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LITERATURE REVIEW ON SCHOOL-RELATED GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE: HOW IT IS DEFINED AND STUDIED

EdData II: Data for Education Research and Programming (DERP) in Africa

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Cover photo: Students working on a language lesson during in a classroom in Uganda, supported through USAID/Uganda School Health and Reading Program. Photo by Medina Korda.

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Abbreviations

ACASI	audio computer-assisted self-interview
AFR/SD/ED	U.S. Agency for International Development's Bureau for Africa, Office of Sustainable Development, Education Division
ANOVA	analysis of variance
ASI	Ambivalent Sexism Inventory
ATCP	alternatives to corporal punishment
BL	Bullying
BS	benevolent sexism
CAPI	computer-assisted personal interviewing
CASEL	Collaborative on Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CERT	Centre for Education Research and Training
CINHAL	Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature
CP	corporal punishment
DFID	Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic Health Survey
ERIC	Education Resources Information Center
FGD	focus group discussion
GEMS	Gender Equity Movement in Schools
GSHS	Global School-Based Student Health Survey
HBSC	Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children
HS	hostile sexism
IPSCAN	International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect
IS	Implementation Science
LILACS	Latin American and Caribbean Literature on Health Sciences
M&E	monitoring and evaluation
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
OASIS	Opportunities for Achievement and Safety in Schools
MM	mixed methods
N/A	not applicable
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PLA	Participatory Learning and Action
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PV	physical victimization
Q	Quantitative
QL	Qualitative
SH	sexual harassment
SV	sexual violence
RCT	randomized controlled trial

SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SES	socioeconomic status
SRGBV	school-related gender-based violence
SVV	sexual violence victimization
TEGINT	Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UK	United Kingdom
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
USG	U.S. Government
VAWG	Violence Against Women and Girls
VV	verbal victimization
WHO	World Health Organization

Foreword

This literature review of definitions and methods used to study school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) was commissioned by the U.S. Agency for International Development's (USAID's) Bureau for Africa, Office of Sustainable Development, Education Division (AFR/SD/ED), under the Opportunities for Achievement and Safety in Schools (OASIS) program.

In support of USAID's Education Strategy, AFR/SD's Regional Development Cooperation Strategy, and the U.S. Strategy to Prevent and Respond to Gender-based Violence Globally, the OASIS program aims to reduce barriers to quality education and learning for students and out-of-school youth, focusing on SRGBV as one barrier. OASIS is designed to help reduce SRGBV by strengthening the capacity of USAID and other stakeholders to effectively address SRGBV by generating evidence, fostering better capability to generate such evidence, improving coordination, and increasing awareness. The OASIS program encompasses the following activities:

- **Generating data that contribute to understanding causes, incidence, and effects of SRGBV:** The OASIS program supports large-scale, gender-sensitive comparative research in developing countries by working with existing national surveys to include more refined questions on school violence. It also analyzes data from existing large-scale surveys to better understand the causes and effects of SRGBV. OASIS also supports rigorous evaluations of SRGBV intervention programs to test their impacts on educational achievement.
- **Strengthening USAID and other stakeholders' capacities to address and monitor SRGBV:** The lack of clearly identifying the different types of SRGBV is one major challenge to generating reliable, comparable data. OASIS aims to fill this gap with the development of a standardized measurement framework in partnership with other U.S. Government (USG) and non-USG stakeholders. This framework can serve as a foundation upon which program impact evaluations and other SRGBV research could be included.
- **Improving stakeholder coordination:** OASIS aims to facilitate the coordination of efforts across USAID and partner with national and international education stakeholders.
- **Increasing awareness of SRGBV among USAID and non-USAID stakeholders:** OASIS aims to disseminate research findings strategically, develop talking points and fact sheets, and partner with national and international education stakeholders to include this issue in the agenda of key meetings and conferences.

This literature review contributes to the second objective of OASIS: Strengthening USAID and other stakeholder capacity to address and monitor SRGBV. Together with its companion document, *Conceptual Framework for Measuring School-Related Gender-Based Violence*, this literature review is expected to help build capacity in the international development community to measure SRGBV and track successes in reducing it.

Together, OASIS activities will inform and promote programs for a safe learning environment that is free of violence and abuse—an "oasis" for working, teaching, and learning without fear.

1 Introduction

1.1 Purpose of the Review

Recent research suggests that school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) affects absenteeism, retention, and achievement (Abramovay and Rua, 2005; Dunne et al., 2013; Kosciw et al., 2013; Perezneito et al., 2010). Yet, the evidence base remains fragmented and insufficient to demonstrate a solid linkage between the various acts of SRGBV and the effects on academic achievement and retention. A lack of agreed upon definitions of SRGBV behaviors and effective methods and indicators for studying SRGBV contribute to the fragmentation of the evidence. Studies often conceptualize SRGBV differently, focus only on one or two types of SRGBV, and use very different research methodologies and indicators to examine the efficacy of interventions or track incidents of SRGBV. Consequently, it is difficult for researchers and for the international development community to develop a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of SRGBV.

A review of the SRGBV literature serves several purposes. First, it identifies overarching SRGBV types or categories with the intent to assist researchers and the international development community to align more closely around common SRGBV definitions. Greater definitional agreement will contribute to the expansion of the evidence on effective SRGBV interventions and will allow for greater comparability of research, and the identification of research gaps.

Second, this review provides a global overview of the common methodologies observed across SRGBV studies and evaluations and contributes to a clearer understanding of the research trends, strengths, and weaknesses for consideration when conducting studies and evaluations of SRGBV. The findings serve to better inform SRGBV prevention activities, future investigations of SRGBV and more effective measurement of SRGBV.

Third, this review is informing USAID's development of a companion document, *Conceptual Framework for Measuring School-Related Gender-Based Violence,* that will provide development partners and researchers with a conceptual framework and measurement tools to inform programming and research protocols.

Finally, a review of the methodologies used to examine SRGBV may provide guidance to policymakers, other program designers and researchers in many countries who are grappling with the same set of issues around SRGBV. The wide variety of sectors where SRGBV is studied underscores the comprehensive nature of the SRGBV issue and the broad base of factors that mediate its occurrence, manner of presentation, and intensity. Tapping into this broad literature base is important because it will extend the frame from which researchers and implementers design further investigations and prevention programs.

1.2 Definition of SRGBV

It is critical to come to a common understanding of the term SRGBV and how it is used. While no universal definition exist, the international development community continues to align its definitions of the types of SRGBV more closely. For the purpose of this literature review, the term "SRGBV" is defined as follows by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID):

> *School-related gender-based violence is defined as acts or threats of physical, sexual or psychological violence or abuse that is based on gendered stereotypes or that targets students on the basis of their sex, sexuality or gender identities. School- related gender-based violence reinforces gender roles and perpetuates gender inequalities. It includes rape, unwanted sexual touching, unwanted sexual comments, corporal punishment, bullying, and other forms of non-sexual intimidation or abuse such as verbal harassment or exploitative labor in schools. Unequal power relations between adults and children and males and females contribute to this violence, which can take place in formal and nonformal schools, on school grounds, going to and from school, in school dormitories, in cyberspace or through cell phone technology. School-related gender-based violence may be perpetrated by teachers, students, or community members. Both girls and boys can be victims, as well as perpetrators.*

1.3 Methodology for the Review

The literature reviewed broadly spanned a variety of studies and publications, including academic research papers, program evaluations, literature reviews, and methodological guidelines. Literature that addresses violence against children, but did not have a specific focus on SRGBV is included. Literature was also selected that evaluated the school environment from a more holistic frame such as literature discussing the school climate or social and emotional learning. Literature was identified from the fields of public health, sociology, psychology, and education.

To identify studies and publications, including academic research papers, program evaluations, and methodological guidelines for this systematic literature review, databases were used, including the Web of Science, Science Citation Index Expanded and Social Sciences Citation Index; Education Resources Information Center (ERIC); Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINHAL); Ovid Medicine; Psycinfo; Science Direct; PubMed; Latin American and Caribbean Literature on Health Sciences (LILACS); GenderWatch; Public Affairs Information Service; and Google Scholar. An example of a query used in searching databases is (school* OR student*) AND (violent* OR corporal OR punch* OR spank* OR paddle* OR beat* OR discipline*) AND (female* OR girl* OR gender*) plus country terms. In addition to using database queries, websites and publications from many organizations for relevant documents were reviewed. The organizations include ActionAid International, the American Association of University Women's Education Foundation, the International Center for Research on Women, Concern Worldwide, FHI 360, Management Systems International, Oxfam International, Plan International, Save the Children, the United Nations, and the Joint United

Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. The review drew from public health, sociology, psychology, and education.

In an effort to capture a range of methods and definitions used to examine SRGBV, publications were selected and assessed if they:

- Addressed SRGBV behaviors
- Focused on behaviors that are observed or experienced in, near or on the way to school
- Involved geographical coverage and cross-country studies
- Discussed a variety of evaluation designs, including descriptive *studies* that document for example, the acts and prevalence of SRGBV and their impacts; *relational studies* that describe the inter-relations between SRGBV and various social, cultural, and economic characteristics in the context; and *program evaluations*

Although a focus of the review was to study the methodologies that are used to examine violence that is both gender based and school related the review was not limited to literature that strictly met both of these criteria. In many cases, especially regarding bullying and corporal punishment, behaviors may not be conceptualized as being gender based. Therefore, studies that reflected such differences in conceptualization were not excluded from the literature review.

1.4 Summary of Literature Reviewed

A total of 171 publications informed the literature review, which identified three overarching categories of SRGBV: 1) bullying and other forms of non-sexual intimidation, 2) corporal punishment, and 3) sexual violence (including abuse and harassment).

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the coverage of professional literature, excluding policy papers and review articles. It is important to note that the fields in these tables do not represent mutually exclusive categories; therefore, the data should not be expected to "add up." For example, it was common for studies to target more than one of the grade populations, and it was also common for studies to address more than one type of SRGBV. Similarly, many studies involved multiple countries.

Table 1 Summary of Literature by Target Population and Type of SRGBV
(number of times addressed in studies, evaluations, academic papers, and global data bases)

Study Population	Corporal Punishment	Bullying/Intimidation	Sexual Violence	TOTAL
Primary School	9	10	18	37
Junior Secondary School	19	28	50	97
Secondary School	13	18	60	91
TOTAL	41	56	128	225

Some of the observations from these tables do speak to documented trends such as the preference for SRGBV studies to target junior secondary (e.g., junior high school) and senior secondary school populations versus primary school, particularly for studies that focus on sexual violence. Importantly, it is not uncommon for students much older than grade level to be enrolled in primary school. This situation is exacerbated in regions where there have been armed conflicts and youth are being reintegrated into society and schools. Such students may be at a higher risk for victimization or present additional risk to their younger classmates as perpetrators. This warrants further study. Another observation that is consistent with the reported trends involves the limited investigation of corporal punishment in non-African countries, and a large majority of studies on school-related sexual violence have been conducted in Africa.

Table 2 Summary of Literature by Region and Type of SRGBV
(number of times addressed in studies, evaluations, academic papers, and global data bases)

Region	Corporal Punishment	Bullying/Intimidation	Sexual Violence	TOTAL
North America	1	7	6	14
South America	0	5	2	7
Europe	0	9	2	11
MENA	2	3	2	7
Sub-Saharan Africa	19	11	29	59
India	3	5	6	14
Asia[1] and Australia	2	5	2	9
TOTAL	27	45	49	121

Note: MENA = Middle East and North Africa.

1.5 Limitations

This review is not an evaluation of the prevalence, nature, and impact of SRGBV and it is not a comprehensive study of the presentation of SRGBV around the world. However, the literature review touches on some aspects of each of these areas to place the methodological review in context and to guide the development of a core set of definitions and methods that can be applied universally to further study and inform SRGBV–related interventions. This literature review does not include all foreign language publications; it includes only publications in English, French and Spanish.

[1] India is not included.

When examining the quantitative studies, the reviewers did not evaluate the statistical conclusion validity of the studies because the publications in this review did not provide the information required to do so (e.g., distribution characteristics, inter-relationship between the distribution and sample size, dependency of units).

1.6 Organization of the Literature Review

The literature review is organized to provide both a general context for SRGBV and a review of the methods used to study SRGBV. The remainder of this report is divided into six sections.

Section 2 presents a summary of how the literature characterizes SRGBV by three broad categories – 1) bullying and intimidation, 2) corporal punishment, and 3) sexual violence.

Section 3 summarizes SRGBV effects, risks, and protective factors.

Section 4 reviews the methods (quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods) used to study SRGBV.

Section 5 identifies challenges associated with SRGBV research and measurement.

Section 6 addresses the ethical consideration of children and adolescents in research.

Section 7 provides conclusions and recommendations.

Attached to this report are seven appendices with (1) a table describing 126 studies and evaluations of SRGBV programs and research examined; (2) a table summarizing 37 quantitative studies reviewed; (3) a table describing 16 questionnaires used for measuring SRGBV; (4) a table summarizing 14 qualitative studies reviewed; (5) a table describing 9 instruments used for qualitative inquiry; (6) a table summarizing 10 evaluations reviewed; and (7) a list of indicators used to monitor and evaluate SRGBV.

2 SRGBV Defined in the Literature

Three overarching types of SRGBV emerged from the literature review: 1) bullying 2) corporal punishment, and 3) sexual violence. Appendix 1 presents a table describing all of the studies and evaluations selected for review.

2.1 Bullying and Other Forms of Non-sexual Violence and Intimidation

A range of behaviors are covered in the literature on bullying and other forms of non-sexual school violence. This sub-section discusses the literature on bullying and acts of physical and psychological intimidation and then describes how these behaviors together should be considered as acts of non-sexual violence. It also identifies overlap and similarity in definitions so as to allow a common definition of bullying to be suggested.

2.1.1 How bullying is described in the literature

Bullying and intimidation are rarely separated in the literature, with the differentiating factor being related to the intention and recurrent nature of the behavior. Both psychological and physical acts, as well as direct and indirect types of perpetration, have been studied (Espelage et al., 2012; Hamburger et al., 2011). The acts of psychological abuse and intimidation, sometimes referred to as "emotional violence" and often referred to as "psychological bullying," have been described as insults, gossip, teasing, mocking, and serious verbal abuse (Chen and Astor, 2009; Parkes and Heslop, 2011; Roman and Murillo, 2011). Psychological bullying has been reported to be more common than physical bullying in Asia, South America, and the Middle East (Chen and Astor, 2009; Mansour and Karam, 2012; Roman and Murillo, 2011).

Non-sexual gender-based violence in and near schools includes a range of psychological and physical acts that include bullying. Within a range of literature sources, these terms are often used interchangeably. Non-sexual physical intimidation and abuse and/or bullying may be less common than psychological bullying in some countries (as previously mentioned), but they appear to be the most common forms of SRGBV in sub-Saharan Africa (Parkes and Heslop, 2011). Physical bullying is reported by 16.5 percent of students in South American countries (Roman and Murillo, 2011), but is much more prevalent in African countries with rates from 60 to 99 percent among girls (Bisika et al., 2009; Burton, 2005; Parkes and Heslop, 2011). In sub-Saharan Africa, girls and boys alike are often terrorized and threatened by physical violence while traveling to and from school (Burton, 2005; Parkes and Heslop, 2011).

Another, often ignored, side of non-sexual, school-related violence is theft. Many children report that it is quite common to be robbed by people from outside of the school coming in or by fellow students during the school day (Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013; Roman and Murillo, 2011). In a multi-national study in South America, Roman and Murillo (2011) found that among Grade 6 students, 39.4 percent of them had been victims of theft. The classic concept of a bully taking a student's lunch money was the most common form of bullying described in South Africa (Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013). Evidence suggests that even these types of bullying, which may

seem to be mild, can lead to extremely negative outcomes, including poor rates of student performance or dropping out of school.

2.1.2 Power differential and gender

An important aspect of any type of bullying is the power differential that exists between the perpetrator and the victim, which can be effected by gender. The power differential makes specific populations, including children, young women, and lower income populations, more vulnerable to intimidation or bullying (Ringrose and Renold, 2010). Large-scale studies across many countries in North America, South America, Europe, and the Middle East have shown that boys and girls tend to be victims of bullying at similar rates (Carrera-Fernandez et al., 2013, Due et al., 2005; Hussein, 2010). Despite similar rates of victimization, more boys than girls tend to be perpetrators of bullying (Hussein, 2010). No studies were found that compared boys' and girls' rates of victimization and perpetration of bullying in Africa or Asia. Although the studies included in the review tended to address child-to-child bullying, teachers are known to be perpetrators of bullying too that most typically is a form of humiliation that generates attention while it degrades a student in front of others. In effect, the bullying can be a public degradation ceremony in which the victim's capabilities are debased and his or her identity is ridiculed (McEvoy, 2005). Although milder physical bullying such as grabbing is common in America (Espelage et al., 2012), severe physical abuse, including beatings, often occurs to girls in Africa at the hands of boys and teachers (Bisika et al., 2009; Parkes and Heslop, 2011).

The type of bullying experience of girls and boys seems to vary. Studies show that girls are more likely than boys to be the victim of psychological bullying, such as gossip (Carrera-Fernandez et al., 2013), whereas boys may experience more physical victimization (Roman and Murillo, 2011). Psychological intimidation or bullying includes "relational bullying" or "indirect bullying" (Hamburger et al., 2011; Olweus and Limber, 2010). Relational bullying refers to social exclusion or ridicule. Gender role and gender-typical behaviors also appear to influence who gets bullied. For example, girls who show less feminine behavior experience more victimization (Drury et al., 2013). Similarly, boys who display more feminine behavior are more likely to be victimized (Navarro et al., 2011). Students who are perceived to be or are identified with non-heterosexual behaviors also experience more victimization (Gruber and Fineran, 2008; Toomey et al., 2013). Verbal abuse of girls by boys and teachers was reported to be very common in Malawi (Bisika et al., 2009). A study in the United States found that homophobic teasing was also very common (Espelage et al., 2012). It should be noted that in all contexts, homophobic bullying (i.e., bullying related to perceived or real non-heterosexual identities) often crosses the line into sexual harassment (Bisika et al., 2009; Espelage et al., 2012).

2.1.3 Toward a common definition of bullying

Researchers sometimes use the term "bullying" broadly to report on peer conflict or fighting, but the operational definition most often adopted was created by Dan Olweus, a Swedish professor of psychology. Many studies use Olweus's (1994) definition, which requires personal negative

intent and a power differential, but others also use the term "bullying" to refer to psychological or physical acts of violence when two peers are in conflict or to refer to random acts of violence.

Other studies use the term "bullying" only for acts of physical intimidation, which results in lower prevalence levels than those reported by studies that also include psychological intimidation. The majority of research about bullying has investigated peer victimization and perpetration during the school day and when students are traveling to and from school. Typically, bullying definitions do not include corporal punishment, which is treated as a separate category.

In the studies reviewed, non-sexual forms of violence—both psychological and physical—were more often than not referred to as "bullying" without strict reference to the criteria for bullying provided by Olweus (1993 and 1994). In this document, both terms are used when they are employed interchangeably in the literature, but there is actually a fine line between intimidation and bullying; these terms are not easily distinguishable in reality and they do not need to be. Essentially non-sexual forms of violence (both psychological and physical) are still types of bullying. Despite some variance in how bullying is defined in the literature, there is sufficient overlap to suggest a common definition of bullying.

Common Definition of Bullying

Bullying is commonly defined as any form of non-sexual intentional actions against someone that is perpetrated with intention to harm, either physically or psychologically. The act of bullying is grounded in a real or perceived power differential between the perpetrator and the victim.

2.2 Corporal Punishment

Corporal punishment is treated in the literature as a separate type of SRGBV, which is perpetrated with the intention to control and/or modify student behavior as a form of "discipline." This sub-section discusses the literature on corporal punishment and affirms the consistency in definitions, allowing a common definition of corporal punishment to be suggested.

2.2.1 How corporal punishment is described in the literature

The literature reflects that the most common type of corporal punishment reported in schools is described as beatings with a stick ("caning") or with a whip. Other reported implements that have been used for corporal punishment include belts, electrical cords, broomsticks, paddles, and shoes (Global Initiative to End Corporal Punishment of Children, 2008). Some disciplinary acts include slapping or shaking children, pulling ears, having children kneel or stand for long periods of time (sometimes on a rough surface or in the sun), being pinched, having children hold their hands up high or tying their hands together (Agbenyega, 2006; Gill-Marshall, 2000; Kilimci, 2009; Mishra et al., 2010; Simatwa, 2012). Corporal punishment is most often described as a form of physical violence—physical punishment—that involves the deliberate infliction of pain

to discipline or reform a child or to deter attitudes or behaviors deemed unacceptable or inappropriate.

Corporal punishment is the least effective form of discipline at school and perpetuates a school climate that is volatile and resentful (UNICEF, 2001), yet many teachers believe that it is the most effective method (Simatwa, 2012). Moreover, teachers also justify the use of harsh, physical punishment on the basis that student violence in school must be met with violence (Payet and Franchi, 2008; Simatwa, 2012).

Much of the literature addresses the fact that corporal punishment is a direct violation of children's human rights and, therefore, violates the United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNICEF, 2001) and that the Convention has urged legal reforms to outlaw corporal punishment in schools across the world (UNICEF, 2001). Although corporal punishment in schools is illegal in many countries, the practice is still used, and even condoned, by school personnel and even the students themselves (Maphosa and Shumba, 2010). Problems with enforcement may be due to a lack of respect for law enforcement authorities or school leadership (UNICEF, 2001) and may also be due to parents' expectations for teachers to apply corporal punishment and/or teachers' lack of knowledge or confidence in applying alternative, non-violent measures of discipline (Maphosa and Shumba, 2010). Cultural norms that endorse the use of corporal punishment in homes and schools sabotage the successful enforcement of policies and legislation that disallow it. It is not uncommon for parents to demand the use of corporal punishment in schools because they may see this as normal and the most appropriate means of disciplining children (UNICEF, 2001). Children may accept corporal punishment as the norm and as an appropriate way to be disciplined; as such, the practice is rarely questioned by students or parents.

2.2.2 Power differential and gender

Although corporal punishment has been studied extensively, it is only recently being conceptualized as gender based because it is strongly tied to aggressive masculinity (Leach et al., 2014). The linkage between corporal punishment and gender-based values of masculinity is an important lens through which to view the problem in all cultures (Humphreys, 2008). As evidence of this problem, corporal punishment is more likely to be perpetrated by male teachers than female teachers because male teachers often view physical violence as a role to be upheld in schools (Leach et al., 2014). Students in a study from Zimbabwe reported that male teachers used physical corporal punishment more often, but that female teachers used verbal humiliation (MSI, 2008). In general, the rates of victimization from corporal punishment are similar for boys and girls, yet the severity and impact of the physical abuse for girls and boys is experienced differently.

2.2.3 Toward a common definition of corporal punishment

While some definitions of corporal punishment also include psychological victimization by humiliating or ostracizing a student (UNICEF, 2001), the greater body of literature limits the definition to the use of physical force and categorizes teacher humiliation of students as bullying.

Corporal punishment is used as a way to discipline students and is often viewed as an acceptable and agreeable act by institutions, community members, and parents and may even be outlined and defined in a school's Code of Conduct. Some researchers define corporal punishment more broadly, based on the types of disciplinary acts that were reported by students and teachers. Because there is minimal variance in how corporal punishment is defined in the literature, a common definition is suggested.

Common Definition of Corporal Punishment

The use of physical punishment by someone assigned authority such as a teacher, principal or school official that involves the deliberate infliction of pain to discipline or reform a child or to deter attitudes or behaviors deemed unacceptable or inappropriate.

2.3 Sexual Violence

There is variance in the academic literature about which acts constitute sexual violence and sexual abuse or harassment. Sexual abuse is most often grouped with sexual violence and sexual harassment is seen as a separate but related type of SRGBV. This sub-section discusses the literature on sexual violence, sexual abuse and harassment and describes how these acts together should be considered acts of sexual violence. It also suggests a common definition of sexual violence that includes sexual abuse and harassment.

2.3.1 How sexual violence is described in the literature

Sexual violence based on the **sexual abuse** lens includes direct physical contact, such as unwanted touching or any kind or rape, which is also known as "defilement" for young people under the legal age of consent. According to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2014) sexual violence comprises any sexual activities imposed by an adult on a child for which the child is entitled to protection by criminal law. UNICEF (2014) also includes sexual exploitation for commercial purposes in its definition of sexual violence. It also includes utilizing children in audio or visual images of sexual abuse and using children for prostitution, sexual slavery, sexual exploitation in travel and tourism, and trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation (within and between countries). Sexual violence also includes the sale of children for sexual purposes and forced marriage. Sexual activities are also considered to be abuse when an act is committed against a child by another child and if the offender is significantly older than the victim or uses power, threats, or other means of pressure to coerce a sexual act.

Sexual violence based on the **sexual harassment** lens is defined by Meyer (2008) as any behavior that acts to shape and police the boundaries of the traditional gender norms of heterosexual masculinity and femininity, including sexual harassment, sexual orientation harassment, and gender nonconformity harassment. Some examples of this type of behavior include comments, gestures, leers, or invitations of a sexual nature. The literature reflects a range of behaviors considered sexual harassment. It can be verbal (e.g., comments about a student's body, spreading sexual rumors, sexual remarks or accusations, dirty jokes or stories). Sexual harassment can also be physical (e.g., grabbing, rubbing, showing a body part such as the

buttocks, touching, pinching in a sexual way, sexual assault) or visual (e.g., displaying naked pictures or sex-related objects, obscene gestures). Both girls and boys can be victims of sexual harassment, and sexual harassers can be fellow students, teachers, principals, janitors, coaches, and other school staff. Sexual orientation harassment is any hidden or obvious behavior that reinforces negative attitudes toward gay, lesbian, bisexual individuals, and transgender populations. Gender nonconformity harassment occurs when students are targeted because of their gender expression or their public performance of masculinity or femininity (Meyer, 2008).

2.3.2 Power differential and gender

The literature on sexual abuse and harassment and sexual violence is all rooted in the power differential that exists between the perpetrator and the victim, and is heavily affected by gender. The majority of sexual violence described in the literature focuses largely on girls as the target. Although girls experience sexual violence more often than boys, the World Health Organization highlights the seriousness of this problem for girls and boys, with estimates of 150 million girls and 73 million boys who were aged 18 years and younger having experienced forced sexual intercourse or other forms of sexual violence by people known to them, including teachers (Jones et al., 2008). There has been a shift from research that studies the acts of violence themselves and their respective impacts on the individuals who experience them, to a focus on social conditions that produce and maintain them. Subsequently, the voices of boys and men have become quite present in research and programs seeking to understand and prevent SRGBV.

Reilly (2009) describes how focusing solely on acts of violence and on individual perpetrators and victims often leads to interventions focused on protecting victims or punishing perpetrators. Adopting a broader notion of sexual violence as a social behavior, including acts and verbal forms of sexual violence, leads to research and interventions that seek to understand the social conditions that produce and maintain it and interventions are directed toward transforming those precipitating conditions. The notion that violence is inextricably related to power acknowledges the global relationship that women have had with men and reinforces the perspective that focusing on the prevalence or acts of violence ignores the gendered dimensions of violence and the workings of power that underpin violent acts.

The literature reports sexual violence during the journey to school included staring, blowing whistles, sexual comments or jokes, comments to entice, threats of kidnapping, and transactional sex for transportation, money, or goods. The perpetrators of these behaviors have been described as older men known as “sugar daddies” in the vicinity of the school, idlers, strangers, and *matatu touts/makangas* (an assistant to a transportation driver to whom girls give money for transportation). The perpetrators also include neighborhood youth, gangs, roadside shopkeepers, and young local leaders of political parties. Acts of sexual violence that occur at school with teachers include rape, sexual assault, verbal sexual harassment, and transactional sex for money or the promise of better grades. Acts of sexual violence that occur with other students include rape, peeping and unwanted sexual advances in the toilet facilities, transactional sex with older students for money, sexual comments, and touching. Examples of sexual violence include requests for sexual favors or unwelcome sexual behavior that is serious enough or happens often

enough to make a student feel uncomfortable, scared, or confused and that interferes with his or her schoolwork or the learner's ability to participate in extracurricular activities or attend classes.

2.3.3 Toward a common definition of sexual violence

Definitions of sexual abuse tend to emphasize physical forms of abuse and assault as sexual violence while sexual harassment definitions tend to emphasize sexually driven psychological forms of abuse. While isolating sexual abuse from harassment has been an approach, concern is being raised that if the definition of gender-based violence only includes physical sexual assault, then sexual harassment may not be counted or otherwise addressed. More recently studies have begun to examine the behaviors associated with one behavior type – that of sexual violence, meaning that while somewhat nuanced distinctions are made between these terms, they tend to be grouped under the umbrella term, sexual violence. Subsequently, there is sufficient rationale to suggest the inclusion of sexual abuse and sexual harassment in a common definition of sexual violence.

Common Definition of Sexual Violence

Comprises physical or psychological abuse or harassment of a child by an adult or another child through any form of verbal acts of violence or forced or unwanted sexual activity where there is no consent, consent is not possible, or power or intimidation is used to coerce a sexual act.

