evidence of which strategies work and which do not is hard to come by because of the lack of rigorous evaluative data with which to measure impact. Some of the selected projects did not monitor their activities regularly and end of project evaluations were sketchy or poorly carried out. The SVAGS project stands out for having developed a very comprehensive monitoring tool. The TEGINT project also had a strong M&E framework but the wider scope of the project meant that specific findings on GBV were limited. Below are the key findings relating to impact drawn from the available M&E reports for the projects featured in Table 1, according to three levels: school, community and national.

School level

1) **School clubs**. The one unambiguous finding is that girls' clubs can have a positive impact on reducing SRGBV. With around 2630 girls in 45 schools in three countries enrolled in clubs, the SVAGS Mid Term Review (MTR) in late 2011 concluded that the clubs provided the greatest project impact to date: they had helped raise awareness about violence against girls, created the necessary mechanisms for girls, teachers, parents and other community members to report cases of violence and a few cases had led to prosecutions. The girls were observed to be more confident and outspoken, to know their rights and to identify violations; they were eager to pursue their education, performed better academically, assumed leadership positions in school and had begun to challenge violence in their schools and communities. The girls reported that the skills they learnt in the clubs helped improve their relationships with fellow club members, male classmates, teachers, parents and members of the community. The TEGINT final

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[123] For example, SVAGS data reveal that in 2009 34% of girls in Kenya reported having experienced violence in school compared to 39% in the home/community, with 28% and 49% respectively in Ghana, and 24% and 33% in Mozambique (Parkes and Heslop, 2011, op.cit.).

evaluation also found that girls who were members of clubs had higher levels of academic performance in class, more knowledge of HIV/AIDS, life skills and their rights, were more challenging of discrimination and violence, and had more ideas of how to overcome obstacles than non-club members (more so in Tanzania than in Nigeria). They were also more likely to tell someone if they had experienced violence.[124] This behavioural shift away from silence on the topic to more open discussion is encouraging. The C-Change in the DRC and Plan Uganda noted similar findings. The SVAGS boys' clubs had also made boys more aware of children's rights and the need to advocate for the end of violence against girls, and had improved boys' relationships with girls.

Potential negative impacts of these clubs include: the risk that they create an elite and reinforce social divisions, as the poorest children are unlikely to be able to attend: that they place an unwarranted onus on the children themselves to act as catalysts for change and not enough on forcing those in charge to bring about system-wide reform; and that teachers' commitment and capabilities to run them may be low, with schools already understaffed, especially with female teachers who are needed to run the girls' clubs.[125] There is also an important disconnect between what the girls' clubs are striving to do and the prevailing school culture, which may undermine their impact, i.e. they may encourage assertiveness, leadership, self-esteem and speaking out, whereas both the curriculum and the gender-differentiated practices of the school day may emphasise compliance and deference to teacher authority and female acquiescence to a male sense of superiority.

2) **A clean and safe school environment**. Physical improvements, of the kind promoted by Oxfam in its WASH programme, in particular sex specific toilet blocks, appeared to make schools safer environments, especially for girls. TEGINT adopted a strategy of supporting school improvement plans and providing seed funding to initiate implementation, with the School Management Committee (SMC) choosing what to prioritise and fundraising for matched funds to complete the work. Segregated toilets, water pumps and classroom furniture were popular choices. Concern Kenya has been experimenting with a latrine cubicle for girls to change in and wash themselves during their menstrual period (in conjunction with the Girl Child Network, giving free sanitary towels).

3) **Student involvement in school affairs.** There was some evidence that the development of school codes of conduct for teachers and students and class charters in which students make and enforce rules and regulations collectively (along the lines of UNICEF's Child Friendly Schools) can reduce levels of violence in schools by increasing students' awareness of their rights and responsibilities vis-a-vis violent behaviour, and engaging them directly in violence prevention. Less convincing were attempts to involve students on school committees, e.g. representation on SMCs, Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and disciplinary committees dealing with student complaints. There was little hard data to support claims of impact and the age and authority structures that are so pervasive in schools are unlikely to give much room to student participation

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[124] TEGINT Cross-country summary report December 2012
[125] USAID has supported HIV/AIDS clubs in Malawi, which are run along similar lines (Evans, L.R., 2008, HIV and AIDS School Club Initiative (HASCI) Assessment Report. USAID)

unless head teachers and teaching staff are fully signed up to the child-friendly model of school.

There were claims of impact for the following additional inputs but the lack of strong evaluative evidence sheds uncertainty over them:

4) **Improved reporting mechanisms**. The evaluations showed that one of the most challenging aspects of work to reduce SRGBV is improving the mechanisms in schools (and communities) for reporting and responding to allegations of sexual abuse. One popular school-based strategy was to identify key teachers to work with, who could be regarded as 'allies', and to nominate certain teachers to whom students could report incidents. On the DRC project, female and male teachers who had worked as mentors on a previous USAID project and were trusted and respected in the school and the community, were recruited as 'focal' teachers to serve as the first port of call for children wishing to report incidents of violence. It was not clear however how much impact this strategy had on reducing levels of violence as claims were based on self-reporting by teachers rather than objective observation; trust in teachers and community leaders was often low among children.

The project teams faced difficulties in persuading individuals to report cases and then to pursue them through the judicial system rather than resort to customary law. Current legislation often does not match the level of violation with proportionate penalties, sending a message to perpetrators that they can act with impunity and deterring victims of violence from coming forward. Legal mechanisms for following up cases of sexual abuse are often extremely poorly resourced. Cases take too long to progress through the courts, officials drag their feet and the victims of violence, or their families, are discouraged from reporting. They may prefer to rely on familiar traditional routes for settling family disputes through village chiefs or elders, which sometimes results in monetary compensation. This may not be in the best interests of the child and may serve to sustain the culture of impunity rather than contribute to prevention.

5) Reduced violence. There were no systematic data to indicate a decline in GBV on any of the projects except in levels of corporal punishment (although there was an indication of increased willingness to challenge and/or report violent incidents). Most project teams claimed to have witnessed a decline in their target schools but the evidence for this was shaky. Plan Uganda's final evaluation claimed that in some schools corporal punishment was no longer practised, although it also acknowledged considerable resistance among both parents and teachers, with some parents withdrawing their children from schools where teachers were reluctant to use physical punishment. C-Change in the DRC provides the only piece of relatively reliable evidence for a decline in its 31 project schools, which it attributed to the presence of the focal teacher, to in-depth teacher training and the development of teachers' codes of conduct explicitly addressing SRGBV (Table 2).

The project's endline survey also indicated a significant decrease in other forms of violence, and increased reporting of violent acts, with 46% of students in the 21 target schools saying that they felt safer at school than they had done in previous years,

compared to only 14% in the control schools (with 21% in the latter saying they felt less secure).[126]

Table 2: proportion of teachers who reported that they had administered physical punishments during the last 12 months, Katanga Province, DRC

Physical punishments inflicted on	Baseline	Endline
Hitting, kicking	23.5%	7.5%
Pulling by hair, pinching	20.6%	12.5%
Whipping, caning	25.0%	9.0%
Pushing, shoving	9.3%	8.0%
Hard physical labour	4.9%	3.5%

6) **Knowledge, attitude and behaviour change.** Awareness raising and training were a major plank of activity on all the projects, delivered in the expectation that over time this would lead to a reduction in levels of violence in schools and communities. This took a variety of forms: curriculum input, activities for school clubs and clubs for out of school youth; training for leaders of clubs, including peer leaders; guidance and counselling training for teachers; and visual information such as leaflets, posters and magazines. This was the main thrust of the USAID projects, with a set of three *Doorways* manuals developed for use on *Safe Schools* (for students, teachers and counsellors). These have been taken up by other agencies involved in improving child protection on their education programmes. The *Safe Schools* project in Malawi produced a peer leaders' manual, which was also available in a local language (Chichewa), while SVAGS has developed a manual for those involved with girls' clubs and Concern Kenya a manual on child rights for primary school teaching staff and school management committees.

Impact however was largely limited to increased knowledge about, and some change in attitude towards, SRGBV among students and teachers. The final evaluations were silent on behaviour change except as self-reported change, usually from the teachers' and students' endline questionnaire. These claims were not substantiated by systematic or sustained observations of changed behaviour.

7) **Improved enrolment, retention and achievement**, especially of girls. Several projects recorded increased enrolment and retention of girls and boys in their schools, which some respondents attributed in part to the child-friendly environment created by the intervention; some children did report that they felt safer going to school and attended more regularly. However, there is the danger of assuming a cause and effect relationship when it does not exist, as other factors such as increased government funding, school feeding programmes, free uniforms – or simple demographics - may have played a part. Dropout was the most frequently cited consequence of violence in school on the Plan Uganda project, followed by poor performance, but the database to back up claims of increased retention was not robust enough; the final evaluation of the C-Change project

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[126] C-Change Prevention of School-Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV) Project results Post-Project Endline data

in the DRC indicated that the reduction in violence led to improved learning, although no evidence is provided to support the claim.

Community level
Working with communities proved to be very challenging, with varying levels of engagement between schools and communities in responding to reported cases of school violence. The most one can say with certainty is that there was some increased local capacity and confidence in dealing with issues of violence against children.

1) Awareness raising. Raising awareness of the effects and causes of violence and the rights of children was carried out by all the projects to complement the school-based efforts. This took the form of workshops, FGDs and training for a wide range of stakeholders such as SMC/PTA members, parents and community leaders, also sometimes for the police, child protection and welfare officers. Some capacity building at the Ministry or district education office level was sometimes provided. Organised events such as Open Days to raise awareness and mobilise communities, with speeches by traditional leaders, community theatre, music, dance and poetry sessions and sponsored local radio talk shows, were also popular. TEGINT used 'Community Circles' to conduct awareness-raising activities including household visits, marches and high profile events with local leaders and government officials on marked international days of celebration. Some of these circles attracted the participation of traditional leaders, leading reportedly to considerable (and unexpected) change in the community's attitude and behaviour. Plan Uganda and Concern in Kenya and Ethiopia used 'Community Conversations', a participatory method of addressing the social and cultural attitudes around gender, violence and education, with claims of positive results.[127]

2) Improved reporting and referral mechanisms. All the projects devoted a great deal of effort to helping communities to work with schools on setting up, operationalising or strengthening viable response mechanisms to deal with reported cases of school violence. However progress was slow. This can be attributed to entrenched gender norms and conservative attitudes, suspicion of outside initiatives and under-resourced or under-developed community structures, as well as to the slow responses of government departments and the justice system. Police and health care providers are often unsupportive and unsympathetic towards rape victims, especially girls, who may be blamed for bringing the misfortune upon themselves. Key to progress appeared to be the strengthening of SMCs and PTAs, already a central but problematic plank of many programmes of school improvement. Weak linkages between schools and communities, disunited or disinterested communities, hostility between parents and head teachers who are suspected of sexual abuse or of illegal levies and fees, the frequent transfer of trained teachers and the posting of untrained teachers constrain the capacity to build up these structures. Head teachers and poorly trained teachers may feel especially insecure about parental involvement (and possible criticism).

The SVAGS baseline survey found that only a tiny proportion of cases of SRGBV were

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[127] Concern Kenya has developed a training manual on Community Conversations: Concern Kenya (2012) Our Community, Our Solutions: Community Conversations Trainer of Trainers Manual

reported through official channels (police, district education office or SMC) in all three countries, with children preferring to tell family members and families preferring to handle cases through traditional structures, either out of a desire not to bring shame on the community or a distrust of official agencies. The SVAGS Mid-Term Review (MTR) found that work with SMCs had made less progress, and had had less impact than more tangible initiatives such as the establishment of girls' clubs and sex-specific toilet blocks. Equally worryingly, the TEGINT MTR found that confidential, joined-up reporting systems were not sufficiently in place to deal with the increased dialogue and openness on violence against girls. Both projects found that very few children had access to counselling, care or health services.

SVAGS has taken a systematic approach to monitoring the effectiveness of response mechanisms by recording the number of cases of violence against girls reported annually (from any source) to the police or other organisations in the project districts, and the numbers investigated, prosecuted and convicted. It is also measuring the percentage of girls who reported the violence they had experienced through official channels, as opposed to other channels. So far, the picture is mixed, with only Kenya providing evidence of consistent progress in the reporting and prosecution of cases of violence against girls, and even there the numbers remain very small. The TEGINT final project evaluation however reported a significant shift away from a reliance on informal sanctions and punishment among adults towards reporting cases through formal avenues and procedures.[128]

3) **Role models and mentoring**. A promising strategy was to identify and work with individuals who could serve as role models and mentors in the community: these were individuals who had overcome violent behaviour, or had changed their own attitudes and behaviour, or who were natural leaders. They served as outspoken for reducing SRGBV, helping to open up discussion of gender issues. Some were students who inspired their peers to see that change was possible and to gain the confidence to come forward and report cases of SRGBV.

The TEGINT project's structured approach offers an example of good practice: it worked with the girls' clubs to develop role modeling as a strategy to empower girls and raise their aspirations through being mentored by local professional women. In Nigeria, some girls in junior secondary school were mentored by women who worked in the local teaching hospital and who encouraged them to continue studying and to consider a medical career. Some local business women have sponsored girls through senior secondary school.

