MIND THE GAP 2:
Seeking Safe and Sustainable Solutions for Girls’ Education in Crises
As a youth advocate, I have dedicated my life to amplifying refugee youth voices, ensuring that refugee youth have equal access to education, and that they are involved in making decisions and shaping solutions that affect their lives. But without education, I would not be the person I am today.

As a young woman, the support of my parents and community and access to the DAFI scholarship enabled me to continue my studies all the way through higher education at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, where I attained first class honors. Through education, I was able to hone my leadership skills and connect with opportunities such as the Tertiary Refugee Student Network, Refugee Education Council, and Global Refugee Youth Network where I could engage on issues that are important to me.

This is what education does. It ensures that women are able to explore our potential, learn how to navigate everyday challenges, and work within our communities to uplift others. It enables us to care for ourselves and make informed decisions around our reproductive health, relationships, and family planning, and become strong advocates for ourselves and our communities.

We can see this mostly clearly in how women and girls have supported their communities through crises like the COVID-19 pandemic and climate emergencies.

In Kenya, Adhieu, a young refugee woman, recognized that the lockdowns meant to curb the spread of COVID-19 were resulting in widespread teenage pregnancy and that girls were having to drop out of school. She decided to meet that challenge and started having counseling sessions with the girls to encourage them to go back to school.

In Uganda, Faridah, an amazing child protection and women’s rights advocate, saw that child marriage, domestic violence and sexual assault were on the rise in her community during COVID-19 lockdowns. She intervened with the parents of young girls who were at risk of child marriage or involved in transactional sex, and collaborated with refugee-led organizations like African Youth Action Network to make sure that women and girls had access to resources to meet their basic needs.

In Zimbabwe, Adelaide and Refugee Child’s Coalition for Climate Action conducted workshops and worked with girls in the community to speak out against climate change.

Young women like Adhieu, Faridah and Adelaide are making an incredible difference in their communities. They are creating safe spaces for girls to discuss pressing issues and suggest solutions that address them. They are role models and are helping other girls find their voices and become advocates on issues that are important to them.

We need to ensure that they have support to continue this important work – support at home, from their peers, and within their communities. We need to support girl-led efforts by working with them as equal partners, making funding accessible through mini-grants, and providing technical assistance and mentoring to strengthen their leadership capacities.

Educated women are the future!

Foni Joyce Vuni
Program Coordinator, Global Refugee Youth Network
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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<td>ACASI</td>
<td>Audio-Computer-Assisted Self Interview</td>
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<td>CCE</td>
<td>Climate Change Education</td>
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<td>COP26</td>
<td>26th Conference of Parties’ Global Climate Summit</td>
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<td>CRS</td>
<td>Creditor Reporting System</td>
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<td>DAC</td>
<td>Development Assistance Committee</td>
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<td>DHS</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey</td>
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<td>ECW</td>
<td>Education Cannot Wait</td>
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<td>EdTech</td>
<td>Education Technology</td>
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<td>EGAL</td>
<td>Equality for Girls Access to Learning</td>
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<td>FTS</td>
<td>Financial Tracking Service</td>
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<td>FCDO</td>
<td>United Kingdom Foreign Commonwealth &amp; Development Office</td>
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<td>Group of Seven</td>
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<td>Girls Education Challenge</td>
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<td>Global School-Based Student Health Survey</td>
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<td>HBSC</td>
<td>Health Behavior in School-Age Children Survey</td>
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<td>HiH</td>
<td>Healing in Harmony</td>
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<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information Communication Technology</td>
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<td>IDMC</td>
<td>Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre</td>
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<td>INEE</td>
<td>Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies</td>
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<td>IPCC</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change</td>
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<td>ITU</td>
<td>International Telecommunications Union</td>
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<td>LMIC</td>
<td>Low- and Middle-Income Countries</td>
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<td>MICS</td>
<td>Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey</td>
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<td>MMM</td>
<td>Make Music Matter</td>
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<td>NDCs</td>
<td>Nationally Determined Contributions</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>oPt</td>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory</td>
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<td>PIRLS</td>
<td>Progress in International Reading Literacy Study</td>
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<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
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<td>PTSD</td>
<td>Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>SAQMEC</td>
<td>The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality Project</td>
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<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goal</td>
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<td>SRGBV</td>
<td>School-Related Gender-Based Violence</td>
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<td>STEM</td>
<td>Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics</td>
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<td>TIMSS</td>
<td>Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study</td>
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<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical and Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<td>UIS</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNGEI</td>
<td>United Nations Girls' Education Initiative</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
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<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
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<td>VACS</td>
<td>Violence Against Children and Youth Survey</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report builds on the findings of Mind the Gap: The State of Girls’ Education in Crisis and Conflict, first published by the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) in 2021. This second report presents the state of education and training for girls and women affected by conflict and crisis, including refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). Both reports were commissioned by the INEE, under the auspices of the INEE Reference Group on Girls’ Education in Emergencies, in response to commitments made by leaders of seven of the world’s largest economies at the 44th G7 Summit, which was hosted by Canada in 2018.1

This report focuses on three themes:

• Distance learning for girls: how interventions can support distance learning when girls can’t access schools, and strategies to overcome gendered barriers, including the gendered digital divide

• Gender-based violence (GBV) and girls’ education: strategies to monitor and reduce GBV in schools, and how education providers can contribute to prevention, protection, and recovery from GBV in the community during a crisis, including periods of school closure

• Girls’ education and climate change: how girls’ education is impacted by climate change; how girls’ education can support resilience in the face of climate change and mitigate the effects of climate change; and how to enable girls to find their voices to address climate issues.

This report discusses girls’ education data for the same 44 crisis-affected countries included in the first report, Mind the Gap: The State of Girls’ Education in Crisis and Conflict. In most cases, the latest data are from 2019 or 2020 and therefore do not capture the impact COVID-19 has had on girls’ education in these countries. This report includes some analysis of the emerging evidence of this impact, and of the education response to the crisis, particularly distance education interventions.

KEY FINDINGS

POLICY DEVELOPMENTS

• At the G7 Summit in June 2021, member nations endorsed the G7 Declaration on Girls’ Education, which included an explicit focus on girls affected by crises.2 Leaders agreed to work collectively toward two global targets for girls’ education in low- and lower-middle-income countries, which they set for 2026:
  • 40 million more girls in school
  • 20 million more girls reading by age 10 or by the end of lower primary school

• At the Global Partnership for Education’s (GPE) fourth replenishment and Global Education Summit in July 2021, 20 heads of state endorsed the Kenyatta Declaration, which committed GPE partner countries to devoting at least 20% of their public expenditures to education and to make resources available to reach the most marginalized children, especially girls.

• Some of the 44 crisis-affected countries, including Kenya, have national policies that are highly supportive of girls’ education. However, most crisis-affected countries scored below average on a global index of policies supporting girls’ education.

---

1 Canada, the European Union, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the United Kingdom adopted the Charlevoix Declaration on Quality Education (G7, 2018).

2 The G7, or Group of Seven, is a political forum comprising Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America. The United Kingdom hosted the G7 summit in June 2021 and invited delegates from Australia, India, South Korea, and South Africa to attend. The European Union was also in attendance at this summit.
DISTANCE LEARNING FOR GIRLS

- At the height of the COVID-19 pandemic, 1.6 billion learners were out of school. Globally around 222 million girls could not be reached with digital and broadcast remote learning.
- The approaches most widely adopted by national education systems were reliant on access to technology, even in contexts where students and teachers had only limited access.
- There are gendered differences in access to technology, which are rooted in broader gender bias and negative attitudes about girls and technology.
- Some countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, have implemented low-tech responses to distance education, which include the use of radio and even print materials.
- Effective approaches to distance education for girls are based on an understanding of girls’ access to technology. In some contexts, girls are most able to access a mobile phone.
- Community workers can play a vital role in enabling girls to continue learning when schools close. They can distribute learning resources, facilitate remote support from teachers, encourage parents to support girls’ learning, and organize safe community-based spaces where girls can learn.
- There is a need to generate more knowledge about girls’ digital lives, and about how distance and hybrid learning programs can reach girls in crisis-affected contexts when schools are inaccessible.

GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND GIRLS’ EDUCATION

- Only limited data are available on school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV); data measuring SRGBV in learning spaces for refugees is particularly limited.
- A better picture of the prevalence of SRGBV can be developed by combining a variety of existing surveys.
- System-level efforts to address SRGBV have been challenged by limited resources, competing priorities, and human resource constraints that limit the implementation of high-level commitments and policies, particularly at the district level. As a result, policy awareness and implementation at the school level are limited.
- There is emerging evidence that the whole school approach to tackling SRGBV, which works to change attitudes, behaviors, and practices across a range of actors, is an effective way to shift the drivers of SRGBV and can help to reduce SRGBV over the long term.

GIRLS’ EDUCATION AND CLIMATE CHANGE

- Age and gender are key determinants of an individual’s vulnerability to the effects of climate change, and the effects of climate change also amplify the negative impact of conflict and crisis. A lack of education leaves girls and women vulnerable to weather-related disasters, and girls living in crisis-affected contexts are particularly affected by the effects of climate change.
- The Malala Fund (2021) estimated that, by 2021, at least four million girls will have been prevented from completing their education, due to climate change.
- The effects of climate change can often exacerbate factors that contribute to displacement, including weather-related emergencies, the loss of livelihoods, environmental degradation, reduced agricultural productivity, and conflict. Displaced women and girls living in informal or tented settlements are more vulnerable to the effects of extreme weather, including extreme heat, rainfall, and strong winds. These extreme conditions will likely increase in severity and frequency unless urgent action is taken to reduce global carbon emissions.
- The risks to girls’ education that are associated with climate change include an increased likelihood of school dropout, reduced school attendance, reduced time to focus on studies, reduced likelihood of participating in extracurricular activities, and a reduced likelihood of enrolling in higher education.
- There is emerging evidence of and growing political interest in the role girls’ education can play in addressing the climate crisis, which includes increasing girls’ climate resilience and adaptive capacity, and empowering women and girls to participate in decision-making forums that address the impact of climate change, in technical and vocational education and training (TVET), and in gaining “green” skills.
- More must be done to close the gap between policy rhetoric and implementation. The design of education programs should enable girls to become more resilient and adaptive in the face of climate change, and to support a just transition to a more sustainable, low-carbon economy.
CLOSING THE GAP: ARE WE MAKING PROGRESS?

- Early data indicate that many girls in crisis-affected countries did not return to school when schools reopened after the COVID-19 related closures.
- New methodology for the inclusion of national data have enabled the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) to fill gaps in many education-related indicators, including new data on completion rates that are based on household surveys.

Based on UIS data:

- Girls’ progress in school enrollment and completion has continued, but their lower secondary completion rates remain behind boys’ in just over half of the crisis-affected countries that have data available.
- Girls’ access to pre-primary education varies greatly across crisis-affected countries, from below 10% to above 70%, but the gender gaps are small in most cases.
- Women’s access to tertiary education and TVET in crisis-affected countries remains low, with average enrollment rates of 20% for tertiary and 3% for TVET.
- The poorest girls and those living in rural areas remain the farthest behind in primary and secondary school completion rates.
- The availability of data on education for girls with disabilities has improved, but it remains limited for crisis-affected countries.
- Most crisis-affected countries have some kind of national learning assessment in place. In most of the countries with disaggregated learning data available, girls finishing primary school perform better than boys at reading but worse at mathematics.

FUNDING FOR GIRLS’ AND WOMEN’S EDUCATION IN CRISIS-AFFECTED COUNTRIES

- In 2021, 10 crisis-affected countries made a public commitment to dedicate at least 20% of their government expenditures to education by endorsing the Kenyatta Declaration. Another 11 crisis-affected countries committed to spending 15%-20% by endorsing the Paris Declaration.
- In 2020, only two crisis-affected countries met both of the international benchmarks for public spending on education, which was 5% of gross domestic product (GDP) and 20% of the national budget.
- UIS data indicate that, from 2016 to 2020, many crisis-affected countries (12 out of 31 with data available) reduced spending on education as a proportion of GDP; a similar number (13) increased spending.
- The proportion of humanitarian aid requested for education increased from 3.8% in 2019 to 7.6% in 2021, but the proportion allocated to education remained low, a mere 3% of humanitarian aid.
- Official development assistance (ODA) to education does not always go where it is needed most to address gaps in girls’ education. Some crisis-affected countries with a large population of out-of-school girls receive very little education aid.
- Approximately half of ODA to basic and upper-secondary education in crisis-affected countries targets gender equality and women’s empowerment. However, it is difficult to estimate the proportion of education aid that benefits girls and women in crisis contexts.

SUMMARY OF PROGRESS AND GAPS

Since we published the first Mind the Gap report, changes in the international data on access to education, training, and learning for girls and women affected by crisis and conflict have been small. However, evidence indicates that the situation was improving in the period just before the COVID-19 pandemic, and that the gender gaps in access and learning were closing. There is emerging evidence that the COVID-19 pandemic will cause significant and long-term setbacks in this progress, especially for the most disadvantaged girls. However, it is still too early to reliably estimate the scale of these setbacks and the extent to which they will widen pre-existing gender gaps. The availability of data has improved, particularly on completion rates and learning outcomes. Perhaps one of the most significant areas of progress has been increased awareness, especially among donors, of the importance of ensuring that all girls, including those affected by crises, should be able to complete 12 years of safe, quality education. This is evidenced in the commitments made at the 2021 G7 Summit, and the willingness of development partners to unite on setting joint targets for girls’ education.

Nevertheless, significant gaps remain. These include a lack of gender-responsive and gender-transformative approaches to providing remote education when schools close. This gap is driven in part by data and evidence gaps in understanding the context-specific challenges girls face in accessing distance education, their risk of encountering SRGBV, and how to address these challenges most effectively.

Girls’ education and climate change is a relatively new area of interest and discourse among researchers and in the international community, and data gaps remain in understanding the gendered patterns of forced displacement caused by weather-related disasters. There are also gaps in the knowledge and evidence of how education can best prepare children in wealthier countries to reduce carbon emissions, and how education and training in the countries most affected by climate change can enable girls and women to become more climate resilient and to be agents of change.

Significant policy-implementation gaps remain in preventing SRGBV. District- and school-level education staff members often lack the knowledge and resources to implement national protection and safeguarding policies.

Gaps also remain between the global discourse and rhetoric on the importance of girls’ education and the actual patterns of disbursement in national government spending and international humanitarian and development aid.
In most crisis-affected countries, less than half of girls complete lower secondary school.

Only a quarter (26%) of the poorest girls living in crisis-affected countries complete a lower secondary education.

50% of refugee girls in secondary school may not return when their classrooms reopen after being closed due to COVID-19.

In 2021, following COVID-19-related school closures, globally only 42% of countries had measures to support girls’ return to school.
In the least developed countries, *only 19%* of women use the internet, compared to 31% of men.

Globally, **30 million people** were newly displaced in 2020 due to extreme weather. Displaced persons living in tented settlements and refugee camps are especially vulnerable to the effects of climate change and extreme weather conditions, and therefore are at high risk of missing out on education.

The proportion of humanitarian aid requested for education has doubled from 3.8% in 2019 to 7.6% in 2021, but the proportion allocated to education remains low, at **around 3%**.
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE REPORT

This report builds on the findings of Mind the Gap: The State of Girls' Education in Crisis and Conflict, first published by the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) in 2021. It presents the state of education and training for girls and women affected by conflict and crisis, including refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). Both reports were commissioned by the INEE, under the auspices of the INEE Reference Group on Girls' Education in Emergencies, in response to commitments made by leaders of seven of the world’s largest economies at the 44th G7 Summit, which was hosted by Canada in 2018.4

In 2021, a consultative process was conducted with the Reference Group to determine the focus areas of Mind the Gap 2. The Reference Group chose the following themes to address evidence gaps highlighted by the previous report, and to provide timely information that is relevant to current and emerging crises, such as COVID-19 and climate change:

- **Distance learning for girls**: how interventions can support distance learning when girls can’t access schools, and strategies to overcome gendered barriers, including the gendered digital divide
- **Gender-based violence (GBV) and girls’ education**: strategies to monitor and reduce GBV in schools, and how education providers can contribute to prevention, protection, and recovery from GBV in the community during a crisis, including periods of school closure
- **Girls’ education and climate change**: how girls’ education is impacted by climate change; how girls’ education can support resilience in the face of climate change and mitigate the effects of climate change; and how to enable girls to find their voices to address climate issues.

This report provides updated data on the state of girls’ and women’s education and training in the same 44 crisis-affected countries identified in the first report and reviews the rate and direction of change, based on the data available. The analysis considers whether reporting systems are improving in ways that will enable both progress in and aid to girls’ education in crises to be tracked more accurately.