3 SRGBV Effects, Risks and Protective Factors

The literature yielded a body of evidence on the impact of bullying, corporal punishment and sexual violence, and revealed risks and protective factors associated with each type of SRGBV.

3.1 Bullying

3.1.1 Impacts of Bullying

The negative effects of bullying are well-documented and often severe. Because bullying and the threat of bullying usually exist across time, sustained changes in educational, mental, and physical outcomes can be detected. Educational outcomes appear to be significantly and negatively impacted across cultures, including students' decision to avoid school for a time or to drop out and stop attending school completely. In a South African study 20 percent of students reported skipping class because of fear of bullying (Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013). This finding was especially true among girls who were victims of psychological bullying. When students do attend school, bullying appears to have a significant effect on their schooling. Bullying disrupts the classroom, making it difficult for students to concentrate on academics (Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013). Nansel and colleagues (2004) found that around the world, bullying victimization and perpetration are associated with poor school performance.[2] Roman and Murillo (2011) identified negative impacts of bullying on mathematics and reading achievement. In a study of youth in South Africa, 45 percent of students reported that bullying was associated with poor academic performance (Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013).

Additionally, children who are victims of bullying are also more likely to experience emotional and mental health problems (Nansel et al., 2004). The most common mental health issues that have been associated with bullying are depression and thoughts of suicide (Kim et al., 2005; Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013). A cross-cultural study by Fleming and Jacobsen (2009) found that more than 30 percent of bullied students reported feelings of sadness and more than 20 percent had thoughts of suicide. Psychological problems appear to be worse for sexual minorities who are bullied more than for other students (Toomey et al., 2013). Children who are the victims of non-sexual, school-related violence are also much more likely to participate in risky behaviors, including using drugs, smoking cigarettes, drinking alcohol, and having sex (Fleming and Jacobsen, 2009).

Lastly, physical symptoms have been associated with the experience of bullying. Across countries, Nansel and colleagues (2004) found that both victims and perpetrators of bullying experienced health problems at a higher rate than those who were not involved in bullying. Other studies also confirmed these effects, with health problems differentially worse for girls than for boys (Gruber and Fineran, 2008; Yen et al., 2013). Health problems such as headaches, stomachaches, and having trouble sleeping are common (Gruber and Fineran, 2008). In one

[2] Nansel and colleagues (2004) studied bullying in Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Finland, Germany, Greece, Greenland, Hungary, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Northern Ireland, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Ireland, Scotland, Slovak Republic, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States, and Wales.

study, more than 70 percent of bullied students reported having insomnia (Fleming and Jacobsen, 2009).

3.1.2 Risks and Protective Factors Investigated

Risk Factors

- **Cultural norms** are one factor repeatedly mentioned in the literature often in the form of understanding the culture within which bullying and non-sexual violence occurs. School climate, including teachers' attitudes and beliefs and cultural norms, plays a key role in enabling bullying (Olweus, 1994).The different ways in which bullying is viewed will drive to a large degree the basis for participants' responses on study questionnaires. That is to say that a child may or may not report bullying depending on whether bullying is viewed as negative or taboo in his or her culture (Due et al., 2005). The acceptance of bullying may result in higher levels of reporting bullying experiences. There could also be purposeful false reporting as a way to hurt the reputation of another student. In some cultures, violence against women is viewed as a common practice and in some situations is considered to be appropriate behavior and, therefore, condoned (Parkes and Heslop, 2011; Mansour and Karam, 2012).

  The literature suggest that cultural norms cannot explain all cases of bullying. For example, in Chen and Astor's study (2009) in Taiwan, they point out that Asian values emphasize harmony in social relationships, but that high levels of school-related violence are still reported.

- **Membership in a marginalized, lower status group** is also a risk factor for being a victim of SRGBV. Bullying victimization of less powerful populations (e.g., women, children, minorities) stems from their inherent lower status in some societies (Ringrose and Renold, 2010). The intersection of victimization from gender-based violence and status, based on gender, age, class, race, sexual preference, and disability, is well documented (Bisika et al., 2009; Parkes and Heslop, 2011; Ringrose and Renold, 2010). Even when violence is not condoned in a society, bias against women and girls in the form of sexism appears to predict SRGBV, especially bullying (Carrera-Fernández et al., 2013). Researchers found a similar result for biases against sexual minorities in the form of homophobia (Carrera-Fernández et al., 2013).

- **Community and neighborhood contexts** can be risk factors for SRGBV under the broad-based area of cultural norms. The hypothesis regarding a community violence spillover suggests that the negative events occurring in communities spill over into schools, thereby influencing the school climate (Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013). In support of this hypothesis, studies have found a correlation between homicide and crime rates in communities and the rates of non-sexual, school-related violence (Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams, 2013). Areas with political unrest and associated violence are also more likely to have higher rates of violence in schools (Mansour and Karam, 2012). Moreover, neighborhood variables

such as average household income have also been associated with rates of bullying (Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams, 2013).

- **School climate and school norms** either explicitly or implicitly support non-sexual violence (Olweus, 1994). For example, when schools fail to appropriately respond to reports of bullying and fail to discipline perpetrators of bullying, this perpetuates the problem (Parkes and Heslop, 2011). Some schools may recognize bullying as inappropriate behavior, but leave it to children to "work it out," which can result in retaliation and further perpetuation of the problem (Olweus, 1994). In many countries, teachers, not just other students, are the perpetrators of bullying and psychological and physical intimidation. When a teacher or school official bullies and intimidates students, this not only sanctions the behavior, but makes it nearly impossible for the children to report victimization to anyone in authority (Bisika et al., 2009; Parkes and Heslop, 2011).
- **Peer norms** tend to reflect school norms and can serve to reinforce non-sexual forms of intimidation. For instance, a child may see others participating in bullying, but rather than reporting it or intervening, the student may simply ignore the behavior, which is a way of implicitly supporting it (Olweus, 1994). If the child actually begins to encourage or assist in the bullying, then he or she becomes much more likely to bully others in the future (Crapanzano et al., 2011).

Protective Factors

- **Classroom defenders** are people who "stick up" for the victim of bullying and are more likely to be girls than boys, according to one study in the United States (Crapanzano et al., 2011). Findings from Crapanzano and colleagues (2011) suggest that the more defenders there are in a classroom, the less overall bullying occurs. In agreement with this, Yarnell and colleagues (2014) found that the social norms of girls—either for or against bullying—impact the attitudes of boys and girls, whereas social norms among boys do not.
- **Family** appears to be an important factor in helping female victims of bullying. Kim (2006) found that parental support appeared to relate strongly to whether a child had a tendency to be a bully or a victim. Parents are also important factors in determining whether children choose to report non-sexual, gender-based violence (Oliver et al., 2009; Parkes and Heslop, 2011).

3.2 Corporal Punishment

3.2.1 Impacts of Corporal Punishment

Corporal punishment negatively impacts students in many different ways and seriously impacts a child's physical and social well-being and educational development. Chronic physical symptoms, including digestive illnesses and sleep disorders, have been noted, as well as the actual harmful consequences of the act itself. For instance, if a child is hit and falls to the ground during corporal punishment, then a broken limb could occur. One report cites that the practice of boxing a child's ears can rupture eardrums and cause hearing loss (UNICEF, 2001). Other physical

outcomes include abrasions, bruises, serious cuts, loss of consciousness, or even death (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2008; Simatwa, 2012). The psychological effects from corporal punishment can be as painful and permanent as the physical effects. The act of corporal punishment, the fear of victimization, and associated humiliation have led to a full range of psychological symptoms, including aggression and destruction, depression, anxiety, and secondary victimization through humiliation and mental harassment (UNICEF, 2001). Other research has found that corporal punishment can seriously and negatively impact the self-esteem of students—especially girls—and their social skills (MSI, 2008). Low self-esteem and social skills often lead to other life-long problems, including risky behaviors, substance abuse, and delinquency.

The educational costs of corporal punishment in schools are also high. One study (Shukla and Neetu, 2013) cites "Education Induced Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder" as a very real outcome of corporal punishment (Jyoti and Neetu, 2013). Poor school performance and dropping out of school are commonly reported as direct consequences of corporal punishment and the humiliation and harassment associated with it (MSI, 2008). When there is a threat of corporal punishment, students often become distracted and cannot concentrate in their classrooms (MSI, 2008). Furthermore, some youth said that the primary reason for their decision to skip school or drop out was because of disrespect and punishment from their teachers (MSI, 2008). One report suggests that 14 percent of students in Nepal said they dropped out of school because they feared a teacher (UNICEF, 2001). Another study found that 39 percent of students in Belize reported that violent behavior, including that from the teacher, was what they liked least about attending school (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2008).

3.2.2 Risks and Protective Factors Investigated

Risk Factors

- **Schools in low socioeconomic areas** tend to have a higher prevalence of corporal punishment (Kilimci, 2009).
- **Cultural norms and values** play important roles in maintaining the practice of corporal punishment against girls and boys in schools; that is, in many cultures it is a common belief that corporal punishment has positive effects on children in schools by maintaining order and reinforcing desirable behaviors (Silbert, 2013). UNICEF (2001) reports that corporal punishment is the result of a combination of social, cultural, and individual factors that work together to perpetuate the behavior. One researcher in Ghana found that corporal punishment is the direct result of a person's beliefs and values and the norms of society (Agbenyega, 2006). These norms may have been passed down from previous generations who believe that if corporal punishment helped to straighten them out, then it can help their children (Payet and Franchi, 2008). Corporal punishment in South Asian countries also appears to reflect a culture of acceptance of violence committed against children, particularly girls (UNICEF, 2001). The South Asian cultural values of respecting one's elders and maintaining the hierarchy of adults in authority also contributes to the abuse of power by teachers who perpetrate corporal punishment (UNICEF, 2001). Not surprisingly, Mishra and colleagues

(2010) commented that, in Nepal, children have a very low social status, which reinforces the teachers' expression of their authority through corporal punishment. The end result can be students' disengagement from school.

When asked directly about their reasons for using corporal punishment, teachers and principals noted that it was the only way to get some youth to comply (Kilimci, 2009). Many teachers and principals noted that the reason for this was because parents also use corporal punishment with their children at home. Indeed, research suggests that parents often encourage teachers to use corporal punishment at school as well (UNICEF, 2001). For example, in a review of research in Caribbean nations, the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children (2008) found that 50 to 60 percent of parents support corporal punishment in schools. Corporal punishment at home is widespread across developed and developing nations, with only eight countries having completely outlawed corporal punishment (UNICEF, 2001). Having experienced corporal punishment at home, students often do not question the practice at schools or even endorse it. For example, students in South Asia (UNICEF, 2001), in Barbados (Anderson and Payne, 1994), and South Africa (Payet and Franchi, 2008; Silbert, 2013) approve of the use of corporal punishment in schools.

- **Overcrowded classrooms, poorly trained teachers, and a lack of knowledge and competence to apply non-violent alternatives** are all factors that have contributed to the continued use of corporal punishment around the world (Maphosa and Shumba, 2010; UNICEF, 2001). Non-violent alternatives for corporal punishment include the following: reprimanding, talking to, demoting, and ignoring students; making students perform manual tasks; and sending learners out of the classroom. Additional non-violent alternatives include not marking students' work, enforcing detention or suspension, employing anger management methods, using stress management techniques, referring children to psychologists, and providing guidance and counseling (Maphosa and Shumba, 2010).

Protective Factors

- **The nature of communication between teachers and students** inside and outside of the classrooms and an "all hands-on" approach to developing positive disciplinary alternatives to violence was identified as a protective factor against corporal punishment (Cohen, 2006). In the spirit of an all hands-on approach, staff training becomes critical and is a core activity in SRGBV prevention interventions (MSI, 2008; Murris, 2012).[3] The school climate literature has a lot to offer in evaluating the positive factors in schools that are inconsistent with a culture of violence.

[3] In Ghana and Malawi, in-service manuals such as *Doorways III: Teacher Training Manual on School-Related, Gender-Based Violence Prevention and Response* have been piloted. In South Africa, some areas are using the training titled *Opening Our Eyes: Addressing Gender-Based Violence in South African Schools* (MSI, 2008). In South Africa, teacher training has included information on how to prevent corporal punishment (Murris, 2012). Some schools have also adopted the technique of having well-trained guidance counselors who advocate for victimized students.

3.3 Sexual Violence

3.3.1 Impacts of Sexual Violence

The negative impacts of sexual violence vary. Generally, the negative impacts of sexual violence include health and psychological problems, pregnancy and the risk of HIV, low performance in schools by students, disrupted studies, skipping school or dropping out, the devaluing of female achievement and leadership, and economic and social costs (Leach et al., 2014). In some communities, informal community fines and forced marriage were common responses to sexual violence cases resulting in pregnancy; however, in poor communities, justice may be viewed in economic terms rather than justice terms, with an emphasis on the perpetrator accepting some form of financial responsibility for his action (Parkes et al., 2013).

Some of the identified negative impacts from sexual harassment, specifically sexual labeling, include ostracizing girls, depression and other psychological consequences (Rahimi and Liston, 2011). When teachers fail to recognize such sexual labeling as an act of violence and accept this as part of the normal school experience, the options for girls to report, be supported, and receive guidance on how to handle the behavior are limited and the behavior is further perpetuated.

In Kenya, it was noted that sexual violence limits the ability of girls and young women to achieve their educational potential, reduces opportunities to enhance family health by disempowering women's access to services, and limits their social and economic development (Garcia-Moreno et al., 2011). Other negative impacts of sexual violence include the increased risk for disease, reduced interest in school, and psychological trauma (Abuya et al., 2012).

Some of the negative impacts of sexual violence include diminished academic performance; skipping or dropping out of school; sexually transmitted infections, including HIV/AIDS; early pregnancy and unsafe abortions; early marriage; and increased risk of committing suicide.

3.3.2 Risks and Protective Factors Investigated

Risk Factors

- **The clash between the traditional and the modern world of girls** has been described as a significant risk for sexual violence (Bekele et al., 2011). For example, in many African countries, girls are continuing their education at the age when they traditionally were likely to be married. Subsequently, the girls are vulnerable to sexual violence because they do not have the traditional protection of a man that comes along with marriage.
- **Long distances between home and school, poverty and early sexual debut** are other risk factors found to increase the likelihood of sexual violence.
- **Engagement with multiple sexual partners, frequent viewing of pornography, and frequent substance use** are other risk factors for perpetrating sexual violence and sexual harassment. Self-esteem proved to be an interesting construct with regard to sexual violence. Girls with low self-esteem appeared to be more vulnerable to sexual harassment and coercion; however, girls with high self-esteem were at risk for sexual violence due to a desire by boys to "put girls in their place."

Protective Factors

- **Policies and laws against sexual violence** have the potential to serve as a deterrent to sexual violence but, in many countries the translation of these policies and laws to local action is lacking.
- **Education** of students (girls and boys) about the full range of behaviors that encompass sexual violence may serve as a significant deterrent. This can extend to teaching girls and boys how to protect themselves.
- **The proximity of secondary schools to communities** is a protective factor against sexual violence.
- **A code of conduct for teachers** and enforcing sanctions if it is violated is a key protective factor.
- **Strong parent–school relationships** with clear communication about how to report violence, and building dialogue in communities about gender roles and violence serve to diminish sexual violence.

4 Review of Methods

The literature review identified a range of methods for examining SRGBV. Appendix 1 presents a table describing all of the studies and evaluations selected for review. While there are strengths and weaknesses identified for each of the three basic methods – quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods, there is lack of consensus regarding which data collection methodology is best used for investigating sensitive subject matters among young people in different areas of the world, particularly when sensitive questions related to sex and sexuality are being explored (Powell et al., 2012).

4.1 Quantitative Methods

4.1.1 Introduction

A total of forty-seven studies are included in the review of quantitative methods; twelve studies discussed sexual violence and/or sexual harassment, ten focused on bullying, six were about corporal punishment, six discussed all aspects of SRGBV, and six described school violence in general (not specifically SRGBV). Ten are impact evaluations of which seven were evaluations of projects in sub-Saharan Africa specifically designed for preventing SRGBV. The remaining three impact evaluations were of training or curriculum programs that focused on building awareness, improving attitudes, and reducing violent behavior among youth. Appendix 2 presents a table of the quantitative research studies reviewed and includes the following information for each study: purpose of the study, study sample, number of schools, sampling strategy, instruments, instrument (internal consistency) reliability, and validity and data analyses conducted. A table of impact evaluations reviewed is presented in Appendix 3.

The majority of the quantitative studies reviewed involved primary data sources. Four of the quantitative studies reviewed involved secondary sources of data whereby research questions were investigated through analyses of existing large and public databases (e.g., Abramovay and Rua, 2005; Akiba et al., 2002; Saito, 2013). The quantitative studies were largely focused on measuring the nature, extent, and impacts of one or more types of SRGBV, but also used various attitude and knowledge scales to address correlates of the behaviors.

Sample sizes were evaluated as were the reported levels of precision for point estimates such as means and percentages and statistical tests where available. As expected in survey research, sample sizes were generally large, supporting precise point estimates of population characteristics (e.g., percentage, means, variance, standard deviation) and statistical tests of significance. In general, the quantitative studies reported rigorous sampling strategies, often using multi-stage random sampling. With the exception of a small number of cross-country and/or national studies (Due et al., 2005; Kacker et al., 2007; Nansel et al., 2004; Saito, 2013), in the studies reviewed, the target populations included schools within a small number of political (e.g., school districts) or geographical regions or involved only a small number of schools that were not necessarily representative of any larger school population. For example, although it was not uncommon for studies to provide a cross-section of school locations (rural, urban) or types of schools (government, non-government) using purposeful sampling, there were often too few schools in each category to generalize the findings to other schools in these categories.

Other than large multi-national studies during which standard sampling, data collection protocols, rigorous translation procedures, and training are common practice, a few of the studies reviewed included documentation of procedures used to standardize data collection.

Quantitative, large-scale surveys that specifically address all aspects of SRGBV are non-existent. A few large-scale surveys exist such as the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), and the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) survey that provide limited information on the subject. Quantitative investigations tend to be limited in their scopes, focusing only one type of SRGBV, thus overlooking other key aspects of SRGBV such as sexual violence or corporal punishment.

Three project evaluations directly addressed the empowerment of girls such as the girls' willingness to challenge norms or to challenge witnessed violence (i.e., as a bystander). Only two evaluations included student performance as an indicator for measuring impact. Most of the projects evaluated involved interventions to improve knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs related to gender equality and gender norms, and these were universal performance indicators. Approximately two-thirds of the evaluations sought to shift behavior as a direct result of the intervention, either with an aim to reduce victimization and perpetration of violence or to improve bystander responses.

4.1.2 Impact Evaluation

The impact evaluations reviewed were of programs addressing some aspect of SRGBV and the review focused to a large degree on the design and the credibility of claims that the findings were associated with intervention inputs. Appendix 3 presents a table of the evaluation impact studies reviewed. The information provided in these tables include a summary of the interventions, the type of study and study design, overall findings, the sample and sampling strategy, indicators used for measurement, and data analysis.

Devries and colleagues (2013) provide an excellent example of rigorous early planning of an impact evaluation (i.e., the evaluation of the Raising Voices Good School Toolkit). The design protocol is detailed and comprehensive and is recommended reading for any individual who or institution that is in planning an impact evaluation of a SRGBV prevention intervention.

- ***Table 3*** summarizes the study designs and analyses applied in the evaluations reviewed. Half of the evaluation studies reviewed applied a quasi-experimental design to compare performance on key indicators from baseline to endline based on quantitative data. All of the studies used some quantitative methods, and seven evaluations also included a qualitative component. As previously mentioned, Devries and colleagues (2013) and Taylor and colleagues (2010) were examples of applying an RCT. Three evaluations limited the analyses to pre- and post-test group comparisons by using descriptive statistics to show the areas in which changes were observed from baseline to endline.

Table 3 Summary of Study Design and Analysis Strategies Used in Evaluations

Study Design and Analysis of Evaluation Studies								
	Study Design				Primary Analysis			
	RCT	Quasi-Experiment/ Correlational Designs	Descriptive Only	Use of Controls	Regression Analysis	Analysis of Variance	Descriptive Only	Use of Repeated Measures
Number of Studies	2	5	3	6	4	3	3	3

All of the programs evaluated involved interventions designed to shift attitudes and beliefs that reinforce the gender norms and power relations leading to and perpetuating SRGBV. The programs ranged from isolated school-based education curriculums to broad holistic programs that simultaneously address the following: national and school policies; knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs of teachers, school officials, and the community; and behavioral change. Only two evaluations included student performance as an indicator for measuring impact. To address external validity, the reported sampling method was reviewed to ensure that the findings were representative of the intended target population. ***Table 4*** presents a matrix of the areas in which positive change from baseline to endline was identified.[4]

[4] The endline results of the study by Devries and colleagues (2013) are not available, but the reference was included in this section because it details the protocol of the evaluation; therefore, the study is not referenced in Table 4.

Table 4 Summary of Improvements in Attitude, Behavior, and School Performance

Summary of Impact Evaluation Findings										
		Attitude, Beliefs, Empowerment			Behavior Change		School Performance			
Author, Year	Project Evaluated	Attitude and Beliefs	Empowerment	Knowledge	Victimization Perpetration	Bystander Response	Enrollment	Retention	Achievement	School Change
Achyut et al., 2011	Gender Equity Movement in Schools (GEMS)	X			X					
ActionAid International, 2012	Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT)		X		X	X		X	X	X
USAID, 2012	Combating SRGBV in DRC (USAID, IDI)			X						X
Kernsmith et. al., 2012	First Step Peer Education Program	X				X				
Miller, 2014	Coaching Boys Into Men"	X				X				
Ogunfowokan and Fajemilehin, 2012	Sexual Abuse and Date Rape Prevention Education			X						
Taylor et al., 2010	Gender Violence Prevention Program	X		X	X					
CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008	USAID Safe Schools Program	X	X	X						

Randomized Control Trial

Two of the impact evaluations reviewed (i.e., Devries et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2010) demonstrate that the level of rigor associated with RCTs is possible in evaluation research and can be performed in an educational setting. However, there are several reasons why the RCT is not always the most appropriate method to use. It can be difficult to apply the RCT methodology in evaluating education interventions. School structures, curricula, and enrollment policies often preclude the random assignment of units of measurement (e.g., students, teachers, classrooms, schools) to a particular treatment.

Quasi-experimental

Specific complex quasi-experimental methods, especially when these are paired with qualitative inquiries, can be very strong and are often a better match for the interventions being evaluated and the context than randomized control trials. Quasi-experimental research carefully designed to mitigate potential confounding factors can serve to establish strong evidence for or against the success of a program though not making causal linkages. Among the evaluation reports, there were excellent examples of strong quasi-experimental and correlational designs applied in impact evaluation (e.g., Achyut et al., 2011; Miller, 2014).

The evaluation of the Gender Equity Movement in Schools (GEMS) by Achyut and colleagues (2011) is an excellent example of the application of a strong quasi-experimental design. GEMS is a school-based program that promotes equal relationships between girls and boys, examines the social norms that define men's and women's roles, and questions the use of violence (Achyut et al., 2011). In this evaluation, schools were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups (full treatment and campaign only treatment) or a control, but students were not or could not be randomly assigned to these schools. All students in Grades 6 and 7 in those schools participated in the intervention and subsequent evaluation (with consent). Repeated measures on the same students were collected at baseline and endline and entered into the analysis, applying a "differences-in-differences" approach. The value of tracking the same students (if this can be managed logistically and financially) is great because this method controls for external time-related factors and allows for the control of pre-existing differences in treatments. Using repeated methods also strengthens the power of analysis and increases the chance of detecting treatment differences if they exist. In the GEMS evaluation, logistic regression was used to further understand the nature of impact by controlling for variables known to influence knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs. These variables included age, gender, gender equality scores at baseline; working status of the mother; and having a TV, DVD/CD player, and/or bicycle in the home. Thus, the GEMS evaluation applied rigor in study design with random assignment of schools to different treatments and a control even though random assignment of students to schools was not possible. The credibility of findings was enhanced further by using repeated measures and through the application of regression analysis during which certain variables known to influence findings were controlled.

The ActionAid International (2013) endline study of the Stop Violence against Girls in Schools program in Ghana, Mozambique, and Kenya provides a good example of the benefit of using

longitudinal qualitative methods along with quantitative findings and group comparisons to enhance interpretation and address some of the risks of not having a control group. The qualitative component of this evaluation leveraged the use of qualitative inquiry, which leveraged the long-standing relationships between researchers and participants to enhance the validity of participant reports about specific sensitive issues such as sexual harassment and violence.

4.1.3 Instruments and Approaches Used to Collect Quantitative Data

When reviewing instruments used in quantitative studies the focus was largely on the psychometric characteristics of the instruments, the content validity of the instruments, the internal and external validity of findings, and with quantitative studies, the precision of population point estimates and statistics. If pre-existing instruments were adopted or adapted, an attempt was made to identify the psychometric literature describing them to find this information. Although the "acceptability" of a reliability quotient varies according to how the information is being used and may be defined differently across disciplines, a Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate equal to or greater than $\alpha = 0.70$ is widely accepted as the cut-off point for acceptability. For the purpose of this review, this estimate was used as acceptable for internal consistency reliability.

A database of instruments used in the quantitative studies is provided in Appendix 4 and is organized according to the published title of the instrument. It provides information about the assessment scale or questionnaire, the intended informant population, instrument reliability, the individual who or organization that developed the scale, and the year when it was created. The instruments included in this table are those that can be accessed either online or attached to the referenced article. These instruments include four attitude scales, five national or international surveys, and two instruments designed specifically for measuring SRGBV. The instruments also include one survey for exploring institutional structures of child protection and response, one questionnaire specifically designed to assess sexual harassment, and one online survey instrument. Quantitative studies of all types of SRGBV used two methods: paper and pencil questionnaires (self-reporting) and surveys administered through face-to-face interviews. Two studies in the review involved online questionnaires, and one study included a classroom observation checklist.

4.1.4 Summary Findings

General Findings

- There is lack of consensus regarding which data collection methodology is best used for investigating sensitive subject matters among young people in different areas of the world, particularly when sensitive questions related to sex and sexuality are being explored (Powell et al., 2012).
- Using friendly methods especially designed for interviews and group discussions involving children make the context comfortable and build trust, which are essential components to collecting valid data.

- Rigorous participatory field testing and formal piloting of survey instruments, questionnaires, and observation protocols are key ways in which bias can be minimized and the content validity strengthened.
- Clarity of terms used in questionnaires and interviews can do a lot to mitigate bias. By specifically stating the acts of violence such as "pulled at my clothes" instead of using abstract terms such as "bullying" and "violence" can strengthen a study's validity and should be considered a good practice.
- Applying rigorous translation strategies such as using back translation can help prevent compromise regarding the intended meaning of questions (Kacker et al., 2007).
- Individual interviews are preferred over group interviews.
- Researchers studying SRGBV have found that face-to-face questionnaires administered by researchers who are of the same sex, and who are not authority figures such as a teacher or school official, improves student informants' feelings of safety and increases the likelihood of full disclosure. Such characteristics of the research protocol were rarely addressed in the survey research reviewed, even for face-to-face data collection. Parkes (2008), Parkes and Heslop (2011), and Bonati (2006) provide good examples of how these dynamics were addressed.
- When a study is designed to provide ample opportunity to ensure that parents understand the research activity and to allow them to ask questions about the study, those who choose not to participate are more likely to be random as opposed to systematic (e.g., because of illiteracy).

Strengths

- Most of the studies paired same-sex researchers and informants in discussion group—a recommended practice for sensitive topics such as SRGBV.
- All of the impact evaluations reviewed planned for it early on during the design phase of the intervention.
- The majority of the survey research documented acceptable *reliability coefficients*. The exceptions were situations when researchers reported sub-scale performances, and considering the fewer numbers of sub-scale items and questions, this is to be expected.

Weaknesses

- The generalization of findings or external validity of the studies reviewed was often weak.
- Most studies did not include adequate documentation of sampling, training and data collection procedures.

4.2 Qualitative

4.2.1 Introduction

Appendix 5 presents a table of the fourteen qualitative research studies reviewed that provides the purpose of the study, the sample and number of schools involved, data collection methods, measures taken to enhance trust and accuracy of reporting, facilitator and interviewer training, and data transcription and analyses. Only those qualitative studies that were primarily qualitative or mixed-model designs, where the qualitative elements were substantive, were selected.

In the study of SRGBV, qualitative research has been instrumental in providing detailed information about the context and the complex processes and relationships that lead to and perpetuate SRGBV. It is through qualitative inquiry that the long-standing gender norms and beliefs, the school environment, and the day-to-day experiences of boys and girls in their pursuit of an education have come to be understood as interdependent and mutually reinforcing factors at play in SRGBV. It is also the data from qualitative inquiry that have informed the prevention interventions that directly address the attitudes, school factors and empowerment of children and that hold potential for eliminating SRGBV (e.g., through awareness building and dialogue, supporting policy and justice reforms, establishing viable survivor reporting and support mechanisms, and leveraging community champions and mentors to empower children to negotiate against abusive relations and acts of violence). This growing body of research has revealed much information about the power of child agency as a mechanism for shifting the status quo, the gender norms, and the power relations that serve to produce and perpetuate SRGBV around the world. Finally, qualitative studies have revealed information about the role that students themselves play in reinforcing these gender norms.