National level
1) Legislative and policy reform. Coalitions and networks were formed with organisations at the national level to raise the public profile of violence against children in school and to lobby for legislative and policy reform, while collaboration with local partners sought to ensure that such reforms filtered through to schools and

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[128] TEGINT endline research reports 2012
http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/3351_ed4girlstanzaniaendfinal.pdf
http://www.actionaid.org/publications/transforming-education-girls-nigeria-endline-research-report

communities. One popular strategy was to lobby for revisions to the existing Teachers' Codes of Conduct so as to make the offence of sexual violence against students more explicit and for stronger enforcement of regulations relating to teacher misconduct as part of efforts to improve both prevention and response mechanisms. Many governments have responded to this pressure but the problem of enforcement remains.

2) **Political endorsement and engagement**. Where projects attracted the attention of important politicians and forged good working relationships with government officials, issues of SRGBV were accorded more prominence on the public agenda and given high-level support. In the DRC, strong backing from the Governor of Katanga Province and the regional Ministry of Education for the C-Change project encouraged participation at the community level. In Kenya, a major success for SVAGS was to obtain a government commitment to set aside US$3.7 million for sanitation facilities and sanitary pads in schools, which appeared to contribute to significant increases in girls' enrolment. In Ghana, a memorandum of understanding between the Ministry's Girls' Education Unit and the Domestic Violence Victim Support Unit of the Ghana Police resulted in improved collaboration at the local level, increased awareness of formal reporting channels and a greater sense of confidence among girls and community members about reporting cases through official channels.

3) **Policy rationalisation**. Lobbying work was assisted by the mapping of existing policy frameworks relating to SRGBV, with a view to aiding communication and coordination between different government bodies and across sectors (e.g. Education, Health, Justice, Social Welfare), which, as already noted, was often lacking. For example, Concern in Sierra Leone found from a recent co-commissioned national study on SRGBV that the government had already in place a strong set of policies to combat the widespread incidence of violence against children, but that the funding to operationalise these structures had not been allocated and the reporting mechanisms were broadly ineffectual; so it collaborated with other NGOs to map out the existing policy framework within the Ministry of Education Science and Technology and related ministries, with the aim of increasing knowledge within the system and encouraging action. Concern Liberia did the same and in the process highlighted the fractious nature of these mechanisms and the lack of a consistent understanding of how they are meant to function. The SVAGS Mozambique project team has also published a detailed analysis of laws and policies regarding girls' education and protection as part of a wider network of civil service organisations working on child rights issues, which has influenced the government's current revision to the penal code, including proposals on early marriage and the right of rapists to marry their victims as an alternative to a prison sentence.

SVAGS is trying to monitor legal and policy development by assessing the extent of progress in passing or revising a number of acts and policies relating to violence against girls, e.g. revision of teachers' codes of conduct and policies on re-entry to school of pregnant schoolgirls, and how effectively they are being implemented.

4) **Awareness raising and advocacy**. Media campaigns have been a popular tool to raise awareness at the national level and advocate collective action to address SRGBV. These have included: sponsored radio jingles, skits and live phone ins, TV headlines,

newspapers articles, posters and the production and distribution of low cost entertaining educational materials, including comic books. Only SVAGS is attempting to measure the response of the media to its advocacy work by weekly monitoring of media coverage of cases of SRGBV in two national newspapers in each country and assessing the percentage of articles that address the issue in a sensitive and productive manner.

6.5 Challenges emerging from the review of responses to SRGBV

6.5.1 Policy

Progress on ensuring a legal framework that specifically addresses sexual violence against girls and its implementation at all levels was reported to be slow on all the projects. The silence and denial surrounding the issue of SRGBV, in particular the sexual abuse of children, creates a serious challenge for policy development and enforcement. In countries where homosexual activity is outlawed the problem is even greater as criminalisation can increase stigma and victimisation, and the fear of speaking out. Politicians, mostly male and in tune with dominant cultural norms, may not see it as an important issue, nor as one popular with voters. Moreover, governments change frequently, promises made during election campaigns and verbal commitments made under pressure fail to be followed through, and political parties adjust their priorities to suit changing circumstances. Frequent transfers of teachers and other civil servants also undermine the effectiveness of interventions, especially if they are short term projects. The challenge of overseeing the effective implementation of reforms remains in most contexts, especially in the global South.

Resource-strapped governments are unlikely to take energetic action until confronted by sustained pressure from lobby groups and hard evidence. The problem of enforcement, including of Teachers' Codes of Conduct, is always considerable for governments suffering from a lack of resources, poor accountability, low capacity, poor communication between departments, and bureaucratic paralysis. This discourages complainants from pursuing cases through the courts.

Many governments already have in place sufficient legislation to tackle violence against women and girls and other forms of discrimination based on ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation etc. The challenge for them (and for the international community) is to improve the transparency and effectiveness of legal processes and the enforcement of existing laws and policies. In some cases the response systems are complicated, confusing and difficult to access. Teacher shortages discourage prosecution of teachers for sexual misconduct.

6.5.2 Programming and implementation

1**) Complexity**. Large complex projects with short time cycles and ambitious targets are difficult to design, implement and evaluate, especially if they are rolled out across several countries and involve multiple agencies, objectives and levels of engagement. Adjusting strategies to fit with cultural, contextual and logistical differences, interpreting comparative findings in a way which avoids generalisations, and designing and

implementing solutions for diverse contexts is also difficult. Funding arrangements may encourage unrealistic planning and over-ambitious objectives and expected outcomes, especially where these include lobbying for legislative change. Sufficient lead-in time before project implementation starts is essential. It also provides the opportunity for situational analyses to frame locally relevant action and thereby increase the chances of successful change.

Time-bound project cycles are not conducive to interventions which require systemic change or changes to deep-rooted beliefs and behaviours. If funds for capacity building and support at national and local level are cut off at the end of a short cycle, any gains may be in jeopardy and it will be impossible to monitor impact over a prolonged period, which is necessary if sustained behaviour change is the desired outcome.

2) **Sustainable change.** An intervention designed to bring about reductions in violence needs to go beyond measuring awareness raising and attitude change. The assumption that deeply rooted beliefs and behaviours can be changed by a series of short training sessions is misguided, and the tendency to administer post-training tests and end-of-project questionnaires results in an overly optimistic picture of attitude change, which may be short-lived. The conclusion of a recent systematic review of 54 interventions to address intimate partner and sexual violence among adolescents, of which 16 were school-based,[129] is telling; it found that 'Changes in knowledge and attitudes are the weakest of the outcomes measured because they do not necessarily lead to changes in violence behavior. Therefore, programs cannot be considered effective without research demonstrating reductions in violent behavior. Measuring changes in violence is challenging, however, especially over the short-time period of most projects, and few of the evaluations reviewed assessed behavior change.'

One of the most striking findings of the earlier desk review for Concern Worldwide was the almost complete absence of objective data recording behaviour change in terms of reduced violence in schools and communities. Most claims that levels of violence had declined came from personal assertions and self-reporting (recorded in questionnaires and interviews) which are hard to verify, e.g. teachers regularly declared that they no longer used corporal punishment but these claims were not supported by sustained observation or documentary evidence from school or district records and reports, and were often contradicted by evidence from students. Another systematic review, this time of 65 interventions targeting boys and young men in the prevention of sexual violence, drew a similar conclusion:[130] evidence of the effectiveness of some interventions to improve **attitudes** towards violence against women was substantial, but evidence of an actual decrease in male perpetration of violent **behaviours** in the long-term was much less clear cut, as very few of the studies attempted to measure perpetration of sexual violence and only one (Safe Dates in the USA) sought to assess impact several years later. As the link between increased knowledge and/or changes in attitudes and a subsequent change in behaviour is not proven, an important lesson is

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[129] Lundgren, op.cit.
[130] Ricardo, Eads and Barker, op.cit. This review aimed to explore the potential for intervening directly with boys and young men in community and school settings to address risk factors for sexual violence within diverse socio-cultural settings.

that ***measurements of attitude change should not be taken as proxies for behaviour change.***

On the SVAGS project, the majority of national level officials who were interviewed supported efforts to reduce SRGBV but far fewer had taken any action to demonstrate their support by Year 3 of the project (35% in Ghana, 14% in Kenya and none in Mozambique). Depressingly, the TEGINT MTR reached the same conclusion: a systemic shift in knowledge and attitudes on gender equality among school stakeholders was not extensive, and increased access of girls to school had not consistently transformed school attitudes to girls' education and gender. The disjuncture between new legislation and the required behaviour change is most easily exemplified by the ban on corporal punishment in schools, with many of the 117 governments who have signed up doing little to enforce it.

Even with improved reporting systems, capturing the scale of violent incidents in schools will remain a challenge given the mundane 'taken for granted' nature of much GBV. It is easier to challenge overt forms of violence such as beatings, unsolicited physical contact or assault than more covert forms such as insults, sexual harassment and intimidation. In one study, boys reported verbal insults and deprecating remarks by teachers as more damaging and hurtful than a beating.[131]

3) Shared understandings. Project implementation strategies usually assume that country teams share common understandings of gender and of what constitutes GBV, its causes and consequences. This may not be the case. Project staff may feel under pressure to express compliance in public, yet continue to hold divergent views in private and even to deny the existence of GBV. Concern Liberia highlighted the fact that, even in schools where training on GBV had been provided, there was not a robust or shared understanding of either gender or GBV. The time required to build common understandings, good relationships and implementation capacity in projects which deal with sensitive issues and deep-rooted beliefs may be under-estimated and insufficiently budgeted.

4) **Project design.** An effective project to address GBV is one that brings together research, intervention (and advocacy if appropriate) and M&E. Research in the form of a comprehensive situational analysis and a well-constructed baseline survey, with a well-developed set of gender-sensitive indicators, provides the foundation from which to monitor and measure change. Without an evidence base of robust and relevant data, policy makers and funders will remain unconvinced of the need to take strong action to address SRGBV. Ideally, the baseline should be administered and analysed before project implementation starts, so that the findings can be used to inform activities and the establishment of realistic outcomes. It also needs to collect data on all significant aspects of the respondents' background and in a form which can be replicated in an endline survey as part of the final evaluation.

Quantitative data collected through a baseline and endline survey should be complemented by in-depth rich descriptive data which has the power to explain the

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[131] Dunne, Leach et al (2005) op.cit.

patterns revealed by statistical measurement and to advance understanding of the long-term effects of GBV on health and educational outcomes. Longitudinal studies such as the type carried out by the Population Council in the field of reproductive health, poverty and HIV/AIDS and the DFID funded 'Young Lives' project, which is tracing the changing lives of 12,000 children in four countries over 15 years, are particularly valuable. Longitudinal studies have long been used to inform social policymaking in the global North but they are expensive to resource and require long-term commitment (£16 million for Young Lives).[132] Young Lives uses a combination of quantitative methods – a regular survey of all the children and their primary caregivers – together with in-depth qualitative research with a sub-sample of the children in order to build up a broad-based understanding of child development and childhood in developing countries at the beginning of the twenty-first century.

One lesson from those projects which adopted the 'whole school' approach is that, to retain clarity of purpose and outcome, it is necessary to ring-fence the SRGBV component, ensuring that the relevant strategies and activities are clearly articulated through specific outcomes and indicators, with its own budget and M&E tools that have been designed to capture evidence of progress (or its absence) towards the achievement of each specified outcome.

5) Local partnerships. Where effective local partnerships were forged, the projects benefited. All the projects featured in Table 1 claimed to espouse a participatory and inclusive approach to project implementation, working with in-country partner organisations and involving a wide range of national and local stakeholders in addressing SRGBV; such an approach is seen as central to bringing about significant and sustainable change, including creating safer learning environments with non-violent disciplinary practices. SVAGS found that well-established local partner organisations who are familiar with the project area, the target population and local power structures, and are recognised and respected in their communities, can be the key to securing community support and facilitating commitments from district authorities. If locally based, they can mobilise communities more quickly with longer lasting effects as they are more likely to remain in the community after the project ends. However, such partnerships can be fraught with conflicting priorities, conceptualisations and time frames, and disruptions, delays, poor commitment from partners and inadequate capacity can undermine smooth implementation.

6) Working with children
Some of the ethical challenges of working with children have been highlighted above in section 5.3.2. One design decision which impacts on children relates to the use of control groups. The SVAGS team decided not to use control schools on the grounds that it was unethical to engage in research without providing accompanying support in the case of,

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[132] Young Lives is funded by DFID, UK (2002-17) and is gathering evidence on the causes and consequences of childhood poverty and inequality in order to shape policy debate and programme design in the study countries and globally. It is tracing the changing lives of 12,000 children in Ethiopia, India (Andhra Pradesh), Peru and Vietnam over a 15-year period, reflecting the timeframe set by the UN to assess progress towards the Millennium Development Goals. Through multiple methods, data are collected about the children's material and social circumstances, their perspectives on their lives and aspirations for the futures, set against the environmental and social realities of their communities (www.younglives.org.uk).

for example, unearthing high levels of violence against girls. USAID's Safe Schools project, on the other hand, adopted a quasi-experimental design with 10 out of the 40 schools in each country (Ghana and Malawi) acting as a control group; however, the control sites became contaminated when some teachers in the target schools were transferred to control schools and so this feature had to be abandoned. The C-Change project in the DRC used control schools but they may also have suffered from contamination as significant decreases in GBV were recorded in the control schools, albeit not as high as in the target schools (this could also be in part the result of increased awareness in the community and mass media messages via TV and radio). Good practice, nevertheless, indicates that control groups may not be appropriate when working with children.