In most cases, the latest data are from 2019 or 2020 and do not reflect the impact COVID-19 has had on girls’ education in these countries. Some analysis is included of emerging evidence on this impact and of the education response to the crisis, particularly distance education interventions.

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4 Canada, the European Union, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the United Kingdom adopted the Charlevoix Declaration on Quality Education (G7, 2018).
1.2 METHODOLOGY, DATA AVAILABILITY, AND LIMITATIONS

Leaders attending the 44th G7 Summit in 2018 emphasized the value of education for girls and women. Recognizing that girls and women affected by conflict and crisis are often denied the right to education, they adopted a declaration that committed them to close the gaps in education access, including improving access to quality education for girls and women in the early stages of humanitarian response and peacebuilding efforts.

The Charlevoix Declaration on Quality Education represents the G7 leaders’ commitment to recognize gender equality as fundamental to human rights, social development, and sustainable economic growth. Investing in girls’ and women’s education is seen as a priority, including for refugees and IDPs in situations of conflict and crisis. The Charlevoix Declaration on Quality Education is also a commitment to build partnerships and to coordinate with developing country governments, UN agencies, civil society, the private sector, and global organizations, such as the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) and Education Cannot Wait (ECW).

Table 1. List of 44 crisis-affected countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>East Asia and the Pacific</th>
<th>Eastern and Southern Africa</th>
<th>Europe and Central Asia</th>
<th>Latin America and the Caribbean</th>
<th>Middle East and North Africa</th>
<th>Central and South Asia</th>
<th>West and Central Africa</th>
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<tr>
<td>Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK)</td>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
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<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>Jordan*</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
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<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>Lebanon*</td>
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<td>Ethiopia</td>
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<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory (oPt)</td>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC)</td>
<td>Chad</td>
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<td>Mozambique</td>
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<td>Zimbabwe</td>
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<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Republic of the Congo</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*Lebanon and Jordan are not included in the aggregate figures of crisis-affected indicators in this report; they are on this list due to the number of refugees they are hosting, which has little impact on girls’ education in the national system.

Most education data for this report have been drawn from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and collated following a data update in September 2021, which primarily includes data from 2019 and 2020. It should be noted that these data were collected prior to the COVID-19 crisis, so it is too early to see the impact this crisis has had on girls’ education.

The report provides updated analysis of humanitarian and development aid disbursements to education for girls, drawing from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Assistance Committee (DAC) Creditor Reporting System (CRS) database, and the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA) Humanitarian Data Exchange. It also draws from 2020 results reported by major multilateral organizations that support education in crises.
1.3 COMPOUNDING CRISIS: COVID, CLIMATE, AND CONFLICT

The crises of this decade are global, with many high-income countries experiencing a greater degree of disruption, death, destruction, and forced displacement than they have experienced since World War II. The shutting down of economies and services to halt the spread of COVID-19, extreme weather events, and the migration crisis have all directly impacted high-income countries. Many governments that previously engaged in emergencies only as international humanitarian donors are now experiencing the challenges of providing education in emergencies within their own borders. For crisis-affected countries, these new global emergencies come on top of existing crises, rendering them even more vulnerable and compounding the impact of the new emergencies.

The quantitative impact of COVID-19, as measured by recorded deaths and infections in the initial 12 months of the pandemic, appeared to be greatest in high-income countries. Death rates due to the virus may be much higher elsewhere than recorded, due to a lack of access to testing and weak monitoring capacity. Low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) have fewer resources to respond to the pandemic, as evidenced by the inequitable global distribution of vaccines, which leaves their populations more vulnerable to further waves of infection caused by new COVID variants. The longer-term impact, particularly on education, is likely to be greater for low- and middle-income countries than for the wealthier nations. A survey conducted with education ministries in 2021 found that the number of days of instruction lost due to COVID-19 in lower-middle-income countries was more than twice that in high-income countries (UNESCO et al., 2021).

Evidence of the gendered impact COVID-19 has had on education is also beginning to emerge (UNESCO, 2021b). Girls have faced challenges in accessing learning at home, due to both their disproportionate burden of domestic responsibilities and gendered restrictions on their access to distance learning resources. This has also affected their mental health, well-being, and safety. As schools reopen, there is evidence that many girls will not return, due to financial constraints, early marriage, and pregnancy.

The same report (UNESCO, 2021b) found that female teachers reported a greater level of stress related to school closures and remote teaching than their male peers, but there was little evidence of national-level interventions to support them. As for the gendered impact of COVID-19 on the workforce more broadly, roughly twice as many young women have lost their jobs as young men (International Labour Organization, 2021). Women and girls living in forced displacement have been particularly vulnerable to the impact of COVID-19 because of a lack of access to information and decision-making spaces, reliance on precarious jobs in the informal sector, and a loss of access to schools and safe spaces (UNHCR, 2021a).

New crisis situations developed in 2021, including the Taliban’s takeover of Afghanistan, the escalating conflict in Ethiopia, military coups in Myanmar and Sudan, and a major earthquake in Haiti. This report acknowledges that these crises have all had a negative impact on girls’ and women’s education, but it should be noted that the global data sources this report draws from largely predate these emergencies. Data in this report on the state of girls’ education in Afghanistan refers to the situation prior to the change of power in August 2021.
CHAPTER 2: OVERVIEW OF POLICY DEVELOPMENTS SINCE CHARLEVOIX

Key findings

- At the G7 Summit in June 2021, member nations endorsed the G7 Declaration on Girls’ Education, which included an explicit focus on girls affected by crises. The members agreed to work collectively toward two global targets for girls’ education in low- and lower-middle-income countries, which they set for 2026:
  - 40 million more girls in school
  - 20 million more girls reading by age 10 or the end of lower primary school

- At the Global Partnership for Education’s (GPE) fourth replenishment and Global Education Summit, held in July 2021, 20 heads of state endorsed the Kenyatta Declaration, which committed GPE partner countries to dedicate at least 20% of their public expenditures to education, and to make resources available to reach the most marginalized children, especially girls.

- Some of the 44 crisis-affected countries, including Kenya, have national policies that are highly supportive of girls’ education. However, most crisis-affected countries scored below average on a global index of policies supporting girls’ education.

This section provides an overview of policy changes since the publication of the first Mind the Gap report. For a more comprehensive overview of policies related to girls’ and women’s education in contexts of crisis, both prior to and following the Charlevoix Declaration, please refer to the previous report (section 1.2 and chapter 2).

2.1 GLOBAL COMMITMENTS AND INITIATIVES

Two key events were held since the writing and publication of the first Mind the Gap report (INEE, 2021), at which new global commitments to girls’ education were made: the 2021 G7 Summit hosted by the United Kingdom, where members endorsed the G7 Declaration on Girls’ Education; and the GPE replenishment, where donors and developing country partners made a financial commitment to education. The financial commitments made by both donors and developing country partners are discussed further in chapter 7, which addresses finance. Gender equality in and through education was a priority area for discussion at both of these events, and the Girls’ Education Accelerator was developed as a new GPE funding mechanism. It provides additional funding for its partner developing countries’ efforts to close the gender gap in education outcomes.
Many other fora, events, and initiatives held during this period had implications for girls’ and women’s education in crisis contexts. These included the launch of the Support Her Education initiative as part of the GPE replenishment campaign, the Generation Equality Forum held in July 2021, progress on the Gender at the Center Initiative, the Education Plus initiative that was launched by the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS in July 2021 to support adolescent girls’ empowerment, and the 26th Conference of Parties (COP26) global climate summit held in November 2021. The primary interests of the organizations involved, which included economics, gender, health, and preventing climate change, indicate a growing awareness of the importance of supporting girls’ education as a way to achieve a wide range of development goals.

This chapter gives an overview of global commitments and other policy developments relevant to girls’ education in contexts of crisis. Further details on policy developments relating to school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) and to the inclusion of women, girls, and educators in policy-making to address climate change, are discussed in more detail in chapters 4 and 5 of this report. The implications of these commitments for education financing, and the extent to which this supports girls’ and women’s education in crisis contexts, are discussed in chapter 7.

The focus of the G7 Summit in June 2021 was on “building back better” from the COVID-19 pandemic, which included addressing “the global set-back in girls’ education” (Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office, 2021b). The G7 committed to working with country partners, multilateral institutions, civil society, girl-led groups, and youth leaders to reach the following ambitious targets:

- 40 million more girls in school by 2026 in low- and lower-middle-income countries
- 20 million more girls reading by age 10 or the end of lower primary school in low and lower-middle-income countries by 2026

This included an explicit focus on “the most marginalized and vulnerable girls, most at risk of being left behind—whether on account of poverty, disability or the effects of conflict, displacement, and natural disasters” (Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office, 2021b). To achieve these targets, the G7 intends to empower girls to become leaders of change in its efforts to support peacebuilding and address the climate crisis by

- expanding inclusive accelerated learning and catch-up programs;
- creating inclusive and resilient school systems;
- scaling access to early literacy and mathematics programs to support the development of foundational skills, prioritizing education in the early years;
- working across sectors to address the barriers to education for adolescent girls, including distance from school, violence, and sexual and gender-based violence within and outside of school, and lack of access to comprehensive sexuality education;
- promoting sexual and reproductive health and rights, as well as access to sanitary facilities;
- amending policies and legislation that create barriers to girls’ learning outcomes; and
- expanding girls’ access to technical and vocational education and training (TVET), science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), non-formal education, and lifelong learning.

In October 2021, following the G7 Summit, the G7 Gender Equality Advisory Council (2021) published a report that set out concrete steps to meet the commitments made in June. This report highlighted the disproportionate impact COVID-19 is having on women and girls and the urgent need to consider women’s and girls’ needs during the pandemic recovery. It also called for at least 12 years of gender-transformative education for all.

The GPE’s fourth replenishment and global education summit, co-hosted by the governments of the United Kingdom and Kenya in July 2021, echoed similar calls from the G7 (GPE, 2021b). The participants emphasized the role of education in addressing key global problems, including poverty, climate change, and improving health outcomes, and sought to ensure that education funding was prioritized in the COVID-19 recovery period. At the GPE summit, 20 heads of state endorsed the Kenyatta Declaration, which committed the partner countries to dedicate at least 20% of their public expenditures to education, and to make resources available to the most marginalized children, especially girls. Ten of the 44 crisis-affected countries endorsed the declaration. The summit raised US$4 billion in pledges, to be dispersed over the next five years. The Support Her Education initiative raised funds dedicated to girls’ education, to be used by the GPE Girls’ Education Accelerator.

A number of other events generated political and financial commitments to advance girls’ education in contexts of crisis and emergency. For example, during the Generation Equality Forum hosted by UN Women with the governments of Mexico and France in June and July 2021, a number of commitments were made by national governments, international organizations, and private-sector organizations to advance gender equality; this

5 Burkina Faso, Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Malawi, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Somalia, Uganda, and Zimbabwe
amounted to US$40 billion in confirmed investments (Generation Equality Forum, 2021). National policy commitment highlights include the following:

- Work led by the government of Burkina Faso and joined by the governments of Mali and Niger (among others) to make a shared commitment to provide free health care for pregnant women and for children under five years old, and to pursue legal changes to end GBV, female genital mutilation, and child, early, and forced marriage.
- The Bangladesh government's commitment to increase female participation in the Information and communications technology (ICT) sector to 25% by 2026 and 50% by 2041, including tech start-ups and e-commerce.

Since its launch in July 2019, the G7-developed Gender at the Centre Initiative has published eight country reports that contribute to a baseline study, which provides an overview of key issues related to gender and education. These reports will be used to inform cross-sectoral initiatives supporting gender equality in education (Diamond & Boccalatte, 2021). A number of capacity-building workshops on gender equality in education have been run with local ministries of education, which included how to meet the needs of girls and other vulnerable and marginalized learners during COVID-19, and to support their return to school.

### 2.2 TRACKING NATIONAL POLICIES AND LAWS

The Center for Global Development launched the Girls’ Education Policy Index in October 2020, which assesses policies on education financing, sexual health, safety, labor market opportunities, and role models (Crawfurd & Hares, 2020). These areas were selected because they are supported by evidence on what works to support girls’ schooling, are policy areas that governments and donors can address, and have comparable data across a number of countries. The Girls’ Education Policy Index builds on UNESCO’s Her Atlas, which collates national policies and laws relating to girls’ education. The first Mind the Gap report summarized the policy landscape in the 44 crisis-affected countries based on the Her Atlas. This report used the Girls Education Policy Index, as it includes more detailed and up-to-date information.

Kenya stands out for having ranked 20th globally on the index, close to predominantly high-income countries. Its high rank was driven by the high minimum age for girls to marry, policies that address violence in schools, laws to protect women against discrimination in the workplace, a quota of seats to be held by women in parliament, and no legal restrictions on access to contraception (Crawfurd & Hares, 2020). However, at the other end of the scale, 37 of the 44 crisis-affected countries are ranked in the bottom 50% of the index, and five crisis-affected countries are in the bottom ten.

The overall index ratings for all 44 countries across the five different areas are summarized in Figure 1.

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6 The reports are from Burkina Faso, Chad, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone.
7 Afghanistan, Central African Republic, Somalia, South Sudan, and Yemen.
In terms of education financing, school fees are known to be one of the most significant barriers to girls’ education (Sperling & Winthrop, 2016). Among the crisis-affected countries, 2 out of 43 with data were reported to be charging tuition fees at the primary level,\(^8\) as were 9 out of 36 with data at the lower secondary level, and 12 out of 35 with data at the upper secondary level (2019 data).

Ratings on sexual and reproductive health were calculated according to whether the government has banned child marriage, has enforced legal restrictions on the availability of contraception, has laws mandating sexuality education in schools, and the prevalence of separate toilets and sanitation facilities for girls and boys. Eleven countries have no minimum age requirement for marriage,\(^9\) and only three countries—Georgia, Kenya, and Mauritania—have enforced a minimum age requirement of 18.

As mentioned in the first report, in 2019, 5 of the 44 countries had legal frameworks that restricted pregnant and/or parenting girls’ right to education. Many countries, notably Burundi, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe, have recently made progress in ensuring that this right is legally protected (INEE, 2021). Some countries have strategies to ensure that girls who became pregnant during the COVID-19 school closures are encouraged and supported to return to school. For example, Kenya’s ministry of education took measures to communicate the re-entry policy and the expectation that girls should be enrolled. A press release issued when schools re-opened in early January 2021 included the statement that “all pregnant and teenage mothers MUST be allowed to resume learning in line with the Ministry’s school re-entry Policy” (Kenya Ministry of Education, 2021).

As for employment laws, over half (27) of the 44 crisis-affected countries have laws mandating non-discrimination in employment based on gender, but less than a quarter (only 10) have laws mandating equal pay.

Regarding role models, the data indicate that, on average, women make up less than one-third of the public-sector workforce in crisis-affected countries (a 32% average for the 33 countries with data). The index also includes the percentage of female teachers at different levels of the education system under the “role models” dimension. In crisis-affected countries, females are underrepresented at the lower and upper secondary levels (see section 6.6 for further analysis of this). In Ethiopia, fewer than 10% of upper secondary school teachers are female.

Details from the index that relate to laws addressing violence in schools are covered in more detail in chapter 4.

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\(^8\) Somalia and Zimbabwe
\(^9\) Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Eritrea, Haiti, Libya, Madagascar, Venezuela, and Yemen
CHAPTER 3: DISTANCE LEARNING FOR GIRLS: HOW CAN GIRLS ACCESS LEARNING WHEN THEY CAN’T ACCESS SCHOOL?

Key findings

- At the height of the COVID-19 pandemic, 1.6 billion learners were out of school. Globally around 222 million girls could not be reached with digital and broadcast remote learning.
- The approaches adopted most widely by national education systems were reliant on access to technology, even in contexts where students and teachers had limited access.
- There are gendered differences in access to technology. The gender digital divide is rooted in broader bias and negative attitudes about girls and technology.
- Some countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, have implemented low-tech methods of distance education, including the use of radio and print materials.
- Effective approaches to distance education for girls are based on an understanding of girls’ access to technology; in some contexts, girls are most able to access a mobile phone.
- Community workers can play a vital role in enabling girls to continue learning when schools close. They can distribute learning resources, facilitate remote support from teachers, encourage parents to support girls’ learning, and organize safe community-based spaces for girls to learn.
- There is a need to gain a greater understanding of girls’ digital lives, including how distance and hybrid learning programs can reach girls in crisis-affected contexts when schools are inaccessible.

At the height of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, schools were closed in more than 190 countries, putting 1.6 billion learners out of school (UNESCO, 2021b). These closures have sparked renewed interest in creating resilient education systems that will be more able to deal with future shocks. This will require developing distance learning approaches that can reach all learners, including marginalized girls.