The review of qualitative research focuses on the characteristics of rigor and evaluates the extent to which the data collection methods served to maximize the trust between the researchers/facilitators and the informants and/or participants in group discussions and the extent to which researchers provided a comfortable, friendly environment for open discussion. The rigor of training provided to the research teams was also examined. Group facilitation and interview skills are not something that can be taken for granted, particularly when sharing experiences about SRGBV is associated with considerable perceived or real risk of humiliation, retaliation, or additional victimization. Interviewers and facilitators need to complete training on the nature of SRGBV and to develop strong interview and facilitation skills so they can lead interviews and group discussions in a standardized manner.

4.2.2 Transferability

How Precise Were the Methods and Were the Data Well Documented?

All of the qualitative studies provided clear statements about the intended purpose of the study and the theoretical framework that informed the study design. Most of the studies provided a sound rationale and documentation of the study context, the selection of informants, and the nature of data collection (i.e., the questions asked, instruments and/or participatory activities, and the location). The management and documentation of these aspects of design strengthen the credibility of the research overall and support its transferability.

In some studies, teachers and/or principals were asked to identify students for the study (e.g., teachers might be asked to select a student with leadership abilities [de Lange et al., 2012]). However, it is important to note that this strategy can also lead to response biases because of subjectivity of selection.

Failure to pay attention to and document rigor taken in planning, recruitment, and training of interviewers; in developing instruments and group discussion guidelines; and in transcribing and storing data weakens both the credibility and transferability of the study. While many studies lacked rigorous design documentation, there were some studies that did demonstrate exemplary rigor in the design and documentation of methods (CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008; de Lange et al., 2012; Gådin, 2012; Kacker et al., 2007; Leach et al., 2003; Mansour and Karam, 2012; Parkes and Heslop, 2011).

Noteworthy Examples of the Application of Rigor in Qualitative Research

➢ Parkes and Heslop (2011) gave considerable attention to and documented the procedures taken to identify and train qualified interviewers. By doing so, they highlighted the value of:

- including researchers who are strategically matched to the populations involved ensuring that only female researchers interviewed female informants,
- using local language to conduct interviews and group discussions,
- assigning facilitators to participant groups only if they were from the same community, and
- ensuring the assigned researchers shared similar backgrounds in terms of socio-economic status.

These practices helped to enhance the credibility of the study and its transferability.

➢ Another good example was the documentation of methods used in a study in South Africa. During the study, students developed a video to depict experiences and responses to SRGBV. De Lange and colleagues (2012) provided step-by-step procedures for implementing the participatory video activity, which was at the core of data generation in the study. Each step, including brainstorming sessions, storyboarding, and filming, viewing, and discussing the videos was documented in detail. Discussions from all of these activities were transcribed verbatim and stored as the primary text for analysis. Considering the novel nature of data collection through a participatory video, tedious care was taken in documenting every aspect of the methodology. As a result, the novel study design could very well be replicated with different settings and populations.

For a formative study to guide an SRGBV intervention in Malawi, the Centre for Education Research and Training (CERT) and DevTech Systems (2008) documented and provided visual examples of the Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) methodologies they applied. These methodologies included the application of child-friendly PLA activities such as Mapping, Abuse Spider, Cause and Consequence Tree, Seasonal Calendar, and Transect Walk. Although these

techniques are likely to be known by qualitative researchers who work with children, they are not universally known. In the CERT and DevTech Systems study (2008), the scheduling of group discussions was responsive to some lessons learned from group discussions that occurred during the early stages of the study. Early on, the researchers learned that some teachers were pressuring children to disclose the nature of discussion groups or interviews and to tell them what they reported. Some of the children received threats to stay quiet. Thus, in moving forward with the study, teacher interviews were scheduled after the children's focus groups or interviews to mitigate these negative behaviors and attempts to influence disclosure.

4.2.3 Credibility

What Measures Did Researchers Take to Enhance the Trust and the Sense of Comfort and Safety of Informants?

It is not easy for students and teachers to openly discuss gender-based violence. To do so can be a very real risk, if not perceived as a risk, which could lead to secondary victimization such as reprimands, humiliation, or further violence. Trusting the confidentiality promised from the researcher is of paramount importance in promoting frank and honest disclosure from informants in individual or group settings.

Some of the studies took many additional measures to ensure confidentiality, including careful consideration of the power dynamics between researchers and interview informants and participants in group discussions. Students not only want to trust the researcher to keep the information to themselves but genuinely want to feel they are listened to and taken seriously.

Parkes and Heslop (2011) also included other criteria such as being from similar socio-economic backgrounds and making sure researchers are not from the same communities as the discussion group participants. Parkes and Heslop (2011) provided an example of how the composition of the interviewers was integral in study design. The power dynamics between researchers and informants during interviews and group discussions are discussed in the publications by Parkes (2008) and Maxwell (2012).

A few studies involved initial icebreaker workshops with children, followed by interviews with all or a sub-selection of children with the same researcher (e.g., Kacker, 2007; Mansour and Karam, 2012). A more systematic phasing of group discussions and interviews has also been used. In a series of early studies by Leach (2006), a technique referred as *progressive focusing* was applied. In the progressive focusing technique, children participate in a series of focus group discussions and interviews with the same researcher who gradually introduces topics that are progressively more sensitive. For example, more general questions about the problems that children face at home and in their communities are followed by discussions about the relationships that girls have with boys in general. The researcher then introduces the topic of sexual advances by boys, teachers, and other men.

It is not uncommon for many of these child-friendly methods to be used with children in the same study (e.g., CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008; Kacker, 2007; Leach et al., 2003). Methods may be integrated into one-on-one interviews, focus group discussions, seed

discussions, or participatory group activities. Games, role playing, drawing, storytelling, film clips, drama, and manipulation of objects have all been used by researchers to stimulate conversations and generate good qualitative data. These methods are all participatory in nature and are designed to promote an environment where the researcher and research participants are learning together and where the research participants feel comfortable enough to openly reflect on their experiences, needs, and/or opportunities for addressing them.

However, there is the risk that such participatory approaches may simply reinforce participants' attitudes and beliefs about the inequities and power relations that lead to and maintain gendered violence in schools, and the associated feelings of helplessness to change things, if discussions are not guided into a different direction. Parkes (2008) and de Lange and Geldenhuys (2012) used qualitative methods to explore the power of research itself to leverage the natural tendency of children to make meaning and influence what occurs during their day-to-day experiences or "agency" to actually transform their schools into less violent, less fearful places to learn and socialize. In these approaches, peer interaction and dialogue are opportunities that can boost students' sense of empowerment in challenging the norms and power relations that normalize acts of violence in their schools and communities.

In a review of the role of child agency as it relates to child protection, Blanchet-Cohen (2009) addressed the use of research as a transformative process, concluding that the relationship between the researcher and children needed to be a partnership. Thus, it is possible to modify qualitative methods commonly used for collecting data from children and youth and/or create new approaches—as did Parkes (2008) and de Lange and colleagues (2012)—to turn research into a transformative process by enhancing a child's reflexive agency for preventing gender-based violence in and near schools.

4.2.4 Trustworthiness

To What Extent Did the Research Use and Document Systematic Data Analysis and What Measures Were Taken to Maximize the Trustworthiness of the Findings?

The goal of analysis in qualitative research is to produce a plausible and coherent explanation of the phenomenon under study and to generate or modify existing hypotheses or theories based on these findings. The trustworthiness of findings is strengthened when interviews or group discussions are transcribed verbatim, stored systematically, and then analyzed manually either with or without computer software support. Qualitative data analysis involves the identification of "meaning units" or categories of meaning that are used to develop a thematic framework for interpreting the data and—drawing from multiple sources—to develop plausible conclusions or hypotheses that are held up by evidence. The types of analyses applied should be tied directly to the purpose of the study. The identification of meaningful units almost always involves coding of substantive categories. Coding of meaningful units may be sufficient for descriptive studies of the specific acts or associated attitudes toward violence. However, analyzing how the data are connected (sometimes referred to as narrative analysis) is important for understanding the inter-relations among the acts, mediators, and impact on individuals and institutions. Thus, analyzing the relations given by the narrative and analyzing the relations between the qualitative and quantitative data are important when the research seeks to understand "why" or "how." The

process by which theories and hypotheses are generated from the data; e.g., using memos and displays to map findings onto meaningful conclusions and drawing evidence from data sources outside of the study) should also be systematic and documented (Maxwell, 2012).

Examples of excellent documentation were identified (e.g., de Lange and Geldenhuys, 2012; Kacker, 2007; Parkes and Heslop, 2011). Although it could have taken place and been missed in this literature review or simply not documented, the studies did not appear to have allowed for the respondents participating in interviews or discussion groups to cross-check the accuracy of transcribed texts.

4.2.5 Instruments and Approaches Used to Collect Qualitative Data

A database of instruments used in the qualitative studies is provided as a table in Appendix 6. The instruments presented in this table are those that can be accessed online or were included within the body of the study publication. Among these instruments are six tools that address all aspects of SRGBV, two of which were designed for learning about child protection structures and one focused entirely on sexual harassment. Appendix 6 is organized by the title of the surveys or questionnaire and included information about the authors who used the instrument that was mentioned, short descriptions of the scale, methods of data collection, the intended informant groups, and developers of the scale. The most commonly used instruments are discussed below under the three types of SRGBV.

Bullying

➢ **Self-report surveys -** In most studies specifically targeting bullying and other forms of non-sexual violence in schools, researchers have employed self-report surveys as the method of choice. These surveys can range from extremely large country-wide questionnaires (e.g., Chen and Astor, 2009) to focused sampling of a small number of schools (e.g., Parkes and Heslop, 2011). Questionnaires have also been used in large-scale, multi-national studies such as the Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) survey, the TIMSS, and the PIRLS, providing standardization that allows comparison across cultures (Due et al., 2005; Fleming and Jacobsen, 2009; Nansel et al., 2004). Even then, as in all self-report surveys, responses are influenced to a large degree by a respondent's conceptualization of the behavior and the way in which the behavior is condoned in society and in school, and these may differ within and across countries (Due et al., 2005). Furthermore, schools may decide not to participate in the surveys, which—if systematic—can introduce selection bias. Untenable assumptions of literacy and lack of rigor in translation are also potential sources of bias when school-based surveys are used as the primary method for data collection (Mansour and Karam, 2012).

Self-report surveys have been administered in several ways. Researchers have allowed students to complete surveys at home (e.g., Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams, 2013). Although taking the survey home potentially improves confidentiality, a student's responses may be influenced by peers or siblings who might be invited to help complete the survey. Completing a survey during a face-to-face interview may provide an opportunity for the researcher to check in with the respondent to make sure there is a common understanding of the behavior in question; however, disclosure may be compromised (for more information about this issue, see the discussion in Section 4 of this literature review).

- **Teachers' ratings** - These have been used to inquire about the prevalence of bullying in schools, but teachers do not always witness the acts of bullying and intimidation that take place in their schools and, therefore, may not be in a position to provide valid information about the prominence of bullying (Olweus, 1994; Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams, 2013).

- **Police reports** - Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams (2013) reviewed police reports to identify levels of school-related violence, including bullying, and with the exception of physical intimidation and theft, bullying is probably the most unlikely behavior to be reported to the police (Parkes and Heslop, 2011).

Corporal Punishment

- **Questionnaires** - The studies on corporal punishment typically involve administering a questionnaire and conducting one-on-one interviews with a smaller subset of informants more or less to verify information from the surveys and to collect more extensive information about students' feelings, perspectives, and ideas on how to improve the situation (e.g., Maphosa and Kuttickattu, 2011).

Agbenyega (2006) offers a good example of a study on corporal punishment in Ghana that used a multi-step process involving student and teacher informants, beginning with a series of yes or no questions about corporal punishment. The questions focused on classroom observations that were coded based on specific corporal punishment behaviors. The coding was as follows: A = caning, B = knocking on student's head, C = pulling a student's ear,
D = pinching a student, E = asking a student to kneel on a bare floor. In the third stage of the research, the researcher used questions developed based on the second-stage observations of students and teachers to interview participants. The researcher used thematic analysis to rigorously transcribe and analyze the responses to interview questions (Agbenyega, 2006). Humphreys (2008) used a similar process in Botswana by conducting observations, group interviews with students, and one-on-one, semi-structured interviews with teachers. Humphreys (2008) used thematic approaches to transcribe and analyze the interviews. In the literature reviewed, the Humphreys study on corporal punishment was the only study in which a multi-stage, interdependent process was adopted. In contrast, conducting observations is not a prominent method used to study sexual harassment, violence, or bullying.

Questionnaires may be the easiest way to collect data in an investigation of corporal punishment, but few common measures have been used across studies. For the most part, students are the primary informants, so when specific acts of corporal punishment are clearly stated, the student informant appears to yield the most accurate data. Although teachers and principals also served as informants in some studies (Kilimci, 2009; Maphosa and Shumba, 2010), teacher interviews appear to be best used when the aim of the interview is to learn about the reasons why teachers use corporal punishment and to explore non-violent alternatives to the practice (Kilimci, 2009).

Sexual Violence

➢ **Combination** – Studies of sexual abuse and sexual harassment typically use a combination of survey data collection, administrative data, in-depth interviews, and focus groups. These methods have been used extensively.

➢ **Participatory** - More recently, there has been an upsurge of practices that directly involve participants as researchers (e.g., Bonati, 2006; Kacker, 2007; Parkes, 2008; Save the Children, 2004); therefore, researchers have begun to intentionally seek information about students' *ideas regarding how to transform* the situation, leading to the prevention—and ultimately the elimination of—SRGBV. The intention of directly involving young people or adolescents in the study of sexual abuse and sexual harassment includes "participatory learning and action" and "participatory action research" techniques. The construct of child agency is now valued as an important contributing factor to both the perpetuation of sexual violence and harassment in schools as well as an opportunity for shifting the social field such that the abuse is reduced and eliminated. According to this frame (Blanchet-Cohen, 2009; Parkes, 2008), children actively try to make sense of their world and are capable of influencing it in many ways. Children's preconceived notions from home and community about gender power dynamics and the value that is placed on the child may orient them toward an unhealthy expectation regarding sexual harassment. It is not uncommon for children to believe that sexual harassment is part of everyday life; therefore, they may simply ignore it, find ways to avoid or cope with the fear it instills, and/or avoid speaking about it—especially because they are children. However, it has been shown that by involving children directly in facilitated dialogue about the nature of and experience of sexual violence among trusted adults and peers, children quite naturally begin to see that they have a role in transforming a context in which more healthy gender norms are realized (de Lange and Geldenhuys 2012; Parkes, 2008). Thus, the research itself can have, if strategically handled, a transforming impact.

4.2.6 Findings

General Findings

- The research reflects a growing inclination toward engaging informants in all aspects of the study, including the study design and further (peer-to-peer) data collection.
- Qualitative studies are beginning to examine the role that students play in reinforcing gender norms.
- Using friendly methods especially designed for interviews and group discussions involving children make the context comfortable and build trust, which are essential components to collecting valid data.
- Ethical challenges need to be addressed early in the research planning stages, with specific protocols developed and implemented to ensure the respect, confidence, and protection of human subjects, especially children.

- One of the practices employed for enhancing the trustworthiness of the analyses and integrity of findings was to use multiple expert analyses of the same data and stakeholder workshops to solicit multiple views in order to ground the emerging theories in context.
- Standardization of survey and questionnaire procedures and the training of interviewers or enumerators strengthen a study's reliability by supporting the consistency of informants' responses across multiple survey enumerators or "inter-rater reliability. Standardized administration is important for group-administered paper and pencil tasks and for face-to-face interviews. However, standardization and rigorous enumerator training are critical when conducting questionnaires during face-to-face interviews or in classroom observations when enumerators are required to make interpretations of the informants' responses or what they observe.
- There is lack of consensus regarding which data collection methodology is best used for investigating sensitive subject matters among young people in different areas of the world, particularly when sensitive questions related to sex and sexuality are being explored (Powell et al., 2012).

Strengths

- Virtually all of the qualitative studies strived to deepen the understanding of the various types of SRGBV by providing information on what students, teachers, school officials, and community members know and believe; have experienced; and how these individuals, the schools, and the communities have been impacted by SRGBV.
- All qualitative studies provided clear purpose statement of study.
- Purposive and random sampling was used to identify interview informants.
- All qualitative studies documented the measures taken to ensure that informants from strata of interest were included (e.g., student ages and grades; urban and rural school locations).
- Virtually all of the qualitative studies recognized the importance of ensuring the confidentiality of information shared in the interviews or group discussions and documented the measures taken to ensure confidentiality.
- The more sensitive topics were always handled during one-on-one interviews with the same researcher.
- Online surveys (AAUW, 2011; Mierzwa et al., 2013) may hold promise for strengthening study validity because of the anonymity of the task, particularly if connectivity and non-response challenges can be overcome.

Weaknesses

- Minimal information was provided on the development of data collection tools and rarely was detailed information provided on the characteristics of interviewers/facilitators, their qualifications, and/or the extent and nature of interviewer/facilitator training.

- Only half of the qualitative study reports mentioned that interviews, group discussions, and interactive activities were transcribed and placed in a confidential database for analysis.
- The most prominent analytic technique reported was that of coding the transcribed data following with thematic analyses. Recording is required for transcription and it may adversely affect truthfulness and completeness of responses. There is a tradeoff.
- It was not common to find detailed documentation of the analysis strategy or the manner in which researchers cross checked or verified findings and hypotheses generated to be explicitly documented.

4.3 Mixed-Method Designs

In the studies reviewed, mixed methods was used as a way to take advantage of integrating findings from the same study, in the same context, and with the same sample population. It used a combination of survey data collection, administrative data, in-depth interviews, and focus groups. Thus, the choice of a mixed-method design was always intended to be an avenue to provide both breadth and depth in one study.

Mixed-methods designs provide researchers with the opportunity to collect a broad base of information regarding the nature, extent, and impact of specific behaviors. Mixed-methods designs also provide the opportunity to contextualize the behaviors within the broader social context, where the behaviors are sourced, and to learn *why* and *how* the behavior is experienced and continues unabated.

In two examples of projects, mixed-method designs were used in situational analyses to ensure that data collected adequately addressed all aspects of a previously agreed upon theory of change model and to inform prevention programs that were based on the respective model (i.e., USAID Safe Schools Project [CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008] and the ActionAid Stop Violence Against Girls Project [Parkes and Heslop, 2008]). Another study provides a good example regarding how the quantitative and qualitative aspects of a mixed-model design are interdependent. Humphreys (2008) used data collected from classroom observations to inform subsequent content for focus group discussions. This process is often referred to as a sequential mixed-method design.

4.3.1 Findings

- Overwhelmingly, the study design most applied for investigations of sexual violence and sexual harassment is a mixed-methods approach which uses a combination of survey data collection, administrative data, in-depth interviews, and focus groups.

- Many of the studies of corporal punishment involved mixed methods to study the sensitive issue of corporal punishment in schools.

5 Research and Measurement Challenges

5.1 Introduction

Many of the research and measurement challenges for SRGBV are similar to other areas that are studied. However, the literature suggests that there are some challenges that potentially are more likely to occur because of the sensitive and often taboo nature of gender-based violence, which makes it a difficult topic for individuals to discuss. This can prove particularly challenging in communities where gender inequity and gendered power relations are the norm. This section addresses the research, program evaluation, and measurement challenges observed in the studies reviewed.

5.2 Study Challenges

Bias –Sampling, response and nonresponse are types of bias that present challenges in SRGBV research. *Sampling bias* is a threat to the *internal validity* of the study. Study findings have the potential to become biased if the sampled students who do not show up on the day of the study are systematically different from those who do show up. Both the fear of violence and the consequences of violence impact school attendance and retention. Thus, the very population of interest in the study may be more likely to be absent on the day of data collection and excluded. Household surveys (Bisika et al., 2009; Kacker et al., 2007) and online surveys have been used as alternatives to school-based data collection (AAUW, 2011). Although household surveys have the potential to enhance inclusion, household data collection can be viewed as threatening to children and parents because violence may exist in the home and/or community.[5] Consent and/or full responsiveness may be compromised. Parents may be reluctant to give consent if gender inequality and strongly gendered power relations are the norm in the home and/or what the child says in an interview is perceived by the parent as a threat (e.g., in the situation of domestic violence).

Response bias is associated with respondents under or over-reporting, which has been observed, particularly among boys, when the perpetration of violence serves to reinforce the male dominance and power relations accepted by society. Another challenge is that researchers may encounter *nonresponse*, either to the whole interview or to certain items. Resistance to talking about matters of sexual violence can be very strong given the context, gender norms, and associated risk of retaliation and stigmatization. Another way to introduce bias involves the translation of questionnaires from one language to another.

Informants may also be inclined to report acts of violence according to what they believe they "should" report and may align their responses to and reinforce the norm. Thus, girls who view themselves in a subordinate role and live in a society where discussing experiences is viewed as

[5] The location of data collection is sometimes difficult to determine. One researcher from Ghana suggested that her policy was to ask respondent(s) where they would like to hold the individual or group discussions (Vivian Fiscian, verbal communication, February 2015).

unacceptable or when they feel responsible for violence perpetrated against them are likely to under report experiences, whereas boys who view perpetration of violence as a way of reinforcing the norm of male dominance may over report. These situations are well-documented in the literature and weaken the internal validity of studies. These situations are sometimes referred to as *disclosure bias* or, in the case of reporting according to what is perceived to be expected or acceptable, *desirability bias*. Ensuring respondents that the information they share will be held strictly confidential serves to strengthen the internal validity of findings. These challenges can make it difficult to gauge the prevalence of gender-based violence behaviors and care must be taken not to extrapolate findings from biased data. All forms of bias pose a challenge to the validity of the findings.

An informant's willingness and forthrightness in speaking openly and honestly about his or her experiences is a challenge to the validity of the findings. In qualitative research, these factors often play an even more prominent role in influencing disclosure due to the face-to-face nature of the inquiry. The power dynamic of researchers and informants can also impact the study validity. The data need to be trustworthy and transferable, systematically analyzed, and lead to meaningful hypotheses for further study, potentially through quantitative research. Authority, sex, and the age of the researcher can all influence responses, especially when questionnaires are administered face-to-face. Minimizing the power differential helps reduce the response bias.

The relationship between the researcher and the child, trust and anonymity paired with creative ways for engaging children in conversations are probably the most important factors to pay attention to in securing honest disclosures among children about issues of sexual violence and harassment. However, in some of the most rigorous qualitative studies girls did not discuss experiences of violation that they personally had though there was considerable more willingness to discuss experiences that their peers had had (ActionAid International, 2013; Leach, 2006).

Different schools have different tolerances for gender inequities and for violence. Students, teachers, and school officials from schools that actively strive to enhance gender equality and have less tolerance for SRGBV will be more inclined to report violence than students, teachers, and school officials who are from schools that are more lenient and perpetuate the gender norms. This situation attenuates the study validity and impedes school comparisons because it is not easily determined whether prevalence differences are accurate or are simply a reflection of reporting differences across settings.

5.2.1 Findings

- Ensure sufficient sample size and random sampling.

Comparisons - Meaningful comparisons of data within and across countries are complicated by inconsistencies in the way in which gender-based violence is defined, measured, and interpreted (Ellsberg et al., 2001). One of the greatest challenges to SRGBV research involves the differences in the conceptual lens from which researchers view and define the various forms of SRGBV. How a behavior is conceptualized informs all aspects of the study design; it informs the focus of the study and the way in which the behavior is measured and analyzed. For example, if bullying is not conceptualized as being a gender-based phenomenon, then victimization or

perpetration findings may not be disaggregated by sex. If the conceptualization of gender-based violence only includes physical sexual assault, then sexual harassment may not be counted or otherwise addressed. The absence of a common definition for the various forms of SRGBV makes it impossible to perform valid comparisons across studies. Another factor that limits cross-study comparisons involves the variable time frames that researchers use to determine the prevalence and extent of an act of violence (i.e., the time frames during which informants are asked to identify or count experiences). Informants may be asked to report, for example, whether they personally experienced or witnessed behavior "during the past week," "during the past 30 days," "since they have been in school," "during the past year," or "ever." Differences in age of consent for marriage may also factor into cross-cultural problems of comparison. Representative sample data, which provides an opportunity to observe systematic differences across different sub-populations, affects the validity of a study. If the sample is from a limited geographical coverage and not randomly selected, findings are not necessarily generalizable outside of the targeted region.

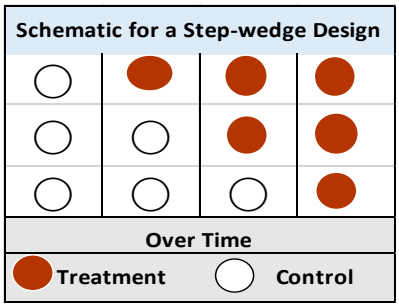
Ambiguity - Research has demonstrated that to strengthen the reliability and validity of findings, it is important to avoid ambiguity of terms such as "bullying," "harassment," "violence," or "corporal punishment" because these terms are subject to interpretation. When asking informants to count or discuss experiences, it is advisable to describe the specific acts of violence such as "pulled at my clothes," "made bad comments and jokes about my looks," "threatened to hurt me," "slapped me," "touched my private parts," or "offered to give me a good mark for sex." These specific phrases are less subject to interpretation and should reduce response bias.

Ethical - Special challenges are faced by researchers when investigating topics that are of a sensitive nature and when involving children. There are ethical challenges that demand special ethical considerations. There has recently been a lot of attention centered on the direct involvement of children in the research process, emphasizing the importance of upholding their rights to have a voice in all matters that involve them, including research and the collection of information from them. Considering the traumatic nature of experiencing gender-based violence, discussing or even completing a survey on the topic can trigger considerable distress for informants because they would need to relive and discuss traumatic experiences in their lives or the lives of their family or peers. In turn, the unexpected experiences and responses from the informants could trigger distress among the researchers. Supporting children in these discussions also presents some potential risks. Such activities, as with all research on sexual violence in schools, must provide important protocols for protecting children once they leave the safe spaces of, for example, the small group discussions or the clubs designed to foster awareness and promote open dialogue. Children's new views on the behavior and rationalized approaches to negotiating gender power relations will not necessarily be supported or endorsed in everyday life, at schools or in the community. Ethical considerations are discussed in greater detail in Section 6.

Control Groups - The value of using a control group in designing programs and evaluating impact cannot be overstated, but there are situations that can compromise their usefulness. In the developing country context, there are often a variety of parallel interventions that are working toward the same goals. It is also common for teachers and students to transfer to different

schools during the course of the intervention. Both of these situations have the potential to compromise the usefulness of controls. Either an intervention from another organization makes its way to the control schools or students and/or teachers who transfer from treatment to control schools "carry-over" the intervention to these schools. These situations boost the performance of control schools, potentially water down the effects and challenge valid interpretation of findings.

The "step-wedge design" (see graphic to the right), which is a phased design with a "rolling control, holds potential for partially addressing control group problems.



In this design study, groups crossover from no intervention (or a control situation) to intervention over time. Thus, the groups act as their own control, and this situation, similar to the differences-in-differences design, strengthens the power of the study and allows for the evaluation of the effect of the intervention over time.

5.2.2 Findings

- Bias is one of the greatest research challenges for SRGBV research. There is insufficient evidence and no clear consensus on whether school-based or household-based studies yield better and less biased results. When studies are school based there is the risk of missing students who are not at school during the day of the study. When studies are household-based parents may be reluctant to give consent. The review yielded strategies and approaches for mitigating bias.
- Rigorous participatory field testing and formal piloting of survey instruments, questionnaires, and observation protocols are key ways in which bias can be minimized and the content validity strengthened.
- Clarity of terms used in questionnaires and interviews can do a lot to mitigate bias. By specifically stating the acts of violence such as "pulled at my clothes" instead of using abstract terms such as "bullying" and "violence" can strengthen a study's validity and should be considered a good practice.
- Applying rigorous translation strategies such as using back translation can help prevent compromise regarding the intended meaning of questions (Kacker et al., 2007).
- Individual interviews are preferred over group interviews for reducing bias.
- Researchers studying SRGBV have found that face-to-face questionnaires administered by researchers who are of the same sex, and who are not authority figures such as a teacher or school official, improves student informants' feelings of safety and increases the likelihood of full disclosure. Such characteristics of the research protocol were rarely addressed in the survey research reviewed, even for face-to-face data collection. Parkes (2008), Parkes and Heslop (2011), and Bonati (2006) provide good examples of how these dynamics were addressed.

- The interviewers/facilitators of discussions in qualitative research have a profound effect on the data collected and the validity of findings.

5.3 Assessment Challenges

Undertaking necessary preliminary assessments and incorporating routine monitoring and evaluation (M&E) into SRGBV prevention interventions present challenges. Undertaking formative assessments that have relied on good collaboration and involved subjects in a more participatory approach takes time to plan and to implement. This sub-section addresses some of the challenges faced in undertaking formative assessments, incorporating routine M&E, and using appropriate indicators for measurement and learning.