Another challenge which all the project teams faced was the risk that official support and reporting mechanisms would not be in place or not functioning when violence was disclosed during the research process, with little opportunity to access local child protection services. To minimise this risk, several teams consulted with local partners to find out what services were available, and partnered with organisations that could provide a comprehensive response to which victims could be referred.

Given the sensitivity of the topic and the institutional setting of the intervention, children may not understand the ramifications of what they are saying and teams not understand the consequences of some of the project activities in their school. One case was documented by Concern in which some children, through pictures and words, indicated that they did not like being approached for 'love' by their teacher. The staff conducting the activity felt obliged to report this but the process of reporting and follow up had not been thought through completely. One consequence was that some of the schools no longer permitted the activity and some of the children that had participated had been subjected to discrimination.[133]

7) Female teachers. There is an assumption that female teachers contribute to safer and more child-friendly schools by providing some protection for girls from violence.[134] The parents and guardians of girls find the presence of women reassuring and a counter-measure to potential sexual misconduct by male teachers, especially in rural areas where there are usually few female teachers. However, there is no clear correlation between the level of violence against girls and the proportion of female teachers in schools. A more cautious assessment is that the absence of female teachers can aggravate levels of violence in schools, rather than that their presence reduces it.

It is tempting to regard female teachers as agents of change but not all are advocates of girls' rights. They may hold similar stereotypical views of gender as many male teachers and express them through gender differentiated practices in the classroom. Moreover, where socio-cultural norms require women to show deference to men, female teachers find advising or reporting male colleagues, who see themselves as senior, very difficult. Many prefer to remain silent on the issue of sexual violence; in several African studies female teachers were very hesitant to speak openly or even to admit its existence in

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[133] Verbal communication with Concern Zambezia team.
[134] Kirk, J (2006) The Impact of Women Teachers on Girls' Education, UNESCO, Advocacy Brief

their school.[135] The Safe Schools project concluded that only when teachers have understood and confronted their own attitudes and experiences in relation to SRGBV can they play an effective role in addressing it[136] while the TEGINT project concluded that better trained teachers, whether female or male, were associated with increased girls' confidence and knowledge, rather than more female teachers *per se*. The latter project also found that close collaboration between the SMC and the village leadership and a broad and equitable SMC composition, i.e. other community stakeholder groups as well as women, were more important factors for improving gender equity and reducing school violence.

8) The impact on school enrolments. The remorseless drive towards EFA has resulted in a dramatic increase in the number of children enrolling in school in the poorer regions of the world. The pressures that this poses for systems and resources can make children more vulnerable to violence, especially if expansion is at the expense of quality. As resources are stretched, untrained or less experienced teachers appointed and pupil-teacher ratios increase, it is more difficult for teachers to maintain control and deal with violent incidents. At the same time, where schools have managed to reduce levels of violence, increases in enrolments may be even greater and dropout may be reduced. However, in the long term, the impact on children's learning may be negative given the limited resources available, and reduced quality of education may force children to drop out again.

6.5.3. Monitoring and evaluation (M&E)

Taking into consideration the challenging set of tasks involved in interventions to address SRGBV, it is surprising that this field lacks rigorous evaluation. Many projects are small-scale, have no indicators to monitor progress towards outcomes, and some do not gather systematic baseline or endline data, or not in a form that could be used for effective M&E purposes. On the SRGBV projects reviewed here, the indicators designed to measure the reduction in GBV were often too broad or too vague, or their purpose was poorly understood, e.g. *impact* was confused with *progress* or *results*;[137] sometimes the mechanisms and resources were not in place to gather the necessary data. Only the SVAGS project provides clear evidence of good practice in M&E. The Institute of Education team developed a detailed and rigorous monitoring tool, which systematically recorded, measured and provided a basis for the analysis of the achievement or otherwise of the outcomes (see Box 1 below and Annex 4).

The difficulty of on-going monitoring to chart progress in meeting outcomes remains probably the greatest challenge for those designing and implementing responses to

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[135] De Lange et al (2012) op.cit.; Leach et al. (2003) op.cit.

[136] Management Information Systems (MSI), op.cit.

[137] Indicators may be developed to measure expected outcomes in terms of processes and activities, e.g. numbers of documents produced, forms filled in, numbers trained, meetings and workshops held, cases referred etc. or to measure increased knowledge about SRGBV, e.g. numbers who are able to identify legislation dealing with GBV, or who know of a local organisation providing support, or who can identify different forms of violence**.** See for example Raising Voices Annual Report 2011, Appendix. http://www.raisingvoices.org/files/RV_AnnualReport2011.pdf.

SRGBV. The failure to construct achievable outcomes which can be measured against indicators and monitored regularly results in a lack of clarity about actual outcomes and hence a lack of evidence of change, be it positive or negative. Monitoring guidelines need to show which indicator is being measured by what data, how the information will be collected, at what intervals and how it will be analysed. Without adequate M&E, there can be no informed choice of strategies and the credibility of initiatives with government officials and politicians will be low.

Effective M&E depends on integrating data collection methods fully into the intervention, with regular data gathering exercises, record keeping and trend analysis required from the beginning. However, monitoring the impact of activities to bring about awareness raising and attitude change on behaviour is extremely difficult. The failure to problematise the link between attitude change and behaviour change is in part the consequence of the absence of a tested and proven methodology to measure changes in behaviour, especially in relation to sexual matters. A first step is to move away from the self-reporting of change in single interviews or questionnaires towards the triangulation of data through sustained observations, documentary evidence and regular interviews and meetings with multiple stakeholders.

A lack of institutional understanding of the purpose of M&E among project staff and partners and insufficient tools for documenting lessons learned negatively affects understanding of the change process. Research capacity building for project staff in how to collect and analyse M&E data, how to use them to inform project activities, and how the data will be used in relation to the baseline and endline, is necessary if reliable outcomes are to be registered. Effective M&E also requires a culture of critical enquiry and learning, in which monitoring is seen as an opportunity to critically assess the situation to date and to make adjustments to improve targeting and implementation strategies. The uncritical acceptance of data, including taking at face value what is said in interviews without looking for corroborating evidence, encourages views of sustainable change that are more optimistic than is warranted, as the effects are either not real or are quickly lost. Engaging an academic or research institution to work collaboratively with development agency staff on the research component of a project, e.g. assisting in developing the baseline and endline surveys and a rigorous M&E framework, and assisting with data analysis, can be of assistance in this respect.

The systematic review of 65 interventions targeting boys and young men cited above paints a picture of much work to be done on M&E:

'…. there is a need for more rigorous evaluation designs, more standardized measures, additional measures of behavioral outcomes, additional differential effectiveness analyses, and longer follow-up periods. Additionally, findings suggest the need for studies to more effectively pretest participants and a need for evaluation tools with higher reliability (particularly related to self-reporting). …. There are still many unanswered questions in this field, and a tremendous need exists for additional research that has sufficient sample sizes, solid research design, reliable and valid measures, and sufficient follow-up to allow us to determine the most effective interventions across a variety of settings and target populations. What we do know is that some interventions

seem to show promise. The work of program developers, researchers, and funders moving forward will be utilizing the promising work that has been done and building upon it.'[138]

CASE STUDY: STOP VIOLENCE AGAINST GIRLS IN SCHOOLS (SVAGS)
A WELL DESIGNED INTERVENTION

SVAGS is a recently completed 5 year project (2008-13) which goes some way to filling the gap in the evidence base on effective intervention on violence against girls. It is a multi-dimensional project, led by Actionaid in collaboration with the Institute of Education in London and sponsored by the UK Big Lottery Fund, which combines research, advocacy and community intervention. 44 schools and 2739 respondents in three African countries (Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique) participated.

The project stands out for its systematic approach to project design, implementation and M&E.

Aims
To enable girls to enjoy their rights to education and participation in a violence-free environment.

Key design features
A mixed methodology comprising quantitative (survey) and qualitative (interviews and focus group discussions) data
Measurement and assessment of change through comprehensive **baseline and endline studies** (the baseline was also used to inform project interventions)
A rigorous **monitoring and evaluation framework** designed to record, measure and provide a basis for analysis of the achievement of the overall outcomes through milestones, intermediate outcomes and indicators
A **longitudinal study** to analyse how girls' capacities to challenge violence and gendered inequality changed over the course of the project, and how social relations and institutions contributed to these changes
A **research protocol** which recognised the potential harm and distress caused to children involved in research on such a sensitive issue and the power imbalance between researcher and participant.

Key implementation findings
The project led to numerous changes in knowledge, attitudes and behaviours among pupils, teachers, families and communities in relation to SRGBV and to some legislative and policy reforms, although in both areas the results were uneven. Complex and at times inconsistent data prevented the team drawing any firm conclusions about whether the project had substantially reduced violence against girls in school. Nevertheless, there were significant findings of potential interest to government and non-government actors around the world.

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[138] Ricardo, Eads and Barker, op.cit.

National level

Advocacy and lobbying led to some progress on legislative and policy reform. Specifically it was found that:

- building coalitions and alliances with civil society organisations was effective in influencing policy making and securing funding commitments
- strategic relationships with media houses and individual journalists promoted awareness of issues around SRGBV and improved media reporting of violence
- advocacy work led to an increased number of officials reporting that they were taking action to help challenge violence against girls
- advocacy through alliance-building provided pressure for change, e.g. in Ghana a Memorandum of Understanding between the Girls' Education Unit of the Ghana Education Service and the Domestic Violence and Victims Support Unit of the Ghana Police improved local collaboration and increased confidence in reporting through official channels; in Kenya, a Ministry of Education circular was produced which aimed at ensuring that teachers found guilty of sexual violence are not just transferred to other schools and making it an offence not to report an offender; a centralised database to track teachers who commit sexual offences was set up and a commitment secured from teachers' unions not to protect teachers found guilty of an offence; in Mozambique, campaigns to reject Decree 39, which prohibits pregnant girls from attending day-time schooling, and to revise the Penal Code with regard to child rights and gender violence received widespread support, while girls' direct petitioning of the Minister led to a proposal to institutionalise girls' clubs across the country.

Community level

Awareness raising activities, advocacy work and training led to increased knowledge about SRGBV, child protection processes and girls' right to schooling, and to some improvement in reporting and referral mechanisms. Overall, however, change was patchy, suggesting deeply entrenched views on childrearing and gender relations. Significantly:

- dissemination of information to communities about national legislation and policies strengthened local responses to SRGBV, e.g. in Kenya and Ghana guidelines on the Gender and Education policy, Re-entry policy for adolescent mothers and the Sexual Offences Act were produced and distributed; in Ghana, the revised Teachers' Code of Conduct, which criminalises sexual relationships between teachers and pupils, was printed and disseminated; in Mozambique, a manual on mechanisms for addressing violence against girls was developed by a coalition led by UNICEF
- alliances with well established and trusted local partner organisations helped secure community support to address SRGBV and facilitated commitments from district authorities
- work with schools on addressing SRGBV produced an unexpected shift in family dynamics in terms of reduced workloads and physical punishments for girls and increased mothers' capacity to speak out about violence and gender inequality
  however, reporting to formal institutions remained low and systems of support and reporting were not effective in practice, and

- engaging communities in discussion around teenage sex and relationships proved very challenging, with some fathers being particularly hostile.

School level

The project led to increased girls' enrolments (a gain of nearly 4400 in the 44 schools over 4 years) and reduced dropout and to positive changes in girls' knowledge and attitudes towards gender, rights and violence. There was improved knowledge of reporting and support mechanisms but mixed evidence on actual reduction in violence against girls. Significantly:

- girls' clubs had a positive impact on girls' knowledge, confidence, attitudes and practices in managing violence and gender inequality, in some cases enabling girls to break silences on taboos around sex and sexual violence, and to be more confident about reporting violence (boys' clubs also showed promise)
- membership of school clubs led to more gender-equitable views among girls and encouraged strategic thinking on how their schools could be made more girl-friendly
- teachers who acted as club mentors provided an important source of information, advice and support for girls
- gender-aware training led to more gender-equitable attitudes and school and classroom management by some teachers, and (in Kenya and Mozambique) more support for teacher dismissal for sexual relationships with pupils and girls returning to school after giving birth
- *however*, there was continued resistance to banning corporal punishment, with caning sometimes replaced by other forms of harsh punishment, and
- teaching about sex and relationships was mostly inadequate, with an emphasis on abstinence.

Monitoring & Evaluation (M&E)

The project stands out for having developed a very comprehensive M&E tool. In particular:
- data were collected quarterly and annually to record, measure and assess the extent to which the overall outcomes were being met
- regular and reliable monitoring allowed for early adjustments to project activities and a greater likelihood that the project outcomes would be met in timely fashion
- outcomes were broken down into intermediate outcomes and indicators which could be realistically measured
- a user's manual provided a strong structure and step by step support to the country teams in their monitoring tasks, which increased their confidence and skill in data collection in this sensitive area of work and produced more robust and more comprehensive data, with fewer gaps
- analysis of the sensitivity of media articles on violence against girls through weekly monitoring of media coverage of cases of SRGBV allowed the team to assess the extent of project impact on media portrayal of the issue, and ultimately on public perception
- annual interviews with government officials allowed for the monitoring of the project's impact on government actions to challenge violence against girls.