This chapter first explores the barriers to accessing education technology (EdTech) experienced by girls in crisis contexts, including gendered aspects of the digital divide. These gaps are rooted in gender bias and negative attitudes, and they intersect with other aspects of the digital divide related to poverty, lack of infrastructure, lack of digital skills, and other inequalities. It then provides an overview of the distance learning strategies countries adopted during the COVID-19 crisis before considering low- or no-tech distance learning programs, hybrid programs, and some digital learning platforms. This chapter explores a range of strategies for overcoming the digital divide. One short-term strategy is to provide low-tech and no-tech
alternatives that all girls can access. A longer-term strategy is to provide ministries of education, schools, communities, and parents with the sensitization, skills, and resources they need to close the digital divide and ensure greater parity in access to technology in the home.

3.1 THE DIGITAL DIVIDE: HOW OVER-RELIANCE ON TECHNOLOGY SOLUTIONS FOR REMOTE LEARNING, WITHOUT GENDER-RESPONSIVE DELIVERY, CAN WIDEN GENDER GAPS

The disrupted schooling experienced globally as a result of COVID-19 has raised awareness of gendered barriers to the use of EdTech, and of the role intersecting and pre-existing factors like disability, remote locations, language, and poverty play in access to technology (Jones et al., 2021). Many of the world’s students were introduced to remote learning during COVID-19. But reliance on technology to deliver remote learning potentially excluded millions of children in countries such as Sudan and Mauritania, where, on average, only 3% of the poorest households had access to electricity, and online learning benefited only those easiest to reach (Burns, 2021; Dreesen et al., 2020). Based on UNICEF’s estimates, around 222 million girls, were potentially not reached by digital and broadcast remote learning policies.\(^{10}\) In eastern and southern Africa, around half (49%) of students could not be reached (UNICEF, 2020a, p 6).

The situation is the worst for children who are members of vulnerable or marginalized groups, including girls. Girls’ and women’s lack of connectivity, access to devices, low literacy levels, and lack of digital skills are significant impediments to their ability to benefit from digital or high-tech learning solutions (Nefesh-Clarke et al., 2020). In Ethiopia, Young Lives data suggest that girls’ access to online learning remains very low; 39% of 19-year-old girls who were enrolled in education in 2020 had still not engaged in any form of online learning by December that year (Porter et al., 2021).

The gender digital divide is rooted in broader gender bias and in attitudes about girls and technology. Cultural bias and gendered assumptions about girls’ competence and enjoyment of technology, and the benefits and risks they accrue from using it, mean that girls have less access to technology, both inside and outside the classroom. Girls therefore develop less technological competency early on and less consistently than boys, which creates a vicious cycle of societal and individual expectations about girls’ and women’s competence in using technology, and their confidence to demand access and be allowed to use it (Webb et al., 2021). Unless these factors are changed, the increasing use of digital technology is likely to increase rather than reduce gender inequality.

3.1.1 GENDER GAPS IN ACCESS TO TECHNOLOGY AND DIGITAL SKILLS

There are clear gendered differences in access to technology. Data from the International Telecommunications Union (ITU, 2021) indicate that, in developing countries, 50% of women are online, compared to 57% of men. Although the gender divide in internet access has narrowed in recent years and has reached parity in many developed countries, it remains wide in the least developed countries, where only 19% of women use the internet, compared to 31% of men. The GSM Association’s mobile gender gap report for 2021 found that women’s access to mobile internet continues to increase globally, but women in low- and middle-income countries are still 7% less likely to own a mobile phone than men and 15% less likely to use mobile internet, with large regional differences. The gender gap in mobile internet use is largest in South Asia at 23%, as compared to 13% in sub-Saharan Africa. However, women who do own a smartphone are almost on a par with male owners in terms of mobile internet adoption and the range of mobile services they use (Carboni, 2021), which indicates that women use their devices to a similar extent as men once they have access.

Much of the pre-COVID-19 data available on digital access focused on women over the age of 18, leaving a significant gap in knowledge of girls’ digital lives (Tyers-Chowdhury & Binder, 2021). There is also a need to generate more data and research on cross-cutting and intersecting divides, such as differences between rural and urban women and women at different income levels (Tyers & Banyan Global, 2020).

Very limited international data are available on digital skills and the use of technology. UIS reports data on SDG 4, which includes information on the availability of ICT and its use in schools, and on a series of ICT skills. The UIS indicators on the use of ICT were developed to provide policy-relevant and internationally comparable data (UIS, 2009), but they are very focused on skill in using a computer and while neglecting skill in the use of a mobile phone, which more girls in crisis- and conflict-affected contexts are likely to be able to access. Moreover, few crisis-affected countries have any data for this set of indicators. For instance, the indicator “proportion of youth and adults with

\(^{10}\) UNICEF estimated that 463 million students could not be reached (UNICEF, 2020a p6) and that 48% of those students were female (UNICEF, 2020a p11). It should be noted that females constitute less than half (49%) of the compulsory school age population globally (UIS database n.d.).
Chapter 3: Distance learning for girls: How can girls access learning when they can’t access school?

the skill to cut and paste a file,” which could be considered a low-level computer skill, is available for just 6 of the 44 countries for 2019 or 2020. The data show high variability between countries; for example, in 2019, just 0.9% of girls in Bangladesh were reported to have the skill to copy and paste a file, compared to 35% of girls in Turkey.\textsuperscript{11}

3.1.2 ATTITUDINAL BIAS IS A BARRIER TO GIRLS’ ACCESS TO TECHNOLOGY AT HOME AND IN THE CLASSROOM

During the COVID-19 pandemic, a body of survey research conducted with girls in a variety of contexts looked specifically at the barriers to participation in remote learning. With schools closed, girls carried a greater burden of household chores and domestic responsibilities than boys (UNESCO, 2021b), and they experienced more frequent interruptions of their studies and lack of a study routine (Alam et al., 2021.; Raha et al., 2021).

Surveys and research conducted with girls who are trying to use the EdTech resources available to them has found that girls have less time to devote to studying than their male peers, due to their domestic responsibilities. Early in the pandemic in Bangladesh, 97% of girl respondents to a GAGE survey were continuing some kind of learning during school closures (Jones et al., 2021).\textsuperscript{12} They faced a range of barriers to accessing learning content, and there was significant variation in the types of resources they were able to access. As their engagement decreased over time, girls responded that they faced financial constraints to attending online classes. The inability to communicate with teachers, lack of access to devices and private study space, and the constant struggle to negotiate access to devices with other family members led to girls’ reduced engagement (Alam et al., 2021.; Raha et al., 2021).

Girls interviewed as part of GAGE and UNESCO Gender and School Closure Analysis research in Bangladesh, where school closures were extended, described how their access to mobile phones and the internet for study purposes was mediated by their parents, who gave boys more access. Girls described experiences where their access to technology was limited by both household income and parents:

Only my father has a phone, no one else. I don’t use my father’s phone much. I don’t even have their [my friends] numbers. I don’t use Facebook using this phone, because it is a button phone.

— Interview, girl, age 11, Dhaka, Bangladesh (Raha et al., 2021)

My elder brothers have smartphones . . . so if I need anything of utmost importance, they let me use the phone and help me download materials from online. I can only use their phones sometimes, but the phones are not mine so I can’t keep the phones with me.

— In-depth interview, girl, age 13, Khushtia, Bangladesh (UNESCO, 2021b)

Girls are also less likely than boys to be able to access computers or the internet at shared or community facilities (Webb et al., 2021). In some contexts, this may be due to broader limitations on girls’ mobility. In some cultures, cyber cafes are viewed as immoral environments that girls should not visit. One piece of research in Ghana, for example, found that cyber cafes were viewed as an “unsavory environment and girls face stigmas in these spaces due to the access to pornography and fraudulent activities” (Steeves & Kwami, 2017). A review by Webb et al. (2021) found that, when socially constructed gender bias and norms were reinforced by parents and teachers, girls could come to embrace these beliefs and self-regulate their own use of technology. The review quotes studies by Meno (2012) and Vilakti (2014), which found that, even when girls had the same access to technology as their male peers, their lack of confidence, fear, mistrust, and disinterest restricted their use. Another study in Kenya found that some girls had concerns about using mobile phones, as they had seen their peers use phones for “inappropriate social activities,” such as spending excessive time on social media sites or contacting boys and men instead of focusing on their studies (Zelezny-Green, 2014).

\textsuperscript{11} UIS data retrieved October 2021 http://data.uis.unesco.org/
\textsuperscript{12} GAGE stands for Gender and Adolescence: Global Evidence.
3.2 APPROACHES TO DISTANCE LEARNING: DELIVERING WITH EDTECH, AND ITS LIMITATIONS

Mapping of distance education in emergencies conducted by the INEE Distance Education Reference Group classified distance education modalities based on three categories: high-tech (requiring internet-enabled devices such as computers and smart phones), low-tech (not requiring internet access and using lower-tech hardware such as radios), and no-tech solutions (such as printed materials and home visits from teachers) (INEE, 2020a). Definitions of the terms “distance,” “remote,” and “education technology” have evolved over the course of the COVID-19 pandemic; our working definitions are included in Annex 4 and draw from Burns’ (2021) background paper for the 2023 Global Education Monitoring Report on Technology.

The UNESCO-UNICEF-World Bank-OECD survey on national education responses to COVID-19 school closures found that most countries used multiple modalities to provide distance learning while schools were closed. Radio and TV were used most frequently in low-income countries. Almost all (96%) high-income countries provided remote learning through an online platform, compared to just 58% of low-income countries. While 70% of countries had planned to offer internet access or services at a subsidized or zero cost, only 25% of countries did so. Fewer than half of the countries (54 of 116) reported implementing one or more measures specifically to support girls’ education (UNESCO et al., 2021).

Research by the World Bank in support of the National Education Responses Survey identified the system-level actions that are needed to develop an effective distance education strategy. The key factors are summarized as effective teachers, suitable technology, and engaged learners (Munoz-Najar et al., 2020). Mismatches between the distance learning programs developed by governments and the realities of access to technology mean that the most vulnerable children appear to have been left the farthest behind. The Kenya Institute for Curriculum Development worked to expand and increase the availability of an existing TV- and radio-based distance education program by providing extended broadcast hours and access to free TV channels. However, access to devices and connectivity varies vastly throughout the country: around 90% of households have access to a mobile phone, 71% to a TV, 37% to a radio, and just 17% have an internet connection. When combined with a lack of reliable electricity in many areas, this meant the solutions offered worked only for a select group of students. A report by Uwezo (2020) showed that only 22% of school-going children in Kenya were accessing digital resources for learning (Munoz-Najar et al., 2020).

A paper from the Global Education Evidence Advisory Panel (2022) also highlighted the limited success of remote learning in most education systems, particularly for the most disadvantaged learners. The paper also notes a lack of evidence, in particular of the effectiveness of radio-based instruction during the pandemic.

Box 1: Country experience in developing distance learning in response to COVID-19

UNICEF Somaliland

UNICEF supported the government of Somaliland in developing and implementing a COVID-19 response plan to ensure learning continuity for children. With partners from the Ministry of Education and Science, UNICEF created a new distance learning infrastructure that relied on radio, TV, and the internet. Lessons were broadcast each morning, and also uploaded to a YouTube channel and a Facebook page. The lesson broadcasts included sign language to make them accessible to children with hearing disabilities. Available data show that 97,421 children (41,814 girls) accessed this distance learning opportunities.

A number of important lessons were learned during the period of school closure. The majority of learners in Somaliland live in rural areas and face significant barriers to accessing content, including a lack of electricity and not being reached by TV, radio, or internet networks. Many learners also did not have access to the technology or devices needed to access content. These learners relied instead on paper resources.

The Ministry of Education and Science, with UNICEF support, is now developing a plan for digital learning that addresses uneven access to resources and will train teachers and parents in the use of digital learning resources. The ministry anticipates that effective distance learning solutions that can be mobilized rapidly can also support learners when schools are disrupted by drought, flood, or other crises.

Source: UNICEF (2021a)

13 Uwezo is an independent not-for-profit organization operating in Uganda since October 2019.
It is also critical that distance learning strategies address non-academic competencies in order to support students’ socio-emotional development and well-being (Barron Rodriguez et al., 2021). Life-skills courses can cover many of these competencies. The Campaign for Female Education’s (CAMFED) My Better World curriculum is one example of delivering life skills information and skills building using distance methods. It was developed into a partially animated video series that helps students navigate challenges, build confidence, set goals, and learn how to achieve them. The series is currently being screened by TV networks in Nigeria, Zambia, Malawi, and Kenya.

Gender considerations need to be included in the design and production of distance education courses. Naylor and Gorden (2020) describe pedagogical approaches that have been proven to have a positive impact on girls’ learning, including group learning, high-engagement learning, and project-based learning. Developers should ensure that women are included in the generation and presentation of educational content, and that the content avoids gender stereotypes. Most importantly, approaches and strategies for distance education should aim to understand and take into account the challenges and barriers to learning that girls face and respond to their needs accordingly.

The experience of the COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the need to support teachers in providing gender-responsive remote learning, and the need to take into account the gendered impact school closures have on female teachers. UNESCO’s (2021b) review of this impact notes that, while most countries reported providing teachers with instructions on how to deliver lessons through remote learning, little evidence was found of efforts to help teachers build skills in gender-responsive pedagogy in remote learning. No programs were found that provided specific support to female teachers, which indicates that little attention was given to the increased burden of childcare that is largely borne by women. The report recommends that governments provide appropriate support and training to teachers to enable them to deliver quality, gender-responsive, remote learning interventions. Particular attention must be given to the needs of teachers who have domestic responsibilities and a significant caregiving burden.

3.3 HOW CAN DISTANCE EDUCATION REACH GIRLS IN CRISIS-AFFECTED CONTEXTS?

Designing distance education for equity requires tailoring programming to the most widely accessible platforms and ensuring that low-tech options are available and accessible. During the COVID-19 pandemic, many implementers of girls’ education programs made rapid adaptations to their models in order to maintain girls’ engagement and connection with learning. Such programs drew on existing evidence, research, and experience from education in emergencies to design ways to maintain contact with girls and provide support for them to learn. Evidence from existing education programs demonstrates that, for effective learner engagement with technology or distance learning, some form of support from a teacher, facilitator, or other adult is needed (Naylor & Gorgen, 2020; Tauson & Stannard, 2018).

The first step many programs took in their adaptation was to understand what kind of technology the girls they were working with had access to, and the barriers they faced in accessing distance learning. This enabled organizations to develop appropriate strategies and to work with communities to provide the additional support needed to overcome barriers to learning. By maintaining contact with girls when schools were closed, these projects were able to understand their needs, support their access to available learning resources, and monitor their well-being and engagement with learning. Maintaining contact was important to ensure that girls did not drop out or lose their connection with education, and to check on their well-being and safety (Cornish-Spencer, 2020a).

This section presents examples of low- or no-tech distance learning, hybrid approaches, and programs that have taken a high-tech approach. As many of these interventions were implemented in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, at the time of writing only a few had generated robust evidence of their impact on learning and reenrollment. However, there is limited evidence of impact, even for approaches that predate the pandemic, particularly EdTech interventions. This may be due in part to the challenges involved in implementing robust experimental impact evaluations in an emergency setting.

3.3.1 NO-TECH AND LOW-TECH REMOTE LEARNING APPROACHES

Successful distance education programs have provided access to education materials for marginalized girls using a mixture of printed material, online content, and TV broadcasts, in combination with tutorials and workshops that often are supported in person by a teacher or facilitator (Naylor & Gorgen, 2020; Tauson & Stannard, 2018).

In this section, we highlight some low-tech approaches to distance education that were either active before COVID-19 or developed in response to the pandemic. There are many examples of programs that have reached children in their homes, established learning circles or other methods of peer support, engaged teachers in pro-
Providing individual or small-group instruction, and engaged parents in supporting learners in the home with radio or paper-based exercises.

One distance learning format with a long history in education in emergencies is interactive radio instruction (IRI). Ho and Thukral’s (2009) review of 15 IRI projects found that they had a positive impact on literacy and numeracy. More recently, the Speak Up IRI program in South Sudan has helped 7,500 out-of-school children improve their literacy, numeracy, and English language skills (McBurnie, 2020). Another example is described in the case study below.

**Box 2: Making Waves: Interactive radio instruction**

War Child Canada began implementing an IRI program, now known as Making Waves, in the DRC in 2014. The program initially aimed to provide academic opportunities for middle school-age girls in conflict and post-conflict conditions. In 2017, the program expanded to provide secondary education.