5.3.1 Formative Assessment

Considering the complex nature, understanding of, and social basis for SRGBV, it is imperative that research and program designs be preceded by comprehensive situation analysis or formative study. Formative assessment is a type of operations research that informs research and program design and should include the identification of care and support for participants. The two formative studies reviewed (CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008; Parkes and Heslop, 2011) were characterized by extensive qualitative inquiry, which provided information about the patterns of SRGBV and its mediators. Some identified mediators of SRGBV include:

- poverty,
- cultural norms,
- practices and power relations in the home,
- community and school,
- gendered schooling and sex-disaggregated school performance profiles,
- avenues for reporting in and outside of the school, and
- student attitudes, emotions, and responses to such violence as they encounter it every day.

Though both studies took a “whole systems” approach, each had a unique and strategic element. The work by Parkes and Heslop (2011) looked deeply into the experiences of girls to learn how violence is reinforced and normalized as a part of their day-to-day experiences. Specifically, Parkes and Heslop evaluated how girls understand gender-based violence, how it is introduced and carried out in girls’ relationships, and how girls resist violence. Furthermore, Parkes and Heslop investigated the opportunities available that could help empower girls to challenge this situation, specifically how schools and teachers, in particular, can help and what this might “look like.” For example, what type of support might be required to transform the teacher-to-child interaction so that it includes opportunities for dialogue and discussion? A unique aspect of the CERT and DevTech Systems study (2008) was the in-depth review of country programs addressing some aspects of SRGBV. This work returned a rich database of public and private institutions in Malawi with which the new program could work.

> ***"…… [a positive school] climate includes norms, values, and expectations that support people feeling socially, emotionally and physically safe. People are engaged and respected. Students, families and educators work together to develop, live, and contribute to a shared school vision. Educators model and nurture an attitude that emphasizes the benefits of, and satisfaction from, learning. Each person contributes to the operations of the school as well as the care of the physical environment."***
>
> **NATIONAL SCHOOL CLIMATE COUNCIL (2007)**

When focusing on the specific nature, causes, and presentation of SRGBV and the gendered aspects of the school experience, it is possible to miss some of the positive aspects of the school environment or "school climate" that are associated with less violence. The design of holistic approaches could benefit from information about the school climate itself. The formative assessment could explore specific dimensions of a positive school climate and consider what the entry points might be for introducing them into the intervention when gaps are observed (see textbox to the right). For example, the preliminary analysis could take into consideration both aspects of inclusivity, equality, and fairness and the intentions of school personnel to build social and emotional learning among their students (Diaz-Valera et al., 2013), specifically the ways in which teachers create well-being and social and emotional learning[6] of children and youth (International Rescue Committee, 2014).

Although participatory approaches are at the core of the preliminary studies reviewed, it is not clear the extent to which participants were actually involved in constructing the research and/or prevention programs (e.g., involved in crafting research questions and making suggestions about interventions).

5.3.2 Monitoring and Evaluation

Considering the newness of programs specifically designed to address and prevent or eliminate SRGBV; the sensitive nature of SRGBV; and the deeply rooted and emotionally charged cultural norms and power relations that produce and perpetuate them, the importance of regularly monitoring the effectiveness of the interventions themselves cannot be overstated. While generally understood by all in the international development community as important, the consistent use of M&E is not routine.

M&E emphasizes continuous shared learning about what works and what does not work in achieving results and about why some approaches return desired results and others do not. As a collective learning process, routine M&E helps to inform and support needed program modifications to ensure that activities remain contextually relevant and effective. This ongoing collaborative learning process is important for any change initiative, but is ever more so important in an area of development that is relatively new such as SRGBV.

To do so, a collaborative learning and adaptation process is essential. When multiple stakeholders, including children, are closely involved in all stages of program design, including

[6] The Collaborative on Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) defines social and emotional learning as: "… process through which children and adults acquire and effectively apply the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to understand and manage emotions; set and achieve positive goals; feel and show empathy for others; establish and maintain positive relationships; and make responsible decisions."

M&E planning and implementation, there is considerable opportunity to reflect on the interventions and to use monitoring data to support ongoing process evaluation.

A number of review articles were identified that addressed M&E either exclusively or as part of a larger guidance paper (Fancy and Fraser, 2014; Lockett and Bishop, 2012; Leach et al., 2014). One review article in particular, Lockett and Bishop (2012), provides a set of overarching guidelines that highlight aspects of M&E that are of particular relevance in programs involving violence against girls and women. The guidelines focus on learning and the need to establish and implement routine systems involving feedback loops to ensure that information collected is shared and informs program effectiveness. The nature of change initiatives that involve the important shifts in cultural norms and power relations required for achieving long-term results in SRGBV prevention interventions take time and involve enhancing holistic child protection and response systems to observe progress throughout the intervention and to realize long-term impacts. The value of establishing a culture of using data to promote dialogue for change, appreciating the importance of quality data and building awareness about the ethical issues surrounding data collection, have also been discussed extensively in the literature (Fancy and Fraser, 2014; Leach et al., 2014; Parkes and Heslop, 2011).

5.3.3 Findings

- One of the underpinning factors of a strong M&E program is the involvement of multiple stakeholders in the planning of the M&E strategy and in the interpretation and use of monitoring data.
- Collective decision making related to the identification of performance indicators used to monitor program activities and track progress is one of the most important participatory processes in M&E planning.

Participatory Approach - Plan Togo's guidance paper (Bonati, 2006) provides a thorough and practical guide to participatory approaches involving children. In that paper, a number of studies are cited that promote the direct involvement of children in research and in all aspects of research and project and implementation. Plan Togo's guidance paper focuses on children's involvement in monitoring, evaluation, dissemination, and the use of results. Specific step-by-step guidelines are provided regarding how to work with and communicate with children, and specific data gathering techniques are included, along with step-by-step instructions on how to properly use them.

Collaboration - The involvement of multiple stakeholders in making decisions about key indicators, collecting data, and involving them in presenting and discussing results can go a long way in shifting the climate of the school and community to a position of greater awareness and less tolerance of SRGBV. More than ever before, children are being "invited" to participate in planning, data collection, and the interpretation of monitoring results in programs designed to address all types of violence (Bonati, 2006).

- The need for enhancing public engagement in all aspects of design and implementation was a strong recommendation given in most of the program evaluations reviewed, including the need to enhance participatory processes in M&E planning and data collection.
- The need to include community members and local organizations more actively in M&E planning and data collection was also highlighted in a number of the evaluations.

To fully evaluate and use interventions, regular monitoring and adapting of programs are essential. Day-to-day monitoring of activities and programs is more than ensuring that programs are accountable for results and is different from impact evaluation. Routine M&E emphasizes continuous shared learning about what works and what does not work in achieving results and about why some approaches return desired results and others do not. As a collective learning process, routine M&E helps to inform and support needed program modifications to ensure that activities remain contextually relevant and effective. This ongoing collaborative learning process is important for any change initiative, but is ever more so important in an area of development that is relatively new such as SRGBV. There is much to be learned.

5.3.4 Indicators

Three types of indicators used in M&E design were identified in the review - *context indicators*, *process indicators*, and *performance indicators*. Impact indicators such as student retention and achievement, age of marriage, self-efficacy, social–emotional well-being, and holistic school climate are usually not included in the M&E design and not measured as a formal component of midline and endline reviews.

In the large-scale studies that discuss SRGBV, the factors investigated tend to be very coarse, focusing on broad perceptions of safety, or are limited to specific types of violence such as bullying. The indicators used in these studies differ widely and, for the most part, rely on the perceptions from students and teachers and Head Teachers, which introduce risks of bias and under-reporting. Therefore, the measurements may reflect students' and teachers' understanding of and sensitivities to the problem rather than school realities.

Appendix 7 is a compilation of indicators from guidance and/or review papers and from reports of program evaluations. It is meant to provide an overview of indicators that have been used in a variety of prevention interventions, but does not imply that all of the indicators listed here are recommended. Appendix 7, Table 7.1 presents a selection of standard indicators that could be used or adapted for SRGBV programs, which would allow for a direct link between data collected from SRGBV programs and more broad-based international indicators used for measuring: (1) gender equity and empowerment (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2012; USAID, 2011); (2) violence against children (UNICEF, 2006); and (3) violence against women and girls (Lockett and Bishop, 2012).

1. **Context indicators** in SRGBV research and program design are important. Considering the interaction between gender violence victimization or perpetration and poverty, politics, and cultural norms and practices, it is important for both basic research and program design to

carefully consider and where relevant, track contextual information. First, to understand these inter-relationships and to evaluate impact using quasi-experimental designs, it is often necessary to apply analytical approaches that are able to selectively control for specific individual and context variables. Second, context indicators may be useful in quantifying different assumptions of the study or intervention. In intervention programs these assumptions may change and thus need to be measured periodically. For example, let us say it is assumed that the region where the intervention takes place is free from political and/or ethnic conflict and in the course of the intervention, this situation changes, lending the assumption untenable. Building in specific context variables as regularly monitored indicators allows for a check in on the tenability of assumptions.

Formative assessment or situation analyses are often conducted as a preliminary data collection activity to inform study and program design. They typically investigate many context variables or *context indicators* (USAID, 2012) such as proxies of family income, basic community livelihoods, distances to school, cultural norms and practices, traditional leadership, child protection laws, access to health care, civil society initiatives, and regional and local conflict. Among the studies reviewed, context variables were usually measured in the preliminary or formative stages, but the use of these measures as "context indicators" to be tracked over time was rarely documented as an intentional practice.

2. **Process indicators** can be built into the M&E strategy, and qualitative inquiry is encouraged. Specific process indicators would include, for example, measures of how comfortable participants feel in group discussions, how easy it is to talk to facilitators, and how empowered students and teachers feel about reinforcing the school Codes of Conduct. Process indicators would also include how newly established reporting mechanisms are used by students and teachers, the relationships between intervention-established community advocates and the children of the community, and the potential for excluding specific populations from discussion groups or clubs. A participatory approach is called for in Bonati's paper (2006), which provides detailed information about how children can and should be involved in selecting indicators and collecting data for tracking progress in programs. Systematic process evaluation not only promotes learning about the viability of project inputs and interventions, but can also inform a strong sustainability strategy.

One program, Transforming Education for Girls in Tanzania, included a measure of the strength of intervention, but used these data as a measure of performance rather than to monitor process, with an aim to learn and adjust the programming as needed. No mention of intentional application of process evaluation, learning, and adaptation were mentioned in the program reviews at the evaluation stages. This is not to say, however, that such routine process or strategy reviews did not take place.

3. **Performance indicators** were the most common observed indicators and were designed to measure performance related to knowledge, attitudes, and gender-equitable behaviors. To a lesser extent and depending on the type of violence, performance indicators included measures of actual experiences of violence, either as a victim, perpetrator or witness (Achyut et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2010). Another measure that has been used to track actual acts of violence is the reporting of violent experiences that are known to students, teachers, or other informants even

though the respondent has not directly experienced or directly witnessed them. For example, some studies have used teacher informants about the extent to which students bully other pupils. Students may be asked if they "have knowledge of" any instances of physical and/or psychological violence in schools (ActionAid International, 2012).

Although the experience of SRGBV has been shown to have considerable negative and potentially long-term impacts on children who experience it and on the schools they attend, few of the intervention programs named children's participation in school and student learning outcomes as a specific outcome or overall goal. The one exception was the ActionAid International evaluation (2012) of the Transformation of Education for Girls in Tanzania project. Although enforcement of bans on corporal punishment and improved teacher attitudes toward violence were among school-level performance indicators, the school climate as a more holistic construct (e.g., including communication with students, social-emotional learning, professional development, physical structure) and student's social emotional well-being were not among the expected results. Also not among the results were measures of these variables included among the performance indicators, either as outcomes or impacts. The specific goals of the interventions were directed more toward reducing the incidence of the acts or improving the attitudes, norms, and system inadequacies that produce and maintain them.

Standard Indicators Related to Gender Equality, Women's Empowerment and Gender-Based Violence - USAID, UNICEF, the United Nations Economic and Social Council, and the Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom, among other organizations, have established standards or provided guidance regarding common indicators for tracking violence, either gender-based violence or violence against children in general. The indicators included in Appendix 7, Table 7.1 were selected on the basis of their potential relevance to SRGBV programs as is or if slightly modified (e.g., students and teachers could be used instead of "people" or "women" as the unit of measure). There is some overlap among these indicators that shows the alignment of thinking regarding overarching proxy measures of gender equality and empowerment or of actual acts of violence and attitudes toward it.

Performance Indicators for Evaluating the Achievement of Expected Outcomes in SRGBV Prevention Programs - Program evaluations focused to a large degree on shifting the attitudes of students and teachers in target school programs and in building the knowledge and sense of empowerment of students to challenge the norms and practices of inequality, discrimination, and/or the acts of violence as a potential victim or bystander. A compilation of indicators used to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of SRGBV programs is provided in Appendix 7, Table 7.2.

A common indicator used to measure changes in attitudes about gender equality, gender roles and norms, and violence is to ask students or teachers whether they agree or disagree with specific statements such as "Boys have the right not to be mistreated in school," or "Because girls get married after they are 18 years old, they should not be encouraged to go to secondary school." Some evaluations compiled a variety of attitude questions to form an index of gender equality (e.g., Achyut et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2010). The Gender Equitable Measurement Scale, used to evaluate the impact of the GEMS program in Mumbai, India, was considered to be a practical yet comprehensive proxy measure of students' attitudes towards gender norms and

gender violence and was useful in measuring improvements seemingly tied to the GEMS initiative. The index included measurements of attitudes toward gender roles, privileges, and restrictions; gender attributes such as relative propensity for mathematics, science, and sports; and violence against women and girls. Knowledge indicators typically focused on knowledge about the possibility of sexual violence and harassment taking place in the school environment (CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008) or the knowledge about who to report in case a person is a victim of or a witness to violence.

The acts of violence were relatively straightforward as pertaining to an experience as a victim or a perpetrator, although the time frames for referencing the experience of violence varied across indicators. Students were asked whether they experienced violence in the past 3 months, in the past 12 months, or ever. Most of the indicators were measured through direct quantitative surveys with qualitative inquiry providing support or triangulation of findings.

5.3.5 Findings

- Most of the indicators used specific, unambiguous descriptors of different types of violence (e.g., beaten, kicked, touched buttocks or private parts, teased, shouted at) as opposed to abstractions such as intimidation or use of violence. This is an important aspect of any good measurement; that is, to avoid using terms that are ambiguous.

Designing Programs and Building Evidence: Applications of Implementation Science Assessments

Adopting an Implementation Science (IS) framework is advisable in order to improve the designs and the effectiveness of the interventions as they emerge and to continuously build the evidence base for best practice. IS refers to the study of methods to improve the uptake, implementation, and translation of research findings into routine and common practices (e.g., Padian et al., 2011) and involves formative assessment, routine M&E and impact evaluation. The intent of IS and related research is to investigate and address major bottlenecks (e.g., cultural, social, behavioral) that impede effective implementation, test new approaches to improve programming, as well as determine a causal relationship between the intervention and its impact. Studies and/or review articles that have touched on all aspects of IS methodologies are included.

6 Ethical Participation of Children and Adolescents

6.1 Introduction

There are unique ethical issues that must be addressed when the subject of research includes topics that are of a sensitive nature or when it is a topic that is generally not acceptable to discuss, as well as specific considerations when conducting research with children and adolescent participants. All types of SRGBV behaviors are sensitive topics and difficult for many people to talk about, especially children. It is often the case that individuals participating in research on SRGBV are resistant to sharing their personal experiences of SRGBV because of real or perceived risk of being reprimanded or punished for doing so, discriminated against, or will experience further violence or abuse. This situation has been shown to be exacerbated for more vulnerable populations such those living in poverty and/or in areas where there is political or ethnic conflict and for ethnic minorities, people with disabilities, orphans, or persons living with HIV and AIDS. In schools and communities where the gender norms and gendered power relations are well-established and rarely contested and acts of SRGBV take place without punishment, all of the students are vulnerable.

When investigating SRGBV and other forms of violence against children, children's participation may put their safety at risk, introducing the potential for secondary victimization such as interrogation and intimidation, discrimination and exclusion, psychological trauma, and even further violence against them. There is also the potential for real or perceived exploitation. When data are collected from children, do they have a say in how this information is going to be used? If discussions trigger memories of traumatic experiences, then are people available so the children can talk to them? Do the children know about viable sources of support? What do the researchers/facilitators do when they hear about a violent crime against a child that has been fully disclosed to them by a minor under the promise of anonymity and confidentiality?

Four ethical principles for researchers conducting violence-related research, consistent with many of the ethical principles at the foundation of the current United States system of protection for human research subjects, are highlighted by Ellsberg and colleagues (2001). These ethical principles are as follows:

- Respect for persons at all stages of the research process
- Minimizing harm to respondents and research staff
- Maximizing benefits to participants and communities
- Justice

The ethical issues underscored by an international literature review regarding ethical issues in undertaking research with children and young people (Powell et al., 2012) are encompassed in the four overarching ethical considerations discussed by Ellsberg and colleagues (2001). These overarching ethical considerations are *informed consent*, *protection of participants*, *anonymity and confidentiality*, and *payment of participants*.

6.2 Respect for Persons at All Stages of the Research Process

This principle refers to respecting participants' right to make decisions about their involvement in the research and, in the case of minors, the right of parents to protect their children from participating in an activity that the parents deem to be harmful. Ensuring that participants and parents understand the nature of the research and their choice to refuse consent initially or to opt out at any time during the course of the study is a basic right that must be upheld and respected. The participants' request for anonymity and confidentiality must also be respected. The participants must be reassured of this, not only at the time of consent, but throughout the research.

6.2.1 Informed Consent

The point to be emphasized about *informed* consent is that it is not simply the ticking of a box on a form, informed consent is about successfully communicating the nature of the study so that the decision about whether to participate is truly an informed one. In most of the publications reviewed, the authors did not document how participants and/or their parents were informed, other than describing the exchange of consent forms, especially in soliciting parental consent.

Devries and colleagues (2013) provide an excellent example in which parents and community members were gathered together so that researchers and school officials could explain the study and answer their questions. These types of activities also help to mobilize the endorsement of community officials and/or traditional leaders to whom parents may defer their decisions about consent.

All studies in this literature review documented procedures for obtaining informed consent, but different types of consenting processes were used. Some studies using school-based tools have opted for a passive consent (Espelage et al., 2012).

Passive consent assumes that if parents do not refuse consent by sending their rejected forms back to the school, then the parents have received forms, read and understood them, and given their consent. These assumptions may not be tenable. Parents may not have received the forms from their children; they may not be literate or if so, they may not understand the research; or the form stating their refusal to allow their children to participate may not make its way back to the school. Others have required that parents give *active consent*, which requires that parents provide signed authorization for their children to participate (Crapanzano et al., 2011; Ncontsa and Shumba, 2013; Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams, 2013). A benefit of active consent is that it is more likely that parents who give consent understand the activity, but it also may exclude children whose parents who did not receive the form in the first place or are not able to read or understand it. Furthermore, in strong hierarchical societies, parents may not believe they have the authority to make these decisions and must involve a local official or traditional leader, which could take some time. In one study, only the consent of the school principal was required for children to participate, and parents were not informed (Burton, 2005).

Providing parents and community members with an opportunity to meet with school officials and researchers to learn about the study and ask questions can mitigate some of the risks of exclusion

previously mentioned. In all of the publications reviewed, the researchers documented the ways in which children were informed, their anonymity and the confidentiality of findings were ensured, and their right to opt out of the study at any time was communicated.

6.2.2 Anonymity and Confidentiality

Ensuring anonymity and confidentiality is not always easy when interviews are conducted on the school grounds or even in the homes, where there may not be private spaces for interviews. In both schools and households, especially in rural and low-resource communities, there are often bystanders who are want to know the topic of the interviews and what the children are saying. Thus, special care must be taken in finding a place that is out of reach and does not draw attention. Removing identifiers with paper/pencil or computer-assisted approaches such as the ACASI techniques trialed in Brazil (Mierzwa et al., 2013) have been shown to improve disclosure, presumably because of the promise of anonymity and confidentiality.

Although these techniques may be disregarded for research that takes place in a developing country context, this is exactly where adaptations of the approach should be investigated because it is in these contexts where real or perceived risk of disclosure by the informant may be exacerbated because of the strong gender norms and hierarchies of authority and power.

6.2.3 Respect for the Child's Right to Have a Voice

For some time, researchers have used participatory, child-friendly approaches to investigate violence against children, including SRGBV. Participatory approaches are also prominent in research with young adults and adults. Recently, there has been an upsurge of advocacy to involve children, youth, or adult research participants in every aspect of a study, including formulation of research questions, development of instruments, data collection, and the interpretation of findings. These practices, although admirable, introduce some ethical risks (Leach, 2013). Facilitation of participatory research requires considerable skill, and poorly managed focus group discussions or participatory learning activities can be harmful to children. Unintentional disrespect for a child's right to privacy, to have a voice or to opt out of a study, and the insensitivities to children's emotional well-being are only a few of the ethical issues that may arise when facilitators are not professional and well-trained. Involving children directly in the research process without genuinely listening to what they have to say can be exploitative and is disrespectful of a child's right to be heard and to be taken seriously. Finally, children and others who provide information have the right to know the reason for conducting the research and to have a say in how the information will be used and how their rights to privacy will be respected even after the study has ended (Bonati, 2006; Ennew and Plateau, 2004).

Researchers who successfully build trust and empower students in discussions have an ethical obligation to discourage false expectations about how expressing ones voice might be received outside of the discussion group. Researchers should not assume that it will be easy for students to directly transfer newly developed skills of interaction into their everyday lives. Guidance needs to be provided, and students need to be supported in making the bridge to their everyday lives, holding close their newly found confidence and self-esteem.

6.3 Minimizing Harm to Respondents and Research Staff

Informants and researchers are at risk for experiencing emotional stress when discussing topics such as violence, especially sexual violence. Even completing a survey on the topic can trigger considerable distress if the questions remind the informant of a traumatic experience that was experienced personally or by a family member or peer. Researchers, similar to professionals who work with survivors of violence, often experience emotional distress. Thus, a plan to ensure that these situations are met responsively with care and support is an integral part of conducting research about SRGBV. Although the researchers may have developed protection protocols for responding to the humiliation, sadness, and fear associated with reliving painful experiences or the severe trauma that could be encountered during data collection, few of the publications provided such information. Devries and colleagues (2013) provided an excellent example from Uganda regarding how possible traumatic events could be addressed. First, the authors underscore the importance of identifying and working with existing child protection structures within or outside of the Ministry of Education. These child protection structures might include health, legal, and community welfare sectors. The Devries research team worked hand-in-hand with a local nongovernmental organization to ensure that proper procedures were followed and allowed for dedicated attention to referral and follow up.

There is not just one way to provide a responsive psychosocial response to informants and researchers as countries differ in their child protection legislation and policy and in the availability of a viable local service for providing responsive care and support. Thus, these matters must be assessed during preliminary study phases and situation analyses. Furthermore, it is not enough to assume that if a service is available, then the service providers understand the nature and seriousness of SRGBV. Information about the knowledge and attitudes held by the service providers regarding different forms of SRGBV should be investigated to ensure that children referred to them will truly be heard and supported.

Thus, at a minimum researchers need to ensure that there is a professional counselor available on site to provide immediate support and/or to make referrals to professional counseling centers in the school or community as available. Doing so can prevent or mitigate the impact of secondary victimization in the form of humiliation, sadness or fear associated with reliving painful experiences. What is needed is to ensure children, young people, teachers and others who are interviewed or participate in discussions and the researchers themselves have a professional that they can talk to about their feelings.

6.3.1 Protection Protocols

The studies reviewed made generous use of creative data collection strategies that are child friendly and reduce the discomfort of discussions involving sexual abuse and harassment, particularly for children who have personally experienced abuse. However, few provided information on a protection protocol. All 27 of the institutions identified had prevention interventions in place; out of those 27 institutions, 13 provided reporting structures. However, only three of these institutions offered a response mechanism (e.g., psychosocial support for survivors of violence). To mitigate the distress that may occur during or after the study,

protection protocols are necessary. This may include making available on site a social worker or counselor to provide immediate support and/or make referrals to centers in the school or community as available. Doing so can prevent or mitigate the impact of secondary victimization in the form of humiliation, sadness or fear associated with reliving painful experiences.

6.4 Maximizing Benefits to Participants and Communities

When discussing the manner of obtaining informed consent we discussed the importance of taking the time to share information about the research with a wide variety of stakeholders.

6.4.1 Building Relationships

Vivian Fiscian, Independent Researcher in Ghana, discussed the importance of taking all the time necessary prior to the launch of the study to build strong relationships with the full range of stakeholders in the study. These stakeholders include the school, community officials and traditional leaders, families, business people, and youth (private communication, February 2015). In doing so, there is an opportunity to dispel any untenable assumptions about benefits that the research might bring to the community such as a new project, material goods such as books for schools, and special training. These expectations are common in countries where donor funding is high. During this preliminary stage, researchers can share some of the benefits of what that research can and will bring, being careful not to make false promises. When the school and community learn more about SRGBV, they will actively share information about the situations, thereby allowing stakeholders to become part of the solutions to improving the SRGBV and securing the safety of their children.

6.4.2 Payment of Participants

One of the most agreed upon rules of thumb regarding payment of participants is that payment is neither not provided as an incentive to participate in a study, nor is it perceived to be. This situation can easily be misconstrued as persuasion or in effect, a bribe. An argument in favor of compensation of children and young people is when children or young people are taken away from normal routines on which the family depends such as assisting with chores or working to help support the family. In the case of investigations of SRGBV, this is not considered to be a likely scenario (for more extensive discussions about this matter, see Leach, 2013; Powell, 2012; and UNICEF, 2012). There may be situations, however, where a snack may be provided to children following their participation but without the anticipation of receiving a snack.

6.5 Justice

The last ethical principle, justice, reflects the reality that while the risks of participating in research could be potentially large; the risks of ignorance, silence, and inaction could be equally large. Thus, balancing the risks and benefits of research is an important consideration. In the case of SRGBV, though there may be risks of exposing the violations of students in schools, the failure to learn about the nature, extent and correlates of violence in a school setting is also risky. To resist and/or ignore opportunities to build awareness about SRGBV and to mobilize champions who will speak out against SRGBV is an equal if not greater risk. Failure to “pay

attention" simply reinforces and perpetuates SRGBV and the gender norms and power relations that promote and maintain them.

6.5.1 Involving Children

Advocacy for involving children in all areas of research on violence against children was strong. The literature speaks strongly about the value of involving children in all aspects of design and implementation of both research and interventions (Blanchet-Cohen, 2009; MSI, 2008; Pinheiro, 2006). This sub-section has been informed largely from many papers that provide specific guidelines for supporting meaningful and ethical participation of children (i.e., Bonati, 2006; Save the Children, 2004).

All of these guiding papers outline why it is important to involve children and highlight the importance of a child rights perspective. The benefits for children are summarized as follows by Save the Children (2004): "Research that makes the most of children's abilities, and treats them with respect, can provide children with opportunities that bring significant improvements in their own well-being. These include greater opportunities to acquire knowledge, to develop new skills, to build new friendships ad wider support networks, to be heard and to have their concerns taken seriously." The benefit to research is that the data are more relevant and bring attention to the most salient aspects of a child's experience.

Finally, involving children benefits society because this provides children with an opportunity to engage with other children and adults in a safe place where the power relations can be challenged and where children can learn the skills of questioning, negotiating relationships, and listening to different views (Save the Children, 2004). This, in turn, increases a child's sense of self-worth and ability to look at different ways to view experiences of violence and to challenge the norm.

With consent understood and given by children and their caregivers, it is possible that children can play a part in every aspect of the research. Save the Children (2004) and others (e.g., Bonati, 2006; Ennew and Plateau, 2004) all provide detailed guidelines regarding methods for increasing the active participation of children as respondents. This information begins with procedures to ensure that they know their rights to choose not to participate, that they understand the reason for the research and how the data are used, that their anonymity will be secured and the information stored confidentially, and that there are sources of protection and support in place if needed or desired.

Children can be given choices about how they would like to be interviewed and where and if possible alternative methods can be prepared to allow them to choose different mechanisms for sharing information. Throughout the activity, children need to believe that they are genuinely being heard and need to trust that the information they share is believed. Similar to adult group discussions, children should be asked to verify transcriptions of what has been said, especially when there are ambiguities in meaning. That way, there are no misunderstandings regarding the information conveyed during interviews or group discussions.

Participatory activities such as drawing, role-playing, and storytelling all offer opportunities for children to talk about their ideas and opinions. During direct interviews, gradually moving from less threatening conversations to the more difficult ones such as victimization or perpetration of

violence is advisable. Play or icebreaking sessions are commonly used as an entry into more substantive individual or group discussions (Kacker, 2012). Stories, pictures, video clips, and puppets have all been used as stimuli to seed conversation about violence against children (Ennew and Plateau, 2004; Kacker, 2012; Bonati, 2006; Save the Children, 2004).

Some of the more frequently used types of hands-on activities include drawing, writing or discussing drawings or modeling experiences with manipulatives, and mapping their environment, including some of the familiar visualization techniques such as the problem tree and/or the abuse spider (CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008; Bonati, 2006). As previously discussed, there is a movement toward research that is intentionally transformative. An excellent example of that is from de Lange and colleagues (2012) who supported youth in developing their own videos to tell stories about their experiences with violence and ways to improve the situations.