6.6. Opportunities and experiences of education sector responses to SRGBV

Much has been written about the role of schooling, through both the curriculum and informal activities, in helping to increase knowledge about sexual and reproductive health and to encourage safe sexual practices. This has not usually included teaching about GBV, although schools are a potentially appropriate forum for this work. In identifying suitable strategies, we can learn from the disappointing results of most school-based HIV education programmes; these have been largely ineffective because all too often the messages have been delivered to large classes in a rote fashion by teachers (who may prefer messages of abstinence to those about condoms) passing on facts in a dry manner which does not engage the learners. HIV education is often included in life skills programmes, which have traditionally been accorded low status compared to academic subjects and not taken seriously by teachers.[139] There is also a lack of clarity over what should be taught under 'life skills', with the remit sometimes being so broad that topics are covered superficially and hastily.[140]

There are claims that HIV education programmes, both in and out of school, have improved knowledge and attitudes and reduced pregnancy rates, but that they have limited impact on behaviours and no impact on HIV rates, although very specific information about the risks of particular sexual behaviours (e.g. sex with older men increases risk of HIV transmission) has been shown to change behaviour.[141] There is, however, some evidence that highly targeted and effectively delivered HIV programmes which promote realistic options for young people can lead to safer sexual behaviour as well as change attitudes towards people living with HIV and AIDS, and help to reduce stigma.[142] We need to apply this knowledge to teaching about GBV: young people can be taught to recognise, deal with and protect themselves against violence if taught in an appropriate and engaging manner using situations which relate to their own experiences.

It is surprising that much HIV education in schools has remained largely silent about GBV. An internet search for material incorporating GBV in school-based HIV education programmes yielded almost nothing.[143] The Whole School Development Programme in South Africa is an exception in that it was developed specifically for use in schools.[144] More common are non-formal community-based interventions for adults and adolescents. Those which have tackled GBV and HIV in an integrated approach with

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[139] Mukoma, W. et al (2009) Process evaluation of a school-based HIV/AIDS intervention in South Africa, *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health*, 37 (suppl 2), 37-47

[140] Bangser, M. (2012) A Programming Framework for Working with Adolescent Girls in Tanzania. Prepared for TACAIDS and UNICEF, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. Life skills covers psychosocial and interpersonal skills that help individuals make informed decisions, communicate effectively and develop coping and self-management skills that may help them lead healthy and productive lives (MSI, 2008).

[141] JPAL/MIT, 2010 in Bangser, op.cit.

[142] Jukes et al (2008) op.cit.

[143] An early WHO report on violence prevention as part of an initiative on health-promoting schools was largely silent on gender issues (WHO, 1999, Violence Prevention: an important element of a health-promoting school, Geneva)

[144] *The Whole School Development Programme* (2005-8), supported by Oxfam Novib and implemented by a South African NGO, the Crisp Trust

some success include: Puntos de Encuentro in Nicaragua, Raising Voices SASA! and Stepping Stones, both originating in Uganda but now used widely across Sub-Saharan Africa, and Soul City in Southern Africa.[145] Some programmes directed at young men and boys also adopt an integrated approach, with scope for adaptation to school settings.[146]

In the health sector a programme developed by AIDSTAR for USAID[147] that integrates GBV prevention and response within HIV prevention, care, and treatment programmes could also be adapted for educational use. This approach recognises that violence, or the fear of violence, is a formidable barrier to HIV prevention, care and treatment and that, despite the evidence that GBV is both a cause and consequence of HIV infection, programmes and services designed to address both are largely fragmented. Linking efforts to tackle HIV and violence in a well-coordinated multi-sectoral programme provides a potentially powerful strategy for eliminating the drivers of each and achieving lasting results in the fight against HIV.

A promising approach to integrating GBV and HIV in the school curriculum is provided by recent initiatives in sexuality education. UNESCO's review of 87 sexuality education programmes across the world showed some positive behaviour change in terms of decreased partners and delayed first intercourse (although no indication of reduced levels of GBV).[148] Its youth-centred and inclusive set of normative standards for teaching about sexuality includes a thorough exploration of issues around GBV. It stresses the need to design activities that are: sensitive to community values and consistent with available resources (e.g. staff time, staff skills, facility space and supplies); involve students where possible in their design; are delivered by capable and motivated educators who have been trained in participatory methods; and cover specific situations in which young people are likely to be most pressured into unsafe sexual activity (including with drug and/or alcohol use) and rehearse strategies for avoiding or getting out of such situations.

A major barrier to effective delivery of messages about sexuality, HIV/AIDS and GBV is the global dominance of an authoritarian school culture. As noted above, if schools promote a rigid hierarchy of social norms and rules, in which women are not expected to question men, and children not to question adults, and where GBV is allowed to flourish, we have to question the suitability of the school as a site to educate young people about the risks of HIV infection and the importance of sexual relationships based on negotiation and mutual consent. This culture makes it difficult to move away from the traditional model of telling adolescents how to behave and simply imparting information towards one which actively supports them in building skills for negotiating power in sexual relationships and safety in their lives. However, transforming the culture of

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[145] see Annex 3

[146] e.g. Verma, R. Pulerwitz, J. Mahendra, V.S. Khandekar, S., Singh, A.K. Das, S.S., Mehra, S. Nura, A. and Barker, G. (2008) Promoting Gender Equity as a Strategy to Reduce HIV Risk and Gender-based Violence Among Young Men in India. Population Council/USAID

[147] Khan, A. (2011) *Gender-based Violence and HIV: A Program Guide for Integrating Gender-based Violence Prevention and Response in PEPFAR Programs.* Arlington, VA: USAID/AIDSTAR http://www.aidstar-one.com/sites/default/files/AIDSTAR-One_GBV_Guidance.pdf

[148] UNESCO (2009) International Technical Guidance on Sexuality Education: An evidence-informed approach for schools, teachers and health educators. Paris: UNESCO Section on HIV and AIDS

classrooms to encourage collaborative learning that allows students to question norms and behaviours, as well as to openly discuss sensitive issues (around sexuality and violence) with teachers and their peers will not be easy.

School teachers in most regions of the world have been trained in an authoritarian style of teaching. They find it difficult to adopt the more participatory and empowering pedagogies which are used in some parts of the global North and are advocated for use in HIV and sexuality education if lasting change in practices is to be achieved.[149] Some of the most effective interventions within schools come from external parties, e.g. counsellors, professional trainers and facilitators, rather than teachers, which raises questions around sustainability. The above cited Whole School Development Programme in South Africa employed external facilitators to run its Life Orientation classes, in the knowledge that many school teachers did not have the appropriate skills and students felt constrained by the presence of their class teacher when discussing sexual matters. The Gender Equity Movement in Schools (GEMS) in Mumbai, India[150] also used trained facilitators to engage students in critical reflection and discussion of gender inequality and violence issues, bringing teachers on board gradually; this was supplemented by a school-based campaigns of events and the 'sensitisation' of teachers who were hostile to the programme so as to turn them from gatekeepers into allies. The C-Change project in the DRC and the SVAGS project used the same strategy.

The current projects have tried to address the problem of effective delivery of messages about tackling SRGBV through the forum of the school club, identifying suitable teachers to run the clubs (purposefully not selecting teachers in charge of discipline) and giving them training in more inclusive and participatory methods. However, as long as schools are not free of violence, they will not provide the safe and supportive environment in which young people can express themselves openly and without fear of being humiliated or stigmatised and the programmes are unlikely to be successful.

7. Key messages in global guidance for the education sector

Sadly, this review has found only isolated examples of good practice in policy, programming and implementation to address SRGBV. These have originated not with governments but with external donors, mostly INGOs. More generally, the review has identified a number of serious fault lines, including:

A poor evidence base: little collective intelligence on best practice in either prevention or response; poor design of research studies, programmes and projects; confusion over what is meant by SRGBV; absence of a suitable methodology to measure change and to elicit information on sensitive issues from children; lack of regular monitoring of progress in meeting project outcomes; weak evaluation methodologies (mostly self-reported change) and no follow up on end of project evaluations.

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[149] Leach (2006) op.cit.
[150] Bhatla, N (2012) Shaping norms when they form: investing in primary prevention of gender-based violence through working with children in schools. Paper prepared for the Expert Group Meeting in Bangkok, September.

A weak policy environment: poor enforcement/implementation by governments of existing or revised laws and policies to address sexual abuse and exploitation in school settings; weak mechanisms of support at district and community level for efforts to reduce SRGBV

Weak or uncoordinated interventions: lack of bold collaborative initiatives across regions, governments, agencies and sectors to address SRGBV; lack of political will and limited impact of advocacy and lobbying efforts on policy and legislation; poorly designed programmes and projects with excessive reliance on short training inputs; some success in increasing knowledge/understanding and attitude change with regard to SRGBV but little or no evidence of behaviour change; and poor monitoring of referrals and reported cases of violence or abuse in schools.

The findings relating to programmes are echoed in the above cited review of 54 interventions to address intimate partner and sexual violence among adolescents.[151] This concludes that the 16 programmes which were school-based showed 'emerging evidence for improving gender-equitable attitudes and increasing the self-reported likelihood to intervene in situations of sexual and intimate partner violence and bullying. Longer-term evaluations are needed, however, to examine whether these programs are effective at preventing or reducing perpetration of partner violence. Additionally, most evaluations saw minimal positive changes in girls' perceived ability to cope with sexual violence or seek help for incidents of violence, suggesting the need for ecological interventions to create supportive environments.' The implication for future programmes in response to SRGBV is that greater efforts need to be made to change the school and community structures and practices which foster violence, especially against women and girls, rather than rely on freestanding school inputs or on young people's own capabilities to challenge violence, and on long term evaluations which measure violence reduction rather than just increased awareness and attitude change.

7.1. The post-2015 era

In terms of making progress in educational responses to SRGBV, it is essential that stronger commitments contained in the post-2015 international development agenda. The last 15 years have seen impressive increases in global enrolments in school, with just 10% of primary age children now not in school. However, there are still 3.6 million fewer girls in primary school than would be the case if there was complete parity; they also drop out in higher numbers than boys and fewer go on to secondary education. Quality, in terms of learning outcomes, is also extremely low in many parts of the world, with millions of children leaving school without basic literacy and numeracy skills.[152]

The Overseas Development Institute (ODI) has identified 11 education proposals among the 160 or so put forward for possible inclusion in the post-2015 agenda (as of early February 2013). They stress the need to improve on the inadequate MDG2 on Universal

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[151] Lundgren, op.cit. p 24-5
[152] http://www.savethechildren.org.uk/sites/default/files/docs/Ending_ Poverty_in_Our_Generation_Africa.pdf

Primary Education.[153] Already emerging is a consensus over the need to better align the EFA and education MDG frameworks and put more emphasis on equity and quality (access having been the main thrust of the EFA goals and MDGs). In addressing equity, there is recognition of the importance of ensuring that the reporting and evaluation of goals is disaggregated by sex and analysed through a gender lens.[154] This is a good start. However, a rapid glance at the online discussions around the education proposals notes a disturbing absence of reference to the importance of the school environment for equity and quality learning, i.e. the school as a social space rather that part of a system of formal structures and procedures which can be adjusted at will. For example, school safety – of direct relevance to efforts to eliminate SRGBV - is framed as infrastructure rather than as a feature of a child-friendly school.[155]

The Director of the Global Monitoring Report attributes the failure to make as much progress on the equity and quality goals, compared to the access goal, under the EFA agenda to a lack of clear definition and the absence of measurable targets. She proposes that an overarching education goal addressing equity in access and learning is framed in a way that is appealing to a broad development constituency, while ensuring that education-specific targets can be set that allow for more holistic monitoring by the education community. '*Put equity at the heart of any goal, target and indicator on educational access and learning*'.[156] If it is to be addressed effectively, violence reduction needs to be included in the targets and measured by specific gender-sensitive indicators. Of the two frameworks that have been proposed for measuring progress on meeting equity goals: by wealth quintile (favoured by Save the Children and the Results for Development Institute) or by disaggregation by gender and a range of other marginalised or vulnerable groups such as the disabled and ethnic minorities (as favoured by the Global Campaign for Education and the Basic Education Coalition), the latter offers more obvious opportunities for addressing SRGBV than the former.[157]

8. What can be done

The gaps in our knowledge base (section 5), the challenges of prevention and response (section 6), and, in many cases, a weak policy environment (section 7) provide the rationale and direction for addressing the issue of SRGBV. Given the scale of the problem globally, the high economic cost of tolerating school violence with its negative impact on educational and life opportunities and outcomes for millions of children, and the limited effect to date of policies and laws intended to eliminate it, the issue needs to be tackled

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[153] Proposals on Education Post-2015: Lots of ambition but mind the gaps. Gita Bergh, ODI, 11 February 2013, http://www.ukfiet.org/cop/2013/proposals-on-education-post-2015-lots-of-ambition-but-mind-the-gaps/

[154] Penson J. Recommendations of the Commonwealth Ministerial Working Group on the Post-2015 Development Framework for Education http://www.ukfiet.org/cop/2013/recommendations-of-the-commonwealth-ministerial-working-group-on-the-post-2015-development-framework-for-education/ 19 February 2013

[155] One Commonwealth Ministers' recommendation is to 'provide adequate infrastructure for learning according to national norms for buildings, basic services, safety, learning materials, and learning infrastructure within appropriate distances of households' *(*Penson, op.cit.).