In Making Waves, students can gather in education centers based in community-donated spaces or remain at home, where they listen to and participate in broadcast lessons. Learners are supported by education assistants, and each education center is equipped with a radio that can be powered by batteries, plugged into a wall, or run on solar power. The lessons are also provided on a USB stick that can be plugged into and played on the radios if a network is not available.

A team of local scriptwriters creates engaging instructional programs to teach students by radio. The lessons are aligned with the national curriculum. The scriptwriters created age-appropriate characters for the levels being taught. They include both boys and girls, often a wise adult, a radio teacher, and sometimes locally familiar animals such as a cow, all of whom discuss the contents of the subjects in a setting that is familiar to the students. The interactive element allows lesson time in which the education assistant asks questions and engages with the students on the topic.

Prior to COVID-19, Making Waves reached more than 28,000 learners in Kinshasa, Uvia, and Bukavu. A small-scale evaluation published in 2021 found that students in the program had higher mean scores on reading and math, and higher psychosocial well-being than their peers receiving a more traditional education.

For full details, see case study 1 in Annex 1.

Another way of supporting learners has been to work with community leaders and community-based workers to distribute learning resources, facilitate remote teacher support, encourage parents to support girls’ learning, and organize safe community-based spaces in which girls can learn. Community workers can therefore have a vital role in ensuring continuity of learning when schools close. The two case studies below demonstrate how this can be done to support girls learning during crises.

**Box 3: Community learning kiosks in the Philippines**

In the Philippines, the Real Assets through Improved Skills and Education for Adolescent Girls (RAISE Above) program is implemented by Plan Philippines, with support from Dubai Cares. RAISE above works in the Western Samar region, where poverty rates are high, and girls are vulnerable to early pregnancy and early marriage. Prior to COVID-19, the program worked in schools to help girls build agency, life skills, and employability skills with the help of youth and peer educators, and provided activities to help reduce girls' dropout.

When schools closed, RAISE Above pivoted its activities to take place in the community, led by community and youth leaders. This was done primarily through community learning kiosks, which are community spaces given over to serving as one-stop education centers. Learners can pick up and submit distance learning modules from their school, and then use the learning kiosks to study, read, access additional learning materials, and get tutorial help in reading and numeracy from community volunteers. The kiosks also provide a space where peer leaders can continue to provide support and information that is important for students’ well-being.

For full details, see case study 2 in Annex 1.
In many contexts, mobile phones have provided an important way for programs to continue to reach girls during school closures. At the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in Zimbabwe, the SAGE project found that more than half of the girls they worked with had mobile phones with SMS functions. Thus, they arranged to send bulk SMS communications to girls, which were focused on safeguarding, well-being, and the continuation of learning. The SMS messages were followed up by direct phone calls from project volunteers (Girls’ Education Challenge, 2020).

In other contexts, SMS or WhatsApp messages have been combined with video, online portals, and face-to-face learning to provide interactive and engaging learning. Shupavu291 is a collaborative effort between UNHCR, Eneza Education, the Lutheran World Federation, and Cohere (formerly the Xavier Project) that was implemented in Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya. Students can use the SMS service to receive educational content that is aligned with the Kenyan national curriculum. They can view mini-lessons and submit answers, which are then corrected, if necessary, and accompanied by short explanations to help deepen their understanding of the subject matter (UNESCO, 2018).

Teach for Pakistan’s initial rapid data collection at the beginning of COVID-19 established that the majority of the students they worked with had access to a reliable mobile phone or WhatsApp. The organization used this information, along with their community relationships, to design and deliver distance learning strategies that were responsive to students’ needs, girls in particular. WhatsApp calls and messages between fellows and girls supported the use of paper-based learning packs. These mechanisms facilitated feedback; the learners submitted pictures of their work over WhatsApp and could then contact their teacher during the scheduled office hours.

In rural Islamabad, where Teach for Pakistan operates, girls faced challenges to accessing technology and engaging fully in distance learning. These included household responsibilities; limited or restricted access to smartphones, internet, and TV; restricted mobility; and increased domestic abuse and violence. Girls’ families often did not permit them to use a phone without supervision from a family member or to watch the YouTube videos that were part of the learning content. To tackle this, the teaching fellows spoke with parents to assure them that the content sent was related only to the girls’ studies. They also downloaded the learning content so that girls did not need to access external websites.

Some new EdTech devices have been developed specifically to meet the needs of a certain context. For instance, Lebanese Alternative Learning developed Tabshoura in a Box, a battery-powered device that facilitates access to educational content (see Box 5).

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14 The Sage program is a comprehensive initiative for highly marginalized out-of-school adolescent girls ages 10-19.
15 Teach for Pakistan recruits graduates and young professionals for a two-year fellowship, during which they teach in low-income schools. For more information, see https://www.teachforpakistan.org/.
16 Teach for Pakistan, unpublished program information 2021
**Box 5: Tabshoura in a Box**

Through the Education Champion Network, the Malala Foundation supports education activists and advocates who challenge policies and practices that prevent girls from going to school in their communities. The foundation supports “education champions” in Afghanistan, Brazil, Ethiopia, India, Lebanon, Nigeria, Turkey, and Pakistan (Malala Fund Education Champion Network, n.d.).

One such champion is Nayla Faheed. Nayla is the founder of Lebanese Alternative Learning, which created the digital learning platform Tabshoura in a Box. The Tabshoura in a Box devices are preloaded with educational content and are battery powered, so they work in refugee communities that have no access to the internet or electricity. Tabshoura in a Box is helping Syrian refugee girls catch up on their education before they formally enroll in school. Since 2017, 15,000 students and 500 teachers have used Lebanese Alternative Learning technology. During COVID-19, the program focused on training teachers in remote pedagogy. They listened to teachers’ needs and challenges and made them part of the solution. One example was using WhatsApp or Telegram to connect with students in vulnerable communities, which enabled teachers to provide more than 100 lesson plans to 2,000 students.

Source: Unpublished program documentation/communication from Malala Fund

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**3.3.3 HIGH-TECH AND DIGITAL APPROACHES TO DISTANCE EDUCATION**

Digital approaches to distance learning are often seen as having the potential to close education gaps between those with and those without consistent access to schools and colleges by providing “any time, any place” learning opportunities (Tyers & Banyan Global, 2020). A wide variety of EdTech products and programs have been developed since the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, and new partnerships between the private sector, international organizations, and national governments have developed quickly in response to the additional challenges (UNESCO, 2021a).

One example is the development of large-scale digital learning platforms, such as Imaginecole.africa. The platform was launched in December 2020 as part of a GPE-funded project to improve the quality of distance education in Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Chad, and Togo. The platform, which claims to support the hybrid education of 6.6 million students, has more than 600 educational resources available (UNESCO, 2021a).

Evidence on the impact of existing EdTech is mixed, at best. Reviews of EdTech used in school systems facing protracted crises prior to COVID-19 found limited high-quality evidence of the impact (Hallgarten et al., 2020; Tauson & Stannard, 2018). The evidence that is available shows that technology can help students improve their reading, numeracy, and literacy skills, yet it has also been reported that such successes often fail to replicate in other contexts. The overall picture from the evidence remains incomplete (Burns, 2021). Evidence on the impact on girls of using technology shows that, when barriers to the use of technology for education are removed, girls are likely to respond with a high level of engagement. Girls who had access to technology found it more empowering relative to boys, and the advantages extended into other areas of their lives (Webb et al., 2020).

Vocational and technical education provide some of the most promising examples of using technology (Hallgarten et al., 2020). Prior to the pandemic, services created to reach marginalized women and girls often delivered courses through audio, video, and “how-to” instruction that reduced reliance on written textbooks. Some research has suggested that this type of access may increase adult women’s awareness of the education programs available to their children, which could lead to improved participation in education (OECD, 2018).
Box 6: Distance learning’s impact on non-academic skills

“Hey Sister! Show me the Mobile Money” is a USAID-funded digital financial literacy program that operates in a range of countries, including Kenya, Malawi, and Uganda. The series of audio lessons, which are free to the subscribers of certain phone providers, help women learn how to use digital financial services and manage their finances, including how to protect themselves from fake news and scams.17

GIRLS Inspire, an initiative of the Commonwealth of Learning project in India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh, uses open and distance learning in secondary and skill-based education. GIRLS works with girls who have been prevented from attending school due to such barriers as early marriage, cultural norms, and living at a distance from school. An evaluation found that the majority of women who participated said the project had a positive impact on their access to economic opportunities, and on their ability to make health decisions and access resources.

Source: Ferreira (2017, 2019)

Tauson and Stannard’s (2018) systematic review of EdTech in emergencies found that the use of technology was most valuable as a support and facilitator for teachers, and that student-teacher communication was vital to effective learning. Providing hardware is clearly not enough to improve learning outcomes; strong pedagogical design, links to the curriculum, and individual content specific to learners’ levels help to maintain learners’ progress and engagement. This is particularly important in emergency settings, where learning has been disrupted and learners need to get back on track. The review also found that the engagement of family members and teachers through contextually appropriate material or scaffolding can support children’s ability to learn.

3.4 SAFEGUARDING AND PROTECTION IN DIGITAL SPACES

Digital technologies expose girls to new protection risks. Although there is a lack of research on the harms that marginalized girls and girls in crisis-affected contexts may experience online, existing evidence indicates that girls and children on the move are the most vulnerable (UNICEF, 2017). Research by Plan International with more than 14,000 girls in 31 high-, middle, and low-income countries found that 58% of girl respondents reported that they have personally experienced some form of online harassment or abuse, and 47% said they have been threatened with physical or sexual violence online (Plan International, 2021).

Approaches to preventing abuse online can include community-awareness campaigns, school- based interventions, the development of national digital strategies, and interventions targeting high-risk groups of children (UNICEF East Asia & Pacific Regional Office, 2020a).

It is important to consider safeguarding in distance education programs that use digital media. It also should be taken into account when designing and curating digital spaces and communication channels that teachers and program staff use to keep in touch with girls, and in digital spaces where girls interact with each other. The Girls Education Challenge created guidance and template standard operating procedures to guide communication methods. The guidance asks project staff members to consider girls’ access to and control of resources, as well as what is ethical and safe in implementing activities.

Digital technology can also be used for protection—for example, as a means for victims to report abuse and seek support, to use phone messaging for safeguarding, and to provide girls with information and pathways to support (Naylor & Gorgen, 2020). Virtual Safe Spaces, which is supported by UNICEF, demonstrates the potential of this approach. Virtual Safe Spaces aims to provide a platform where adolescent girls and women can access information and support that is safe, culturally appropriate, and accessible. The platform includes interactive multimedia content on adolescent sexual and reproductive health, GBV, life skills, and empowerment. Virtual Safe Spaces was piloted in Iraq and Lebanon in 2018; version two will be rolled out in Iraq and Ecuador after extensive consultation and testing with women and girls (UNICEF, 2021b).

17 Hey Sister resources can be found at https://www.siaedge.com/show-me-the-mobile-money.
CHAPTER 4: GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND GIRLS’ EDUCATION

Key findings

- There are limited data available on SRGBV, particularly those that measure SRGBV in learning spaces for refugees.
- A better picture of the prevalence of SRGBV can be developed by combining a variety of existing surveys.
- Analysis of data from six sub-Saharan African countries finds that one in four adolescent girls report having experienced violence, and one in seven had experienced sexual violence within the previous year.
- System-level efforts to address SRGBV have encountered challenges with resources, competing priorities, and human resource constraints, which limits the implementation of high-level commitments and policies, particularly at the district level. As a result, awareness of SRGBV policies and their implementation at the school level is limited.
- There is emerging evidence that the whole school approach to tackling SRGBV, which focuses on changing attitudes, behaviors, and practices across a range of actors, is an effective way to shift the drivers of SRGBV and can lead to a reduction of SRGBV over the long term.

As discussed in the 2021 Mind the Gap report (INEE, 2021), SRGBV is very common in many crisis-affected countries, and girls in all their diversity are often at risk of physical, sexual, and psychological violence at school and on the journey to or from school. While this report acknowledges that boys and people of diverse sexual orientation and gender identity and expression are also victims of violence, this chapter focuses on the impact on girls in crisis contexts.

Girls experience different types of violence in school, ranging from corporal punishment to bullying to being forced to have sex to get good grades (Safe to Learn, 2021). It should be noted that that education has great potential to protect girls, and to equip girls and boys with the skills, knowledge, and attitudes they need to help build a more gender-equitable society, including reducing GBV in the wider community (INEE, 2021).

There is growing momentum toward improving the depth, range, and quality of data collected on SRGBV, and emerging evidence of promising approaches at multiple levels of the education system to address SRGBV and the root causes of violence.
4.1 DEFINING AND MEASURING SRGBV

4.1.1 DEFINITION

SRGBV is most commonly defined as “acts or threats of sexual, physical, or psychological violence occurring in and around schools, perpetrated as a result of gender norms and stereotypes and enforced by unequal power dynamics” (UNESCO & UN Women, 2016). SRGBV can be inflicted on girls and boys on the way to and from school or at school, and can involve violence perpetrated by a teacher or other adult or a peer. This includes actions such as gender-based bullying, harassment, sexual violence, sexual exploitation, and other forms of abuse. While not necessarily perpetrated as a result of gender norms, corporal punishment is sometimes applied in a gendered manner, with girls and boys subjected to it in different forms and frequencies.

Awareness of SRGBV has increased over recent years, as minimum standards and monitoring approaches have been developed through the Global Working Group to End School-Related Gender-Based Violence, hosted by UNESCO and the United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative (UNGEI). However, the development of these comprehensive programming guidelines has not benefited from detailed, contextually specific data on the prevalence of SRGBV (Punjabi et al., 2021) or impact evaluations (Parkes et al., 2016). There is a strong need to collect more data in order to understand the nature and scope of SRGBV and design appropriate solutions.

Negative social norms that reinforce unequal power structures between men and women, girls and boys, and adults and children have been identified as the most significant drivers and root causes of SRGBV. Understanding the gender norms and structural inequalities around such practices as childhood discipline is key to challenging them effectively through community and family education, government structures, and other influences, such as the media or religion (Heslop et al., 2021). Girls and boys, teachers, and other school staff members can be the victims or perpetrators of SRGBV, which can have serious multidimensional and long-term consequences, including on school attendance and completion and learning outcomes (UNESCO, 2016).

4.1.2 AVAILABLE DATA SOURCES

Data on the nature and scope of SRGBV, and on the drivers of violence and the underpinning gender norms, are limited (UNGEI & UNICEF, 2021). To have a full understanding of SRGBV in any context, data are needed on the prevalence of violent incidents, children’s responses to violence, the norms and structures underpinning violence, and school safety and other supportive environments; these data should be disaggregated by key social identity factors, such as gender (Heslop et al., 2021).

Data specifically on violence in schools are available from a range of large-scale international surveys. Table 2 shows the range of question areas and populations covered. Surveys such as the Demographic Health Surveys (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) include less content on the specific experience of violence in schools than surveys focusing on children. Questions about school violence are often included in surveys focused on learning achievement or in generic surveys about violence against women or children; they include questions about whether a particular type of violence took place at school.