7 Conclusions and Recommendations

This literature review was undertaken to contribute to the advancement of needed research on SRGBV to identify evidence-based interventions that can eliminate gender-based violence in the schools by examining how acts of SRGBV are defined and how they are studied and evaluated.

Despite a growing interest in studying SRGBV there is a general lack of rigorous studies about it, and for those studies that do exist they often use different definitions and focus only on one or few aspects and types of SRGBV. Research and program evaluation also tend to use very different research methodologies and indicators to track incidents of SRGBV. Together, these factors make the advancement of a more comprehensive set of evidence-based interventions challenging, if achievable at all. The literature review yielded several findings, conclusions and related recommendations, a few of which are new. Most are known already as they are typical challenges associated with research in general, which are well-documented across a range of study areas other than SRGBV.

This section presents conclusions and makes recommendations around the four purposes of the literature review.

1) Identify overarching SRGBV types and describe how they are conceptualized with the intent to assist researchers to align more closely around a common set of definitions.

7.1 Adopt common definitions of SRGBV types

A key objective of the review was to identify how researchers conceptualized SRGBV and determine if there was sufficient commonality to allow alignment around a clear definition. The greatest conceptual commonalities were found for bullying and corporal punishment and the greatest variance was found for sexual harassment and its relationship to sexual violence.

Conclusion - Despite variance, there was sufficient literature that conceptualized sexual harassment as a form of sexual violence so this term need not be distinguished from sexual violence in definition. While there are nuanced differences in how acts of SRGBV are conceptualized the review showed that there is sufficient overlap and commonality among researchers to support the adoption of three broad categories of SRGBV with clear and succinct definitions. They are:

1) Bullying - is commonly defined as any form of non-sexual intentional actions against someone that is perpetrated with intention to harm, either physically or psychologically. The act of bullying is grounded in a real or perceived power differential between the perpetrator and the victim.

2) Corporal punishment – is commonly defined as the use of physical punishment by someone assigned authority such as a teacher, principal or school official that involves the deliberate infliction of pain to discipline or reform a child or to deter attitudes or behaviors deemed unacceptable or inappropriate.

3) Sexual violence - is commonly defined as physical or psychological abuse or harassment imposed by an adult on a child through any form of forced or unwanted sexual activity where there is no consent, consent is not possible, or power or intimidation is used to coerce a sexual act.

Recommendation - One of the strongest requirements for improving the utility of research findings and the comparative review of SRGBV is to reach a consensus regarding definitions and parameters of the different types of violence. It is recommended that the conceptual framework of the three SRGBV types and proposed definitions be adopted.

2) Generate an overview of the common methodologies used in research and evaluation of SRGBV to enable trends, strengths and weaknesses to be identified.

Another purpose of the review included the identification of three elements: 1) the methods most commonly used in the study of SRGBV, 2) the research and evaluation trends occurring across the categories of SRGBV – bullying, corporal punishment and sexual violence – and 3) the strengths and weaknesses associated with the methods. Together, this information can better inform SRGBV prevention activities, future investigations of SRGBV and more effective and standard measures of SRGBV behaviors. The most predominate method used to study SRGBV is qualitative, yet, studies often used mixed-method design to collect a broad base of information. Overwhelmingly, the study design most applied for investigations of the sub-area of sexual violence (including sexual harassment) is a mixed-methods approach

The review of impact evaluations also revealed trends. Approximately two-thirds of the evaluations sought to shift behavior as a direct result of the intervention, either with an aim to reduce victimization and perpetration of violence or to improve bystander responses. Three project evaluations directly addressed the empowerment of girls such as the girls' willingness to challenge norms or to challenge witnessed violence (i.e., as a bystander). Only two evaluations included student performance as an indicator for measuring impact.

7.2 Maintain a consistent focus on factors that put children at risk for SRGBV

The consistent focus in the research on the factors that put children at risk for SRGBV behavior and the protective factors that mitigate the behavior has greatly contributed to the understanding of the need to consider these factors when undertaking research or program evaluation and the recognition of the importance of conducting the necessary assessments to better understand them.

Conclusion - SRGBV must be considered within the context of the individual, school, community, and social factors that produce and perpetuate the behavior.

Recommendation - When undertaking research or program evaluation, take into consideration the SRGBV risks and protective factors. Recognize the importance of conducting the necessary assessments to situate a study or program in its context and identify other risk factors and mitigators of those risks.

7.3 Improve documentation

A range of areas were identified as being weak in documentation. For example, none of the studies in this review reported *how* parents were informed about the study other than reporting that signed informed consent forms were collected. In much of the quantitative work, consent practices were based on the assumption that parents received the consent form and could read and understand it. These assumptions are likely to be more tenable in developed countries than in the developing country context, especially in rural and low-resource settings. The review also revealed inadequate documentation of sampling, training and data collection procedures.

Recommendation - Document all actions and procedures when designing and implementing a study. Ensure data collection standardization and training protocols are rigorous and well-documented. Parkes and Heslop (2011) and Devries and colleagues (2013) provide excellent examples of rigorous protocols for training and standardization of data collection.

7.4 Conduct more rigorous research on SRGBV

The review found that studies mostly involved interventions to improve knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs related to gender equality and gender norms. Yet almost none focused on testing interventions and the extent to which SRGBV is reduced and the possible impact on student achievement and/or student retention.

Recommendation – Conduct more rigorous studies that rigorously test interventions to determine the extent to which the interventions reduce SRGBV and increase school attendance and student achievement.

7.5 Conduct formative assessments

To ensure that risks, protections and context are identified through appropriate assessments to inform study designs and intervention programs may also be an opportunity to lay the foundation for engagement and collaborative learning.

Conclusion - To build on the evidence supporting successful interventions to date and to develop new ones, adopting an Implementation Science (IS) framework, the study of methods to improve the uptake, implementation, and translation of research findings into routine and common practices, is advisable in order to improve the designs and the effectiveness of the interventions as they emerge and to continuously build the evidence base for best practice.

Recommendation – Consider using the IS framework to investigate and address major bottlenecks (e.g., cultural, social, behavioral) that impede effective implementation, test new approaches to improve programming, as well as determine a causal relationship between the intervention and its impact.

7.6 Ensure ethical consideration

The requirements for protecting human subjects during investigations of sensitive topics such as gender violence transcend the universal requirements of obtaining informed consent, ensuring confidentiality and mitigating non-disclosure.

Conclusion - The protection of human subjects in investigations of violence and abuse must be addressed throughout the research process and may involve protective actions that take place following the completion of the research. Taking the time to develop a safe environment for open discussion can be enhanced over time if the study has the luxury of time.

Recommendation - Because of the sensitive nature of SRGBV research, ensure that maximum efforts are taken to ensure feelings of safety when collecting data from child respondents. Additionally, always address the characteristics of the research protocol when conducting studies and evaluations. It is important to have a social worker trained as a research assistant available during the interview because he or she can respond to such instances of psychological trauma on the part of the child or the researcher. It is equally important to have local resources available for referring participants for psycho-social counseling, if needed.

7.7 Engage children as researchers

Conclusion - To effectively engage children as researchers and change agents for transforming the characteristic violence they experience in their schools and communities, the role of the researcher needs to be more of a partnership and support role. The power dynamics between and among the researcher/facilitator and the informants and/or participants in group discussions are key to the success in securing the trust that is needed to solicit full and honest disclosure of experiences from participants. This practice can go a long way in maximizing honest disclosure about experiences and their impact on victims, perpetrators, and witnesses of SRGBV.

Recommendation - Design studies to directly engage students as partner researchers and actors in transforming gender inequities in the school environment. Involve children directly in as many aspects of the research as possible as it helps to minimize the bias of the researchers' own personal views and experiences and helps to bring the ideas of the child to the forefront. Take strategic measures to build the mutual respect between researchers and informants and to attenuate the power dynamic of sessions.

7.8 Explore technology

Conclusion - The literature indicates that using technology for online surveys, for example, holds promise in strengthening study validity, particularly if connectivity and non-response challenges can be overcome.

Recommendation - Avenues by which to leverage technology in the developing country context and mitigate the limited access and use of the Internet or telephones are strongly encouraged for conducting further research on SRGBV.

Glossary

Bias – The difference between the impact that is calculated and the true impact of the intervention. In sampling, a procedure that results in a sample that is not representative of the target population.

Content validity – How adequately the content of an instrument captures the data that are intended to be measured.

Context indicator – A statistic or measure giving quantitative and/or qualitative information on the context of a population or subject, e.g., diversity of learners' population, safety of routes to and from school, quality of training of teachers, quality of curricula, etc**.**

Control Group –A group of research participants who receive no treatment or an alternative treatment in an experiment so that the effect of an intervention can be determined.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient – A measure of the internal consistency of a test containing items that are not scored dichotomously, based on the extent to which test-takers who answer a given test time one way respond to other items in a similar way.

Desirability bias - When people report inaccurately on sensitive topics in order to present themselves in the best possible light or respond how they believe they are expected to respond. This can be due to both self-deception and other-deception. Desirability bias can affect the validity of experimental and survey research findings, but procedures such as the use of forced-choice items and the use of proxy subjects can be effective in preventing or reducing desirability bias.

External validity - The extent to which the study findings can be generalized to the target population. For an evaluation to be externally valid, it is necessary that the evaluation sample be a representative sample of the universe of eligible units.

Formative Evaluation – A type of evaluation that is undertaken while a program is developing in order to improve its effectiveness, or to support a decision to abort further development.

Informed Consent – The ethical and legal requirement for a researcher to tell all potential research participants about the study's procedures, the information that they will be asked to disclose to the researcher, and the intended uses of that information. It should be documented by the use of a written consent form approved by the International Research Board and signed by the subject or the subject's legally authorized representative. A copy should be given to the person signing the form.

Internal validity – The extent to which extraneous variables have been controlled by the researcher, so that any observed effects can be attributed solely to the treatment variable. In qualitative research, the extent to which the researcher has demonstrated a causal relationship between two phenomena by showing that other plausible factors could not have caused the relationship.

Mixed Methods Research – A type of research in which quantitative and qualitative methodologies are combined and used in a single investigation.

Nonresponse – No information provided for some sample units.

Performance indicator - A quantitative or qualitative measurement, or any other criterion, by which performance or achievement can be assessed, often by comparison with an agreed standard or target.

Process indicator - A measure of the ways in which program services and goods are provided.

Qualitative Research - According to Ulin and colleagues (2004), by definition, qualitative research is "… a theoretical and methodological focus on the complex relations between (1) personal and social meanings, (2) individual and cultural practices, and (3) the material environment or context."

Quantitative Research – The process of describing and explaining features by collecting numerical data on observable behaviors of samples and by subjecting these data to statistical analysis.

Quasi-experimental Research – A type of experiment in which research participants are not randomly assigned to treatment and control groups.

Reliability - Defined in quantitative research as the consistency with which an instrument measures what it is supposed to be measuring. Internal consistency reliability is a psychometric index of the inter-correlations among the items comprising a test or survey instrument and estimates the degree to which the set of items measures a single construct (e.g., bullying). Thus, the stronger the inter-correlations among items, the higher the reliability estimate. If an instrument has low reliability, then it is difficult to say exactly "what" is being measured.

Reliability Coefficient - A measure of the accuracy of a test or measuring instrument obtained by measuring the same individuals twice and computing the correlation of the two sets of measures. The higher the reliability coefficient is the lower the standard error is and the lower the standard error the more reliable the test scores are.

Sampling - The process of selecting a research sample from a defined population usually with the intent that it accurately represents that population. Probability sampling methods are the most rigorous. Random sampling, stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling are all probability sampling methods. Non-probabilitic sampling (such as purposive or convenience sampling) can create sampling errors.

Selection bias –When the reasons for which an individual participates in a program are correlated with outcomes. This bias commonly occurs when the comparison group is ineligible or self-selects out of treatment.

Validity- The integrity, or "truth," of a study's findings. In qualitative research, the extent to which the research uses methods and procedures that ensure a high degree of research quality and rigor.

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Appendix 1. All Study Table

Summary of Studies, Evaluations, and Reviews of SRGBV Programs and Research

Legend:
BL = bullying
CP = corporal punishment
MM = mixed methods
N/A = not applicable
Q = quantitative
QL = qualitative
SH = sexual harassment
SV = sexual violence