[156] Rose, P. Equity in education post-2015: how do we get there? 20 February 2013 http://efareport.wordpress.com/2013/02/20/equity-in-education-post-2015-how-do-we-get-there/

[157] Penson, op.cit.

speedily and effectively. Without this, global commitments to gender equality and the EFA goals and MDGs cannot be met.

Interventions should include all or some of the following components:

- **Advocacy** - creating an international consensus around the need to tackle the issue
- **Coordination** - coordinating efforts among stakeholders working in education and related sectors
- **Normative guidance** – advice to governmental institutions on a comprehensive and coordinated strategy to prevent and respond to SRGBV
- **Technical support and capacity building** – in curriculum development, school management, child-centred pedagogies and positive discipline methods
- **Information sharing and dissemination of good practice**

Most efforts to eliminate SRGBV are initiated and funded by external agencies and grassroots NGOs, with government responses being patchy and lack-lustre. National programmes such as the Girls' Education Movement, launched in 2003 by the South African National Department of Education with assistance from UNICEF to combat gender inequality and promote school safety in schools and communities across the country,[158] are rare. Ministries of Education with well-resourced and accountable systems and effectively enforced sanctions manage to keep the incidence of sexual

Figure 1: Three components of government intervention in SRGBV

Effective SRGBV interventions
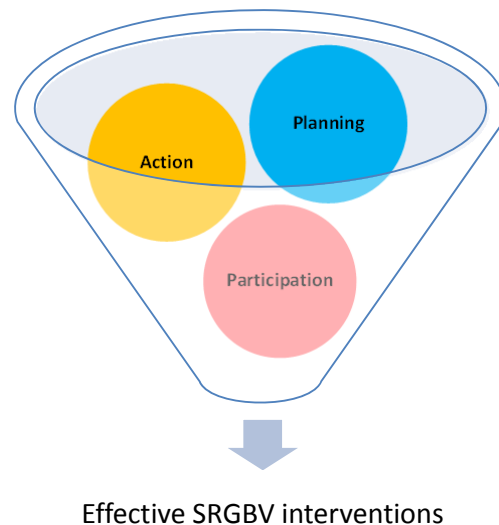
misconduct by teachers low and focus their efforts instead on addressing peer violence in schools through a plethora of anti-bullying initiatives; however, many of these are gender-blind and ignore everyday 'normalised' forms of GBV (such as sexualised

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[158] South Africa Violence Prevention Model and Action Plan 2008
http://www.unicef.org/southafrica/SAF_resources_violenceprevmodel.pdf. See also Wilson, F. (2012) Gender Based Violence in South African Schools, Working document, Paris: UNESCO-IIEP

comments and unsolicited physical contact). Governments which experience very high levels of SRGBV are those with fewer resources, less accountable systems and weak implementation of the law. There is therefore an important need to build partnerships to help them develop and implement national action plans. Government involvement needs to be multi-faceted, working across the Planning, Action and Participation components of interventions, as illustrated in Figure 1.

The following principles (Table 3), drawn from a set developed by Plan International, offer an overarching framework for working with governments:[159]

Table 3: Nine principles for government action on SRGBV

1. Clear conceptualisation
2. Policies underpinned by robust research-based evidence
3. Transparency and accountability
4. Comprehensive and integrated action
5. Safe and effective reporting and response
6. Well-supported and well-trained personnel
7. Effective legislation and regulation
8. Inter-sectoral coordination and collaboration
9. Participation and inclusiveness

8.1. Clear conceptualisation: Inconsistency and confusion over what is meant by the term 'gender-based violence' and what constitutes school violence has impeded effective intervention in prevention and response to SRGBV. A dialogue with governments and other relevant parties to agree a clear conceptualisation of the problem with which to underpin policy and action would be advantageous. This must include:
- agreed common understandings of 'gender' and 'violence' and what constitutes GBV in school settings
- recognition that all school violence has a gender dimension (including corporal punishment and bullying)
- recognition of the multi-dimensional nature of GBV, especially its intersection with poverty and discrimination based on social markers such as race, class, caste, ethnicity, religion and sexuality
- consistent and rigorous gender analysis, based on sex-disaggregated data, of the causes, manifestations and consequences of school violence

8.2. Policies underpinned by robust research-based evidence: The absence of a robust evidence base to inform policy and legislative reform has allowed governments to avoid taking comprehensive action to address SRGBV. Data collection must be established and

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[159] Greene et al. op.cit,. The principles also draw on a Save the Children Sweden (2010) report, *Too Often in Silence: addressing violence in schools, selected initiatives from West and Central Africa*, with Plan, ActionAid and UNICEF, and on the Concept Note prepared for the UN Women Expert Group Meeting: Prevention of violence against women and girls, Bangkok Thailand, 17-20 September, 2012

governments encouraged to work towards creating a centralised and adequately resourced system for recording, reporting and monitoring violence in and around schools (questions can be added to existing demographic and household surveys and international composite indices such as the Human Development Index). For example, the Government of Swaziland has recently conducted a national survey of the causes and scale of sexual violence against children and used the findings to initiate a range of policy initiatives and interventions to address the issue, including establishing a government unit responsible for investigating acts of violence against children.[160] Such national data sets, especially if they adhere to an internationally accepted terminology and methodology, can feed into a global databank of statistics on SRGBV. Large scale multi-country research studies which offer opportunities for documenting and sharing good practice in creating an enabling environment for violence-free schools should also be encouraged and facilitated.

8.3. Transparency and accountability: Governments need to provide greater transparency and accountability with regard to their commitments and actions in addressing SRGBV. All stakeholders should be able to access reliable and up to date information about relevant policies and legislation, including the penalties for sexual misconduct by teachers and others who care for children, and about the procedures for reporting and following up cases through local police and/or district education authorities. They should be able to access disaggregated information about their local school(s), e.g. on budgets, infrastructure, staffing, school achievement scores. Such information should be disseminated through media channels suited to diverse locations and circumstances. SMCs and PTAs, whose members must also act in an accountable manner, can fulfil a valuable role by disseminating this information locally as well as monitoring the progress of reported cases and keeping parents and children informed. Awareness raising within communities, a popular activity among development actors seeking to tackle GBV, needs to be better targeted and should provide relevant information on complaints procedures etc as well as seeking to change attitudes and behaviour. USAID's *Doorways* manuals provide a good example.[161]

8.4. Comprehensive and integrated action: Governments need to develop comprehensive multi-sectoral and multi-level responses to SRGBV which will replace the piecemeal and largely gender-neutral efforts seen to date. Action plans need to offer a holistic long-term strategy which builds up national child protection systems within a supportive policy environment while engaging communities in bringing about a fundamental change in attitude and behaviour towards GBV at the local level. Implementation needs to be monitored and evaluated so as to provide examples of good practice. The Australian government offers a comprehensive and potentially useful example of a national framework which brings together a range of GBV prevention initiatives with appropriate coordination and resource mechanisms.[162]

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[160] Greene et al. op.cit.
[161] The Doorways I, III and III manuals are available at http://transition.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/doorways.html
[162] The National Safe Schools Framework, December 2012 http://deewr.gov.au/national-safe-schools-framework-0

8.5. Safe and effective reporting and response: Knowledge of children's and citizens' rights, the procedures to follow in reporting cases of violence and available support services is often very low among parents, children and education personnel. Governments may need advice on how to ensure safe and effective local reporting and response mechanisms consistent with the UNCRC (this could include the recommendation that local police establish dedicated officers or units to deal with child abuse cases and that the judiciary operates a 'child-friendly court' system). Some countries (e.g. Australia, Canada, the USA, most Caribbean countries, but **not** the UK) have made the reporting of child abuse mandatory for teachers, health professionals and others responsible for the welfare of children but enforcement may be problematic.[163]

The USAID Doorways manuals and the above cited Teachers' Code of Conduct in Ghana contain clearly laid out procedures for reporting gender-based violations in school, whether of a criminal or a disciplinary nature, and whether reported by teachers, parents or children. USAID also offers the following recommended guidelines for schools:[164]

Table 4: Guidelines for schools to respond to student allegations of GBV

Guidelines should be publicly available, widely distributed and incorporate:
• Procedures through which students can make confidential complaints
• Mechanisms for the prompt and effective investigation of complaints
• Mechanisms for prompt and appropriate disciplinary action, including due process protections for alleged perpetrators
• Procedures for referral to the criminal justice system, if criminal conduct occurred
• Procedures for referral to medical, legal and counselling support services for victims, if needed
• Measures to protect complainants from retaliation

The system needs to be sufficiently developed and resourced at the local level to give stakeholders the information and the confidence to report cases and to know that they will be followed up and appropriate support provided; it also needs to demonstrate that perpetrators cannot act with impunity. Teachers and SMC/PTA members, as key agents in disseminating this information locally, need to be familiar with referral procedures, confidentiality requirements and the availability of local counselling and support services. This will require strengthening the capacity of Ministries of Education to provide training at the local level.

8.6. Well-supported and well-trained personnel: The education sector requires well-supported and well-trained personnel, who have the knowledge and skills to prevent and respond to SRGBV. Pre- and in-service teacher education programmes need to be strengthened and school-based support for teachers and managers provided, including the appointment of 'focal' teachers as a first port of call for children who have experienced violence. As key to the effective transmission of messages to young people about GBV, gender equality and sexuality, teachers need to acquire greater

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[163] India passed a Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act in 2012 which makes reporting mandatory but this is highly ambitious in the current conditions.

[164] MSI for USAID, op.cit., p.22. The UK's updated and comprehensive set of procedures is available at http://media.education.gov.uk/assets/files/pdf/t/teacher%20misconduct%20-disciplinary%20procedures.pdf

understanding of issues around SRGBV, including its links with corporal punishment; this may require them to question their own perceptions of, and attitudes towards, GBV. Training programmes must provide teachers with skills in gender-sensitive curriculum development and pedagogy, and a stronger awareness of, and commitment to, agreed ethical and professional standards. Head teachers need to be provided with appropriate leadership skills and the necessary standards and strategies for dealing with incidents of school violence. Governments should require all schools to develop and publicise agreed codes of conduct for teachers and students.

8.7 Effective legislation and regulation: Governments need to have in place effective legislation which protects children both in and out of school and which is supported by appropriate policies and regulations. While some governments still lack a coherent legislative framework for tackling SRGBV, many others have already put in place adequate laws on child protection which cover SRGBV and conform with UNCRC guidelines. What is lacking in the majority of cases, as has been pointed out in numerous reports, is effective enforcement.[165] To achieve this, institutional capacity to implement policies to address SRGBV must be improved and laws designed to bring perpetrators of violence to justice using standardised procedures for the police and judiciary enforced. ActionAid's model national policy for addressing violence against girls in school offers a useful template.[166] Many governments have been encouraged to revise and strengthen their professional Code of Conduct for teachers, e.g. Ghana with assistance from USAID,[167] but enforcement is usually woefully inadequate. A centralised database of teachers who have been convicted of criminal misconduct to avoid them being re-hired needs to be established.

8.8. Inter-sectoral coordination and collaboration. Effective enforcement requires the harmonisation of policies and legislation and the coordination of responses across sectors and levels of government. Harmonisation can be assisted by the mapping of a country's existing policies and legislation covering child abuse and SRGBV,[168] with the aim of clarifying lines of communication and potential coordination mechanisms between different government bodies, e.g. between education and health, law enforcement, the judiciary, social services and transportation (to ensure safe journeys to and from school). The UK government, for example, is integrating efforts to address SRGBV through multiple agencies working within a broad comprehensive strategy aimed at ending violence against women and children in communities, including in schools.[169] Such an integrated approach is likely to require the training of a wide range of professionals to recognise forms of SRGBV and familiarise them with the appropriate

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[165] This is the conclusion drawn by the 600 page Verma report commissioned in the wake of the brutal gang rape and murder of a female student in Delhi in December 2012
[166] ActionAid (2007) Making the Grade: a model national policy for the prevention, management and elimination of violence against girls in school, ActionAid Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa (OSISA)
[167] Teachers' Code of Conduct: rules of professional conduct for teachers in Ghana, for presentation to the Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service, July 2008
[168] The ActionAid/IOE SVAGS team in Mozambique and Concern Worldwide in Sierra Leone and Liberia have compiled registers of relevant policies and legislation to assist in identifying the structures and mechanisms designed to support implementation, assessing their capacity to function and developing an advocacy strategy for policy development.
[169] Greene et al., op.cit.

legal provisions. UNESCO's current collaboration with government health and education services in addressing HIV/AIDS illustrates the potential for such a role.

8.9. Participation and inclusion: Communities need to develop ownership of solutions to GBV if they are to be lasting. This may require working through traditional community and faith leaders and compromising on agreed actions so that they complement rather than confront customary laws and cultural norms. SMCs and PTAs play an important role in bridging the school-community divide by liaising with community leaders and official agencies such as the police. Implementing actors can provide governments and their local representatives with advice on inclusive approaches to working with communities which ensure that the concerns and experiences of diverse groups, including minorities, the poorest and the disabled, are not ignored.

As girls are overwhelmingly the target of SRGBV, effective solutions need to reflect their particular vulnerabilities in both the community and the school, engage boys and young men as strategic allies of girls and encourage more flexible constructions of masculine and feminine identity and more self-reflection. Although in many cultures children are denied a voice in decision-making, it is essential that their views inform both national and local policies and programmes. Boys as well as girls must have a stake in changing the school culture, e.g. by being involved in, for example, school/gender clubs, peer mentoring schemes, student councils, class charters, or the design, delivery and evaluation of new curriculum content relating to SRGBV (and HIV). UNICEF's Child-Friendly Schools, with their principles of inclusiveness, child-centredness and democratic participation, provide an appropriate global model.