Surveys such as the Violence Against Children Surveys (VACS) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) are now making available more comprehensive, deliberate data on violence in schools by including questions about experiences of sexual harassment, corporal punishment, and bullying specifically in school settings. However, no survey captures all forms of violence in schools or systematically applies a gender analysis (UNGEI & UNICEF, 2021). Therefore, with the exception of data on sexual violence, it can be difficult to determine the extent to which acts of violence reported in surveys were perpetrated as a result of gendered norms. Data on bullying and on physical and emotional violence can thus be used only as proxies when estimating the prevalence of SRGBV. Where gender-disaggregated data are available, gendered patterns in the experiences of different types of violence in schools can be determined.
Table 2: Available measures from large international surveys that relate to SRGBV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey/Monitoring Project</th>
<th>Available measures</th>
<th>Additional information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Violence Against Children and Youth Survey (VACS)</td>
<td>• Physical violence</td>
<td>Collects data on multiple forms of violence, context and consequences of violence, as well as risk factors and protective factors. Data are collected through a nationally representative household survey. Data collection started in 2007 and currently covers 23 countries, although they currently are not collected on a regular schedule. VACS are led by government institutions, with support from the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, as part of the Together for Girls partnership. Refugee populations and settlements have been excluded from most available VACS, in keeping with statistical office policy for other national surveys; e.g., the government of Nigeria excludes the conflict-affected regions in northern Nigeria from VACS for security reasons. One exception is a VACS conducted in Haiti following the 2010 earthquake (Chiang et al., 2020). Guidance for conducting a VACS in humanitarian settings was published in 2021, surveys using the VACS methodology are planned for implementation in Uganda and Ethiopia in 2022-2023.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global School-based student Health Survey (GSBHS)</td>
<td>• Bullying experience</td>
<td>Collects data from adolescent schoolchildren on a range of behaviors linked to poor health.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Behavior in School-aged Children (HBSC)</td>
<td>• Bullying experience at school</td>
<td>Aims to assess health and health behaviors of adolescents. Implemented by the World Health Organization (WHO), data are mainly available for European and North American countries. HBSC produces an international report, rather than individual country studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)</td>
<td>• Attitude toward women and domestic violence</td>
<td>Collects data on health and nutrition through nationally representative household surveys, administered approximately every five years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS)</td>
<td>• Feeling safe in neighborhood</td>
<td>Household survey collected in more than 116 countries with nationally representative samples. Designed to monitor the situation of children and women with children under age five, the key population for many indicators. Implemented by UNICEF in collaboration with DHS. Typically carried out by government institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality Project (SAQMEC)</td>
<td>• Peer violence</td>
<td>Primarily collects data on performance in literacy and numeracy. Conducted in 15 countries in sub-Saharan Africa at 5-6-year intervals through self-completed questionnaires, which are administered in schools with primary school students, teachers, and head teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme d’Analyse des Systèmes Éducatifs (PASEC)</td>
<td>• Bullying</td>
<td>Collects data on students’ achievement in literacy and numeracy in francophone sub-Saharan Africa. Collected at four-year intervals through self-completed questionnaires administered in schools with students in grades 2 and 6, teachers, and head teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trends in International Mathematics and Science (TIMSS)/Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS)</td>
<td>• Bullying</td>
<td>Collect data on student achievement in literacy and numeracy. TIMMS is conducted every four years and PIRLS every five years through a self-completed questionnaire administered in schools with students in grades 4 and 8, teachers, and parents or guardians.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Building a useful overview of the context of SRGBV currently requires reviewing and compiling data from the various sources available at the country level and understanding adaptations of questions or omissions in each context (Heslop et al., 2021). National surveys and smaller scale research data collected around gender-based violence or violence as a public health concern can also provide useful information.

The patchwork of the available tools corresponds to the patchy availability of data in the 44 crisis-affected countries. Annex 3 contains a list of surveys that have been conducted in the 44 crisis-affected countries considered in this report. Countries vary widely in the number of data sources they have available. The countries with the fewest data available are Eritrea, with only DHS, Sudan with only MICS, and oPt with just TIMSS/PIRLS. The majority of the 44 countries have at least three data sources available from internationally comparable surveys.

A significant challenge to collecting data on SRGBV is the stigma and silence that surround the issue (Parkes et al., 2016). Data on SRGBV for refugee and internally displaced children and youth are even more limited, as these populations are generally not included in national surveys. Where they are included, data may not be disaggregated by refugee or IDP status (Chiang et al. 2020). Movement of populations and a lack of access to social networks further limit reporting and data collection. Additional challenges to collecting accurate data include underreporting, often due to norms that prevent children from understanding when their rights have been violated or from talking openly about violence, particularly when violence has been perpetrated by an authority figure. There also may be norms around dealing with violence within a community, other than reporting it to the appropriate authorities (Heslop et al., 2021).

Different understandings of what constitutes violence are also important, and changes in understanding and the recognition of violence can increase reporting rates. For example, an evaluation of a multi-level intervention designed to stop violence against girls in schools found that girls’ reports of experiences of violence increased considerably over the five years of the project, starting from a very low base. Other data collected by the project suggest that this reported increase was due to girls having a safer environment, being more likely to seek help, and being more likely to recognize and challenge violence (Parkes & Heslop, 2013).

Research and smaller scale surveys conducted by humanitarian agencies can offer insights into experiences and levels of violence. For example, a 2016 survey conducted by UNGEI, with support from INEE, gathered information on SRGBV in situations of conflict (UNGEI & NRC, 2016). The GAGE program has conducted some qualitative research with adolescent girls who are Congolese refugees in Rwanda (Isimbi et al., 2019), and with Palestinian refugees in Jordan and Lebanon (Presler-Marshall et al., 2021). This research used in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, and life history interviews to explore girls’ experiences of violence in school. UNHCR has developed a gender-based violence toolkit to support data collection, program monitoring, incident reports, and data analysis in this area (UNHCR, n.d.).

### 4.1.3 EXPANSION OF AVAILABLE DATA

Actions are under way to increase the availability, quality, and reporting of the data around SRGBV. One example of this is expansion of the VACS under the leadership of Together for Girls. Together for Girls is a global partnership, whose members include Global Affairs Canada, the U.S. government (Department of State, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, and USAID), UNICEF, the WHO, and the United Nations Population Fund. Together for Girls recently conducted a secondary analysis of VACS with the goal of understanding the complexities of violence in schools more fully. Data factsheets about crisis-affected countries were published in 2021 on Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Uganda, and Zimbabwe. The secondary analysis aims to measure the prevalence of and circumstances around emotional, physical, and sexual violence experienced in schools. Data from Uganda in the table below illustrate the kinds of data that can build a picture of the prevalence of SRGBV and the sustained negative impact it has on individual students, as well as the lack of access to much-needed support and services.
Table 3: VACS data from Uganda on the prevalence, reporting, and impact of SRGBV

| Prevalence | • 45% of female students (2,139,684) and 54% of male students (2,523,623) experienced one or more forms of physical and sexual violence perpetrated by teachers and/or classmates  
  • 7% of female students and 6% of male students experienced sexual violence perpetrated by classmates  
  • 2% of female students and less than 1% of male students experienced sexual violence perpetrated by teachers  
  • 30% of female students and 42% of male students experienced physical violence perpetrated by a male teacher  
  • 20% of female students and 16% of male students experienced physical violence perpetrated by a female teacher  
  • 7% of female students and 17% of male students experienced physical violence perpetrated by a male student  
  • 6% of female students and less than 1% of male students experienced physical violence perpetrated by a female classmate |
| --- | --- |
| Reporting | • 27% of female students and 31% of male students who experienced physical violence in a school setting told someone about it  
  • 3% of female students and 4% of male students who experienced physical violence sought support services  
  • 5% of female students and 3% of male students who had experienced sexual violence told someone about it  
  • Less than 1% of both male and female students sought or received services for sexual violence |
| Impact | • 11% of female and 7% of male students who experienced sexual violence missed school due to the violence  
  • 29% of female and 27% of male students who experienced physical violence by classmates missed school due to the violence  
  • 27% of female and 23% of male students who experienced physical violence by teachers missed school due to the violence |
| Primary data source | • Government of Uganda VACS launched in 2018. All data are from respondents ages 18-24. |

Source: Together for Girls (2021a)

Analysis presented by Evans et al. (2021) combines the available DHS data from 20 countries and VACS data from six sub-Saharan African countries in order to capture data on physical and sexual violence and where the violence took place. Their analysis finds that, across the countries covered by the surveys, around 29% of adolescent girls reported that they had experienced physical or sexual violence, and one in six girls (17%) reported having experienced sexual violence in the previous 12 months. Girls attending school were not significantly more or less likely to report experiencing violence than those not enrolled in school. Girls reported a wide range of perpetrators of sexual violence, including boyfriends, friends, strangers, family members, and teachers (Evans et al., 2021).

Some literature suggests that rates of SRGBV in humanitarian contexts in Uganda may be even higher than those presented in Table 3. Kiyingi (2019) looked at levels of violence in four schools in one refugee camp in Uganda. A survey of 8- to 18-year-old children and teaching staff members revealed that 93% reported experiencing some form of gender-based violence and 33% experienced sexual violence, largely perpetrated by other students. Rigorous studies and data from humanitarian crises and crisis-affected contexts are very limited, thus more data are needed (Chiang et al., 2020).

Box 7: Data on GBV during the COVID-19 pandemic

Comprehensive data on GBV experienced by girls and women during COVID-19 lockdowns and school closures were not available at the time of writing. However, there is widespread concern that girls have been at increased risk of violence, particularly within the household. Lockdowns may have increased the risk of sexual exploitation and abuse, early or forced marriage, and other harmful practices, such as female genital mutilation (UNESCO, 2021b). Data from UNHCR showed that, by the end of 2020, 27 of their operations had reported an increase in GBV through humanitarian coordination platforms, and calls to helplines increased in a number of countries, including Zimbabwe, Jordan, Afghanistan, and Colombia (UNHCR, 2021b).
Most programs and projects responding to SRGBV are focused on halting violence and building systems, schools, and communities that are safe for girls. Women and girls who have experienced violence and trauma may need additional support for their health and well-being and continued engagement with education. This may be offered in schools through referral to counseling teachers and services or, to some extent, through life-skills curricula. More innovative therapeutic methods, such as Healing in Harmony (HiH), can have a powerful impact on the lives of women and girls (see Box 8).

Box 8: Innovative theory aiming to facilitate re-entry to education

Artists, not patients: Healing in Harmony

Healing in Harmony is a therapeutic music program developed by Canada-based NGO Make Music Matter (MMM). The program uses a unique form of group and music therapy, which is based on cognitive behavior therapy, for survivors of sexual and gender-based violence and other forms of trauma. Participants work with a trained therapist and music producer to write, record, and professionally produce songs about their emotions and experiences. These songs are disseminated in local communities, and the artists become advocates for change and for reducing stigma.

The program began in 2015, when MMM partnered with the Panzi Hospital in the DRC (MMM, n.d.). MMM now works with Syrian refugees in several countries, including Guinea and Turkey. A partnership with World Vision expanded the work into Beni in eastern DRC in 2018; into Peru in 2019, where they work with migrant Venezuelan and host Peruvian youth; and to a multi-year project in Kasai Province in the DRC, which is funded by Global Affairs Canada. In this latter project, MMM is partnered with World Vision Canada and World Vision DRC to address mental health and psychosocial stress and SGBV issues faced by girls displaced by conflict. The aim is to facilitate their re-entry into formal and informal learning opportunities.

An impact study conducted in 2017-2018 in rural areas of South Kivu in the DRC found that women’s participation in HiH was associated with significant improvements in their mental health. The study used standardized checklists from Harvard and Johns Hopkins that were adapted for the local context, culture, and language. The results showed a 54% reduction in depression, 67% in anxiety, and 53% in post-traumatic stress disorder.

For full details, see case study 3 in Annex 1.

4.1.4 ETHICAL AND DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

Collecting data on SRGBV with children presents significant ethical challenges and considerations. A 2012 UNICEF literature review on the ethical principles and dilemmas in collecting data on violence against children found that the key issues that emerged included consent, protection from harm, privacy, and confidentiality. These are complex issues—for instance, protecting privacy involves a tradeoff between confidentiality and child safety—and there is the risk of causing distress or trauma to participants.

Researchers need to follow robust ethical and child-protection procedures with carefully contextualized questions that have clear meaning and are not open to interpretation (Heslop et al., 2021). They also must ensure that data on GBV are collected in a respectful way that doesn’t retraumatize survivors.

UNICEF developed guidance for research on violence against children during COVID-19, which includes a decision tree to guide decisions about whether and how to collect data. This guidance emphasizes that no data are worth risking a child’s safety (UNICEF, 2020b). Chiang et al. (2020) provide guidance on how VACS could be adapted to and implemented in humanitarian settings, including adapting ethical procedures, methodology, and the questionnaire itself.

Innovations in data collection to measure SRGBV include work by RTI in Uganda, which uses audio computer-assisted self-interview (ACASI) techniques to protect respondents’ privacy and confidentiality. RTI piloted ACASI techniques in 12 Ugandan primary schools. Reports of sexual violence doubled when data were collected using ACASI, reaching more than 70%. This illustrates the sensitivity of the data in this context, and the fact that pupils are more likely to respond openly when privacy and confidentiality are provided (Punjabi et al., 2021).
4.2 WHAT STRATEGIES ARE EFFECTIVE IN ADDRESSING SRGBV?

There is still a limited evidence base on effective programming and strategies to counter SRGBV, particularly for the most marginalized girls. This includes those in crisis-affected contexts and girls that face discrimination on multiple fronts: religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender identity, disability, location, economic status, and age (Parkes et al., 2016; Violence Against Women and Girls Helpdesk, 2020). A rigorous review of approaches to addressing SRGBV found that the available studies on the effectiveness or impact of these approaches were primarily of programs that lasted less than a year. Few studies engaged with policy, there were few qualitative, mixed methods, or longitudinal studies, and very few studies were from Asia or the Middle East (Parkes et al., 2016).

Approaches to tackling SRGBV can broadly be divided into preventive and responsive types (Parkes et al., 2016). Promising approaches often include multiple components and work with a variety of the actors in girls’ lives (Behounek, 2020; UNESCO & UN Women, 2016; Violence Against Women and Girls Helpdesk, 2020). The next sections outline some of these approaches. A recent UNGEI publication that highlights promising interventions in West and Central Africa includes (1) applying whole school approaches, (2) engaging teachers, (3) shifting harmful gender norms, (4) establishing safe reporting, (5) investing in collecting data and evidence, and (6) integrating SRGBV into national education policies (UNGEI, 2019).

4.2.1 ADVOCACY AND LEGISLATIVE APPROACHES

Little attention has been paid to developing evidence on the effectiveness of policy processes in reducing SRGBV. Little is known about the impact of actions taken at the international, national, or district level, or about the effectiveness of changing laws and policy frameworks (Parkes et al., 2016).

The UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) prioritize addressing violence against young people in SDG4 on education, SDG5 on gender equality and women’s empowerment, and SDG16 on creating peace, justice, and strong institutions. We reported in the first Mind the Gap report (INEE, 2021) that, while most of the 44 countries had some kind of legal protection from violence in schools for children, this usually did not extend to comprehensive protection from corporal punishment, psychological violence, and physical and sexual GBV. Four countries—Colombia, Ukraine, Uganda, and Philippines—are considered by the UNESCO Her Atlas to have comprehensive legal protection from corporal punishment and all forms of violence, including psychological, physical, and sexual violence.

Box 9: Developing a new index

Center for Global Development’s Girls’ Education Policy Index

The Center for Global Development’s (2021) Girls’ Education Policy Index includes indicators on child safety in schools. These indicators draw from data in the WHO Global Status Report on preventing violence against children, but do not include any specific elements that focus on GBV. The three indicators of safety included in the index are:

- Programs to reduce violence by school staff
- National action plans to reduce violence in schools
- Bans on corporal punishment

Data on safety are available for 35 of the 44 countries covered by this report. Jordan, Mozambique, Sudan, and Syria rank very high for safety, as they fulfill almost all the policy index criteria for planning, policy, and laws around the prevention of violence in schools. Afghanistan, Niger, and Somalia score very low on this element of the policy index; both Niger and Somalia lack any national policy to address violence in schools. Of the 35 countries with data, the majority (27) had national programs to reduce violence by school staff members, and most (21) had national action plans to reduce violence in schools.
Box 10: UNESCO resolutions around SRGBV

In 2015, 58 UNESCO member states signed on to “Learning without Fear,” the first UN resolution on SRGBV, which committed governments to promote safe, nonviolent, inclusive learning environments for all girls and boys (Parkes et al., 2020). At the 2019 UNESCO general conference, all 193 member states approved the International Day against Violence and Bullying at School, including cyberbullying. The accompanying declaration calls for strengthened partnerships and initiatives to accelerate progress to prevent and eliminate violence at school (UNESCO, 2019b).

A total of 15 countries, including five crisis-affected countries (Uganda, South Sudan, Jordan, Lebanon, and Georgia), have endorsed the Safe to Learn Call to Action, an initiative of the End Violence Against Children partnership. The Call to Action set out high-level actions that need to take place to end violence in schools. These actions include the development and implementation of policy and legislation and school-based responses to prevent and respond to violence, shifting norms to promote safe spaces and positive actions, along with increased financial resources and investment in gathering evidence and conducting further research (Safe to Learn, 2021). Initiatives like the World Day to End Sexual Violence Against Children and Adolescents present an opportunity to call for change in policies and communities around the world.

Despite these high-level commitments, only limited research is available that looks at the enactment of policy and mobilization of commitment. The challenges of addressing SRGBV in school systems include a lack of resources for specialist personnel, competing priorities, a lack of monitoring, and the absence of strategies to address local discriminatory gender norms (UNGEI, 2019).