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Abramovay and Rua, 2005	BL, SV, SH	Brazil	MM	Grades 5 through 12 students and teachers; parents; school officials; police	340	Comprehensive study to examine the perceptions, nature, extent, causes, and impact of violence in schools; formative goals for informing prevention initiatives	As reported by both students and staff members, the areas surrounding schools were the most critical spots in relation to the occurrence of violence. Violence in the schools manifested in various ways and involved those who were part of the school system, both students and staff, as perpetrators and as victims. Physical violence was the most explicit facet of this phenomenon, with an emphasis on threats.
Abuya et al., 2012	SH, SV	Kenya	QL	Girls in Grades 10 through 12; teachers; female dropouts from school	2	Phenomenological study to describe girls' experiences with SH/SV in and out of school in Kenya	Based on the girls' narratives, this study found that sexual harassment/violence happened in schools, on the way to schools, and outside of schools. The perpetrators of sexual violence were varied and included teachers. This violence affects girls' reproductive health, academic focus, and well-being.
Achyut et al., 2011	BL, SV, SH	India	Q	Grades 6 and 7 students	45	Evaluate impact of Gender Equity Movement + Campaign, Campaign Only, and Control	For "Full Treatment," the program saw a positive shift in gender roles, gender discrimination, and reaction/responses to violence with sustained improvements beyond year 1 with gains, but less pronounced in the Campaign Only group.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
ActionAid International, 2007	All SRGBV	Global	Policy Guidance	N/A	N/A	Propose a national policy for the prevention, management, and elimination of violence against girls in school in line with Education for All guidelines	__
Agbenyega, 2006	CP	Ghana	MM	Grades 7 through 10 students and teachers	10	Compare corporal punishment use according to inclusive and non-inclusive schools	The overwhelming majority of teachers in schools that did and did not participate in the project used corporal punishment to enforce school discipline, and schools that did participate were not found to be more favorable in changing teacher perceptions and beliefs about corporal punishment, which is seen as the direct result of beliefs, values, and norms of Ghanaian society.
Akiba et al., 2002	BL	37 countries	Q	1994 Trends in International Math and Science Study (TIMSS) sample	__	Examine the linkage between national predictors of general crime and national rates of school violence	School violence was found to be widely prevalent among the 37 nations, but school violence rates were not related to general crime rates. School violence rates were related to school-system variables and the effect of these variables was independent of social variables. When school-system variables were controlled for, many social variables became non-significant.
Alam et al., 2010	SH, SV	Bangladesh	Q	Girls aged 13–19 years	N/A	Examine the extent and type of sexually harassing behavior girls experienced on their way to school, college, or social visits; and types of perpetrators	35% of girls experienced gender-related harassments, with a 43% prevalence of all types of sexual harassments. The breakdown of perpetrators was 64% young males, 30% neighborhood youth, 22% students, and 6% hoodlums. This high prevalence is a reflection of wider gender-based discrimination in Bangladeshi culture.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Antonowicz, 2010	All SRGBV	West and Central Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Report on context and causes of school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV_, and synthesize evidence on prevalence to make recommendations for addressing the issues	__
B&M Development Consultant, 2008	All SRGBV	Ethiopia	QL	Students; teachers; parents	127	Identify and analyze the types, prevalence, major causes, and effects of violence against girls in and around schools; assess the availability and effectiveness of policies, rules and regulations; and recommend ways to reduce and eliminate violence against school girls	School girls in all areas of Ethiopia were being subjected to various types of abuse and violence in their homes, on their way to and from school, and in the schools. High levels of perceived violence prevalence and abuse were found. The traditional types of violence had a severe effect on girls' access to education. The study identified that school environments were not free from violence and abuse and that corporal punishment, which is in fact banned, was still prevalent in schools, as was sexually related violence and harassment.
Ba-Saddik and Hattab, 2012	BL, emotional abuse	Yemen/MENA	QL	Students	8	Estimate the prevalence of emotional abuse among pupils in basic education schools and the risk factors associated with it in Aden governorate, Yemen	Pupils reported high rates of emotional abuse at least once. Male pupils had a higher prevalence of abuse than females, and teachers constituted the highest proportion of perpetrators. Odds ratios showed statistically significant associations between emotional abuse and pupils' gender, family type, and father's education.
Bazan, 2011	All SRGBV	Egypt Paraguay Sweden Zimbabwe	Review	N/A	N/A	Consolidate data from multiple countries' child helplines and highlight the types of violence and abuse the children were reporting	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Beaulieu et al., 2007	BL	Canada France	Q	Students in Grades 7 through 9	6	Present the relationship between bullying at school and depression symptoms among adolescents, and also compare the frequency of victimization and depression between students in France and Quebec	Roughly half of students sampled in France and Quebec reported being bullied, with verbal abuse being more common in both locations. Bullying and verbal threats made up the most prevalent form of school violence and were most strongly linked to depression in students.
Bekele et al., 2011	SV	Ethiopia	MM	Female students in secondary school	6	Examine several risk factors to see which ones increase a woman's vulnerability to sexual violence victimization	Researchers found that 68% of this group had experienced one or more instances of sexual violence victimization. The risk factors found included having high sensitivity to being socially rejected, having multiple sexual partners, watching pornography, and using alcohol or other soft drugs. The study showed that psychological processes could be used, instead of merely physical force, to coerce girls into unwanted sexual acts.
Benbenishty et al., 2002	SH, SV	Israel	Q	Students in Grades 7 through 11	161	Examine the prevalence of emotional, physical, and sexual victimization of children by school staff in Israel	Almost a quarter of children reported experiencing emotional maltreatment by a staff member, almost a fifth reported being a victim of at least one type of physical maltreatment, and 8.2% reported sexually inappropriate behavior by a staff member. Cultural beliefs and low family socioeconomic status were found to increase the vulnerability to staff maltreatment.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Bhana et al., 2009	SV, SH	South Africa	QL	Male teachers	1	Examine the social values of gender-based violence that male teachers hold	The researchers found that male teachers viewed violence against women as a consequence of men not feeling respected and women not upholding traditional gender roles. These gender roles impacted how male teachers treated female learners and how male learners acted in class.
Bhatla, 2012	SV, SH	Thailand	Review	N/A	N/A	Report on the Use of a Gender Equity Movement in Schools program that sought to promote gender equality through self-reflection and critical thinking	__
Bisika et al., 2009	All SRGBV	Malawi	MM	Primary school-aged students; parents; community leaders	N/A	Examine the nature of SRGBV and the factors that serve to perpetuate violence (against girls)	The study found gender violence to be widespread in Malawi and negatively affecting the education of a large proportion of girls of primary school age. Of major significance was the fact that fellow pupils of the victims perpetrated much of the violence experienced by girls and that violence was prevalent within schools. While statistically small compared to the number of incidents involving fellow pupils, the prevalence of teachers assaulting female pupils demonstrated an alarming pervasiveness and acceptance of such abuses.
Bradshaw and Haynes, 2012	Mental health	N/A	Review	N/A	N/A	Summarize themes from multiple articles and examine the idea of building partnerships to support child mental health prevention and services	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Brown and Taylor, 2007	BL	UK	Q	All children born during March 3–9, 1958, surveyed at ages 7, 11, 16, 23, 33, and 42 years	Not a school sample	Explore the impact of school bullying on individuals' human capital accumulation at and beyond age 16 years	Having been bullied at ages 7 and/or 11 years had a negative impact on the number of O Levels accumulated by age 16 years. Being bullied at age 11 years had more impact on negative O-Level results than being bullied at age 7 years. Being a bully had more of an impact on educational attainment than being a victim of bullying. However, being bullied had an impact on market earnings later in life whereas there was no significant economic impact from being a bully.
Burton, 2005	BL, SH, SV	Malawi	Q	Grades 3 through 12 students and teachers	__	Descriptive study about the nature and extent, perpetrators and places of violence; fear of violence and perceptions; establishing a baseline	Malawian children are scared when walking to school, afraid of being attacked or being bullied. Almost all these Malawian children reported being bullied and 25% reported being sexually violated. Most children were aware of child rights and said that they would report violence to their parents or teachers. However, almost one third of students reported that teachers at their school demanded sex from children in return for good grades.
Burton and Leoschut, 2012	All SRGBV	South Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Report on the results of the 2012 National School Violence Study in order to present empirical data about the prevalence of school violence in South Africa	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Carrera-Fernandez et al., 2013	BL	Spain	QL	Students in 7 through 10	44	Examine the inter-relationships among gender stereotypes, attitudes, and acts of bullying	The study found a strong association between sexism and attitudes toward bullying. Benevolent sexism (i.e., positive affective tone and valuing traditional roles of femininity) and, in boys, more positive attitudes toward gay men, predicted more negative attitudes toward bullying. Hostile sexism (i.e., negative affective tone and valuing subordinate women) predicted more favorable attitudes toward bullying. Hostile and benevolent sexism were correlated.
University of the Witwatersrand's School of Law et al., 2014	SV	South Africa	MM	Students; teachers; principals	6	Examine the gaps in accountability for educator abuse of learners	Important gaps in accountability among multiple governing bodies led to educators not being truly sanctioned or removed from a teaching position even after accusations of sexual offenses. The response toward victims in both the legal system and the education system often prevented learners from reporting their cases. There was also a lack of concentrated and coordinated victim support services.
CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008	BULLYING CP, SV	Malawi	QL	Students in Grades 3 through 7; parents; education stakeholders	40	A formative study to guide safe schools intervention and simultaneously collect baseline data	All of the schools in this study had some kind of reporting structure in place in the event of violence against children, but a lack of knowledge about SRGBV still existed in communities. The study concluded that properly addressing SRGBV would require interventions to tackle both the push factors, such as the abusive nature of schools and the exploitative, gendered attitudes of teachers; and the pull factors, such as aspects of home life. This would involve soliciting support and understanding of parents and the wider community.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Chege, 2006	SV	Eastern and southern African nations	Review	N/A	N/A	Provide a summary of accounts about gendered violence experienced in schools, and the role of teachers in perpetrating this violence and thus reinforcing sexism	__
Chen and Astor, 2009	BL	Taiwan	Q	Upper primary, middle, and secondary school	__	Examine the prevalence and relationships among bullying and gender, age, and school level	This study showed a relatively high rate of violence perpetration among Taiwanese students compared to those from other countries, but these findings did not support contemporary and popular theories asserting that certain Asian cultural values such as emphasizing harmony in social relationships may account for a lower prevalence of school violence than rates found in the West. The study indicated that the prevalence of school violence perpetration increased from 4th grade, peaked in 8th grade, and then declined through high school years, which is generally consistent with research conducted in Western countries.
Chen and Wei, 2011	CP	Taiwan	Q	Students in Grades 7 through 9	16	Examine the prevalence of teacher perpetration of violence and the linkage between teacher perpetration and student characteristics	Approximately a quarter of students reported experiencing maltreatment by teachers at least 1 time in the last semester, with physical maltreatment being more prevalent than emotional or sexual victimization. Senior students and males reported higher rates of maltreatment than younger students and females.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Crapanzano et al., 2011	BL	USA	Q	Students in Grades 4 through 7	4	Verify bullying roles (e.g., perpetrator, assistor, defender) described in previous research, through a study of peer ratings	Results did not support the clear utility of distinguishing among those who bully, those who assist the person who bullies, and those who reinforce or encourage the person who bullies. They were highly correlated and each was (similarly) correlated with aggression and associated behaviors (e.g., conduct problems, low pro-social scores). Defenders were more likely to be girls, show lower levels of aggression, show more prosocial behavior, and show more empathy toward others.
CREATE, 2011	All SRGBV	Asia and Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Assess Education for All programs and country achievements, and identify possible actions that could improve the quality and safety of schools across the region	__
Das et al., 2014	SV	India	Q	Boys aged 10–16 years	N/A	Examine gender attitudes of adolescent males regarding violence against women in schools and communities	One out of five boys aged between 10 and 12 years reported high levels of condoning violence against girls. Overall, gender inequitable attitudes were highly correlated with attitudes condoning violence against girls. Three-quarters of the boys in this study reported perpetration of violence at home, community, or school, including sexual violence. Approximately 14% reported sexual violence perpetration.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
de Lange et al., 2012	SH,SV	South Africa	QL	Female teachers in senior secondary school	1	Examine women teachers' perceptions of gender-based violence	This study found that the following two factors lead to gender-based violence and allow it to continue: (1) gender inequality and established gender roles with men being superior to women; (2) women's financial independence, which disrupts traditional roles such that men hold a less powerful position over women. The authors claimed that both contributed to gender-based violence because of men's frustration.
de Lange and Geldenhyus, 2012	SH	South Africa	QL	Students in Grade 9	2	Understand grade 9 learners' perceptions of gender-based violence at school and what solutions they envisage	Participants experienced a range of gender-based violence at school. At the top of the list was male learners touching female learners inappropriately. The participatory approach allowed students to contribute to solutions to gender violence and allowed them to view themselves as agents of change.
Debarbieux, 2006	BL	France	Q	Middle school students	__	Examine incidences of violence in French schools	National data used Signa software, which did not report nearly as many incidents of any type of violence as was discovered through other surveys. Microaggression and repetitive violence were the most common. The authors recommended that policy seek to neither minimize nor exaggerate these acts.
DeJaeghere and Wiger, 2013	BL	Bangladesh	MM	Grades 3 and 4 students and teachers; School Management Committee members; parents	2	Establish baseline data on teacher, parent, community beliefs and attitudes about gender equality, to inform and monitor project	Despite national and international efforts for two decades to support girls' schooling and the achievement of parity, the data from parents, boys, and girls showed that boys in these communities were more supported in their educational endeavors and in the community more broadly. However, school management committee members and teachers tended to express a slightly different perspective.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
DeJaeghere and Lee, 2011	Marginalization	Bangladesh	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine marginalization and empowerment for girls and boys, and use a capabilities approach to understand the reasons behind the gendered inequalities	__
DeJaeghere et al., 2013	Gender justice	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the research on how non-state organizations have addressed gender and education issues, and the various approaches to gender justice used by these organizations	__
DevTech Systems, 2004	SH, SV	Ethiopia	QL	Education and violence protection stakeholders and organizations	Not school based	Assess the status of existing programs, identify gaps and issues, and seek recommendations for Safe Schools Program	The study noted a range of forms of sexual violence occurring in the Ethiopian context. The main themes were psychological abuse and fear of being raped, sexual abuse, and physical abuse. From interviews, there was a gap in how organizations could respond to the violence. The authors recommended implementing community programs focused on prevention, reporting, and response.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
DevTech Systems, 2008	All SRGBV	Ghana Malawi	MM	Upper primary and junior secondary school students and teachers	80	Examine the impact of the Safe Schools Program in reducing SRGBV in Ghana and Malawi and in turn, improve education and health outcomes for schoolchildren	Improvements in: (1) knowledge about how to report, 45%→75%; (2) view of corporal punishment as unacceptable, 76→96% (Malawi); (3) teacher beliefs that sexual harassment could take place in school (Ghana) for girls (30%→80%) and boys (26%→70%); (4) student beliefs that they have the right *not* to be hurt (57%→70%, Ghana); and (5) attitude that it was not acceptable for a teacher to get a girl pregnant even if he married her (70%→90%, Malawi).
Due et al., 2005	BL	28 Countries in Europe, USA, Canada, Israel	MM	Students aged 11, 13, and 15 years	28	Cross-country prevalence and assessment of psychological and physical impacts of bullying	The results showed great variation in bullying prevalence (from 6.3% in Sweden to 41.4% in Lithuania). Consistent, strong graded associations emerged between bullying and 12 physical and psychological symptoms among adolescents across countries. Odds ratios for students reporting being bullied weekly ranged from1.83 to 2.11 for physical symptoms and 1.67 to 7.47 for psychological symptoms.
Dunne, 2008	All SRGBV	Sub-Saharan Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Explore issues that demonstrate the significance of gender and sexuality in relation to social experience; analyze policy, practice, and personal experience	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Dunne et al., 2005	CP, SH	Botswana Ghana	MM	Secondary school students	12	Identify school cultures and practices that create a gendered experience in schools and trace the effects on retention and achievement	Similar gendered experiences were found in all 12 schools. They affected the learning opportunities of girls and encouraged gender segregation and stereotypical gender behavior. Corporal punishment was often used as a method of discipline, especially against boys. Peer bullying, sexual harassment, and aggressive behavior usually involved boys directing it at girls. Teachers tended not to discipline pupils for sexual harassment as it was seen as a normal and natural part of growing up.
Dunne et al., 2006	All SRGBV	Developing world	Review	N/A	N/A	Review implicit and explicit gender violence in the developing world and provide an overview of strategies that have been used to address the issue	__
Eckman et al., 2007	SH	Bosnia; Croatia; Montenegro; Serbia	QL	Young men	N/A	Examine the impact of social constructs and social institutions on young men's ideas of masculinity, and the range of men's attitudes towards women	The young men viewed masculinity as being a protector of family, having a strong opinion and sticking to it, being successful in everything, and always being ready for sex, among other key traits. The workshop identified gossiping and applying makeup as two central female activities. Sexual violence was recognized as occurring but was not necessarily viewed as a positive trait.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Elbla, 2012	CP	Sudan	QL	Grades 7 and 8 students and teachers	2	Define the reasons corporal punishment in used in basic schools, examine the reasons for teacher support of corporal punishment, and assess students' perceptions	Teachers were found to use corporal punishment as a means to immediately control the class. Alternative methods, such as denying recess or assigning classroom chores, were not seen as effective in controlling behavior. Students reported feeling upset, angry, hating of the lesson, and fearing class participation as a result of corporal punishment.
Ennew and Plateau, 2004	CP	Southeast and East Asia and the Pacific Region	Review	N/A	N/A	Encourage research on punishment of children and provide a resource kit and guide for program managers and researchers that could help develop sensitive, ethical research activities	__
Espelage et al., 2012	BULLYING SV, SH	USA	Q	Students in Grades 5 through 8	5	Examine the inter-relationship of bullying experiences and sexual violence perpetration	Bullying perpetration and homophobic teasing were significant predictors of sexual harassment perpetration over time.
Fancy and Fraser, 2014	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	A guidance note on how to include prevention of violence against women and girls in education programming to develop more gender-equitable societies	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Figue, 2012	All SRGBV	Sub-Saharan Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Review several of ActionAid's programs to obtain examples of challenges, strategies, and successes in promoting girls' participation in initiatives to combat violence	__
Gådin, 2012	SH/SV	Sweden	QL	Students in Grades 1 through 6	1	Explore nature of peer harassment and the normalizing processes of SRGBV	Patterns of sexual harassment were found to occur among young school children as well as among older pupils. The study concluded that manifestations of sexual harassment can start and are formed during early years, with a risk that they will continue to develop later on in their lives.
Galand et al., 2004	BL	Belgium	Q	Middle and high school students; teachers	40	Examine prevalence of different types of violence	The most common form of violence found was verbal attacks, but the most serious violent incidents were less frequent and affected fewer people. Students claimed to be the victims of other students in 54%–87% of cases and victims of educators in 2%–18% of cases.
Gates, 2014	Gender equity	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Propose strengthening the development field's focus on women's empowerment and gender inequities and investment in women and girls as drivers of development	__
Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2008	CP	Caribbean	Review	N/A	N/A	Report on the prevalence of corporal punishment in the Caribbean as seen in various studies	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Greene et al., 2009	All SRGBV	Sub-Saharan Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine qualitative data on what girls aged 10–19 years say about their aspirations across different settings and contexts, including opinions about SRGBV, in order to provide a platform for girls' voices and opinions regarding SRGBV, and to produce policy recommendations for stakeholders at all levels	—
Greene et al., 2013	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Provide an overview of SRGBV issues and research, and focus on the implications for girls. Provide a global framework for ways in which governments can respond to SRGBV	—
Gregory, 1995	CP	USA	Q	Students in Kindergarten through Grade 12	43,034	Compare the nature and extent of corporal punishment across race and gender	African-American males were found to be approximately three times as likely to be hit by an adult as a Caucasian boy or African-American girl and 16 times as likely to be hit as a Caucasian girl. Compared to African-American females, Caucasian males, and Caucasian females, African-American males were 2.00, 2.14, and 6.29 times as likely to be suspended, respectively.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Gruber et al., 2008	BULLYING SH	USA	Q	Students in Grades 7 through 12	2	Examine the impacts of bullying, as compared to sexual harassment, on psychological and physical health	Bullying occurred more frequently than sexual harassment for both girls and boys, but not among sexual minorities. Girls were bullied or harassed as frequently as boys, but sexual minorities experienced higher levels of both. Compared to bullying, sexual harassment had adverse effects on more health outcomes. These adverse effects were especially notable among girls and sexual minorities.
Haffeejee, 2006	SH, SV	South Africa	Q	Girls in Grades 8, 10, and 11	9	Examine girls' experience in heterosexual relations and perspectives on gender-based violence; conduct formative analysis for interventions	Sexual harassment and violence in schools appeared to mirror violence in South African society and highlight the prevalence of male hegemony. The authors found that the normalization of violence within relationships highlighted the pervasiveness of violence in South African society and spoke to the lack of alternate models for young women and young men. The girls' grappling for a reason to explain the violence suggested that adolescence would be an opportune time to intervene, before incorrect, blaming attitudes and beliefs are entrenched. No mechanisms were in place to protect or educate girls on gender-based violence.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Hill and Kearl, 2011	SH	USA	Q	Students in Grades 7 through 12	N/A	Examine the prevalence of sexual harassment in the United States, including cyber-harassment	Approximately half of students reported experiencing some form of sexual harassment during the previous school year, with girls more likely to be sexually harassed by boys than girls. Sexual harassment was significantly underreported, with only 12% of girls and 5% of boys having ever reported harassment. Of those sexually harassed, a larger percentage of girls were negatively affected when compared to boys, and girls also felt the negative consequences of the harassment longer than boys. Most students who admitted to sexually harassing other students were victims of sexual harassment as well.
Humphreys, 2008	CP	Botswana	QL	Junior secondary school students and teachers; principals	4	Examine the gendered nature of corporal punishment and the relationship of victimization on gender relations and school success	Corporal punishment was used more frequently in the most rural school. Students viewed corporal punishment as inequitably applied, with boys often receiving harsher punishments and being assumed guilty of misbehavior.
International Center for Research on Women, 2014	SH, SV	Uganda	MM	Girls aged 14–18 years	N/A	Examine the rate of girls dropping out of school and to what extent gendered social norms affect pregnancy and dropout	Nearly a quarter of respondents did not feel physically safe at school. In addition, 8.3% said they had at least one child, and fewer than half said they knew how to avoid a pregnancy. Pregnancy and poverty were the biggest obstacles to school continuation.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Irish Consortium on Gender-Based Violence, 2009	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine issues that development and humanitarian inter-ventions face when supporting education programs; provide background on gender inequalities in schools; suggest what schools and communities can do	__
Irish Consortium on Gender-Based Violence, 2012	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Present the key findings from reports that identify promising practices and policy recommendations in addressing SRGBV, in an attempt to begin a framework of best practice	__
Jewkes et al., 2002	SV	South Africa	Q	Women aged 15–49 years		Cross-sectional study on prevalence of early childhood rape	Of 153 women reporting having been raped before the age of 15 years, school teachers were the perpetrators 33% of the time. Ethnic origin, province, and age cohort were found to be factors associated with rape.
Jones et al., 2008	SV, BL	Latin America; sub-Saharan Africa; Asia	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine and identify policies, programs, and legal instruments that address school violence, and use this research to suggest directions for future policy, practice, and research	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Jyoti and Neetu, 2013	CP	India	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the prevalence of corporal punishment, assess teachers' perceptions of CP, investigate the consequences of CP, and produce recommendations	Negative consequences were seen in students' physical health, mental health, and educational achievement.
Kacker et al., 2007	All SRGBV	India	MM	Children aged 5–18 years; young adults aged 18–24 years; stakeholders	N/A	Develop a comprehensive understanding of child abuse in India, formative in nature, to inform policy; conduct a national study with SRGBV addressed, but not specifically about SRGBV	The study found the 5- to 12-year age group were the most at risk for abuse and exploitation. More than half of children in all 13 sample states were being subjected to one or the other form of physical abuse. A little more than half of children reported having faced one or more forms of sexual abuse, but most children did not report the matter to anyone.
USAID, 2012	All SRGBV	Democratic Republic of Congo	MM	Grades 6 through 12 students and teachers; girls' club facilitators; head teachers; School Management Committee; community members	57	Evaluate the impacts of project based on endline data	Pre- to post changes: 25%→100% schools had focal teachers for response, referral; 16%→89% schools directly addressed SRGBV; 33%→90% students and 56%→95% teachers understood how to avoid and/or prevent SRGBV; 45%→28% students were aware of psychological abuse instances; 37%→19% students were aware of physical abuse incidences; 17%→8% teachers used severe physical punishment.
Keddie, 2009	SH, SV	Australia	QL	Girls in Grade 8; teachers	1	Examine social equity concerns, related to girls' education and marginalization	The girls expressed frustration and distress at the constant sexual harassment experienced and the lack of response from the school. They admitted to liking the attention from boys until the attention crossed a certain line. They all felt the schools and teachers failed to adequately address the sexual harassment.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Kernsmith et al., 2011	SH, SV	U.S.	MM	Students in Grades 9 through 12	1	Examine program impact, applying social–cognitive learning theory; special study of students who showed limited impact	Controlling for attitudes at baseline, the program yielded significant and improved attitudes 3 months later, but no additional change at follow-up (3 months). Social predictors of improvement were sense of belonging to school, identification with peer educator, and program interest.
Kilimci, 2009	CP	Turkey	QL	Primary school principals and teachers	7	Examine teachers' school officials' perceptions of corporal punishment; conduct formative research to explore ways to eliminate it	Corporal punishment was more frequently seen in schools whose student population came from lower socioeconomic households. Family financial problems, lower family education levels, and ethnic differences were reported as the main causes of discipline problems in these schools. Principals reported that the main reason behind violence was too-large class sizes.
Kim, 2006	BL	South Korea	Q	Students in Grades 7 through 8; caregivers	2	Examine the inter-relationships of social–cognitive factors and bullying	Social support was found to be the most effective way to influence students' bullying tendency and victim tendency. Most of all, parental support was the most predictable factor of students' bullying and victim tendencies.
Leach et al., 2000	SV, CP	Zimbabwe	QL	Girls aged 13–15 years	4	Investigate nature and pattern of school-based abuse, examine how schools addressed these issues, and recommend improved strategies	Perpetrators included older male pupils and male teachers. Both used money and gifts to entice girls into sexual relations. Verbal abuse was commonly used to humiliate girls, and corporal punishment, although banned for girls, was used on both girls and boys. Many girls reported having "sugar daddies," perhaps not realizing that accepting small gifts and money would then give these men leverage when demanding sexual acts.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Leach et al., 2003	CP, SH, SV	Ghana Malawi	MM	Students in Grades 5 through 8; teachers; school officials; parents	6	Examine the prevalence and perceptions of SRGBV; inform interventions	As in Zimbabwe, schools in Ghana and Malawi were found to be a breeding ground for potentially damaging gendered practices. Sexual aggression went largely unpunished, dominant male behavior by both pupils and teachers was not questioned, and pupils were strongly encouraged to conform to the gender roles and norms of interaction which they observed around them.
Leach, 2006	All SRGBV	Sub-Saharan Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the methodological and ethical issues surrounding research involving children by using interviews and focus groups, and examine the strengths and weaknesses of these methods for gathering sensitive data about a sometimes taboo subject	__
Leach et al., 2014	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Explain a conceptual framework for SRGBV, summarize research by region, and outline approaches to policy, programming, and implementation; make recommendations for expanding the dialogue and strengthening capacities throughout the education sector	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Leach and Humphreys, 2007	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine key concepts and key issues surrounding gender violence; examine interventions with a variety of targeted audiences (students, teachers, young people, communities, mixed-gender groups)	__
Leach et al., 2013	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Gather data about best practices for implementation and evaluation of effective SRGBV interventions in the education sector; make recommendations for future projects with a dedicated SRGBV component	__
Levtov, 2014	All SRGBV	Thailand	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the possibilities of interventions in the areas of textbooks and curriculum, teacher attitudes, and school violence and discipline that could address gender inequalities and promote change to established social norms	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Mack, 2009	BL, SH, SV	Tanzania	Q	Girls in Grades 9 through 12	__	Examine the impact on victimization of girls traveling long distances to school, especially when accessing public transportation	Girls were indeed found to face distinct challenges, such as mistreatment and gender-based violence at the hands of those in the transportation sector, as well as forced truancy either because of occasional inability to pay transport fees or because of discrimination. The study showed that while girls were determined to go to school and were creative in finding alternative ways to get themselves to and from school, the challenges they faced with transportation did impact their attendance.
Mansour and Karam, 2012	All SRGBV	Lebanon	MM	Middle and secondary school students, teachers, and administrators	104	Comprehensive study of the nature, prevalence, causes of and impact of SRGBV on achievement and educational choices	In Lebanon, most forms of violence were found to be psychological, sexual violence was rarely mentioned, and the rare incidences of sexual violence were against girls and were not reported as there were no mechanisms and reporting would bring shame. Both adults and peers were perpetrators of violence.
Maphosa and Kuttickattu, 2011	CP	South Africa	MM	Middle and high school students	15	Examine the nature of discipline after the banning of corporal punishment in South Africa, and perceived effectiveness	The study found that from the learners' point of view, teachers mostly employed punitive disciplinary measures when dealing with student indiscipline in schools. However, the study also found that teachers still viewed disciplining learners as synonymous to punishing them. The study recommended the establishment of staff development workshops to equip teachers with skills to embrace supportive, proactive, and cooperative disciplinary measures when dealing with learner indiscipline.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Maphosa and Shumba, 2010	CP	South Africa	QL	Teachers	N/A	Examine educators' perceived competencies in employing nonviolent discipline, and perceived usefulness of alternatives	The researchers found that educators generally felt disempowered in their ability to institute discipline in schools in the absence of corporal punishment. The teachers believed that learners did not fear or respect them because they knew that nothing would happen to them. Although educators were aware of alternative disciplinary measures, they viewed them as ineffective and time consuming.
ActionAid International 2012	All SRGBV	Tanzania Nigeria	MM	__	32	Examine changes in girls' schooling and empowerment in relationship to project inputs	Among the impacts of the study were: Increased secondary school enrollments; positive relationship between membership in girls' clubs and (1) empowerment and (2) achievement; increased reporting of gender-based violence; increased retention, achievement, and acceptance into secondary school; increase in schools' actions and responsiveness to reporting.
Mbanzoulou, 2004	BL	France	QL	Students in Grades 6 through 12	__	Examine students' understanding of school violence	Students perceived five levels of insults: banal, insults about the physique of a person, insults of the vulgar type, insults on the origin of a person, and insults about the family. Students generally responded with insults of the same caliber, but more serious insults sometimes were answered with physical violence.
Miller et al., 2014	BL, SH, SV	India	Q	Male athletes in Grades 6 through 8	46	Examine changes in attitudes and behaviors in students participating in treatment schools compared to control schools	Athletes in interventions showed greater improvements in gender-equitable attitudes but did not change in attitudes disapproving of violence. No change in reporting of sexual abuse perpetration.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Mishra et al., 2010	CP	Nepal	Review	N/A	N/A	Review prevalence of corporal punishment in Nepal from various studies and reports; raise awareness among teachers, government, and health professionals about the effects of CP on children	—
Mitchell and Mothobi-Tapela, 2004	SV	Swaziland Zimbabwe	QL	—	—	Confirm findings on SRGBV, gain buy-in from stakeholders, and use data to provide culturally relevant evidence to use in later stages of the project	Based on two case studies, this report proposed programming efforts and other recommendations, such as focusing efforts on encouraging the reporting of sexual violence/abuse to appropriate authorities, changing cultural mindsets about gender violence and gender roles, and creating safe spaces for victims.
Morrow and Singh, 2014	CP	India	MM	Children aged 7–8 years and 14–15 years	N/A	Examine the prevalence of corporal punishment and analyze from the perspectives of both children and parents	Approximately 65% of children surveyed reported being beaten at school, a high degree of corporal punishment. It was not necessarily used as a measure of last resort, and parents said that corporal punishment was for the good of the children.
Mosavel et al., 2011	SH/SV	South Africa	QL	Students in grades 8 through 10	4	Establish prevalence of gender-based violence among youth and its role in health promotion targeting youth	The findings suggested that the risk factors for violence, as well as other social problems, were inextricably linked. However, the findings also pointed to the complex, multi-layered nature of gender violence. Complementing health promotion efforts at the community level with other systemic interventions, such as building social capital and addressing economic inequalities, could provide pathways to address gender violence.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Moyo et al., 2014	CP	South Africa	MM	Principals; life-orientation teachers	34	Determine how consistent the disciplinary practices and the principles of the alternatives to corporal punishment (ATCP) strategy actually were	The study found some noncompliance with the ATCP policy, resulting from educators not being trained in alternative disciplinary possibilities. There was little consistency between disciplinary practices and the ATCP strategy. Educators continued to rely on and support corporal punishment as the preferred way to instill discipline.
Mpiana, 2011	SV	South Africa	QL	Girls in Grades 8 through 12	3	Understand grade 12 learners' perceptions about sexual violence against girls	In this study, school was not a safe place for girls, as responses to sexual violence from the school did not appear to support the girl. Abusive relationships appeared to be the norm, and schools did not document or provide information on sexual violence or violence against women.
MSI, 2008	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the context, evidence, and consequences of SRGBV; examine the legal and cultural barriers to prevention and response; recommend actions for addressing the issue at all levels	__
Msibi, 2012	BL	South Africa	QL	Students in Grades 9 through 12; university students; teachers	__	Interventionist project to examine the educational experience of queer learners and give voice to their experiences	The author found that homosexual learners generally had a negative experience of schooling based on discriminatory language and fear from other students and teachers about spreading homosexuality. The impact of going against gender roles, and a lack of understanding by others, created a negative environment for homosexual youth. Despite these challenges, the learners expressed pride in themselves and their abilities stemming from their self-acceptance.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Muhanguzi, 2011	SH, SV	Uganda	Q	Students in Grades 9 through 10	14	Examine gender and sexuality norms through multi-stakeholder dialogue	The study revealed that through social and discursive practices, students were constructing complex gendered relations of domination and subordination that positioned boys and girls differently, often creating gender inequalities and sexual vulnerability for those gendered as girls. Girls' vulnerability was characterized by confusing and traumatic experiences fraught with double standards and silence. Gender-sensitive sexuality education was identified as a valuable potential site of intervention to address such vulnerabilities and promote gender equality and equity in society.
Munni and Malhi, 2006	BL, SV	India	Q	Students in Grades 9 through 12	10	Examine the prevalence and impact of violence on victims and perpetrators, and on witnesses to this violence	The study revealed that eight out of 10 students had witnessed someone being bullied and 28% had witnessed more serious violence. In addition, 53% had witnessed violent events at school, but only 2% were exposed to violence at home. The prevalence of bullying and other violence affected academic performance and emotional well-being in students.
Muralidharan et al., 2014	Gender/health	Asia	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the prevalence of gender-integrated health programs to learn whether such programs shifted gender norms; better, understand how these programs impacted health outcomes	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Ogunfowokan and Fajemilehin, 2012	SV, SH	Nigeria	Q	Girls in Grades 7 through 12	2	Examine the impact of SRGBV prevention education on knowledge and attitudes	For a sample of girls who participated in a sexual abuse prevention education program, this study showed a sharp increase in the knowledge about sexual abuse of girls but no increase in the attitude toward sexual abuse when compared to the control group.
Parkes, 2008	All SRGBV	South Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Discuss and examine the effects of child participation in qualitative and participatory research methods and implications for child empowerment through research	__
Parkes and Chege, 2010	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the evidence on violence against girls, review recent policy and practice, and use this research to make recommendations for the future	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Parkes and Heslop, 2011	CP, SH, SV	Ghana; Kenya; Mozambique	MM	Students in Grades 3 through 12; teachers; school officials	44	Formative study to inform intervention and to establish baseline data on the extent and nature of SRGBV	This study found that the vast majority of girls experienced multiple forms of violence at home and at school. Poverty intersected with gendered inequalities in creating barriers to schooling for girls, with girls missing out on schooling because of household chores and childcare, farm work, inability to pay school fees, early pregnancy, and marriage. Girls in the three project areas rarely reported violence, for a variety of reasons, including a lack of belief that any action would be taken, or a lack of understanding that certain acts were wrong. This study also found that a lack of clarity and consistency in national laws and policies hampered the ability of district education authorities, schools, and other justice and welfare services to take decisive action.
Parkes et al., 2013	All SRGBV	Ghana; Kenya; Mozambique	Review	N/A	N/A	Develop a conceptual framework emphasizing transformation of gendered power relations and inequities, including identity conflicts and struggles of everyday life; identify the problems that might accompany such a framework	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Pinheiro, 2006	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine violence against children in all contexts, such as schools and educational settings, but also including justice institutions; places of work, community, and home life; and in international law. For each context, provide prevalence, background, contributing factors, consequences, responses, and recommendations	__
Plan Ghana, 2009	SH, SV	Ghana	MM	Students; teachers; parents; education stakeholders	__	Identify types and forms of child sexual abuse, determine causes in schools, examine how sexual abuse is handled, and present suggestions	Approximately 14% of schoolchildren had been sexually abused by classmates, teachers, and/or relatives. Causes were determined to be household poverty, sexual pleasure, lack of parental care, and peer influence. The forms were sexual messages, request for sexual favors, unwelcomed sexual advances or attacks, or being fondled in a sexual way.
Plan, 2006	All SRGBV	Togo	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the prevalence and cultural context of SRGBV in Togo to find methods to address the issue; suggest action items and programmatic recommendations for development organizations	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Plan, 2008	BL, CP, SV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the scale and severity, the causes, and the consequences of corporal punishment, sexual violence, and bullying in schools; suggest programmatic interventions that could help reduce school violence	__
Rahimi and Liston, 2011	SH, SV	USA	QL	Middle and high school teachers	__	Examine teachers' perceptions of sexual harassment on their campuses	Teachers' notions of sexuality were highly related to their ideas about race and class. The teachers discussed behaviors by students but failed to identify them as sexual harassment. Many teachers viewed subcultures as having more relaxed standards of sexuality and failed to intervene on behalf of the girls when teachers saw or heard sexual harassment.
Ricardo et al., 2011	SV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Thoroughly examine interventions that have been used to change boys' and young men's general behavior and attitudes toward sexual violence; look at the extent to which these interventions were adapted to multiple settings, age groups, cultures, and contexts	__
Ringrose and Renold, 2010	BL	U.K.	QL	Students in Grades 4 through 8; parents	2	Examine the basis for bullying (e.g., gendered, classed, sexualized, racialized power relations)	Bullying conversations among adolescents were organized around bully and victim, rigid gender norms, and support for heteronormative power relations, suggesting that bullying was accepted widely as the norm.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Roman and Murillo, 2011	BL	Central and South America	Q/SEC	Students in Grade 6	2,809	Examine the relationship between bullying and academic achievement; examine prevalence and socioeconomic factors associated with bullying	The data indicated the existence of a statistically significant linkage between gender and having been robbed, insulted, threatened, or physically bullied. Based on the analyses of student socio-demographic variables and their relation with physical or verbal aggression, the authors concluded that more boys than girls may suffer all forms of bullying (i.e., physical, psychological, and verbal) in Latin American schools and that it is more widespread in urban than in rural areas.
RTI International, 2013	All SRGBV	Developing world	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the effects of school violence on educational achievement; review the methodology used in various studies, including the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) and TIMSS); and offer recommendations to USAID	__
Saito, 2013	All SRGBV	15 African countries	QL	Students in Grade 6	__	Examine selected pupils' and teachers' behavioral problems as related to the school violence issue, and determine the relationship between the measures of school violence and pupils' absence and learning achievements	Countries within the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) noted serious problems regarding sexual harassment between pupils, bullying between pupils, fighting between pupils, classroom disturbance by pupils, and pupils' use of abusive language. These incidents not only were very common, but also seemed to be increasing over time.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Schulz, 2011	Methodology	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Review the research methodologies best used when children and youth are invited to be a part of the research (i.e., as a means toward including children's voice and opinions)	Qualitative, participatory approaches generally were found to be the most successful.
Sharma, 2003	SV, SH	India	Review	N/A	N/A	Present the incidences and causes of rape and gang rape in India, and argue for increased gender equity in the educational system in order to acknowledge and address sexual harassment and sexual violence	__
Silbert, 2013	CP	South Africa	QL	Grade 12 students and teachers; principals	2	Describe the students' views and experiences of corporal punishment	The author argued that young people who have been subjugated through unequal power relationships will have limited capacity to resist domination. In the post-apartheid South African context, where many types of violence have become normalized, it was found to be particularly difficult for young people to express their agency and speak out against corporal punishment. Students were even less inclined to resist if physical disciplining was perceived culturally as generating success or benefiting them.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Simatwa, 2012	CP	South Africa	MM	Head teachers; deputy head teachers; prefects	125	Describe the infractions and disciplinary measures used in Bungoma Country schools, Kenya	This study revealed many infractions in secondary schools, and head teachers used a wide range of methods to manage student discipline. The study concluded that methods of establishing and maintaining student discipline in schools could not be applied wholesale, but they were contingent upon the environment. Thus, the effectiveness of each method depended on the traditions and ethos of schools and their environments.
South African Council of Educators, 2013	All SRGBV	South Africa	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the context of SRGBV in South Africa; examine the individual, relational, community, and social causes of violence; and assess the impact on teachers as well as students	__
Stelko-Pereira et al., 2013	BL	Brazil	Q	Students in Grades 5 through 9; teachers; school officials	3	Comparative study of prevalence of victimization and perpetration across three different neighborhoods and their schools	Students' survey answers indicated that student victimization and perpetration were not different in School A (located in the poorest neighborhood with the highest homicide level) compared to School C (located in the wealthiest neighborhood with the lowest homicide level). However, school employees' answers showed that School A had more student victimization than School C.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Taylor et al., 2010	BL, SH, SV	U.S.	Q	Students in Grades 6 through 7	7	Address gaps in current research, including the need to focus on younger populations, the use of more rigorous evaluation approaches, and the importance of understanding which types of SRGBV prevention programs are most effective	Students in the law and justice curricula, compared to the control group, had significantly improved outcomes in awareness of their abusive behaviors, attitudes toward SV/SH and personal space, and knowledge. Students in the interaction curricula experienced lower rates of victimization, increased awareness of abusive behaviors, and improved attitudes toward personal space. Neither curriculum affected perpetration or victimization of sexual harassment.
United Nations Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence Against Children, 2012	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine key areas where changes must be made in order to give children an education that allows them to develop to their fullest potential; present examples of successful initiatives	__
United Nations Statistical Commission, 2013	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Summarize and report on programs and activities the UN Statistics Division has undertaken, which includes reporting statistics on gender and gender violence, and the development of guidelines and manuals in order to create suggested gender indicators	__

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
UNESCO, 2012	All SRGBV	Global	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the various forms of violence as seen in schools; make practical suggestions for teachers on how to prevent violence in the classroom; suggest in-class activities that can be adapted for use	__
UNESCO, 2014	All SRGBV	Asia-Pacific region	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the causes, scale, and consequences of SRGBV; review policy and programming responses that seek to address it; broaden the analytical research by including research about children and violence	__
UNICEF, 2014	Violence against children	East Asia; Pacific Region	Review	N/A	N/A	Examine the evidence on prevalence and consequences of violence against children; highlight the methodological challenges	The study concluded that violence against children was occurring throughout the region, and was contributing negatively to children's health and well-being.

Author, Year	Behavior Studied	Country	Method	Sample	Schools	Purpose	Findings
Unterhalter and Heslop, 2011	SRGBV	Nigeria Tanzania	MM	Girls in Grades 7 and 9	__	Analyze views on obstacles to girls' education and how to overcome them; assess forms of mobilization that have taken place to support girls' access to and progression through school; identify key gender aspects of school processes	Girls' capacity to voice concerns about education was most evident in schools that had the smallest gender gaps in enrollment, attendance, progression, and completion. Better-trained teachers were associated with girls speaking out more about obstacles to completing their education and about possible solutions. Girls experienced multiple forms of violence, including corporal and other humiliating punishments at school, sexual harassment, and coerced sex. In both contexts, many head teachers and other officials denied that violence was taking place in schools.
Women and Law in Southern Africa et al., 2012	SV	Zambia	QL	Grades 7 through 12 students and teachers; school administrators	4	Illustrate SRGBV from an international human rights perspective	This study revealed that 54% of students interviewed said that they had personally experienced sexual violence or harassment by a teacher, student, or men they encountered while traveling to and from school, and 84% of students reported that they had personally experienced such abuse or knew of classmates who had experienced it.
Ybarra et al., 2012	SRSV	Uganda	QL	Secondary school students	5	Address the lack of knowledge around male victims and female perpetrators	Females were more likely to report involvement in coercive sex compared to males. Of those involved, females were most likely to report being a victim-only (40%) and males, perpetrator-victims (32%). Although involvement in violent and coercive sex was gendered, 47% of males reported victim experiences and 25% of females reported perpetration behavior.