9. Recommendations for short term action

9.1. Foregrounding gender in national and international discourses on SRGBV

9.1.1. Mainstream gender: Gender issues must be integral to all work in education, child protection and the prevention of violence against children. This requires examining all school violence through a gender lens (including corporal punishment and bullying) and responding with gender-sensitive solutions. Actors intervening in education can take advantage of existing global events such as the annual 16 Days of Activism Against Gender Violence Campaign to promote this agenda. They can also work with agencies active in the global campaign to eliminate corporal punishment in schools, to make explicit the intersection between GBV and corporal punishment and the role played by gender norms and practices tolerating diverse forms of violence embedded in the school culture.

9.1.2. Lobby for inclusion of SRGBV in the post-2015 agenda: Stakeholders should take advantage of the emerging international consensus over the need to emphasise equity and quality goals (rather than access) in the post-2015 agenda for the education sector, and ensure that strategies and targets to reduce SRGBV are part of national plans; this must include measuring trends in school violence through robust M&E mechanisms using gender-sensitive indicators. The explicit reference to SRGBV in international

reports and resolutions should be ensured, and addressed at key international meetings. The link between GBV and low learning outcomes needs to be made explicit in the 2013/14 Global Monitoring Report (on learning and teaching) and coverage given to the crucial role that teachers play in addressing GBV.

9.1.3. Work with international federations of labour unions: consistent policies must be developed internationally, supported at the national level, to strengthen the professionalism, ethics and gender-responsiveness of the education cadre. National unions must be explicitly banned from protecting education personnel from prosecution for sexual or other forms of professional misconduct. Opportunities to work with other labour unions such as transport to ensure safety of girls en route to and from school, in partnership with the police, can be explored.

9.1.4. Raise the public profile of SRGBV: Awareness of the scale and severity of SRGBV around the world needs to be raised and media encouraged to portray women and those who are discriminated against in socially responsible ways free from stereotypes. Multi-media tools and materials to communicate and disseminate information around SRGBV should be developed. This could be linked with on-going efforts to raise awareness of HIV and sexual and reproductive health more broadly, as appropriate.

9.2. Strengthening the education sector's capacity to address GBV

9.2.1. Scaling up: Examples of good practice in addressing SRGBV must be shared at governmental and non-governmental level, and opportunities for scaling up interventions, which link local initiatives to the policy level, should be explored.[170] These will need to be adapted to different cultural, political and economic contexts.

9.2.2. Education content: On-going work in HIV and sexuality education[171] can provide a valuable vehicle for developing school programmes and materials which articulate the link between GBV, HIV and sexuality, using methodologies adapted to different cultural contexts and teacher competences. Impact assessments must be undertaken through formal M&E. The focus should be on violence prevention - providing students and teachers with the knowledge, skills and incentives to make changes to their behaviour and to the school culture so that violent acts do not occur. Teacher manuals and training materials on positive discipline should highlight the link between GBV and corporal punishment; the teaching of sexuality education, with an emphasis on human rights, gender equality and the right of sexual consent, should be made mandatory in schools.[172]

9.2.3. Pedagogy: Implementing actors must develop programmes which are realistic about the ability and willingness of teachers to engage with the child-centred and

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[170] The ActionAid/IOE SVAGS project provides the most obvious example of an externally funded initiative, while the Australian government provides an example of a GBV prevention programme that has been rolled out in school across the country (Plan 2013, op.cit.)
[171] UNESCO (2009) op.cit.
[172] A Ministerial Declaration signed by a number of Latin American and Caribbean countries in Mexico City in 2008 provides a mandate for school-based sexuality and HIV education in the region (UNESCO, 2011, op.cit.

participatory pedagogies that are advocated when teaching about GBV, HIV and sexuality. Teachers need to be given the incentives and the skills to embrace this unfamiliar style of teaching if they are to contribute to changing the prevailing gender regime. Alongside this, children can be trained as peer educators or peer mentors who help to reduce bullying and violence in their schools.[173] Adapting community based participatory programmes with a proven track record in bringing about behaviour change relating to GBV and HIV, such as Stepping Stones or Raising Voices, for school contexts may also be effective.[174]

9.2.4. Early childhood care and education: Those active in early childhood development should familiarise young children with violence-free behaviours, and with notions of respect and cooperation.[175] It is important to recognise that violent behaviour is learned at an early age, and that children who witness or experience violence during childhood are much more likely to engage in violent behaviour as they move into adulthood.

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[173] For a review of peer mentoring in schools in the UK, see http://www.mandbf.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/03/Peer_Mentoring_in_Schools1.pdf

[174] Raising Voices in Uganda already works with schools to address GBV and has produced a Good School Kit http://www.raisingvoices.org/files/RV_AnnualReport2011.pdf. For Stepping Stones, see http://www.steppingstonesfeedback.org

[175] See UNESCO (2007) Strong Foundations: early childhood care and education, Global Monitoring Report, Paris: UNESCO

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Doorways II: Community Counselor Training Manual

http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnado241.pdf

Doorways II: Community Counselor Reference Materials
http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnado242.pdf

Doorways III: Teacher Training Manual http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnado243.pdf

Doorways III: Teacher Reference Materials http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnado244.pdf

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1: Agencies and individuals contacted (most for the 2012 Concern review, re-contacted as appropriate)

ActionAid International
Asmara Figue, International Project Manager, Stop Violence against Girls (SVAGS)
Victorine Kemonou Djitrinou, Transforming Schools Coordinator
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Concern Worldwide
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Crisp, South Africa
Bashi Devnarian, Programme Manager

FAWE (no reply)

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Jo Heslop, SVAGS Research Officer
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Plan International
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Sarah Hendriks, Global Gender Advisor
Hector Hurtado Sanchez Project Manager, Plan Ecuador

Save the Children, UK
Emily Echessa, Education Adviser
Christine McCormick, Child Protection Adviser
Anna Parke, Education Team Coordinator
Mark Thorpe, Education Adviser

Promundo
Gary Barker, International Director, Promundo-US, Washinton DC

UNICEF

Linda Jones, Chief, Education Programme, UNICEF Sierra Leone

USAID
Julie Swanson, Deputy Education Chief, Washington DC

FHI 360
Eugene Katzin, Project Manager C-Change DRC, Centre for Gender Equity, FHI 360

Annex 2: Aims, objectives, anticipated outcomes, activities and indicators of the selected projects

	Aim	Objectives	(Relevant) Outcomes	Activities[176]	Indicators
Concern Malawi Promoting Equal Access to Quality Primary Education for Girls and Most Vulnerable Children**,** Nsanje district, 2 Education zones, 25 schools 2009-2014	Improve equitable access to quality education for learners, particularly girls and vulnerable children, to remain in school and successfully complete primary education in targeted education zones of Nsanje District	**1. Improve delivery of services by DEMO in the targeted zones. 2. Increase protection of learners with specific focus on a safer learning environment for girls. 3. Strengthen capacity of SMCs and PTAs and greater community participation in school management. 4. Advocate l**ocal level issues at local district and national level through improved linkages between project stakeholders at local, district and national level.	**Outcome 3: increased protection of learners in the targeted zones with specific focus on a safer learning environment for girls**	• Support PEAs, and school staff on child rights, gender and children of special needs approaches (inclusive education), TCOC • Sensitise/train SMC, PTA, ADC, VDC, , mother groups and communities on gender, child rights protection, TCOC, and HIV • Disseminate procedures for reporting cases of violation of child rights and protection at all levels • Develop mechanisms to provide appropriate support to survivors of GBV (counselling, referrals) • Review the appraisal guide of PEAs and head teachers to include child protection • Develop practical ways of protecting children on their way to and from school; strategies to support vulnerable children to remain in school • Schools improve availability and access to adequate sanitation and hygiene facilities • Exposure visits for selected SMC, PTA and teachers to schools successfully addressing SRGBV issues • Events for boys and girls to address gender and violence issues (debates, drama, etc)	• Meso/Macro/Micro level • Prevention and response mechanisms for School Related GBV are in place and functioning. • Micro level • % of , PTAs, SMCs, Mother Groups and CPCs, aware of children rights and child protection and HIV/AIDS. • Decreased number of unsafe places in the school and community identified by learners • Increased contact with schools by VSU and Social Welfare Department and the number of cases of abuse reported and addressed. • One established and functioning CPC at each school • Number of documented reported cases
Concern Liberia Equitable and Safe Quality Primary Education Grand Bassa County,	Contribute to increasing the access to and the quality of primary education through ensuring child protection and equity in the 29 targeted schools and in the national education system	1. Improve quality of teacher training and the quality of teaching in the targeted schools 2. Improve quality of student and community involvement in, school management **3. Increase child protection in school with a specific focus on a safer learning environment for girls and boys**	Outcome 3: increased child protection in the targeted schools with a specific focus on a safer learning environment for girls and boys	• Training and support to communities, PTAs, education staff and students promoting child rights, protection and reporting structures • Develop mechanisms to increase the protection of children in school and community • Facilitate introduction of mechanisms to hold education staff legally accountable for their actions, related to child protection and child rights (Teachers Standards) • Develop teaching and learning materials which	• Strategies introduced on Child Rights and Child Protection, and targeted stakeholders have increased knowledge and at national level by programme end • Strategies related to successfully lobbied equality, protection and quality issues are introduced at the national level • # of teachers including HIV and AIDS awareness & life-skills, child rights and protection, equality including gender, in

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[176] For Concern programmes, the activities listed are those that were planned in the programme documents and should not be taken to mean that all have been implemented. Limited M&E of SRGBV components has been carried out and an accurate picture is not yet available.

District 2, 30 Schools 2008 - 2013		4. Increase equitable access to primary school in the targeted communities		- promote cultural values of non-violence, equality and good citizenship - Support females to become teachers - Raise awareness of Child Protection/ Child Rights, Equality, legal measures for child abuse, and HIV and AIDS through radio, drama, posters and Child to Child. - Organise practical methods to protect children on their way to and from school - Identify legal framework for reporting cases of abuse with relevant ministries (Justice, Gender and Development and Youth and Sports. Raise awareness at the county level on framework - Lobby for specific training for police and relevant stakeholders on investigation techniques and procedure for cases of child abuse.	- the classroom, disaggregated by gender - Increase in # of children enrolled and still in school by programme end against the baseline disaggregated by gender. # of Education Officers, PTAs, Teachers and students aware of child protection, child rights and reporting systems. - All teachers and Education Officers in targeted schools have signed 'Teachers' Standards' and are aware of their roles and responsibilities. - Reporting procedures and systems are published & accessible to all stakeholders - Schools demonstrate concrete strategies to combat GBV and other violations - Teaching & learning materials developed and used by teachers & peer educators to promote rights and child protection
Concern Sierra Leone Improving School Education (ISED), Tonkolili District, 3 chiefdoms, 66 schools 2006 - 2010	Develop a replicable model of school development with focus on teacher training, enhancement of school management in 66 primary schools in Kholifa Mabang, Yoni and Mala Mara Chiefdoms of Tonkolili district	1. Improve access and retention for all school age children, with emphasis on girl child education and gender parity 2. Improve the quality of teaching and learning by providing technical support to teachers and students **3. Ensure that schools provide healthy, hygienic & safe learning environments free of sexual exploitation, abuse &discrimination** 4. Enhance overall management, accountability and monitoring & evaluation for quality education delivery in schools. (Accent on SRGBV since early 2009)	Outcome 3: ensure that schools provide healthy, hygienic and safe learning environments, especially with regard to sexual exploitation, abuse and discrimination	- Identification with stakeholders of SRGBV issues - Participative development of referral pathways - Training of female members of SMCs on referral pathways - Study on SRGBV at national level (with Plan, IBIS, and CRS) - Increase recruitment and training of female teachers	50% of (boys and girls) in 96 schools clubs can state at least five of their rights and responsibilities. 50% of teachers and SMC members in 96 schools can state five of the rights and responsibilities of children. - Members of 66 School Clubs have been trained on child rights, SRGBV and hygiene and sanitation - SRGBV reporting channel established and 50% of club members are aware of it. - Forms and number of SRGBV cases recorded in case log books and acted upon (action being taken or has been taken)..
SVAGS (Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique) 2008-13 Funder: Big Lottery Fund, UK **Budget**: £4.5	Empower girls to enjoy their rights to education and participation in a violence-free environment	1. Develop legal and policy frameworks that specifically address violence against girls in school 2. Reduce rates of violence against girls by family members, teachers and peers 3. Increase girls' access to and retention in schools 4. Build girls' confidence to challenge violence in and around schools	1. A legal and policy framework that specifically addresses violence against girls in school and that is being implemented at all levels in each of the three countries 2. 50% reduction in violence against girls by family members, teachers and peers in the target districts, measured through a baseline/ endline survey 3. Increase in girls' enrolment of	- Outreach work to encourage the return of children who have dropped out of school - Community level debates and discussions - Training for community leaders and local administrative and religious authorities - Training for adult club mentors and club members - Training for teachers and teacher trainers - Radio and TV programmes/debates/documentaries Community theatre	53 (see Annex 6 for list, together with the 13 intermediate outcomes)