Parkes et al. (2020) found that policy-makers in Ethiopia, Zambia, Côte d’Ivoire, and Togo were strongly committed to enacting both preventative and responsive policies and plans on SRGBV. However, they struggled with barriers and constraints on implementing policy, such as a lack of resources, challenges in coordination between actors, and resistance to gender equality efforts, even where successful small-scale interventions were seen to make significant differences in girls’ lives. Research conducted in Ethiopia found promising practices, such as school administrations that had successfully translated the national SRGBV code of conduct so it could be implemented in their schools. The code of conduct defines SRGBV primarily as sexual harassment and abuse, and it aims to improve accountability through sanctions that are administered by school-based committees. While these committees were not found to be receiving reports of cases or implementing sanctions as planned in the national policy, schools had been able to reframe the committee’s work to focus on activity in the schools, which enabled students and teachers to speak up, criticize, and advocate for changes related to gender and violence.
4.2.2 A WHOLE SCHOOL APPROACH AND MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR SRGBV PREVENTION

A whole school approach is a strategy that “takes into account the interconnectedness of schools, communities and families in order to improve the school environment for students, staff and community members with the potential to address all forms and drivers of SRGBV” (UNGEI, 2016). The Global Working Group to End SRGBV has developed minimum standards for programs designed to prevent and respond to SRGBV. The model is made up of eight interconnected domains within the theory that changes in attitudes, behaviors, and practices will shift drivers of SRGBV and lead to a reduction of SRGBV over the long term (UNGEI & UNICEF, 2021).

The eight domains are

1. School leadership and community engagement
2. Codes of conduct
3. Support for teachers and education staff members
4. Child rights, participation, and gender equality
5. Reporting, referral, monitoring, and accountability
6. Incident response
7. Safe and secure physical environments in and around schools
8. Parental engagement

The program implementers have widely embraced this approach. In Uganda, Raising Voices developed the Good School Toolkit, which includes more than 60 activities for teachers and school staff members that are focused on creating a positive school environment that includes instilling respect and balanced power dynamics, promoting gender-responsive pedagogy, demanding accountability, and learning nonviolent discipline methods. An evaluation of the toolkit found statistically significant positive effects on reducing physical violence perpetrated by teachers.

18 Formed in 2014, the Global Working Group to End SRGBV is a network of more than 50 organizations from civil society, academia, and the UN system that was co-convened by UNGEI and UNESCO. More information about the group’s work can be found at https://www.ungei.org/what-we-do/school-related-gender-based-violence.
against students, although no discernible effect on sexual abuse could be found (Devries et al., 2015). Another example that includes this approach is the USAID Safe Schools Program in Ghana and Malawi (Radford et al., 2015). There is little high-quality evidence of the impact the whole school approach has on reducing SRGBV, shifting gender norms, and improving girls’ school experiences. A pilot conducted in Zimbabwe between 2018 and 2020 collected mixed methods baseline and endline data that measured the impact of the approach across the eight domains. The pilot is described in Box 12 and in more detail in Annex 1.

Box 12: The Whole School Approach Pilot Zimbabwe

UNGEI, together with the Forum for African Women Educationalists Zimbabwe Chapter, conducted a pilot initiative to test the minimum standards of a whole school approach to combat SRGBV. It received support from UNICEF, and Miske Witts was a technical partner.

The pilot took place in ten schools in the Chitungwiza and Shamva districts between 2018 and 2020. Both implementation and endline data collection were limited by COVID-19 restrictions. Among the findings from the endline date was that district education officers had become more aware of laws protecting the rights of women and girls, and had established or reviewed reporting mechanisms for GBV. Male and female learners demonstrated an increased awareness of different forms of violence at endline, and they perceived that their teachers and education staff members were more gender aware in their teaching and learning practices, although 45% of learners still strongly agreed with the statement, “Learners who report SRGBV at this school are often asked what they have done to initiate the abuse they have experienced.”

For full details, see case study 4 in Annex 1.

4.2.3 STRENGTHENING INSTITUTIONAL AND PROGRAM SAFEGUARDS

A strong institutional safeguarding approach is a fundamental way for implementing partners to ensure that girls are protected from SRGBV and feel safer participating in educational activities. It can also strengthen incident response mechanisms, particularly for girls in crisis-affected contexts who are at increased risk of abuse (Violence Against Women and Girls Helpdesk, 2020). School safeguarding and referral can provide a channel for girls to seek help from the most appropriate local service. However, this depends on girls’ understanding of their rights and the availability of effective response systems.

The FCDO-funded Girls’ Education Challenge (GEC) currently works with projects that provide support to as many as 1.5 million marginalized girls. It recently published a paper that explores the evolution of the funds approach to safeguarding (GEC & UKAID, 2021). Many GEC projects work directly with marginalized, out-of-school adolescent girls who are at high risk of sexual exploitation, abuse, and harassment.

The safeguarding approach includes five areas:

- Audit
- Capacity development
- Raising standards
- Case management
- Monitoring

Review, guidance, support, and accountability provided by the GEC have enabled partners to develop strong safeguarding policies, practices, and procedures. The number of GEC partners that meet the safeguarding minimum standards rose from 30% in 2019 to 98% at the end of 2020. Projects received extensive support that enabled them to respond appropriately to the cases reported. Reporting increased from 41 cases in 2018 to 181 in 2020. Data analysis from the projects reveals occasional peaks in the reporting of safeguarding incidents, such as when a new teacher joined a school.

19 “Safeguarding” is an umbrella term that encompasses protection from sexual exploitation and abuse and child protection. The interagency CHS Alliance defines safeguarding as “the responsibility that organizations have to make sure their staff, operations and programs do no harm to children and vulnerable adults, and that they do not expose them to the risk of harm and abuse. A useful resource from BOND provides more detail at https://www.bond.org.uk/resources-support/uk-ngo-safeguarding-definitions-and-reporting-mechanisms#33_safeguarding.
In some cases, the procedures developed within the projects influenced the development of institutional safeguarding approaches. The ENGINE II GEC project led by Mercy Corps worked with governments in the states of Kaduna and Kano in northern Nigeria to develop a shared reporting and referral system that can be used by both government and non-government actors in protection from GBV and child protection. This mechanism developed a common understanding of violence and abuse, which has resulted in a local increase in reporting (GEC & UKAID, 2021).

The development of protection procedures by GEC projects provided a strong foundation of safeguarding knowledge that enabled the implementing projects to respond effectively to COVID-19. The partners used an updated safeguarding guidance note to inform their response plans. Three areas where partners received particular support are:

- online safety procedures for projects, which included being in contact with girls through one-on-one calls, group calls, or chats;
- safe distribution of guidance to support projects that were not used to deliver humanitarian style assistance; and
- guidance on the development of communication materials related to safeguarding.

When schools were closed due to COVID-19, the programs often relied on existing networks to facilitate reporting and links to services. Interviews with children who had participated in child clubs reported that, during the COVID-19 school closures, they reached out to peers to educate them about violence and provided support to those who were experiencing violence. Support included encouraging the children to speak with a trusted adult and reporting the violence to the relevant service or authority (Manion et al., 2021). In many GEC projects, peer or community workers took on additional responsibilities during COVID-19 to identify and visit vulnerable girls and make referrals as needed. Examples of this include the learner guides in CAMFED’s programs in Zimbabwe and the community health volunteers in the Education Development Trust’s program in Kenya (Amenya et al., 2020).
Key findings

- Age and gender are key determinants of an individual’s vulnerability to the effects of climate change, and the effects of climate change amplify the negative impacts of conflict and crisis. A lack of education leaves girls and women more vulnerable to weather-related disasters. Therefore, women and girls living in crisis-affected contexts are particularly vulnerable to the effects of climate change.

- The Malala Fund estimates that, in 2021, at least four million girls will have been prevented from completing their education due to climate change.

- The effects of climate change can often exacerbate factors that contribute to displacement, including weather-related emergencies, the loss of livelihoods, environmental degradation, reduced agricultural productivity, and conflict. Displaced women and girls living in informal or tented settlements are more vulnerable to the effects of extreme weather, including extreme heat, rainfall, and strong winds. These extreme conditions will likely increase in severity and frequency unless urgent action is taken to reduce global emissions.

- The risks to girls’ education associated with climate change include an increased likelihood of school dropout, reduced school attendance, reduced time to focus on studies, reduced likelihood of participating in extracurricular activities, and a reduced likelihood of enrolling in higher education.

- There is emerging evidence and growing political interest in the role girls’ education plays in addressing the climate crisis by, for example, increasing their climate resilience and adaptive capacity, empowering women and girls to participate in decision-making forums that address the impact of climate change, and by providing TVET and training in green skills.

- More must be done to close the gap between policy rhetoric and implementation. Education programs should be designed to enable girls to become more resilient and adaptive in the face of climate change, and to support a just transition to a more sustainable, low-carbon economy.

In this chapter, we have adopted climate-related definitions from UNESCO, the Malala Fund, and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. You can find the glossary for this chapter in Annex 4.
5.1 THE NEED TO ADDRESS THE IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON GIRLS’ EDUCATION AND TO INVEST IN GIRLS’ EDUCATION FOR CLIMATE CHANGE MITIGATION AND RESILIENCE

A recent report from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) warns that global surface temperatures will continue to increase until 2050, regardless of interventions adopted in the short to medium term to reduce greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC, 2021, p. 17). With each increment in temperature, weather and climate extremes will increase in frequency and intensity. These include heatwaves, droughts, heavy rainfall, and tropical cyclones. The impact will differ by region and country (IPCC, 2021, p. 21). There is increasing evidence and confidence that human activity contributes directly to climate change (IPCC, 2021, p. 5), primarily in wealthy countries: high- and upper-middle-income countries are home to just under half (48%) of the world’s population but are responsible for 86% of global carbon dioxide emissions (Our World in Data, 2021; Ritchie, 2018; Wagner, 2021).

Other determinants of climate vulnerability include poverty, socioeconomic status, disability, geographic location, sexuality, ethnicity, religion, language, migrant status, and HIV status. This is driven primarily by existing structural and societal inequalities.

Gender and age, together with other drivers of exclusion and social inequality, are key determinants of an individual’s climate vulnerability (Sims, 2021). These factors heighten climate risks for adolescent girls (Devonald et al., 2020; Sims, 2021). As discussed in the first Mind the Gap report (INEE, 2021), girls and women who lack education are especially vulnerable to weather-related disasters. For example, women and girls with poor literacy skills are often cut off from essential information that would enable them to protect themselves and their families. Emergencies can lead to a downward spiral where girls lose access to education and hence to the protective benefits that it can provide.

Education can help girls, and their communities, build resilience to the effects of climate change. However, climate change can amplify other existing inequalities and barriers to girls’ education, including conflict, displacement, environmental degradation, and, more recently, COVID-19 (Education Cannot Wait [ECW], 2021, p. 29; UNESCO, 2020, p. 5). In 2021, it is estimated that at least four million girls in low- and lower-middle-income countries will have been prevented from completing their education as a result of climate change (Malala Fund, 2021).

This highlights the need for urgent action to reduce global carbon emissions—action in which education can play an important role. Until recently, however, the role of education in addressing the causes and effects of climate change has generally been absent from high-level climate change strategies and discussions (UNICEF East Asia & Pacific, 2020b; Sims, 2021; Kwauk et al., 2019).

5.2 THE IMPACT OF WEATHER-RELATED DISASTERS ON GIRLS’ EDUCATION

Weather-related disasters, including drought, heatwaves, heavy rainfall, and tropical cyclones, have direct and indirect effects on girls’ education, which is broadly summarized in Figures 2 and 3. These effects are likely amplified for girls in crisis-affected contexts. Damage to or the destruction of education infrastructure is a direct and immediate effect of extreme weather. However, the indirect and secondary effects of extreme weather can last much longer and cause prolonged disruption of girls’ learning and retention (Sims, 2021). This includes negative effects on girls’ physical and mental health and well-being, which can be detrimental to their physical and neurological development, and their ability to concentrate.

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20 Other determinants of climate vulnerability include poverty, socioeconomic status, disability, geographic location, sexuality, ethnicity, religion, language, migrant status, and HIV status. This is driven primarily by existing structural and societal inequalities.
Figure 2: The direct and indirect effects of heat and drought on girls' education

- **Heat and drought**
  - **Direct effects**: Damage to infrastructure from wildfires, Heat and poor nutrition reduce concentration & learning capacity, Increased burden of household chores.
  - **Indirect effects**: Limited water & WASH at schools may limit girls' attendance, Heat and poor nutrition reduce concentration & learning capacity, Increased burden of disease.

- **Indirect effects**: Reduced household income & food security can lead to displacement and/or withdrawal, Forced marriage, GBV and transactional sex as negative coping strategies.

- **Short-term**
- **Long-term**

Content adapted from: Sims (2021)

Figure 3: The direct and indirect effects of floods, storms, and tropical cyclones

- **Flooding, storms and cyclones**
  - **Direct effects**: Damage to education infrastructure and transportation links.
  - **Indirect effects**: Displacement, Stress, trauma and poor nutrition reduce concentration & learning capacity, Increased burden of disease, Increased burden of household chores.

- **Indirect effects**: Reduced household income & food security can lead to displacement and/or withdrawal, Forced marriage, GBV and transactional sex as negative coping strategies.

- **Short-term**
- **Long-term**

Content adapted from: Sims (2021)
Displacement is one of many effects of climate change; however, the causal relationship between climate change and migration, including forced displacement, is often complex and context specific. For example, there are strong data available on the causal link between acute weather-related disasters—such as flooding, storms, and cyclones—and forced displacement. However, the relationship between slow-onset hazards—such as drought—and migration are more difficult to monitor and to attribute solely to climate change (Podesta, 2019; White House, 2021; UNHCR, 2016). Despite this, it is widely recognized that climate change exacerbates loss of livelihoods, environmental degradation, reduced agricultural productivity, conflict, and, therefore, displacement.

The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) reported that 30 million people worldwide were newly displaced in 2020, due to extreme weather (IDMC, 2021, p. 12). This figure increased by more than six million from 2019 (IDMC, 2020, p. 9). Too many countries are missing data disaggregated by age and sex to estimate the gendered impact of extreme weather at the global level. Where sex-disaggregated data are available, they suggest that women and girls are disproportionately affected. Displacement disrupts children's access to education, as families may move to areas that are far from schools or where local schools are already full (Devonald et al., 2020; IDMC, 2021).

**Box 13: Weather-related disasters and displacement**

In Somalia in 2021, 245,000 of the 874,000 new displacements were caused by drought and 62,000 were caused by floods (UNHCR, 2017). At the end of 2021, 84% of all displaced people in Somalia were women and children (UNHCR, 2021b).

In Afghanistan, the 2018 drought resulted in 371,000 new displacements, which was similar to the number of new displacements caused by conflict (IDMC, 2019). The IDMC notes, however, that the drivers of displacement were intertwined, and the impact of the drought became the “final straw” for households living in rural areas that had long been affected by poverty and conflict (p. 36).

Across sub-Saharan Africa, approximately 600,000 girls and boys were affected by heavy rainfall in August and September 2020 (ECW, 2021).

In Bangladesh and India, which are experiencing increasingly extreme and unpredictable weather events, 3.3 million people were pre-emptively evacuated in May 2020 ahead of Cyclone Amphan (ECW, 2021).

Displaced persons living in tented IDP settlements and refugee camps are especially vulnerable to the effects of climate change and extreme weather conditions, and therefore are at high risk of missing out on education (Devonald et al., 2020). This includes variations in temperature, extreme rainfall, and strong winds.

Plan International recently conducted qualitative research in Bangladesh in order to understand the gendered impact of the climate crisis more fully. The study, which looked specifically at girls’ education (Haque, 2021), found that highly gendered norms and stereotypes directly affect girls’ educational continuity and attainment, which is further exacerbated when households experience financial uncertainty, disaster, and climate shocks, especially flooding. This manifests in five broad ways:

1. Increased likelihood of school drop-out
2. Detrimental effect on school attendance
3. Reduced time to focus on studies
4. Reduced likelihood of participating in extracurricular activities
5. Reduced likelihood of enrolling in higher education

The research found that, due to the effects of the climate crisis, the girls were at increased risk of early and forced marriage as a negative coping strategy and were less likely to complete secondary education.
Box 14: Education Cannot Wait’s response to climate change

In 2020, Education Cannot Wait (ECW) supported the response to weather-related disasters and the development of climate resilience. Since 2017, ECW has supported 41,831 teachers to build capacity in emergency preparedness, risk management, and disaster risk reduction.

In 2019, severe cyclones across southern Africa affected more than 435,000 learners, primarily due to damaged schools. In Malawi, ECW rehabilitated 35 classrooms, which benefited more than 12,500 learners (50% female) by providing a safe learning environment and shelter from extreme weather conditions. In Mozambique, ECW renovated 28 classrooms in six primary schools and the administration rooms in four primary schools, which benefited more than 15,500 learners (49% female).