Appendix 2. Quantitative Studies Table

Summary of Reviewed Quantitative Studies

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Abramovay and Rua, 2005	School violence in general	Brazil	Examine the perceptions, nature, extent, causes, and impact of violence in schools; inform prevention initiatives	Students in Grades 5 through 12; teachers; parents Qualitative: teachers + school officials and police	340 schools	Multistage stratified random sampling (schools, classes)	Both paper and pencil question-naires and qualitative methods were used to examine the nature and impact of violence	α = .95 for student surveys, not parents	Rigorous development with field testing and formal piloting was conducted; extensive use of qualitative methods to enhance and cross-validate findings	Descriptive statistics; rigorous analysis of qualitative data, transcribed and quantified
Agbenyega, 2006	Corporal punishment		Compare corporal punishment use according to inclusive and non-inclusive schools	122 Grades 7 through 10 teachers, with students as cross-validation	10	Random sampling of teachers; heads selected 1 student	Quantitative questions on use of corporal punishment cross-checked with student reports and augmented with qualitative inquiry	Not reported	Not reported	Descriptive statistics
Akiba et al., 2002	School violence in general	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)	Examine extent and school violence in 37 countries and relationship between school violence and (1) national patterns of violence, (2) school systems	Representative sample of schools and Grades 10 through 11 students	No report	Two-stage stratified random sampling: (1) national school sample; (2) two math classes per school	(1) 1994 TIMSS: Students—Threatened and known victimization of friend in last month; Teachers—Impediments to teaching due to disruption and threat to safety of teacher; (2) augmented by national statistics	Not reported	Strong validity based on extensive test development of the TIMSS	Prevalence rates; correlational and stepwise multiple regression
Alam et al., 2010	Sexual harassment	Bangladesh	Examine extent and nature of sexually harassing behavior experiences on the way to school, social visits, and types of perpetrators	5,106 unmarried girls aged13–19 years	Not applicable	Multistage random sampling: clusters (subdistricts) and households; national representation	Asked if someone: stared, whistled, passed sexual comments, enticed, threatened to kidnap; sexual proposals	Not reported	Girls were interviewed in homes; though in a private space, household survey may introduce risk and underreporting	Descriptive data analysis disaggregated by age, education and household quintile; logistic regression adjusted for dependency within clusters

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Ba-Saddick and Hattab, 2012	Mental abuse by school staff	Yemen and Middle East/North Africa (MENA)	Examine the prevalence of emotional abuse in basic education and the associated risk factors	Students in Grades 7 through 9 (1,066: 667 males, 399 females; representative of student population)	8	Multistage random sampling: districts, 2 schools each district, 1,066 pupils	Adapted from ISPCAN ICAST-Child Institution Version covering 10 acts of emotional abuse by school personnel	$\alpha = .78$	Strong field testing and formal pilot; responses to "Have you ever been exposed … in school" potentially introduce recollection bias	Nonparametric descriptive statistics; logistic regression
Bekele et al., 2011	Sexual violence	Ethiopia	Examine risk factors for sexual violence victimization	Girls in Grades 9 through 12 (764, aged 14–24 years) in Eastern Ethiopia	6	Multistage sampling of schools, classrooms, students	Sexual violence victimization (SVV) scale: socioeconomic status (SES) proxy; sexual activity; sexual violence attitude; self-esteem; rejection sensitivity; sexual assertiveness; risky behaviors; influenced; fearful attachment	SAS: $\alpha = .67$ SVV: $\alpha = .83$	Translation rigor, field testing with students to get their feedback, sex of interviewer not mentioned, school-based data collection	Multiple regression with overall victimization regressed on all predicators first, and for three victimization subscales
Benbenishty et al., 2002	All aspects of SRGBV (by staff)	Israel	Examine the prevalence of emotional, physical, and sexual victimization of children by school staff	Students in Grades 4 through 11 (10,410)	161	Two-stage cluster sampling with schools stratified by: ethnicity, type of school, grade	(1) Victimization—adapted from California School Climate Survey; (2) emotional; (3) physical; (4) sexual scales; (5) demographics from national statistics	Not reported	Extensive pilot testing of instrument	Prevalence rates by gender, age group, and cultural group; separate multiple regression analyses: Maltreatment outcomes regressed on gender, grade and cultural group
Bisika et al., 2009	All aspects of SRGBV	Malawi	Examine the nature of SRGBV and the factors that serve to perpetuate violence (against girls)	Primary school students, parents, and community leaders in 1,496 households	Not applicable (rather, 1,496 households)	Random selection of districts and subdistricts	Not reported, but the article reported on types of victimization; frequency of victimization, location of victimization, and the role of the perpetrator (e.g., boy in school, teacher, relative); reporting; and actions taken	Not reported	Not reported	Mixed methods: prevalence rates reported and interpreted using qualitative data

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Brown and Taylor, 2008	Bullying	United Kingdom (UK)	Examine effects of bullying at school on education attainment and post-school livelihoods	8,477 students (aged 7 and 11 years) having experienced and/or perpetrated bullying (according to mothers' reports)	Not applicable	No report	British National Child Development Study	No report	Using mothers to identify subjects (victims and/or perpetrators) may exclude children because of parent's perceived risk of disclosure/protection of child	Multiple regression model
Burton, 2005	School violence in general	South Africa	Examine the nature and extent of violence in South African schools and relationship with violence in homes and communities	12,794 students, 264 principals, and 521 educators	245 schools	Multistage stratified random sample	Individual one-on-one survey: experience, perception, description of violence in schools; principals' and educators' perceptions; discipline; experience of fear; reporting of violence; availability of drugs, alcohol, and weapons at school	Not reported	Extensive, rigorous survey development involving qualitative inquiry, expert and respondent participation, field testing and piloting; extensive assessor training leading to strong internal validity	Descriptive analyses of violence occurring in schools, disaggregated by experience of home and community violence
Burton and Mutongwizo, 2009	Cyber-bullying	South Africa	Pilot study to test the extent and need for a more comprehensive national study	Sample of urban-residing children and youth aged 12 and 24 years (N=1,726)	Not applicable	Convenience sampling	Use of electronic media among young South Africans; experiences of cyberbullying; mediums for cyberbullying	No report	No report	Descriptive
Burton, 2005	Sexual violence and corporal punishment	Malawi	Descriptive baseline study about the nature and extent; perpetrators and places of violence; fear of violence; and perceptions	Students in Grades 3 through 12 (N=4,412); teachers	No report	Stratified random sampling	Three scales: (1) Perceptions of safety, fear and life skills, knowledge or reporting; (2) experience of violence, sexual and nonsexual, bullying; (3) perpetrator and location of violence	Not reported	Differential methods for age groups, yet understanding of "violence" not clear, weakens; excluded children not in school, constraining generalization	Descriptive
Chen and Astor, 2009	School violence in general	Taiwan	Examine students' perpetration of violence; reasons for this; and relation to gender, age, grade level in a cross-sectional study	Nationally representative sample of students in Grades 4 through 12 in Taiwan (N=14,022)	No report	Cluster sampling stratified by region, school type, and location	Self-report, written questionnaire on violence perpetration toward peers and teachers	Violence survey α = .80	Sexual harassment and relational aggression not included, limiting scope; cross-sectional design precludes findings on developmental progression	Descriptive, disaggregated by gender, age, grade

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Chen and Wei, 2011	Corporal punishment	Taiwan	Examine preva-lence of teacher perpetration of violence and relationships between teacher perpetration and student characteristics	Students in Grades 7 through 9 (*N*=1,376) in Taiwan	16	Multistage cluster sampling	Data taken from Taichung City Youth Life Conditions Survey Maltreatment by Teachers adapted from California School Climate and Safety Survey; SES; Relation to Teacher; Involvement with "at-risk" peers	Maltreatment survey α = .83; SES α = .70; Student–teacher relationship α = .92; Involvement with at-risk peers α = .77	Junior high only, one large city (Taichung), limits generalization; student self-report on SES may not be valid; social desirability may bias student self-reports; no verification protocol	Descriptive statistics and stepwise multiple regression
Crapanzano et al., 2011	Bullying	United States	Verification of bullying roles (e.g., perpetrator, assistor, defender) described in previous research through a study of peer ratings	Students in Grades 4 through 7 (*N*=185)	4	Census with active parent consent	Adaptations of (1) Participant Role Scale (Sutton and Smith, 1999); (2) Peer Conflict Scale (Marsee and Frick, 2007); (3) Youth Symptom Inventory-4 (Gadow and Sprafkin, 2000); (4) Children's Social Behavior Scale (Crick, 1996); (5) Anti-Social Process Screening Device (Frick and Hare, 2001); (6) Attitudes and Beliefs Toward Aggression (Vernberg et al., 1999)	α >.84 for various scales, exception for Aggression Scale, subtests ranging from α =.59 to α =.78	Selection bias due to failure to obtain consent forms from 30% of the sampled students; attrition of students over time	A series of factor analyses preceded correlational and multiple regression to predict stability of predicted bullying roles over time

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Das et al., 2012	Sexual violence	India	Examine relationships among males' attitudes on gender, violence against women; exposure to violence; violence perpetration	1,040 boys (cricket players) aged 10–16 years	Not applicable	Convenience sample of boy athletes	Response to 31-item Likert-like scale, modified from Gender Equitable Men (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2007)	Range for various scales from α = .70–0.83	Not generalizable to non-athletes nor other parts of India; as a self-report, ambiguity of questions and desirability could weaken validity	Descriptive data analysis; logistic regression adjusted for demographics and for perpetrator/ victimization affects
Due et al., 2005	Bullying	28 countries in Europe and North America	Cross-country prevalence and assessment of psychological, physical impacts of bullying	123,227 children aged 11, 13, and 15 years	No report	Stratified cluster sampling	Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC)	No report	No report	Multilevel logistic regression adjusted for age, family affluence, country
Espelage et al., 2011	Bullying and sexual violence	United States	Examine inter-relationship of bullying experiences and sexual violence perpetration	Students in Grades 5 through 8 (N=1,391 students: 698 boys and 693 girls)	5	Passive consent procedures for all students attending the five schools	Adaptations of the following scales: (1) violence perpetration from American Association of University Women (AAUW) sexual harassment survey; (2) homophobic teasing from the Homophobic Content Agent Target scale; and (3) bullying perpetration from Illinois Bully Scale	AAUW scales: α = .78 Homophobic teasing: α=.80 Bullying perpetration: α=.86	Limited sample limits generalization; adaptations of strong, well-established instruments strengthens content validity	Multivariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), regression
Gregory, 1995	Corporal punishment	United States	Compare the nature and extent of corporal punishment across race and gender	Students in Kindergarten through Grade 12	43,034 schools, larger school districts	No report	The 1992 U.S. Office for Civil Rights Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report Form	No report	Sampling bias in favor of large school districts, under-sampling of rural populations where corporal punishment is much more extensively practiced (Hyman, 1990b)	Descriptive comparisons of victimization by: African American boys, African American girls, Caucasian boys, Caucasian girls

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Gruber and Fineran, 2008	Bullying and sexual harassment	United States	Examine the relative impacts of bullying and sexual harassment on psychological and physical health	512 students in Grades 7 through 12 154 female students and 142 male students from Grades 7 through 9 70 female students and 156 male students from Grades 10 through 12	2	Census with active parent consent	Bullying and Sexual Harassment Scales adapted from Espelage and Holt (2001) and the AAUW survey (2001); health outcomes included self-esteem, mental and physical health items adapted from Bowen and Richman (1995)	Scales adapted for this study yielded reliability coefficients in the following range: α =.81 to .92	Limited diversity of students, one district limits generalizability; students with only a few experiences were not entered into analysis as "bullied" or "harassed," thus potentially underestimating impact, omitting impact of excluded cases	Regression and group comparisons
Hill and Kearl, 2011	Sexual harassment	United States	Examine the prevalence of sexual harassment in the US, including cyber-harassment	Nationally representative; students in Grades 7 through 12 (*N*=1,965 students: 1,002 girls and 963 boys)	Not applicable	Stratified random sampling	AAUW sexual harassment survey, 2011	Not reported	Not reported	Compared girls and boys on victimization, perpetration, and witnessing of harassment; impact of experiences using descriptive statistics
Jewkes et al., 2002	Sexual violence	South Africa	Assess prevalence of rape in national sample of girls and women aged 15–49 years	11,735 women aged 15–49 years	Not applicable	Multistage random sampling, stratified by province and urban and rural	Questionnaires covered the following: experi-ence of rape, role of perpetrator, educational status, location of residence, age, ethnicity, and various demographics	No report	No report	Multiple logistics regression
Kacker et al., 2007	Child abuse and violence in general, including in SRGBV	India	Develop a comprehensive understanding of child abuse in India, formative in nature, to inform policy; national study with SRGBV addressed—but not specifically about SRGBV	Children in and out of school aged 5–18 years (*N*=13,000); young adults aged 18–24 years (*N*=2,600); and stakeholders (*N*=2,600)	Not applicable (household survey)	Multistage purposive sampling	Subscales focused on acts and perceptions related to: - Physical abuse - Emotional abuse - Substance abuse - Sexual abuse - Neglect 135 variables in total	Not reported	Uniform standard of data collection and cumbersome nature of data collection challenged quality assurance over the 1.5 years of the study; full sample of subpopulations could not always be identified by data collectors (e.g., street children, institutional care), which introduces sampling bias	General frequency and modified frequency tables and cross-tabulations

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Kim, 2014	Bullying	South Korea	Examine the interrelationships of social–cognitive factors and bullying	Students in Grades 7 through 8 (257 boys, 148 girls) and caregivers (306)	2	Census with consent	Written surveys assessing students' views and experiences of bullying, attitudes, and reactions to a number of social-cognitive variables surveyed, including: tendencies toward perpetration and victimization, self-esteem, and perceived social supports	Reliability estimates of subscales ranged from α =.61 for "Physical Appearance" Scale to α =.83 for "Perceived Supports"	Limited generalizability	Group comparisons using cross-tabulations and ANOVA and multiple regression
Leach, 2005	All aspects of SRGBV	Botswana Ghana	Identify in-school cultures and practices that made life in these schools a gendered experience; trace the effect that these gendered experiences had on the retention of girls and boys at the junior secondary level and their relative achievement	12 (6 in each country): urban and rural; high achieving through low achieving)	12 total (6 in Ghana and 6 in Botswana)	Purposive: Three relatively high achieving schools and three relatively low achieving, one of each within the three locations: urban, peri-urban, and rural	Varied across country and site. Demographics, school performance, attendance, behavior, transportation, family structure and educational background, daily chores, attitudes toward school, attitudes toward gender in school, challenges in school, relations between boys and girls	Not reported	The initial workshop brought the lead researchers from both countries together with the UK team to develop preliminary research instruments. After local piloting, these were further refined in the first in-country workshop, through the collaboration of each country team with a member of the UK team	Ethnographic with school statistics as measures of education outcomes
Mack, 2009	Sexual violence and sexual harassment	Tanzania	Examine the impact on victimization of girls traveling long distances to school, especially when accessing public transportation, in Temeke and Kinondoni Districts of the Dar es Salaam region	Girls in Grades 9 through 12 (N=659)	Not reported	Not reported	The survey focused on four themes, with several questions asked per theme: 1. Factors affecting girls' ability to regularly attend school 2. Distance as a barrier to regular school attendance 3. Harassment and gender-based violence in the transportation sector 4. Girls'	Not reported	No pilot studies or other methods of data collection appear to have been completed, making the reliability of these data difficult to determine	Descriptive statistics

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
							determination to get an education			
Mansour and Karam, 2012	All SRGBV	Lebanon	Comprehensive study of the nature, prevalence, causes of, and impact of SRGBV on achievement and educational choices in Lebanon	3,000 students aged 5–12 years plus teachers (42), parents (18), principals (6), and health workers (5)	104 schools (58 public, 46 private)	Multi-staged clustered random sampling of schools and one class per school; subset of 10 schools selected for focus group discussion (FGD) and FGD participants selected randomly from volunteers	Adopted or adapted items from the following: (1) ISPCAN ICAST-Child, Ch. Instit.; (2) School Child Abuse in Lebanon; (3) School Climate Survey–Ontario; (4) Attitude Toward Women Scale (AWS). The following three scales were established: (1) School Safety; (2) Physical Harm; (3) Psychological or Moral Harm	School safety: α = .93 Physical harm: α =.69 Psychological. moral harm: α =.93	Best practice in translations (from English to Arabic and French) plus extensive field testing and piloting and rigorous scale analysis strengthened content validity. Some selection bias from systematic opt-out choices: private > public; male > female; parents in general reluctant	Descriptive statistics with group comparisons by gender using cross-tabulations and chi-square analysis
Maphosa and Kuttickattu, 2011	Corporal punishment	South Africa	Examine the nature of discipline after the banning of corporal punishment in South Africa, and perceived effectiveness of alternate forms of discipline	280 students aged 12–20 years selected from Grades 1 through 12	15: All schools in a circuit	Stratified random sampling for student selection (all schools in circuit)	Data were collected from selected students thorough a semi-structured questionnaire and interviews	Survey instrument: α = .70	Limited expert review of questionnaire; the mixed model approach allows for qualitative data to cross-check quantitative and deepen interpretation	Descriptive statistics

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Miller et al., 2013	Sexual violence	India	Evaluate the impact of a "positive bystander intervention" to reduce SRGBV in Mumbai, India	Boys aged 10 to 16 years (cricket players). *N*=633 at baseline and 309 at follow up	27 treatment and 19 control middle schools	60 coaches active in the Sports Association were invited to participate out of 115 schools. 12 coaches opted out due to time constraints. All athletes with signed consent participated	Scales included: (1) Attitudes disapproving of violence against females; (2) gender-equitable attitudes adapted from Gender Equitable Norms Scale; (3) intentions to intervene; (4) positive and negative bystander intervention; (5) sexual violence perpetration; (6) overall abuse perpetration	Scale reliability ranged from α =.70 to .86	Primarily limited in generalizability; as a self-report survey there is also the question of how the survey items were interpreted and variable interpretations or personal differences in defining violence can weaken internal validity. If attrition was systematic, this could challenge the fidelity of results	Linear mixed-effects regression with mean change scores as the dependent variable. Fixed effects include treatment versus control group.
Munni and Malhi, 2006	Bullying and other acts of non-sexual violence	India	Examine the extent and nature of physical and psychological nonsexual violence as witnessed, perpetrated, and victimized	1,500 Students in Grades 8 through 12 (789 boys, 711 girls aged 12–20 years)	10 high schools	No report	Focus of survey was threefold: Exposure to violence; perpetration of violence; nature of violence. Also adopted Pre-Adolescent Adjustment Scale (PAAS) to look at psychosocial adjustment	No report	Report lacked information on survey development, sampling. Difficult to evaluate	Group comparisons using cross-tabulations and logistic regression
Ogunfowokan and Fajemilehin, 2012	Sexual violence	Nigeria	Evaluate the impact of intervention on girls' knowledge and attitudes about sexual abuse in Nigeria	200 Girls in Grades 7 through 12. The sample comprised 200 high school girls (aged 13–24 years)	2	Simple random sampling	Two instruments measured knowledge and attitudes (respectively) about sexual harassment, sexual exploitation, and rape	α =.51 for knowledge and α = .71 for attitude	Face and content validity supported by expert panel involvement in instrument development; weak reliability of knowledge scale is a limitation	Descriptive and comparative (pre- and post-intervention) analyses using ANOVA

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Parkes and Heslop, 2011	All SRGBV	Ghana Kenya Mozambique	Comprehensive baseline study preceding a longitudinal intervention addressing all aspects of SRGBV, dually serving to inform the design of the intervention	1,082 girls aged 8–17 years (24/school); 519 boys (12/school); 238 teachers (5/school); 220 parents (5/school); and other stakeholders	44 total (16 Kenya; 15 Mozambique; 13 Ghana)	Simple random sampling for survey using class rosters of students aged 8 to 17 years	A variety of questionnaires and qualitative instruments were augmented by school records and FGD guidelines	Internal consistency reliability not assessed; extensive assessor/ facilitator training and triangulation of methods strengthen reliability	Content validity through extensive consultation on instruments and piloting and linked quantitative and qualitative methods; underreporting due to the nature of the study and translations also pose potential threats to internal validity	Primarily descriptive quantitative analysis and comprehensive rigorous analysis of qualitative data
Roman and Murillo, 2011	Bullying	16 countries in Central and South America	Examine extent, nature, and correlates of bullying (achievement, psychosocial) in 16 countries in Central and South America	86,372 Students in Grade 6 in 3,683 classrooms	2,809	Random sample of schools, stratified by type, location, school size, and retention groupings	The following three different scales: (1) bullying knowledge and experience; (2) socio-demographic variables; and (3) achievement (based on existing standardized test data)	Not reported	Not reported	Descriptive for prevalence; multilevel modeling for measuring relation between bullying and achievement (cross-national: student, classroom, school, country levels)
Saito, 2013	School violence	15 countries of the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ)	Examine (1) longitudinal trends in violence (2000-2007); (2) school qualities and violence; (3) relationship between attendance and achievement by gender and level of violence (high, low)	Students in Grade 6 in 15 countries: 41,000 (2000) and 61,000 (2007)	Not reported	Multistage sample with probability proportional to size of schools	Head Teacher questionnaire with multiple-choice questions on frequency of 8 violent behaviors: choices were never, sometimes, often	Not reported	Perceptions of school heads not a true proxy of acts of violence and cannot be differentiated by gender	Parametric and nonparametric descriptive and comparative

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Sampling Strategy	Instruments	Reliability	Validity/Efforts to Strengthen	Data Analysis
Simatwa, 2012	Corporal punishment	Kenya	Describe the infractions and disciplinary measures used in Bungoma County schools, Kenya	40/125 heads; 40/125 deputies; and 200/2075 student prefects (managing a total of 20,107 students)	125 schools	Two sampling methods were used: stratified random sampling and purposive sampling	(1) Measures of student Infractions from neglecting schoolwork, making noise, vandalism, use of drugs, sexual harassment, theft, and others (2) Disciplinary measures, from detention and referral to guidance counselor, to corporal punishment and expulsion	Not reported	No report	Descriptive statistics
Stelko-Pereira and de Albuquerque Williams, 2013	Violence in general	Brazil	Compare public schools in contrasting neighborhoods in Brazil on extent of student victimization and perpetration of aggressive behaviors	668 Students in Grades 5 through 9; 80 school staff (also analysis of police records)	3	Random selection of one school in each neighborhood; census with consent selection of students	The following three scales: (1) physical violence; (2) perceptions of safety; and (3) student risk behavior	α >.75 for each scale	Government data to select neighborhoods not verified; may present some problems in original hypotheses	Parametric and nonparametric group comparisons to compare schools
Taylor et al., 2010	Sexual violence and sexual harassment	United States	Evaluate differential effects of two school-based gender violence and harassment prevention programs	1,639 Students in Grades 6 through 7 (831 girls and 761 boys aged 11–13 years)	7 schools	Stratified random sampling; active parent consent	Outcome variables included the following: (1) sexual and nonsexual violence victimization and perpetration; (2) attitudes toward gender violence/sexual harassment and attribution; (3) disposition about own and others' personal space; (4) knowledge related to gender violence/sexual harassment prevention; and (5) type of intervention	No report	Rigorous randomized controlled trial, typically considered the best method for eliminating threats to internal validity	Hierarchical linear modeling

Appendix 3. Evaluation Studies Table

Author, Year	Project Evaluated	Type/ Country	Summary of Interventions	Findings	Evaluation Design	Sample	Indicators	Analysis
Achyut et al., 2011	Gender Equity Movement in Schools (GEMS)	All school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) India	Conduct group education activities about gender, the body, and violence; plus lead a weeklong school campaign	Improved attitudes and behaviors among full-treatment participants compared to controls; lesser gains in Campaign-Only group. Attitude shifts greatest in gender roles, gender discrimination, and reaction/response to violence; sustained improvements observed beyond year 1	Quasi-experimental, with repeated measures	45 schools (30 treatment, 15 controls), students in Grades 6 through 7: 1,100 girls and 235 boys	Gender equality score (items therein); changes in behavior; response to violence	Differences-in-differences approach; logistic regression controlling for age, sex, gender equity score at baseline; mother working as proxy socioeconomic status
ActionAid International, 2012	Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT)	All SRGBV Tanzania	Address barriers to participation and reduce girls' vulnerability to violence through girls' clubs, teacher training, school policy, capacity building	Increased secondary school enrollments; positive relationship between membership in girls' clubs and (1) empowerment and (2) achievement; increased reporting of gender-based violence; increased retention, achievement, and acceptance into secondary school; increase in schools' actions and responsiveness to reporting	Descriptive comparisons from baseline to endline	30 schools; 300 girls (10/school); 150 teachers; girls' club members or non-members; community members	Strength of intervention; retention, achievement; schools active in supporting girls' education; girls' empowerment; teacher engagement	Descriptive statistics on six indices observed at baseline and endline
ActionAid International, 2013	Stop Violence Against Girls in School	All SRGBV Ghana, Mozambique, Kenya	Examine impact of intervention on measures of gender parity, attitudes toward violence, patterns of violence, policy environment, and child protection	Positive change in knowledge and attitudes on gender, rights, and violence; increase in willingness to report and speak out about violence against girls, with girls' clubs making a difference; some positive shifts in gender norms in homes; mothers began to speak out against violence; increased girls' enrollment; increased attention to child protection by governments	Quantitative analyses looking at change over time; qualitative inquiry	Schools: 13–15/country; 24 girls, 12 boys per school, aged 10–17 years; parents, staff, officials	Violence victimization Knowledge: laws, reporting, support organizations Empowerment: Challenges to violence and gender equity	Descriptive statistics comparing change from baseline to endline; some group comparisons at endline (girls' club member or not); qualitative data analysis to track changes over time

Author, Year	Project Evaluated	Type/ Country	Summary of Interventions	Findings	Evaluation Design	Sample	Indicators	Analysis
Devries et al., 2013	Raising Voices "Good School Toolkit"	All SRGBV, but focus on corporal punishment Uganda	Examine impact on violence against children by school staff, as well as emotional and education correlates	Endline study report not disseminated	Cluster-based randomized controlled trial	42 (21 treatment, 21 control); 60 students/school, in Grades 5, 6, 7 (aged 10–14 years); all school staff	Reported physi-cal violence by staff member in week preceding; mental wellness; well-being (safety) at school; school performance	Cross-sectional analysis of group comparisons at endline; change from baseline compared across treatment and control
CERT and DevTech Systems, 2008	USAID Safe Schools Program	All SRGBV Malawi	Address root causes of SRGBV at all levels through partnerships stressing child-ren's rights, structured train-ing, national advocacy, school policy, local role models	Improvements in: knowledge about how to report, attitudes about corporal punishment (Malawi); teacher beliefs that sexual harassment could take place in school (Ghana); student beliefs that they have the right *not* to be hurt (Ghana); attitude that it was not acceptable for a teacher to get a girl pregnant, even if he married her (Malawi)	Quasi-experimental design	80 schools (30 treatment, 10 controls) in Grades 4 through 9; 800 students; 375 teachers in Malawi, 250 teachers in Ghana	Changes in: Beliefs about equal opportunities for girls and boys; attitudes about children's rights; willingness to say "no"; beliefs in reality of violence at schools	Descriptive comparisons from baseline to endline within project schools; control schools eliminated due to contamination via teacher transfers
USAID, 2012	Combating SRGBV in DRC (USAID–funded C-CHANGE Project Implemented by Initiatives pour le Development Integral	All SRGBV Democratic Republic of the Congo	Use USAID Safe Schools guide for training; multi-media campaign; codes of conduct; teacher training; focal teachers for response, referral	All schools established focal teachers to provide response to survivors and referral from 25%-100%. Increases in schools addressing SRGBV; number of students, teachers who understood how to avoid/prevent SRGBV. Reduction in reported instances of psychological and physical abuse and teachers' use of severe physical punishment	Descriptive comparisons from baseline to endline	21/31 treatment schools, 5 controls, students in Grades 6 through 12; teachers, principals, parents, community	Number of schools with focal person to address SRGBV; number of students, teachers who understand how to prevent/avoid SRGBV	Descriptive

Author, Year	Project Evaluated	Type/ Country	Summary of Interventions	Findings	Evaluation Design	Sample	Indicators	Analysis
Kernsmith et al., 2012	First Step Peer Education Program	Sexual violence United States	Prevent sexual assault by targeting male high school students, to change attitudes of potential perpetrators	Significant improvement in attitudes following 3-month intervention, but no additional change at 3-month follow-up. Social predictors of improvement were sense of belonging to school, identification with peer educator, and program interest	Quasi-experimental with repeated measures at endline and 3 months after	343 Students in Grades 9 through 12	Attitudes about sexual assault, measured by index scores	Multiple stepwise regression controlling for attitudes at baseline and number of classroom presentations attended
Miller, 2014	Coaching Boys Into Men"	Sexual violence, sexual harassment United States	Coaches provided bystander intervention to athletes as part of regular program	Athletes in interventions showed greater improvements in gender-equitable attitudes "Marginally significant" (p = .07)" reductions in negative bystander behavior. (None for differences in sexual abuse perpetration)	Quasi-experimental	46 schools (27 treatment, 19 control), Grades 6 through 8, 309 male athletes	Attitudes about violence against females, gender roles and attributes, and bystander behavior; perpetration in past 3 months	Multiple regression with mixed effects, entering treatment as a fixed effect along with age group and religion
Ogunfowokan and Fajemilehin, 2012	Sexual Abuse and Date Rape Prevention Education	Sexual violence Nigeria	Increase knowledge about victims, settings of violence, perpetrators, consequences, case studies, myths, prevention strategies	Significant increase in knowledge maintained for one year post-intervention. No change in attitudes of girls	Quasi-experimental	2 schools (1 treatment, 1 control); 200 girls in Grades 9 through 10 (aged 13–24 years)	Change in knowledge and attitudes	Differences-in-differences approach, analysis of variance comparing pre- to post-test mean differences across treatment and control