million **Implementing agencies:** ActionAid, IOE and 7 local partners			22%, decrease in girls' drop out rate of 20% and substantial progress towards gender parity in education in the target districts 4. 14,000 girls in the target districts demonstrate the confidence to challenge the culture of violence in and around schools, report incidents and create peer support networks	• School clubs; exchange visits between clubs • Opportunities for girls to meet with decision makers at local, district and national level • Partnerships with and training for the media • Partnership with networks and coalitions to lobby government for policy and legal change • Working with teachers' unions to change policy	
TEGINT (Nigeria and Tanzania) 2007-12 Funder: Comic Relief, UK **Budget: £4 million** **Implementing agencies:** ActionAid, IOE and local partners	Transform girls' education, enabling them to enrol and succeed in school by addressing key challenges and obstacles that hinder their participation and increase their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS (72 schools in northern Nigeria and 60 schools in northern Tanzania)	**1. To build the capacity of girls (and boys) to challenge gender discrimination** 2. To promote participatory modules on gender and HIV/AIDS in national pre-service and in-service teacher training 3**. To build capacity and provide ongoing support to school management committees and the wider community addressing HIV/AIDS and girls' rights in education** 4. To facilitate the development of legal and policy frameworks and good practice that will enhance and protect girls' rights in school 5. To build the capacity of two national NGOs as leading national organizations in education, gender and HIV/AIDS.	1**.0. 44,400 girls have improved confidence and negotiation skills, more diverse life options and reduced vulnerability** 1.1. increased girls' primary and junior secondary enrolment, completion and attainment rates 1.2. reduced dropout rates owing to child marriage and early pregnancy 1.3. girls have more confidence to report violence and abuse within and outside the school environment 1.4. increased awareness and understanding among girls on obstacles to girls' education 1.5. increased awareness of HIV/AIDS and access to services **3.0 parents and SMCs are mobilized and supportive of girls' rights to education**	• Sustainability built into programming • Girls' clubs • Extra-curricular/other clubs • Capacity building in clubs • Creation of an enabling environment • Sex segregated latrines • Role modelling/mentoring • Children's parliaments • Capacity building of SMCs through workshops • Capacity building of PTAs • Training to SMCs and PTAs • Community advocacy on gender, education and HIV/AIDS • Resource development • Advocacy for girls and women to be present in education policy and decision-making at school (and national) level • School gender policies • Gender-sensitive budgeting • School record keeping	(most relevant only) 1.0.1. # of clubs addressing gender equality and girls' rights in education 1.0.2. # of girls and boys participating in clubs 1.0.3. # of girls participating in debates and other school activities 1.0.4. M/F ratio of participation in debates 1.3.1. # of cases of violence /abuse reported by girls to school authorities 3.0.4. % of SMCs (where violence has occurred) taking action towards teachers/other males abusing girls through official channels (police, Village Executive Officer, improving security)

Safe Schools (Ghana and Malawi) 2003-8 **Funder:** USAID **Budget:** US$ 5 million **Implementing agency:** DevTech, with local partners	Improve educational outcomes and reduce negative health outcomes for school children	1. Reduce school-related gender-based violence in selected schools in Ghana and Malawi so as to support the longer-term goal of improving educational outcomes and reducing negative health outcomes for school children. 2. Measure progress towards reducing gender violence through changes in student and teacher knowledge, attitudes and practices toward school-related gender-based violence.	**National** - policy development to prevent SRGBV (through advocacy and awareness raising) **Institutional** - improved prevention and response mechanisms, including through a revised teachers' code of conduct **Local** – increased awareness, prevention and response to SRGBV through sensitisation and community action **Individual** - enhanced student self-efficacy through improved understanding of SRGBV and changes in knowledge, attitudes and practices among students and teachers, mainly through training	• Advocacy for improved policy, legislation and funding • Media campaigns through radio, TV and newspaper articles • Community action planning • Training and awareness raising • Gender clubs • Development of manuals for teachers, students and counsellors • Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) assessments • Revised teachers' code of conduct • Open days in communities • Theatre for Development • Cluster Incentive Packages	
USAID C-Change School-related Gender-based Violence Prevention Project, DRC (2010-12) **Funder:** USAID **Implementing agency:** FHI 360	Promote positive social and gender norms to prevent and mitigate SRGBV amongst schoolchildren	1. Equip young girls and boys with knowledge and understanding of SRGBV and the skills to resist it. 2. Increase knowledge and build skills of school administrators, teachers, school SRGBV focal persons, and parents to identify, discourage, and intervene in incidences of SRGBV. 3. Establish codes of conduct to govern behaviour related to SRGBV in the schools. 4. Increase number of students who report incidences of SRGBV and who seek supportive services 5. Increase girls' and boys' understanding of consequences of SRGBV and change the attitudes that underlie it.		Training in SRGBV prevention Oversight Committees and Focal Teachers in schools for prevention and response Community media campaigns through radio, theatre, comic books School codes of conduct SRGBV Reference Guides with visual charts for classrooms	
Plan Uganda Promoting Safe, Child-Friendly Schools 2008-11	Create an enabling and effective learning environment, especially for girls	1. Increase school and community awareness/ knowledge on the effects of violence and rights of children in the target communities by 30%. 2. Contribute to the development of safe, child-friendly schools by establishing rights-sensitive approaches to discipline and	1. Increased awareness/ knowledge on the effects of violence and the rights of children 2. Creation of safe, child-friendly schools 3. Participation of children, families and communities in promoting good schools	• Children's events, e.g. Anti-violence clubs activities, District Children's Apex Council activities, exchange visits • Making rules and regulations for classes • Participation in student courts/councils and in SMC and PTA meetings • Reporting of violent behaviour to school administration	1. Increased knowledge on violence among children and parents; change in attitude and improved pupil-teacher and parent-child relationships 2. At least 20% reduction in violence in schools; number of schools with anti-violence structures and mechanisms in place that support retention of girls

Budget: US$ 578,000 **Funder:** Plan Germany **Implementing agency:** Plan Uganda with local partners		promoting the adoption and enforcement of preventive measures against sexual violence 3. Increase school children, families and communities participation in 'safe school' promotion programmes, and access to response and support mechanisms.		• Radio talk shows • Suggestion boxes • Expression of views and giving suggestions to teachers and school administrators • Radio and TV broadcasts for children • Children's newspapers and magazines • Awareness raising sessions for children, parents and communities • Child protection sessions • Medical treatment • Legal assistance to families • Learning related programme management, supervision and support	3. Number of schools, school children and community groups actively participating in safe-school promotion programmes; frequency and number of cases of violence reported; number of school, family and community groups involved in advocacy activities for safe schools
Plan Uganda Prevention of SRGBV 2012-14 (in partnership with Raising Voices) **Funder:** SIDA **Budget:** 280,000 US$		1. Raise awareness of SRGBV by targeting school structures like SMCs, centre coordinating tutors and children's anti-violence committees 2. Disseminate information on creating a conducive learning environment in schools by developing information, education and communication materials on GBV 3. Create GBV groups in schools and communities to facilitate peer learning 4. Build capacity of teachers on GVB legal frameworks and good schools toolkit to prevent violence in schools	• A violent free school • Students have a voice (with equal participation of girls and boys) • Girls and boys are valued equally • Conducive clean and safe compounds that create a gender sensitive physical environment	• Capacity building /training of key teachers to oversee 'Good Schools' programme in their school • Development of school action plans • Creation of Children's Committees to act as role models • Community Activist teams to engage communities in discussion of SRGBV • Good school kits to raise awareness • Peer learning networks • Production of school murals and promotional materials • Production of video on SRGBV • Meetings with key stakeholders • Support for SMCs and Board of Governors • Baseline survey	Outcomes will extend to 240 schools by end of 1813 (40 schools in 4 divisions supported by the project, will reach out to 6 schools each)
Plan Malawi Learn without Fear (2008-2010) **Funder:** Plan International/ NORAD **Budget:** 703,000 US$	Enhance the capacity of communities to create a protective environment within schools and communities for the achievement of positive education outcomes.	1. Improve awareness and advocacy on school related violence at all levels 2. Improve systematic prevention, reporting and response mechanisms at the school level 2. Increase children's and community recognition, response and monitoring of violence against school children 4. Enhance the development of healthy relationship among school children, teachers and parents through school related sports and artistic activities 5. Contribute to policy and law reform on child protection	• Creation of a better learning environment • Increased awareness of child rights • Creation of a feedback mechanism for teachers and learners • Increased transparency and accountability of school teachers • Collaboration and linkages have been enhanced	• Training of project beneficiaries, including children, teachers, SMCs and PTAs in child rights and Learn without Fear concept. • School debates among • Open days on Learn without Fear • Drama, dance and songs for raising awareness. • Child rights clubs • Sporting activities and inter-school sports competitions • Child helpline • 'Happiness and sadness' boxes to improve child reporting of abuse.	

ANNEX 3: Stand-alone Interventions to address SRGBV

Methodology	Project	Sponsor	Target	Location	Main aim	Available evaluations
Drama (www.tfacafrica.com)	Theatre for a Change	TfaC (UK based charity)	Trainee teachers	Ghana, Malawi, Togo, Burkino Faso	Teach about HIV/AIDS, gender & identity, & child-centred pedagogy	Base/endline Malawi 2009, 2010, 2011 and others at http://www.tfacafrica.com/What-we-do/Monitoring-Evaluation-Learning
Film	Let's talk men	The South Asia Masculinities Film Project supported by Save the Children & UNICEF	Adolescents, especially boys, in formal and informal settings	South Asia, new version proposed in Thailand	Interrogate dominant views of masculinity, raise awareness of gender violence & HIV	None, but see Leach and Mitchell (2006) and http://www.engagingmen.net/files/resources/2010/Caroline/Lets_talk_men_-_project.pdf
Visual Arts: drawings as video narrative	Unwanted Images	Canada-South Africa Education Management Programme	aged 11-16, also teachers (as tool to combat SRGBV)	South Africa	Provide space to discuss GBV experiences through artwork	None, but see www.wgsi.utoronto.ca/GAAP/publications/unwanted/index.html
Visual Arts: Photo-voice & collaborative video	Speaking for Ourselves	Not known	Adolescents	Swaziland and South Africa	Space for expression on GBV, HIV etc	None, but see Leach and Mitchell (2006)
Mixed media (drama, song, creative arts)	Tuseme	FAWE (Gender-Responsive Pedagogy Initiative)	Schoolgirl members of Tuseme Girls Clubs	Tanzania (and elsewhere in SSA)	Empowering girls through skills in negotiation, self-confidence, decision-making and leadership	http://www.fawe.org/activities/interventions/tuseme/index.php None but evaluation commissioned?
Multi-media	Soul City	Soul City Institute	Adults and youth	South Africa (and	Communicating	Soul Buddyz Clubs (HIV)

(www.soulcity.org.za)		for Health and Development, South Africa		elsewhere)	messages about sexual health, violence etc to bring about change	(youth) brief evaluation online www.soulcity.org.za
Multi-media (www.storyworkshop.org)	Story Workshop	Story Workshop (Malawi NGO)	Communities; youth; trainee teachers (radio drama sketches)	Malawi	Sankha Wekha – youth radio and comic books to change attitudes on SRGBV and HIV	Only feedback from audience, partners, reports in media (www.storyworkshop.org)
Written narrative	Memory work	none	Trainee teachers	Kenya		None but see Chege, F (2006): Teacher Identities and Empowerment of Girls Against Sexual Violence [PDF 449.46KB]
Teaching package (www.auntiestella.org)	Auntie Stella – packs of 'agony aunt' style letters with Q and A	Training and Research Support Centre (Zimbabwe)	School children and youth	Zimbabwe (and elsewhere in SSA)	Opportunities for teenagers to discuss sex and relationships	None, only informal, see www.auntiestella.org
Manuals http://transition.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/doorways.html	Doorways 1, II and III	USAID	students, teachers, community counsellors	Numerous (manuals translated into Arabic, Russian, French, and Spanish)	SRGBV prevention and response training (student programme - 50 hours)	None know about, apart from post-training evaluations
Manuals http://www.ungei.org/resources/files/FAWE_GRP_ENGLISH_VERSION.pdf	Gender responsive pedagogy	FAWE	Teachers	Africa	trains teachers to become more gender-aware and adopt teaching practices which promote gender	2010 evaluation www.fawe.org/resource/focus/gr-pedagogy/

Manual http://www.unicef.org/publications/index_49574.html	Child Friendly Schools	UNICEF	Teachers and administrators	Worldwide	Promoting child friendly schools and safe learning environments	Evaluation of Rights Respecting Schools, UK http://www.unicef.org.uk/Education/Impact-Evidence/
Manual http://seap.savethechildren.se/South_East_Asia/Misc/Puffs/Positive-Discipline-What-it-is-and-how-to-do-it/	Positive Discipline: what it is and how to do it 2007	Save the Children Sweden	Parents, parent educators, and family support workers, facilitators, educators and trainers	Worldwide	Offering alternatives to corporal punishment	None known
Manual http://www.promundo.org.br/wp-content/uploads/2010/02/Promundo-Pub-Fim-dos-Castigos-INGLES.pdf	Ending corporal and humiliating punishments - A manual to inform and empower fathers, mothers and caregivers of children	Promundo 2010	Fathers, mothers and caregivers	Worldwide	Offering alternatives to corporal punishment	None known
Manual www.thutong.doe.gov.za/ResourceDownload.aspx?id=44564	Opening our eyes	Canada-South Africa Education Management Programme	educators	South Africa	Raising awareness of SRGBV and guidelines for facilitators	None known
Manual (as part of life skills training package) http://www.steppingstonesfeedback.org/	Stepping Stones	Salamander Trust	Adults and communities (children from 11 upwards)	Uganda (originally) and elsewhere in Africa and beyond	Educate communities about gender, HIV, sexual violence and provide communication skills & critical reflection	Only adult components: Jewkes et al. (2008) Impact of Stepping Stones on Incidence of HIV & HSV-2 and Sexual Behaviour in Rural South Africa www.bmj.com/content/337/bmj.a506