Elsewhere, ECW worked with ministries of education to support capacity-building and collaborative initiatives for designing and operationalizing disaster risk reduction plans, as well as providing disaster risk reduction equipment to schools in the Central African Republic, Malawi, Somalia, oPt, and the Syrian Arab Republic (ECW, 2021, p. 138).

Source: ECW, 2021

5.3 INVESTING IN GIRLS’ EDUCATION TO ADDRESS THE CLIMATE CRISIS

There is evidence to suggest that girls’ education can reduce communities’ vulnerability to the effects of climate change and reduce the negative impact of extreme weather events (Muttarak & Lutz, 2014; Striessnig et al., 2013). Although the evidence is limited, STEM education and TVET have been shown to teach girls “green” skills that enable them to participate in this workforce and contribute to countries’ efforts to transition to a low-carbon economy (Kwauk, 2020; UNICEF, 2020c). Thus, it is important to support gender-equitable access in these areas, given the current considerable gender gap in participation in these sectors in crisis-affected countries (see section 6.1.4). Lastly, there is emerging evidence on the environmental benefits of girls’ education, which demonstrates that it helps girls develop leadership skills and empowers them to participate in and engage with politics and civil society (Lv & Deng, 2019; Nelson, 2019; Norgaard & York, 2005). Box 15 gives an example of a Ugandan girl who has used her voice to advocate for climate justice, in her own country and globally.
Progress is being made in increasing the gender responsiveness of climate change policy and disaster risk management. In May 2021, the African Union and the Africa Risk Capacity group (2021) launched the Gender and Disaster Risk Management platform. The platform focuses on developing gender-sensitive indicators and data to be used for policy development and early warning systems. Recent analysis conducted by GAGE on the impact climate change is having on adolescent capabilities in Jordan, Ethiopia, and Bangladesh found that each country has a gender-specific climate change policy that includes gender-sensitive goals. However, young people were generally overlooked in the same policies, specifically recognition of the importance of youth voices in climate-related decision-making. Women, girls, and young people were generally acknowledged in all the policies as being vulnerable groups rather than agents of change (Devonald et al., 2020).

The GAGE research study also highlighted the need to do more to amplify girls’ voices in climate-related decision-making in their communities (Devonald et al., 2020). In Ethiopia, the study found that issues related to climate hazards, including rainfall, drought, and their impact on agriculture, were often discussed in male-centered forums. Although women and girls could participate in these forums, their input tended to focus on family rather than on wider societal issues.

Box 15: Vanessa Nakate

Vanessa Nakate is a Ugandan climate-crisis activist who advocates for climate justice and for international leaders to listen to and hear the voices of those most affected by the climate crisis (UN, n.d.; Williams, 2021). Nakate is the founder of a number of youth-led climate organizations, including Youth for Future Africa, Rise Up, and the Green Schools Project, which were established in 2019 after cyclones Idai and Kenneth. Nakate has also undertaken research on the impact of climate change on communities across the African continent (Williams, 2021). Nakate visits Ugandan schools, where she speaks to children about how they can help address the climate crisis and helps install solar panels and eco-stoves.

The Rise Up movement provides a platform for African climate activists to have their views and needs heard. For more information, visit the Rise Up website: https://www.riseupmovementafrica.org/

Image credit: Paul Wamala Ssegujja, 2020
Chapter 5: Girls' education and climate change

Box 16: Girl-led action in Mali, Somalia, and Zimbabwe to mitigate the combined impact of climate change and gender-based exclusion from education

CARE International has facilitated the implementation of integrated climate and education initiatives that combine (1) adolescent-led action on areas of concern identified by girls with (2) school-based teacher training and (3) adolescent and community-based financial empowerment using savings and loans groups. These interventions targeted rural communities in Mali, Somalia, and Zimbabwe that have been severely affected by climate change, including multi-year droughts that are destroying agricultural and pastoral livelihoods. In these contexts, traditional gender norms contribute to high rates of early marriage and other forms of gender-based violence and exclusion, which disproportionately affects girls’ education outcomes.

Girl-led groups were established in all three projects, which provided a place for girls to discuss their responses to local climate risks. In Mali, girls had increased access to information on the risk of drought, flooding, and weather-related disasters, which supported their adaptive capacity. In Somalia, girls affected by drought and displacement demonstrated an increase in grade progression and improved literacy and numeracy outcomes as a result of their participation in the girl-led groups. In Zimbabwe, adolescent-led activities engaged community members in creating improved water management systems, which improved menstrual hygiene management and helped to maintain the school gardens.

For full details, see case study 5 in Annex 1.

Education can enable girls and boys to become more resilient and resistant to the effects of climate change and help them continue learning when schools close (Muttarak & Lutz, 2014; Peek et al., 2018; Sims, 2021). This is especially important for girls, who are more likely to be negatively affected by climate change, due to gendered inequalities. For example, education that helps learners develop problem-solving skills and supports their risk perception can directly increase their ability to respond to and cope with weather-related disasters. These foundational skills are equally essential for children, as they help to minimize the impact of weather-related disruption of their learning. When learners do not develop these skills, learning loss can be greater and harder to recover from. For example, literacy skills enable learners to access text-based learning resources (Newman & Lane Smith, 2021). Education can increase all learners’ access to information and social capital, which indirectly reduces their climate-associated risks. Environmental education curricula and learning resources and gender-responsive climate change measures can provide further support.

Box 17: Developing learning materials on climate change

Room to Read has developed ten books on climate change in different countries, each of which features an issue related to climate change (Pinto, 2021). The objective of this series is to support climate change and environmental education, and to offer expository nonfiction books for children. Room to Read also has developed an innovative gender- and climate-justice curriculum. Tapping into Room to Read’s experience implementing gender-transformative life-skills programs for youth, the curriculum increases girls’ understanding of the climate crisis and helps build their individual and collective leadership skills for taking climate-related action (Kwauk & Wyss, 2021). At the time of writing, Room to Read is in the process of creating training materials to accompany the curriculum, which will be contextualized for implementation in different countries (L. Di Meco, personal communication, December 20, 2021).

UNICEF’s Makani non-formal education project in Jordan involved some adolescent girls in environmental protection initiatives, including raising awareness of the importance of recycling, energy saving and solar power, and health considerations in a changing climate (Devonald et al., 2020). This resulted in the girls’ having increased knowledge and involvement in climate issues; however, these outcomes were not common across the study.

TVET has been identified as a “critical pathway” to a green economy, as it helps to upskill and reskill the workforce (Kwauk, 2021). STEM education plays a significant role in helping learners develop the key skills needed for jobs in renewable energy, low-carbon manufacture and infrastructure, and sustainable construction techniques. However, there is a considerable gender gap in participation in these sectors, which is influenced in part by
cultural norms and complex constraints on supply and demand (Miles, 2019). This is explored further in section 6.1.4. The data available to measure progress against this gap are limited, which may be due to different understandings of green skills and green jobs. However, this strong focus on green TVET has been criticized as being an unrealistic pathway, due to the learning crisis common in many LMICs, which has been further exacerbated by COVID-19 (Newman & Lane Smith, 2021).

Green sectors that typically have a high rate of female participation, such as agriculture and tourism, are also important in limiting the impact of climate change. CAMFED has delivered training on climate-smart agriculture to young women in Zimbabwe (CAMFED, 2020). This training helps the women develop climate resilience and leadership skills. It is delivered using a cascade model in which young women serve as trainers for other women in their communities. The techniques taught in the training include limiting the use of water resources through drip-irrigation systems that use discarded plastic bottles, mulching, inter-cropping, and agroforestry (CAMFED, 2020, p. 82).

The final evaluation of the TVET and Higher Education for Boosting Road Infrastructure Development and Growth of Energy Services, known as The Bridges project, was led by CARE International in Somalia. The program highlighted the key challenges in setting up and paying the operational costs for a green business, which tend to be high in renewable energy, improved water management, and green construction (CARE International, 2020). For example, a tracer study of another project in Somalia that supports ultra-marginalized female youth in conflict-affected areas found that only 32% of the graduates established a business from November 2020 to May 2021 (CARE International, 2021). Although this may have been influenced by economic uncertainty associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, qualitative data indicated that the lack of access to capital and seed financing was a significant barrier to women becoming self-employed (CARE International, 2021). These barriers can be caused by gendered norms that restrict women’s and girls’ access to resources for their entrepreneurial activities. This demonstrates the need for comprehensive support to female entrepreneurs in the green sectors, including access to finance, mentorship, and career development opportunities. They also need support in gaining the skills needed to establish and maintain a business; this support should be provided for longer periods of time in order to mitigate the disruption caused by economic shocks.

5.4 THE CURRENT AND FUTURE STATUS OF CLIMATE EDUCATION TO SUPPORT GIRLS IN EMERGENCIES

Because climate change is a global problem, the education response needs to be global. Educating children in higher income countries about climate change is an important strategy to mitigate the risks to girls in LMICs and crisis-affected countries. Climate education and education more generally are important in mitigating the direct and indirect effects of climate change and weather-related emergencies, which typically affects girls more severely than boys. UNESCO’s 2019 analysis of countries’ progress on climate change education, training, and public awareness found that 95% of countries reported having some climate change education content (UNESCO, 2019a). Only 13 of the 44 crisis-affected countries covered in this report have reported data in 2020 on at least one of the indicators for SDG 4.7.1 (see Figure 4). Of these, the highest ranking are Georgia, Malawi, Myanmar, Turkey, and Ukraine.21

21 The latest data available for Myanmar are from 2020, before the military coup.
Analysis by UNESCO noted that raising awareness was the most common approach to climate change education (UNESCO, 2019a). However, a number of authors have stated that raising awareness alone is not enough to change behavior, and that people must learn to adopt a sustainable lifestyle. The most educated often are those with the most carbon-intensive lifestyles (Devonald et al., 2021; Dutta & Chandrasekharan, 2018; O’Neill et al., 2020; Pauw & Van Petegem, 2013; Silova et al., 2018; Vaughter, 2016). Therefore, climate education must do more than raise awareness, especially in high-income countries. Evidence is limited on climate change education that results in a meaningful change in behavior and the adoption of a sustainable lifestyle. However, a number of commentators have highlighted the need to introduce climate education and education for sustainable development holistically across national curricula, to embed important principles and lessons that are rooted in the social and climate justice movements, and to enable and empower young people to identify and adopt solutions to the climate crisis (Kwauk & Winthrop, 2021; Malala Fund, 2021).

Of the 44 crisis-affected countries, only Jordan and Turkey reported data against indicator SDG 4.7.5, which addresses the percentage of students in lower secondary showing proficiency in environmental science and geoscience. In Jordan in 2019, 96% of girls demonstrated proficiency in environmental science and geoscience, compared to 82% in Turkey. This highlights the issue of the limited data collection and reporting on efforts to mitigate climate change, reduce the effects of climate change, and strengthen climate resilience through education. The official monitoring systems for SDG 13, which addresses climate action and acknowledges the importance of focusing on women and girls, young people, marginalized groups, and local communities, do not disaggregate reporting data by sex or age (Devonald et al., 2020). This has implications for policy and practice. SDG 13 was also found to be one of the goals that is far behind on gender-equality issues (Equal Measures 2030, 2019).

In November 2021, the Global Education Monitoring (GEM) Report and the Monitoring and Evaluating Climate Communication and Education project conducted an analysis of 20 national education profiles in terms of their provision of climate change education (CCE). The 20 countries are in a range of regions and economic groups,
and four are crisis affected (d’Addio & April, 2021; UNESCO & GEM Report, 2021).\textsuperscript{22} Aggregate analysis (d’Addio & April, 2021) suggests that

- all but one (19/20) of these countries’ ministries of education are “working on climate change”;
- all but two (18/20) of these countries have a national climate change law or policy that references education; and
- the majority (17/20) of these countries have set up national monitoring systems to track progress on CCE.

However, only nine of the countries’ education-sector plans and/or strategies explicitly reference CCE, which tends to be provided in the primary and secondary grades. There are fewer references to CCE in tertiary education (TVET and higher education) and teacher training (d’Addio & April, 2021). This is typically reflected in the findings for Bangladesh, Myanmar, and Zimbabwe (UNESCO & GEM Report, 2021).

Colombia was recognized for its progress in CCE, and it also has been recognized for the integration of education and gender into its nationally determined contributions (NDCs; see following section). Colombia’s CCE strategy includes strong policy and legal frameworks, and it encourages citizens to take an active role in climate-related decision-making forums (d’Addio & April, 2021).

\subsection*{5.5 The future of girls’ education and climate change}

The interrelationship between girls’ education and climate change is gaining increased attention and often is framed within wider calls for climate justice (Plan International, 2019). This has arguably been accelerated by the COP26 conference held in November 2021 (Cooke & Rost, 2021; UNGEI, 2021). The Malala Fund estimates that 4 million girls in LMICs will have been prevented from completing their education in 2021 because of climate-related events, which could increase to at least 12.5 million girls each year by 2025, based on current trends (Malala Fund, 2021).

The G7 2021 declaration on girls’ education states that “we want to empower girls to lead change, including in peacebuilding and in efforts to tackle the climate crisis” (FCDO, 2021b, para. 6). The FCDO’s (2021a, p. 8) action plan for girls’ education recognizes that “literate girls and women are among the greatest assets we have in responding to the climate crisis. Many women and girls are already leading work to address climate change. Through quality education, more girls need to be empowered and equipped as agents of change.”

In November 2021, the UK government hosted the 26th UN Climate Change COP26. It featured a number of side events led by education stakeholders (GPE Secretariat, 2021). However, the NDCs from 165 countries did not thoroughly address climate education or climate literacy (Earthday, 2021). Six crisis-affected countries “moderately addressed” climate education by outlining their intentions and limited plans for implementing climate education through the national education system.\textsuperscript{23} For example, Colombia’s NDC mentions the role of education that “sensitize[es] the population about climate change” (Earthday, 2021). Colombia was the only crisis-affected country that acknowledged the connection between gender and climate change education in its NDC, as it committed to “update the National Environmental Education Policy to re-signify it and show in it the importance and urgency of the approach in all levels of climate change education, according to the national, regional and local context, from human rights approaches, intergenerational, differential and gender” by 2030 (Earthday, 2021). Twenty-six crisis-affected countries addressed gender in their NDCs, but they made no reference to education, climate change education, or climate literacy.\textsuperscript{24}

\begin{itemize}
  \item The countries were Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Colombia, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, The Gambia, Indonesia, Italy, Morocco, Myanmar, New Zealand, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Rwanda, South Africa, Sweden, Tajikistan, Tuvalu, and Zimbabwe.
  \item Only 29 countries that submitted an updated NDC were classified as moderately addressing climate literacy. The six crisis-affected countries were Angola, Cameroon, Colombia, Eritrea, Malawi, and Myanmar.
  \item Angola, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Georgia, Haiti, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Malawi, Mali, Myanmar, Niger, Nigeria, oPt, the Philippines, Senegal, Somalia, South Sudan, Uganda, Ukraine, Venezuela, and Zimbabwe
\end{itemize}
Educated women and girls clearly have a major role to play in climate change resilience and mitigation, and they should not be viewed as passive victims of climate change. Instead, women and girls should be equipped, through education, to act as agents of change. However, policymakers should be careful to avoid putting excessive responsibility on women and girls in emergency situations—and those anywhere—to “fix” the climate crisis. Education should focus on increasing learners’ knowledge of the root causes of climate change, on understanding the complex systems that sustain the current upward trajectory of greenhouse gases, and on empowering young people to hold policy-makers and big industries accountable for taking the actions needed to ensure the continuity of life on our planet. It is also important to recognize the need to strengthen the gender dimensions of climate change and emergency response interventions, and to reduce the disproportionate effects of the climate crisis on women and girls.

Unfortunately, it seems that the current policy rhetoric around these issues is merely aspirational. This may be because it is an area that has only recently attracted attention from donors and policy-makers. Despite the increasing attention and commentary on this subject, there in fact are fewer large-scale programs, data collection, and research activities in place to operationalize the call for action. Moreover, there is still only limited recognition of the importance of education, women’s and girls’ education in particular, in upholding political commitments related to climate change.
CHAPTER 6. SUMMARY OF GAPS AND PROGRESS

Key findings

- Early data indicate that many girls in crisis-affected countries did not return when schools reopened after COVID-19-related closures.
- New methodology for the inclusion of national data have enabled UIS to fill gaps in many education-related indicators, including new data on completion rates, based on household surveys.
- Girls’ progress in school enrollment and completion has continued, but their lower secondary completion rates remain behind boys’ in just over half of the crisis-affected countries with available data.
- Girls’ access to pre-primary education varies greatly across crisis-affected countries, from below 10% to above 70%, but in most cases the gender gaps are small.
- Women’s access to tertiary education and TVET in crisis-affected countries remains low, with average enrollment rates of 20% for tertiary and 3% for TVET.
- The poorest girls and those in rural areas remain the farthest behind in terms of primary and secondary completion rates.
- The availability of data on education for girls with disabilities has improved, but it remains limited for crisis-affected countries.
- Most crisis-affected countries have some kind of national learning assessment in place. In most of the countries with disaggregated learning data available, girls finishing primary school perform better than boys at reading but worse at mathematics.