Author, Year	Project Evaluated	Type/ Country	Summary of Interventions	Findings	Evaluation Design	Sample	Indicators	Analysis
Taylor et al., 2010	Gender Violence Prevention Program	Sexual violence United States	Teach interaction curriculum as well as law and justice curriculum; compare to control group	Improved self-awareness of abusive behavior for both treatments. Unique effects of law and justice curriculum: improved attitudes and knowledge, reduced violence perpetration. Unique effects of interactive curriculum: Lower rates of victimization and increased reporting of *peer violence* perpetration	Randomized controlled trial	7 schools; Grades 6 through 7, 1,639 students from 123 classrooms	Experience and frequency of victimization or perpetration. Six attitude-and-knowledge factors	Hierarchical linear modeling controlling for baseline and relevant student, classroom, and school variables

Appendix 4. Quantitative Instruments Table

Summary of Questionnaires for Measuring SRGBV

Scale/Assessment Name	Study Author, Year	Description	Target Sample	Psychometrics	Instrument Developer	Year Created
American Association of University Women (AAUW) Sexual Harassment Survey	Gruber and Fineran, 2008	This 14-question survey has two subscales: physical victimization (PV) and verbal victimization (VV). It measures the frequency of physical and sexual harassment for victims and perpetrators.	Middle and high school students	PV: α = .91 VV: α = .76	AAUW	2001
Attitudes Toward Women Scale (short version)	Mansour and Karam, 2012	A 25-item scale that measures a person's attitude toward the role of women in society.	__	α = .89	Spence and Helmreich	1972
Bullying Behavior Scale	Kim, 2006	This scale uses 6 items to measure bullying behavior in schools.	Students aged 8–11 years	α = .82	Austin and Joseph	1996
Bullying Influences Questionnaire (Student and Caregiver Versions)	Kim, 2006	The student survey investigates various aspects of bullying and the attributes of those who are bullied and those who bully. The caregivers' survey gathers information on their attitudes toward aggression, child-rearing style, and cultural beliefs.	Students in Grades 7 through 8 and their caregivers	α = .80	Kim	2006
Ghana Child Protection Surveys (Child Protection Agency and Frontline Worker Versions)	Casey, 2011	These 41-question (child protection agency version) and 11-question (frontline worker version) surveys gather information on the priority needs of children and assess the capabilities and capacity of child protection agencies to meet those needs.	Child protection agencies and frontline workers	Not applicable	Child Frontiers	2010
Global School-Based Student Health Survey (GSHS)	Hazemba et al., 2008	The GSHS is a standardized international assessment that uses 10 core modules, core-expanded questions, and country-specific	Students 13–17 years old	Dependent upon country and year (2003, 2009, or 2013)	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention	2003

Scale/Assessment Name	Study Author, Year	Description	Target Sample	Psychometrics	Instrument Developer	Year Created
		questions if desired, to gather data on health behaviors and protective factors.			(CDC) and World Health Organization (WHO)	
Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) Study (1997/1998 Version)	Due et al., 2005	The HBSC uses a standardized questionnaire to determine a student's demographics, individual and social resources, health behaviors, and health outcomes. Each country's version of the questionnaire may be slightly different because countries may add questions to address health issues that are important for that particular country.	Children aged 11, 13, and 15 years	—	Currie, Nic Gabhainn, and Godeau	1982
Homophobic Content Agent Target Scale	Espelage et al., 2012	A 10-question scale used to measure homosexual name calling, which is broken down into two subscales: Agent and Target.	Middle and high school students	Agent subscale .77 < α < .85 Target subscale .81 < α < .85	Poteat and Espelage	2005
Illinois Bully Scale	Espelage et al., 2012	An 18-item scale that measures bullying behavior, victimization by peers, and fighting.	Upper primary, middle, and high school students	Bullying: α = .87 Victimization: α = .88 Fighting: α = .83	Espelage and Holt	2001
ISPCAN Child Abuse Screening Test	International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect (ISPCAN)	International screening tool for examining victimization of children. Questionnaires available for child, parent, and youth (for retrospective study).	Children aged 11–18 years	Not given	ISPCAN, UNICEF	2013
Parent-Child Interaction Questionnaire—Revised	Kim, 2006	This questionnaire has 2 versions: a 21-question parent version and a 25-question child version. It measures how children and parents assess their relationships with each other.	Students and parents	Child version: α = .93 Parent version: α = .86	Lange	2001
Peer Conflict Scale (Student	Crapanzano et al.,	The student version of the Peer	Children and	Range from α = .8	Marsee,	2004

Scale/Assessment Name	Study Author, Year	Description	Target Sample	Psychometrics	Instrument Developer	Year Created
Version)	2011	Conflict Scale uses 40 items to measure relational proactive and reactive aggression and physical proactive and reactive aggression.	adolescents	Victimization: $\alpha = .88$ Fighting: $\alpha = .83$	Kimonis, and Frick	
Safe Schools Program Survey for School-Related Gender-Based Violence (Student and Teacher Versions)	USAID	These 125-item (student version) and 65-item (teacher version) question-naires gather a wide array of information relating to gender-based violence at school.	Students in Grades 4 through 8	Not given	Centre for Educational Research and Training (CERT) and DevTech Systems	2006
School-Related Gender-Based Violence in Lebanon Student Survey	Mansour and Karam, 2012	A 97-question survey used to gather the following information from students: students' social characteristics; knowledge of SRGBV; school safety; physical harm at school; psychological and moral harm at school; sexual harm/ harassment at school; and students' attitudes, behaviors, and practices.	Students aged 12–18 years	School safety: $\alpha = .96$ Physical harm: $\alpha = .69$ Moral harm: $\alpha = .93$	Mansour	2012
The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)	Mansour and Karam, 2012	A 22-question assessment that measures hostile sexism (HS), benevolent sexism (BS), protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy.	—	ASI: $.83 < \alpha < .92$ HS: $.80 < \alpha < .92$ BS: $.73 < \alpha < .85$	Glick and Fiske	1995
The Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale	Carrera-Fernandez et al., 2013	A 20-question scale to measure heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men and women that consists of a 10-item subscale about the attitudes toward gay men and a 10-item subscale about attitudes toward gay women.	Adult heterosexuals	$\alpha > .80$	Herek	1984

Appendix 5. Qualitative Studies Table

Summary of Qualitative Studies Reviewed

Legend:
CP = corporal punishment
N/A = not applicable
SH = sexual harassment
SV = sexual violence

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Data Collection Methods			Transcription of Text and Systematic Analysis
						Data Collection Methods	Measures Taken to Enhance Trustworthiness of Data	Facilitator/ Interviewer Training*	
Abuya et al., 2012	SH, SV	Kenya	Document experi-ences of sexual harassment and sexual violence among girls living in urban slums in and out of school	Students in Grades 10 through 12 (20 in school, 10 dropouts, aged 15–19 years); 14 teachers; snowballing techniques to identify dropouts	2	Structured interviews, face-to-face, with settings either in or out of school	Female, Kenyan, and researcher applied a systematic reflection process to ensure that she was in touch with her own experiences in order to reduce researcher bias. Only interviewed in local language.	Author conducted all interviews	Transcriptions analyzed using NVivo software with staged readings and thematic analysis
Agbenyega, 2006	CP	Ghana	Compare corporal punishment use according to inclusive and non-inclusive schools in Ghana	Grades 7 through 10 teachers, with students as cross-validation; random sampling	10	Self-report survey; observation and structured interviews by author	Triangulation of interviews; classroom observation and verification through single student interview.	Author conducted all interviews	Transcribed; coded with descriptive analysis and triangulation
Bisika et al., 2009	All SRGBV	Malawi	Examine the nature of SRGBV, factors that serve to perpetuate violence, and impact on school access and outcomes	Primary school students in 1,496 households; parents and community leaders	Not applicable (household survey)	Questionnaires (quantitative) followed by staged focus group discussions (FGDs) in enumeration areas	Triangulation of quantitative survey with qualitative inquiry in all sampled enumeration areas.	Not reported	Not reported

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Data Collection Methods			Transcription of Text and Systematic Analysis
						Data Collection Methods	Measures Taken to Enhance Trustworthiness of Data	Facilitator/ Interviewer Training*	
de Lange et al., 2012	School safety	South Africa	Explore youths' understanding of GBV at school and how they envision making schools safe (Vulindlela, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa)	Students in Grade 9 (23 girls, 7 boys); selected by teachers	2	Participatory video; students constructed videos creating the context for reflection, action, change; authors were the researchers	Video provided a safe place for reflection and talking about how to resist norms to avoid GBV; analysis rigor.	Authors facilitated	Storyboard, scripts, and dialogue transcribed; extreme analysis rigor and cross-checking
DevTech Systems, 2007	All SRGBV	Malawi	A formative study to guide safe schools intervention and simultaneously collect baseline data	954 Students in Grades 3 through 7; 824 parents; 239 teachers; and 370 stakeholders	40 (30 treatment, 10 controls)	Staged Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) conducted by trained university graduates	Due to interference from teachers when they learned of the topic, researchers made sure student FGD took place before teacher FGD; excluded student if parent worked at school; assigned researchers were of same sex as students	5-day orientation and training	Transcription not mentioned; descriptive analyses
Gådin, 2012	SV, SH	Sweden	Explore nature of peer harassment and the normalizing processes of SRGBV	1st–6th grade girls (7–12 years)	1	Staged focus group discussions with girls speaking one at a time on each focus question	Researcher returned to the school in 5 months and interviewed the same girls, with notably enhanced trust from participants, then asked girls directly about their experiences	Authors facilitated	Transcribed text was analyzed in stages, from content analysis and coding of meaningful units to thematic analysis

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Data Collection Methods			Transcription of Text and Systematic Analysis
						Data Collection Methods	Measures Taken to Enhance Trustworthiness of Data	Facilitator/ Interviewer Training*	
Humphreys, 2008	CP	South Africa	Examine the gendered nature of corporal punishment and the impact of victimization on gender relations and school success	23 7th–10th graders (11 girls, 12 boys); 12 teachers; 4 head teachers	4	Observation, interviews, focus group discussion	Researchers were of same sex as informants; linked quantitative and qualitative tools enhanced trustworthiness of results	Not reported	Not reported
Kacker et al., 2007	All forms of abuse	India	Develop a comprehensive understanding of child abuse in India to inform policy; national study on violence including but not limited to SRGBV	12,447 children 5–18 years old, in and out of school; 5,200 youth aged 18–24 years; stakeholders	Household survey	FGD icebreaker using art, followed by one-on-one structured interviews (also included quantitative survey)	Tools were piloted in a small proportionate sample and modified accordingly; researchers were of same sex as informants, and used local language	Extensive capacity development and orientation provided before data collection	All interviews were transcribed and data forms with qualitative data were populated subsequently
Kilimci, 2009	CP	Turkey	Examine teachers' and school officials' perceptions of corporal punishment and conduct formative research to explore ways to eliminate it (Turkey)	7 primary school principals and 105 teachers	7	Semi-structured interviews administered by author	Confidentiality assured orally	N/A	Interview notes coded (not transcribed), disaggregated by socioeconomic status (SES) of schools
Leach et al., 2003	All SRGBV	Malawi, Ghana	Examine the prevalence and perceptions of SRGBV, especially incidence and effects of sexual abuse by teachers; impact on achievement, participation; to inform prevention	Ghana: 486 girls, 276 boys (ages 11–17, grades 6–8); 18 teachers; 15 parents Malawi: 60 girls, 30 boys (ages 10–14, grades 5–8)	6 (3 Ghana, 3 Malawi)	Interactive methods: mapping, abuse spiders, cause-and-sequence trees, problem walls; same-sex protocols by women researchers	Special friendly data collection methods for children; researchers/authors same sex as informants	Experienced qualitative researchers conducted the interviews, participatory rural appraisal workshops	Transcriptions of interviews not mentioned; analyzed according to specific research topics

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Data Collection Methods			Transcription of Text and Systematic Analysis
						Data Collection Methods	Measures Taken to Enhance Trustworthiness of Data	Facilitator/ Interviewer Training*	
Mansour and Karam, 2012	All SRGBV	Lebanon	Comprehensive study of the nature, prevalence, causes of, and impact of SRGBV on achievement and educational choices	3,000 students ages 5–12, plus teachers (42), parents (18), principals (6), and health workers (5)	104 schools; 10 schools for FGDs	FGDs as icebreakers; children then made drawings of experiences witnessed, and discussed	Use of staged approach with ice-breakers and art to collect data; senior researcher/GBV experts conducted all activities. Limitations were that parents did not show for FGD; interviews were very long, taxing participants.	Extensive orientation and training on all aspects of data collection and storage	All interviews transcribed, stored, and coded in EpiData and transferred to Excel; with common identifier for school
Mosavel et al., 2011	SV, SH	South Africa	Establish prevalence of GBV among youth and its role in health promotion targeting youth	112 students, grades 8–10; 14 same-sex FGDs (9 girls, 5 boys)	4	Broad-based qualitative inquiry into the context of adolescents' well-being and their perceptions of health	Community members were trained to accompany professional facilitators to build trust from participants	Extensive training of both co-facilitators from commu-nity and experienced professional facilitators	All FGDs transcribed and coded by 2 coders, with a third supportive in cross-checking analyses and conclusions; quite rigorous
Parkes and Heslop, 2011	All SRGBV	Kenya, Ghana, Mozambique	Formative study to inform intervention and to establish baseline data on the extent and nature of SRGBV in the intervention schools and communities and to assess protective policy and reporting mechanisms in government institutions	1,082 girls ages 8–17 (24/school); 519 boys (12/school); 238 teachers (5/school); 220 parents (5/school); other stakeholders	44	Mixed methods were used. The qualitative element of this baseline study consisted primarily of individual and group discussions	Multiple measures allowed triangulation; same sex, same SES status of facilitators, but from different communities than participants (to enhance confidentiality)	Extensive orientation and training with reflection on own experiences, acknowledging potential for researcher bias; extensive practice	Immediate review post-data collection; transcribed recordings stored in Microsoft Excel with coded identifiers; results cross-checked by external reviewers; preliminary results and final interpretations informed by stakeholders

Author, Year	Type of SRGBV	Country	Purpose	Sample	Schools	Data Collection Methods			Transcription of Text and Systematic Analysis
						Data Collection Methods	Measures Taken to Enhance Trustworthiness of Data	Facilitator/ Interviewer Training*	
Silbert, 2013	CP	South Africa	Describe the students' views and experiences of corporal punishment (South Africa)	15 grade 12 students; 10 teachers, including head teacher	2	All data were from face-to-face interviews from a preceding larger study that made reference to corporal punishment	Cross-checked transcriptions for accuracy, using specific words of participants to guide interpretation	Not reported	Interviews transcribed; interview texts analyzed using interpretive thematic approach

Appendix 6. Qualitative Instruments Table

Summary of Instruments Used for Qualitative Inquiry

Scale/Assessment Name	Study Author, Year	Description	Data Collection Method	Target Sample	Instrument Developer	Year Created
Ghana Child Protection Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)	Casey, 2011	This FGD methodology used a spontaneous listing and prioritization process, plus case vignettes, to elicit information on the relevance and functioning of child protection systems.	FGD	Children, adults, frontline workers, and child protection committee members	Child Frontiers	2010
Ghana Child Protection Interviews	Casey, 2011	This methodology provided a series of questions and guidelines for conducting structured and semi-structured interviews with key experts, stakeholders, and community leaders concerning child protection.	One-on-one Interviews	Child protection key experts, stakeholders, and community leaders	Child Frontiers	2010
Indian Child Abuse FGDs	Kacker et al., 2007	A focus group methodology with groups segregated by gender. It used songs, storytelling, drawings/paintings, games, etc., to learn about children's experiences with abuse.	FGD	Children aged 10–12 years	Kacker and colleagues	2007
Indian Child Abuse One-on-One Interviews	Kacker et al., 2007	An interview methodology that used a series of rapport-building elements, unguided discussions, open-ended questions, closed questions, and leading questions to elicit child abuse information. Researchers recorded responses in questionnaires that had specific versions for children, adults, and stakeholders.	One-on-one interviews	Children aged 5–18 years, adults, and stakeholders	Kacker and colleagues	2007

Scale/Assessment Name	Study Author, Year	Description	Data Collection Method	Target Sample	Instrument Developer	Year Created
Malawi and Zimbabwe One-on-One Interviews	Leach et al., 2003	One-on-one interviews with the aim to: (a) For girls: detail specific incidents of abuse in and around the school and ways it had affected them, especially in terms of their studies (b) For boys: to understand how they perceived the abuse of girls as well as the extent to which they also felt subjected to abusive behavior (e.g., bullying)	One-on-one interviews	Middle school students	Leach and colleagues	2003
Malawi and Zimbabwe Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) Workshops	Leach et al., 2003	Two-day workshops with the following aims: clarify understandings of abuse among female and male pupils, find out who perpetrates it, its frequency, and its nature; identify and prioritize the major problems girls experience at school, including abusive behavior; and explore possible solutions to the problems expressed.	PRA workshop	Middle school students	Leach and colleagues	2003
Safe Schools Program FGDs	Centre for Educational Research and Training (CERT) and DevTech Systems, 2007	A focus group methodology in which males and females discussed issues separately and then were brought together to discuss them in a mixed-gender setting, with the aim to find out how the group understood the term "abuse" and how they wanted to see their school.	FGD	Students in Grades 3 through 7 and adults	CERT and DevTech Systems	2005
Safe Schools Program Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) Workshop	CERT and DevTech Systems, 2007	This PLA workshop methodology used mapping, abuse spiders, cause-and-consequence trees, and seasonal calendars to gather information on students' experiences, observations, contributing factors, and consequences of violence.	PLA workshop	Students in Grades 3 through 7	CERT and DevTech Systems	2005
Sexual Harassment FGDs	Gådin, 2012	FGDs in which the facilitator used prompting questions about children's well-being in school, with the intent of letting the students first bring up issues of bullying and sexual harassment.	FGD	Elementary school students	Gådin	2012

Appendix 7. Compendium of Indicators

Table 7.1 Selected Standard Indicators and/or Indicator Guidance on Gender-Based Violence or Violence Against Children

USAID ADS Document 101761 Standard indicators for gender equality/women's empowerment and gender based violence Available at http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/101761.pdf

Number of laws, policies, or procedures drafted, proposed or adopted to promote gender equality at the regional, national or local level

Number of laws, policies, or procedures drafted, proposed or adopted to improve prevention of or response to sexual and gender based violence at the regional, national, or local level.

Proportion of females who reported increased self-efficacy at the conclusion of USG supported training/programming

Proportion of target population reporting increased agreement with the concept that males and females should have equal access to social, economic, and political opportunities

Number of people reached by USG funded intervention providing GBV services (e.g., health, legal, psycho-social, shelters, hotlines, other)

Percentage of target population that view GBV as less acceptable after participating in or being exposed to USG programming

Proportion of schools that have procedures to take action on reported cases of sexual abuse

Proportion of schools who have Code of Conduct which addresses all acts of SRGBV

UN Economic and Social Council*: Gender Statistics Report of the Secretary-General*. Available at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-10-GenderStats-E.pdf

Average number of hours (total work burden) spent on unpaid domestic work, by sex
Labour force participation rates for 15-24 and 15+, by sex
Proportion of individuals using the internet, by sex
Proportion of individuals using mobile phone by sex
Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, internet) by sex of household head
Literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years old, by sex
Gender parity index in enrolment at primary, secondary and tertiary
Proportion of female administrators, primary school teachers, secondary school teachers and tertiary school instructors
Proportion of seats held by women in parliament, female judges, female police officers
Proportion of women aged 20-24 who were married before the age of 18
Proportion of female judges

Proportion of female police officers

Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by an intimate partner, person not intimate partner

Table 7.1 Selected Standard Indicators and/or Indicator Guidance on Gender-Based Violence or Violence Against Children (CONT)

Lockett and Bishop. 2012. *Guidance Note 3: Guidance on Monitoring and Evaluation for Programming on Violence Against Women and Girls*. Available at https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/67334/How-to-note-VAWG-3-monitoring-eval.pdf

Excess female infant and child mortality (sex ratios up to age 1 and under 5)

Proportion of women aged 15-49 who ever experienced physical violence from an intimate partners

Proportion of women aged 15-19 who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting

Proportion of women aged 18-24 who were married before age 18

Proportion of VAWG survivors who received appropriate care

Percent of schools that have procedures to take action on reported cases of sexual abuse

Proportion of prosecuted VAWG cases that resulted in a conviction

Number of women and children using VAWG social welfare services

Percent of rape survivors in the emergency area who report to health facilities/workers within 72 hours and receive appropriate medical care

Proportion of girls that feel free to say no to sexual activity

Proportion of people who would assist a woman being beaten by her husband or partner

Proportion of men and boys who agree that violence against women is never acceptable

UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund). 2006. *Manual for Measurement of Indicators of Violence Against Children*. Available at http://www.unicef.org/violencestudy/pdf/Manual%20Indicators%20UNICEF.pdf

Proportion of children who have indicated via self-reports that they have been victims of violence in the last 12 months

Proportion of children who know what to do/who to turn to in case of victimization

Proportion of adults who accept violence against children as a means of education

Number of children officially reported as victims of violence to authorities during a 12-month period per 100,000 children

Number of substantiated cases of violence against children during a 12-month period per 100,000 children

Percentage of child victims referred to recovery, reintegration, or psychological services during a 12-month period

Percentage of child victims who used recovery, reintegration, or psychological services during a 12-month period

Proportion of children who skipped school because they were afraid/felt unsafe to go to school due to violence in the last 12 months

Percentage of schools with protective school policies in place

Table 7.2 Performance Indicators Applied in SRGBV Interventions

Stop Violence Against Girls in School Project: Ghana, Kenya, and Mozambique

Violence Indicators

Ever experienced physical, sexual, psychological, or other forms of violence

Experienced physical, sexual, psychological, or other forms of violence in past 12 months

Reported the last experience of physical, sexual, psychological, or other forms of violence to anyone

Reported the last experience of physical, sexual, psychological, or other forms of violence to formal authorities

Knowledge Indicators

Knowledge of laws and policies: Did the respondent mention at least one law or policy unprompted?

Knowledge of reporting mechanisms: Did the respondent mention at least one appropriate response to a violence scenario question?

Knowledge of support organization: Did the respondent mention at least one appropriate support organization unprompted?

Challenging violence and gender equality index, based on respondents' answers to eight attitude questions focusing on the following:

- Children doing personal errands for teachers
- Corporal punishment
- Dismissing teachers who have a sexual relationship with students
- Blaming girls for sexual harassment
- Pregnant girls being able to stay in school; girls begin able to return to school after giving birth; or boys who impregnate girls being allowed to stay in school

Poverty Index

The material of which the child's house is made

Number of meals eaten yesterday

Mother's education

Father's education

School Indicators

Teachers disagreeing that it is OK for teachers to whip girls to maintain discipline in school or class

Percentage of girls who believe that teachers do not show bias against girls in their questioning approaches

Percentage of girls who believe that girls participate equally or more than boys in class

Teachers with knowledge of child protection laws and policies

Table 7.2 Performance Indicators Used to Track Progress in SRGBV Interventions (Continued)
Safe Schools Program: Ghana and Malawi
Student Attitudes and Beliefs
Proportion of students who believe that boys and girls should have equal opportunities to go to school and study the same subjects
Proportion of students who do not believe older girls should leave school and get married
Proportion of girls who are comfortable with answering questions in class
Proportion of students who believe that they have the right to express ideas and opinions in class
Proportion of students who believe that teachers do not have the right to demand sex from school children
Proportion of students who believe that they have the right to not be hurt or mistreated
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that "teachers have the right to shout at and insult students"
Proportion of students who believe that boys and girls were equally intelligent
Proportion of students who believe that girls should perform housework and boys should do farm work
Proportion of students who believe that girls should return to school after giving birth
Proportion of students who believe that boys who impregnate girls should also leave school
Proportion of students who believe they have the right to say "no" to sex
Proportion of students who believe that they have the right to say "no" to teachers who touch their thighs, buttocks, and/or private parts
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that "either female or male teachers have the right to demand sex"
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that it is "OK to ask boys and girls to perform hard, physical punishment in school"
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that "calling students names does not hurt them"
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that "it is a girl's fault if a male student or teacher sexually harasses her"
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that "girls like it when boys touched or grabbed them"
Proportion of students who disagree with the statement that it is "OK for a teacher to impregnate a girl as long as he marries her"
Teacher Knowledge, Attitudes, and Behaviors
Proportion of teachers who recognize that boys and girls experience sexual harassment in school
Proportion of teachers who had knowledge of and received training on the Teachers' Code of Conduct
Proportion of teachers who believe that boys and girls should have equal opportunities to go to school and study the same subjects
Proportion of teachers who believe that students have the right to not be hurt or mistreated
Proportion of teachers who believe that they have the responsibility to act as a protector of children's rights
Proportion of teachers who disagree with the statement that "it is OK for a teacher to have sexual relationships with students"

Table 7.2 Performance Indicators Used to Track Progress in SRGBV Interventions (Continued)
Safe Schools Program: Ghana and Malawi (Continued)
Proportion of teachers who disagree with the statement that it is "OK to whip boys and girls to maintain discipline"
Proportion of teachers who reported that they had beaten, grabbed, or pinched boys and girls in the past 12 months
Proportion of teachers who reported that they had whipped or caned a student in the past 12 months
Proportion of teachers who reported that they had assigned physical labor to boys and girls in the past 12 months
Proportion of teachers who reported that they had insulted boys and girls in the past 12 months
Proportion of teachers who reported that they had threatened or intimidated a boy or girl in the past 12 months
Transforming Education for Girls in Tanzania
Strength of Intervention Index (relative extent of interventions, including girls clubs, teacher training, SMC support)
Gender Parity Index (girls' enrollment, progression, and attainment relative to boys)
Gender Management Profile/Index (SMC activities, Head Teacher involvement, presence of women in management)
Girls' Empowerment Index (girls' identification of obstacles and solutions to schooling, knowledge and attitudes towards HIV and gender equity and violence, and confidence in handling gender-based violence)
Teachers' qualifications
Teacher Engagement Profile (girls' reports of teachers' application of training)
C-Change: Combating SRGBV in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
Established school male and female focal persons for addressing SRGBV as first responders
Number of teachers addressing SRGBV through training of students
Percentage of students who are aware of how to prevent and avoid SRGBV
Percentage of teachers who are aware of how to prevent SRGBV
Percentage of students who have knowledge of instances of psychological violence in schools (e.g., threats, teasing, intimidation, insults, bullying, humiliation)
Percentage of students who have knowledge of instances of physical violence in schools (e.g., striking with or without a whip, pushing, grabbing, hitting with a fist, kicking, mandatory chores)
Percentage of teachers reporting that they use violent forms of discipline (e.g., hitting a student, grabbing by the hair, whipping or caning, pushing or shoving, making a student perform hard labor)
Percentage of students who report feeling more secure, less secure, or the same level of security in school

Table 7.2 Performance Indicators Used to Track Progress in SRGBV Interventions (Continued)

Gender Equity Movement in Schools

Gender Equitable Measurement Scale (the following scores assigned to each statement: Agree = 0, Not Sure = 1, Disagree = 2)

(1) Roles, Privileges, and Restrictions

- Only men should work outside the home.
- Giving the children a bath and feeding them are the mother's responsibility.
- A wife should always obey her husband.
- Men need more care because they work harder than women.
- Because girls have to get married, they should not be sent for higher education.
- It is necessary to give a dowry.

(2) Attributes

- Girls cannot perform well in mathematics and science.
- Boys are naturally better at mathematics and science than girls.
- Boys are naturally better in sports than girls.

(3) Violence

- It is a girl's fault if a male student or teacher sexually harasses her.
- There are times when a boy needs to beat his girlfriend.
- A woman should tolerate violence in order to keep her family together.
- There are times when a woman deserves to be beaten.
- Girls like to be teased by boys.
- Girls provoke boys with short dresses.

Has experienced physical violence as a victim or perpetrator (e.g., beaten, slapped, kicked, pushed, hit with object, threatened with weapon)

Has experienced emotional violence as a victim or perpetrator (e.g., insulted, shouted at, derided via abusive language, locked in room or a toilet)

Reported positive responses (protests or complaints to someone) to incidences of individuals who inappropriately touched or exposed themselves

Reported improvements in gender roles, understanding persons of the opposite sex, and challenging gender discrimination

Reported the perpetration of physical violence in the past 3 months

Reported the perpetration of emotional violence in past 3 months

Reported positive bystander responses ("tried to stop it" or "sought help") to incidences of peer-inflicted violence

Table 7.2 Performance Indicators Used to Track Progress in SRGBV Interventions (Continued)

Taylor et al. 2010. The effects of gender violence and harassment prevention programming in middle schools: A randomized experimental solution. *Violence and Victims 25*(2):202–223.

Acts of Violence and Harassment

Prevalence and incidence of sexual and non-sexual violence victimization and perpetration

Prevalence and incidence of sexual harassment victimization and perpetration

Student Attitudes

Inappropriate attributions of girls' fault in sexual harassment

Belief that gender violence and sexual harassment are not problems

Attitudes that reduce sexual harassment

Intention to confront gender violence and sexual harassment

Attitude toward preventing sexual harassment

Disposition about own and others' "personal space"