Training and resources, including Good Schools Kit & booklets for students	Raising Voices	Raising Voices, Uganda NGO	Communities; teachers	Uganda (and elsewhere)	Build GBV prevention capacity and attitude & behaviour change. Good School Kit (tools for creating a good school)	Evaluations reported in www.raisingvoices.org/files/RV_AnnualReport2011.pdf http://www.raisingvoices.org/files/RVProgramToolsEvaluation.pdf
Magazines (as part of a multi-media initiative for young people)	'Fema' and 'Si Mchezo', distributed at national level (180,000 and 175,000 copies of each issue)	Femina HIP	Fema - Youth aged 15-25 in school, workplaces and organisational settings Si Mchezo - rural out of school youth aged 15-25	Tanzania	Educate young people about sexuality, relationships, risk, HIV/Aids, life skills and other life style issues while entertaining them	http://www.feminahip.or.tz/products/fema.html http://www.feminahip.or.tz/products/si-mchezo.html
Child Helplines http://www.childhelplineinternational.org/	Free confidential helplines	Child Helpline International with local partners	Children of all ages	Worldwide	Provide free confidential service to children wishing to report abuse	http://plan-international.org/learnwithoutfear/resources/publications/using-child-helplines-to-protect-children-from-school-violence

ANNEX **4: ActionAid's SVAGS Indicators** (to be reviewed)

KENYA

Outcomes	Intermediate Outcomes		Indicators of achievement	
1. In all 3 countries, a legal & policy framework (drawing from the model policy) that addresses VAGS exists & is being implemented at all levels.	1.1	Combatting VAGS has higher profile & more support in government, media & civil society	1.1.1	Percentage of government officials whose responses indicate they are supportive of efforts to reduce VA
			1.1.2	Percentage of government officials taking actions that demonstrate support for the reduction of VAG
			1.1.3	Percentage of media articles that address VAG do so in a sensitive, productive manner
	1.2	Progress towards the adoption of legal & policy frameworks & implementation guidelines	1.2.1	Area Advisory Council Guidelines disseminated for Children's Act
			1.2.2	VAG thematic groups established in Area Advisory Councils
			1.2.3	Disciplinary procedures for teachers harmonised with the Sexual Offences Act
			1.2.4	Implementation guidelines for the Sexual Offences Act disseminated in schools/offices
			1.2.5	Guidelines for implementation of Gender and Education policy and school re-entry policy printed and di
	1.3	Legal & policy frameworks & implementation guidelines are effective	1.3.1	Number of VAG cases reported: police, child-protection agencies, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs etc.
			1.3.2	Number of VAG cases reported to the police that were investigated
			1.3.3	Number of VAG cases reported to the police that were prosecuted
			1.3.4	Number of VAG cases reported to the police that resulted in conviction
			1.3.5	Percentage of VAG survivors who received counselling, care or health advice
			1.3.6	Percentage of VAG survivors who feel that the authorities handled their case well
2. In the intervention areas, violence against girls by family members, teachers & peers is reduced [by 50%] from baseline statistics.	2.1	Increased awareness about VAGS, legislation, prevention & mechanisms	2.1.1	Percentage of respondents (other than girls) able to identify specific legislation aimed at preventing VAG
			2.1.2	Percentage of respondents able to identify formal mechanisms for reporting & referring incidences of V
			2.1.3	Percentage of respondents who know of a local organisation or service providing support to VAG surviv
	2.2	Increased community rejection of VAGS & support for efforts to reduce it	2.2.1	Percentage of respondents who think teachers do not have the right to demand sex from
			2.2.2	Percentage of respondents who think girls are not to blame for sexual harassment
			2.2.3	Percentage of respondents questioning corporal punishment
	2.3	Decrease in incidence of VAG in the home, in the community & at school	2.3.1	Percentage of girls who experienced violence at school in the last 12 months
			2.3.2	Percentage of girls who experienced violence in their home or community in the last 12 months

Outcomes	Intermediate Outcomes		Indicators of achievement	
3. In the intervention areas, girls' enrolment is increased [by an average of 22%], their drop-out is decreased [by 20%] & substantial progress is made towards gender parity in education.	3.1	Increased gender parity in enrolment & drop-out	3.1.1	Number of girls enrolled in the school
			3.1.2	GPI of enrolment
			3.1.3	District NET enrolment ratio
			3.1.4	Percentage of girls enrolled who drop out
			3.1.5	GPI of drop-out rate
			3.1.6	Percentage of drop-outs whose case is associated with pregnancy
			3.1.7	Percentage of drop-outs whose case is associated with early marriage
	3.2	Increased gender parity in progression & completion	3.2.1	Percentage of girls, at the end of lower primary, who progress to the next class/level
			3.2.2	GPI for progression (lower primary)
			3.2.3	Percentage of girls, at the end of upper primary, who progress to the next class/level
			3.2.4	GPI for progression (upper primary)
			3.2.5	Percentage of girls enrolled in Class 1 in 2006 completing a cycle of basic education by 2013
			3.2.6	GPI of basic education completion
	3.3	Increased gender parity in attainment	3.3.1	Percentage of girls enrolled in the last class of lower primary who pass all subjects
			3.3.2	GPI of percentage of those enrolled in the last class of lower primary who pass all subjects
			3.3.3	Percentage of girls enrolled in the last class of upper primary who pass all subjects
			3.3.4	GPI of percentage of those enrolled in the last class of upper primary who pass all subjects
	3.4	School environments are increasingly girl-friendly	3.4.1	Percentage of women teachers
			3.4.2	Percentage of women/girls on school management committee
			3.4.3	Number of schools with the following following:-
			1	* VAGS Policy
			2	* Teachers' Code of Conduct
			3	* Teachers trained in any issues related to gender & VAG
			4	* SMC members trained on issues related to gender & VAG
			5	* Girl-Sensitive School Plans (GSSP)

			6	* Lessons taking place on issues related to gender & VAG
			7	* Separate, functioning toilets for girls
			8	* Active Girls' Clubs
			3.4.4	Number of VAGS cases reported to the school
			3.5.4	Percentage of girls who think that teachers do not show bias against girls in their questioning a
4. In the intervention areas, [14,000] girls report the confidence to challenge the culture of violence in & around schools, report incidents & create peer support networks.	4.1	Increased participation of girls in challenging VAGS	4.1.1	Percentage of girls who think teachers do not have the right to demand sex from
			4.1.2	Percentage of girls who think that girls are not to blame for sexual harassment
			4.1.3	Percentage of girls questioning corporal punishment
			4.1.4	Percentage of girls participating in activities that challenge VAG
	4.2	Increased participation of girls in reporting cases of VAGS through official channels	4.2.1	Percentage of girls able to correctly identify formal mechanisms for reporting & referring incid
			4.2.2	Percentage of girls who have experienced violence who reported it, in any way
			4.2.3	Percentage of girls who have experienced violence who reported it, through official channels
			4.2.4	Percentage of girls who know of a local organisation or service providing support to VAG surviv
	4.3	Active peer-support networks for girls in place	4.3.1	Percentage of girls belonging to Girls' Clubs
			4.3.2	Number of school where boys are engaged in activities that challenge VAG & support girls

* Overall progression rate for lower and upper primary school

Ghana

Outcomes	Intermediate Outcomes		Indicators of achievement	
1. In all 3 countries, a legal & policy framework (drawing from the model policy) that addresses VAGS exists & is being implemented at all levels.	1.1	Combatting VAGS has higher profile & more support in government, media & civil society	1.1.1	Percentage of government officials whose responses indicate they are supportive of efforts to reduce V
			1.1.2	Percentage of government officials taking actions that demonstrate support for the reduction of VAG
			1.1.3	Percentage of media articles that address VAG do so in a sensitive, productive manner
	1.2	Progress towards the adoption of legal & policy frameworks & implementation guidelines	1.2.1	Current Teachers' Code of Conduct disseminated
			1.2.2	Teachers' Code of Conduct revised
			1.2.3	Gender and Education Policy ratified
			1.2.4	Head teacher manual updated
			1.2.5	SMC/PTA manual revised
	1.3	Legal & policy frameworks & implementation guidelines are effective	1.3.1	Number of VAG cases reported: police, child-protection agencies, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs etc.
			1.3.2	Number of VAG cases reported to the police that were investigated
			1.3.3	Number of VAG cases reported to the police that were prosecuted
			1.3.4	Number of VAG cases reported to the police that resulted in conviction
			1.3.5	Percentage of VAG survivors who received counselling, care or health advice
			1.3.6	Percentage of VAG survivors who feel that the authorities handled their case well
2. In the intervention areas, violence against girls by family members, teachers & peers is reduced [by 50%] from baseline statistics.	2.1	Increased awareness about VAGS, legislation, prevention & mechanisms	2.1.1	Percentage of respondents (other than girls) able to identify specific legislation aimed at preventing VAG
			2.1.2	Percentage of respondents able to identify formal mechanisms for reporting & referring incidences of V
			2.1.3	Percentage of respondents who know of a local organisation or service providing support to VAG surviv
	2.2	Increased community rejection of VAGS & support for efforts to reduce it	2.2.1	Percentage of respondents who think teachers do not have the right to demand sex from
			2.2.2	Percentage of respondents who think girls are not to blame for sexual harassment
			2.2.3	Percentage of respondents questioning corporal punishment
	2.3	Decrease in incidence of VAG in the home, in the community & at school	2.3.1	Percentage of girls who experienced violence at school in the last 12 months
			2.3.2	Percentage of girls who experienced violence in their home or community in the last 12 months

Outcomes	Intermediate Outcomes		Indicators of achievement	
3. In the intervention areas, girls' enrolment is increased [by an average of 22%], their drop-out is decreased [by 20%] & substantial progress is made towards gender parity in education.	3.1	Increased gender parity in enrolment & drop-out	3.1.1	Number of girls enrolled in the school
			3.1.2	GPI of enrolment
			3.1.3	District NET enrolment ratio
			3.1.4	Percentage of girls enrolled who drop out
			3.1.5	GPI of drop-out rate
			3.1.6	Percentage of drop-outs whose case is associated with pregnancy
			3.1.7	Percentage of drop-outs whose case is associated with early marriage
	3.2	Increased gender parity in progression & completion	3.2.1	Percentage of girls, at the end of lower primary, who progress to the next class/level
			3.2.2	GPI for progression (lower primary)
			3.2.3	Percentage of girls, at the end of upper primary, who progress to the next class/level
			3.2.4	GPI for progression (upper primary)
			3.2.5	Percentage of girls enrolled in Class 1 in 2006 completing a cycle of basic education by 2013
			3.2.6	GPI of basic education completion

	3.3	Increased gender parity in attainment	3.3.1	Percentage of girls enrolled in the last class of lower primary who pass all subjects
			3.3.2	GPI of percentage of those enrolled in the last class of lower primary who pass all subjects
			3.3.3	Percentage of girls enrolled in the last class of upper primary who pass all subjects
			3.3.4	GPI of percentage of those enrolled in the last class of upper primary who pass all subjects
	3.4	School environments are increasingly girl-friendly	3.4.1	Percentage of women teachers
			3.4.2	Percentage of women/girls on school management committee
			3.4.3	Number of schools with the following following:-
			1	* VAGS Policy
			2	* Teachers' Code of Conduct
			3	* Teachers trained in any issues related to gender & VAG
			4	* SMC members trained on issues related to gender & VAG
			5	* Girl-Sensitive School Plans (GSSP)
			6	* Lessons taking place on issues related to gender & VAG
			7	* Separate, functioning toilets for girls
			8	* Active Girls' Clubs
			3.4.4	Number of VAGS cases reported to the school
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4. In the intervention areas, [14,000] girls report the confidence to challenge the culture of violence in & around schools, report incidents & create peer support networks.	4.1	Increased participation of girls in challenging VAGS	4.1.1	Percentage of girls who think teachers do not have the right to demand sex from
			4.1.2	Percentage of girls who think that girls are not to blame for sexual harassment
			4.1.3	Percentage of girls questioning corporal punishment
			4.1.4	Percentage of girls participating in activities that challenge VAG
	4.2	Increased participation of girls in reporting cases of VAGS through official channels	4.2.1	Percentage of girls able to correctly identify formal mechanisms for reporting & referring incidences of V
			4.2.2	Percentage of girls who have experienced violence who reported it, in any way
			4.2.3	Percentage of girls who have experienced violence who reported it, through official channels
			4.2.4	Percentage of girls who know of a local organisation or service providing support to VAG survivors
	4.3	Peer-support networks for girls in place	4.3.1	Percentage of girls belonging to Girls' Clubs
			4.3.2	Number of school where boys are engaged in activities that challenge VAG & support girls