In this section, we update the analysis of UIS data on girls’ education in crisis contexts. We use the dataset released by UIS in September 2021. In updating the analysis in the first Mind the Gap report, which drew from national data dating back to 2015, we draw largely from data collected between 2016 and 2020.

Significantly more data are now available through UIS than in 2020. UIS has updated data for 44 SDG indicators for the academic year ending in 2020, including new indicators on mainstreaming global citizenship education and education for sustainable development (see chapter 5), and on the proportion of children and young people prepared for the future. A new methodology for the inclusion of national data has enabled UIS to fill gaps in many education-related indicators. Data on out-of-school children were also updated for more than 100 countries in this release (UIS, 2021).

Where UIS has provided estimated data, it is marked with an asterisk (*). Where data are available, we make comparisons between data grouped for the world and for LMICs.

6.1 GIRLS’ PROGRESS IN ENROLLMENT AND COMPLETION

6.1.1 EARLY DATA INDICATE THAT MANY GIRLS IN CRISIS-AFFECTED COUNTRIES DID NOT RETURN TO SCHOOL WHEN THEY REOPENED AFTER COVID-19-RELATED CLOSURES

At the height of the COVID-19 pandemic, school closures affected nearly 1.6 billion learners in more than 190 countries (UNESCO, 2021b). As discussed in chapter 3, hundreds of millions of girls were unable to access remote learning during the school closures. UNESCO’s global monitoring of school data (UNESCO, 2022) indicates that, between March 2020 and November 2021, crisis-affected countries experienced national school closures for an average duration of 25 weeks, compared to an average of 18 weeks for other countries. In Bangladesh, the Philippines, Uganda, and Venezuela, schools were closed nationwide for more than 60 weeks. Crisis-affected countries also had partial school closures (i.e., some regions and/or some grades were affected) for an average of 15 weeks during this period. New variants of COVID-19 are likely to contribute to new waves of infection in 2022 and beyond. Countries where most adults are vaccinated may be able to manage these waves without needing to close schools, but where vaccination rates remain low, as is the case in many crisis-affected countries, governments may need to close schools in order to control further outbreaks. In early 2022, the average vaccination rate for adults in crisis-affected countries was 18%, compared to 53% in the rest of the world (WHO, 2022).

Girls are at particular risk of not returning to school following COVID-19-related closures. The Malala Foundation, using UNHCR data from 2019, estimated that 50% of refugee girls in secondary school may not return when their classrooms reopen (UNHCR, 2020). Data on the return to school remain limited, and the full scope of the impact of COVID-19 will not be known for many years. However, emerging data are showing disparities in dropout and re-enrollment rates. UNESCO’s report titled When Schools Shut: Gendered Impacts of COVID-19 School Closures reports on two studies in the countries covered by this report. One conducted in Bangladesh found that one in ten girls ages 12-15 reported not going back to school after reopening, and a study in four counties in Kenya found that 16% of girls and 8% of boys ages 15-19 did not re-enroll during the first two months of school reopening in 2021 (UNESCO, 2021b).

Out-of-school girls are at increased risk of violence, child marriage, child labor, trafficking, and early childbirth (UN WOMEN, 2021). Analysis of countries’ responses to the UNESCO, UNICEF, and World Bank Survey of National Education responses to COVID-19 school closures found that only 42% of countries had measures to support girls’ return to school in 2021 (UN WOMEN, 2021).

6.1.2 COMPLETION RATES

In the past, UNESCO and other international organizations used the gross intake rate into the last grade of a school cycle as a proxy for completion rates. These data, which are based on education monitoring and census data, have been available for most countries for many years (see, e.g., UNESCO, 2002). In monitoring progress on SDG 4, UNESCO now uses completion rates calculated from household surveys.

The surveys used are conducted irregularly, often with gaps of five years or more between survey rounds. In the previous Mind the Gap report, fewer than half of the 44 crisis-affected countries had recent data (2015 or later) available on completion rates, so most analyses used the proxy of the gross intake rate into the last grade of a school cycle (INEE, 2021). The September 2021 UIS data release included new estimates of completion rate data for the years when survey data were not available. Using these UIS estimates, it is now possible to report on completion rates for most of the crisis-affected countries, and older data have been brought up to date in many cases. The use of household survey data also enables greater disaggregation by wealth and location.

Figure 5 shows the range in completion rates in lower secondary for crisis-affected countries, using data available for 2020. In South Sudan and Niger, fewer than 10% of females completed lower secondary school, while more than 90% of girls completed lower secondary in oPt, Georgia, and Ukraine. In most crisis-affected countries, fewer than 50% of girls completed lower secondary school.

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26 Based on UNHCR data from 12 countries: Chad, Ethiopia, Iraq, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Pakistan, Rwanda, South Sudan, Tanzania, Turkey, and Uganda.

27 The indicator is defined as the “percentage of a cohort of children or young people aged 3-5 years above the intended age for the last grade of each level of education who have completed that grade.” For the full definition of the indicator and calculation methods, see SDG 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.
Figure 5: Lower secondary school completion rates (female) in crisis-affected countries (%)

The average completion rates for crisis-affected countries indicate that girls are less likely to complete primary or lower secondary school than boys, but the difference in average completion rates is small. In crisis-affected countries, the average completion rate for girls at the primary level is 67%, and just over 46% at the lower secondary level. These figures compare to an average of 65% of boys at the primary level and 48% at the lower secondary level. As noted in chapter 1, and consistent with the methodology in the first Mind the Gap report, completion rates for Jordan and Lebanon have not been included in this analysis, as these countries were included in the list of crisis-affected countries only on the basis of their refugee populations.

Afghanistan shows the largest gap between girls and boys at both the primary and lower secondary level. At the primary level, girls are 22 percentage points less likely than boys to complete school and 27 percentage points less likely to complete lower secondary. Meanwhile, in the Philippines, girls are 10 percentage points more likely than boys to complete primary school and 22 percentage points more likely to complete lower secondary school. In the Philippines, 95% of girls complete primary school and 86% complete lower secondary.

**Figure 6: Percentage-point difference in primary school completion rates between girls and boys in crisis-affected countries**


28 Throughout this chapter, averages for crisis-affected countries are the authors’ own calculations using UIS data from 2020 that was retrieved from the UIS database in October 2021. Data for 2020 were available for 36 crisis-affected countries at the primary level and 34 at the lower secondary level. Averages are not weighted. Data for Jordan and Lebanon are excluded from completion and enrolment rate data.
These data show that, in 20 crisis-affected countries, girls have higher completion rates than boys, or the difference is zero, while 13 crisis-affected countries have higher completion rates for boys.

At the lower secondary level, in just over half (18) of the countries for which 2020 data are available, boys have higher completion rates than girls, and girls have higher completion rates than boys in 15 countries. Girls outperform boys by ten or more percentage points in the Syrian Arab Republic, Haiti, Bangladesh, Kenya, and the Philippines.

**Figure 7: Percentage-point difference in completion rates at lower secondary between girls and boys in crisis-affected countries**

Because of changes in the availability of completion rate data, the averages calculated for crisis-affected countries are not directly comparable with those presented in the first Mind the Gap report. Comparing the most recent data on intake into the final grade to the older data available, there is no apparent change at the primary school level. The average gross intake ratio for crisis-affected countries, based on the data available in 2021, is the same as reported in the first report (72%). The average rate for boys also remained unchanged (75%). The average intake rate into the final grade of lower secondary school in crisis-affected countries increased by two percentage points for girls and boys alike (from 51% to 53%).

29 Averages calculated by authors using data from 2020 for 33 countries with data available for primary education, and for 34 countries with data available for lower secondary education.
6.1.3 PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

At the pre-primary level, the updated data also include data from 2020 and 2021 from Burundi and Djibouti. The average enrollment in crisis-affected states is 33% for girls and boys. The new data indicate little change since the previous Mind the Gap report was published.

Figure 8: Pre-primary gross enrollment ratios in crisis-affected countries, LMICs, and the world, by gender

These data conceal wide variations between crisis-affected countries. Eight countries—Chad, Yemen, Central African Republic, DRC, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, and Myanmar—have pre-primary enrollment ratios below ten, while four—Zimbabwe, Pakistan, Ukraine, and the Philippines—have ratios higher than 70.

In most crisis-affected countries, the difference between boys’ and girls’ pre-primary enrollment is small. Only 5 of the 30 crisis-affected countries with recent data available have a difference of more than 2 percentage points. The largest disparity is in Pakistan, where the gross enrollment rate is 77% for girls and 88% for boys.

6.1.4 TERTIARY EDUCATION AND TVET

Women in crisis-affected countries continue to have less access to tertiary education than those in middle-income countries, and much less access than the UIS global average. However, their access is higher than for women in low-income countries, and more women and girls in crisis-affected countries are enrolled in tertiary education than men and boys in middle-income countries. The data also reveal broad inequalities and differences between countries. For example, 2020 enrollment in Afghanistan was 5.8% for girls and women, compared to 15% for men and boys. In Bangladesh, enrollment for women and girls was 19.8%, compared to 25.7% for boys. In some crisis-affected countries, more girls are enrolled than boys. This is most evident in oPt, where 53.8% of girls or women are enrolled in tertiary education but just 32.7% of men and boys.
Enrollment rates in TVET are far lower overall than enrollment in tertiary education. The overall proportion of 15- to 24-year-olds enrolled in technical and vocational education in the 17 crisis-affected countries for which data were available is just 3.0% for women and 3.9% for men, according to the most recent data. This is a decrease from the figures in last year’s report of 0.2% for both sexes. The widest gender gap is in Bangladesh, where 1.8% of women and 4.7% of men ages 15-24 are enrolled in vocational education. In Turkey, which has by far the highest rate of enrollment in vocational education of the 44 crisis-affected countries, 22.3% of women and 24.9% of men are enrolled.30

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30 Averages are the authors’ own calculations using data retrieved from the UIS database in October 2021. Averages are calculated using data from 17 countries with data available.
6.2 THE POOREST GIRLS AND THOSE IN RURAL AREAS REMAIN THE FARTHEST BEHIND

School enrollment and completion rates for girls and boys within the same wealth quintiles in crisis-affected contexts are similar. Fewer than half of boys and girls in the poorest quintile complete primary school, with little movement since the last report. The number of the poorest girls who complete lower secondary and upper secondary is even lower—just 18% of the poorest girls complete upper secondary, but this is higher than the completion rate for the poorest boys (16%).

![Figure 11: Crisis-affected countries' average completion rates by sex and poorest/richest wealth quintiles](image)


In crisis-affected countries, the gap in completion rates between girls in rural and urban areas is often large. In Malawi, just 14% of rural girls complete lower secondary, while 54% of urban girls complete this level. In Senegal, 11% of rural girls complete lower secondary, compared to 52% of urban girls.
Figure 12: Lower secondary completion rates in crisis-affected countries for rural and urban females

Source: UIS database (n.d.). Crisis affected countries average based on authors own calculations from most recent data between 2016 and 2020 for 22 crisis-affected countries with data available. Retrieved October 2021
6.3 DATA ON EDUCATION FOR GIRLS WITH DISABILITIES

The UIS has increased the amount of data available with disaggregation by disability; however, there are still only limited data available for crisis-affected countries. Disaggregated data on completion rates at the different levels of education and out-of-school rates are currently only available for Mali.

Data are available on the proportion of primary schools with access to adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities for nine countries: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Myanmar, oPt, Philippines, Senegal, Ukraine, and Zimbabwe.31 As shown in Figure 13, there is a high degree of variability across these countries. Some, like Ukraine and oPt, have more adapted infrastructure than the middle-income countries or world averages, both around 48%. Some countries have far less. In the Philippines, just 6% of primary schools have adapted infrastructure and just 1% in Myanmar. Myanmar also has the lowest proportion of schools with access to adapted infrastructure at the lower secondary level, just 2%.

Figure 13: Proportion of lower secondary and primary schools with access to adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities (%)

The data also indicate some dramatic improvements in the availability of adaptive infrastructure. In Burkina Faso, just 2% of primary schools had adapted infrastructure, according to 2016 data. The later data show that, by 2020, 42% of primary schools had adapted infrastructure. In oPt there was an increase from 37% in 2016 to 54% in 2020.

31 Note that the UIS data-collection processes for this indicator do not specify the type of adaptations, details of infrastructure (toilets, classrooms, libraries, etc.), or materials adapted, or the types of disability accommodated. See UIS (2019), available at https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000370915.
6.4 GIRLS’ LEARNING AND LITERACY IN CRISIS-AFFECTED CONTEXTS

While it is too early to know the full impact COVID-19 has had on learning, learning loss projections show that it is dire. However, none of the major studies included separate estimates for girls’ learning loss. The World Bank simulations estimated that COVID-19 school closures could result in between 0.3 and 0.9 years of schooling lost; adjusting for quality, this brings the average years of basic schooling the average student completes in their lifetime from 7.9 years to between 7.0 and 7.6 years (Azevedo et al., 2020).

International attention to the learning crisis and the importance of children gaining, at the very least, basic skills in literacy and numeracy continues to grow. The learning poverty indicator developed by the World Bank combines measures of shortfalls in school access and reading proficiency by combining data from learning assessments carried out at the end of primary school. The available data show that 53% of children in LMICs are in learning poverty and cannot read proficiently by the end of primary school. This rises to 90% of children in countries in the lower-income groups (World Bank, 2019).

Enrollment and attendance alone cannot fix the learning crisis. The Centre for Global Development published an analysis of DHS data on literacy from 51 countries. The finding was that, at current rates of learning, even if all women who never enrolled in school completed grade 6, 39% of women in these countries would still be illiterate (Pritchett & Sandefur, 2017).

A recent INEE report argues that this learning crisis illustrates the need for more and better data on who is learning and who is not—particularly for children in conflict and crisis contexts. The most vulnerable and marginalized learners are often invisible in national education management systems, either because they are not involved in assessments or due to inadequate disaggregation by refugee or displacement status, gender, location, and disability (INEE, 2020b).

UIS data show that 37 of the crisis-affected countries considered in this report have conducted some kind of national learning assessment since 2018. Table 4 shows the number of crisis-affected countries that have conducted learning assessments at different stages of the education system since 2018.

Table 4: UIS data on learning assessments conducted since 2018 in crisis-affected countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade or education level</th>
<th>Subject area</th>
<th>Number of crisis-affected countries that have conducted a learning assessment (N=44)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>End of grade 2 or 3</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of primary</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of lower secondary</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


These data do not indicate the quality or content of the assessments, and they draw from a survey conducted by national learning assessment offices, ministries of education, and other bodies responsible for learning assessments. Countries also may have conducted additional assessments over the last year to help estimate learning losses and to target instruction accordingly as children return to school.

UIS reports learning data in accordance with SDG target 4.1.1, the proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3, (b) at the end of primary, and (c) at the end of lower secondary who have achieved at least minimum proficiency in reading and in mathematics, by sex.

The results presented draw from a range of data sources, including national, regional, and international assessment and population-based assessments such as:

- Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA)
- UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS)
- People’s Action for Learning (PAL) Network, e.g., Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) and UWEZO

Common definitions of minimum proficiency have been developed and are assessed by benchmarking the available learning assessments (UIS, 2021). The data available for crisis-affected states vary by the level of education; while data are available for 17 countries at grade 2 or 3, only 5 have data available for lower secondary in reading. In mathematics, 17 countries have data at grade 2 or 3, 16 countries at the end of primary, and 3 at the end of lower secondary.

In the countries with data available, the data suggest that girls’ learning is, on average, stronger than boys’ in reading at all levels of the education system. At grade 2 or 3, only Chad and the DRC report that girls’ learning outcomes are worse than boys’. DRC learning outcomes at the end of the primary level are reported to be 1.4 percentage points lower for girls than for boys, whereas girls in Senegal out-perform boys by 5.3 percentage points.

Figure 14: Percentage-point difference between girls and boys in grades 2 and 3 who achieved minimum proficiency in reading

![Percentage-point difference between girls and boys in grades 2 and 3 who achieved minimum proficiency in reading]


Mathematics assessment data available from crisis-affected countries show that, for the 17 countries where data are available, girls were outperforming boys with an overall difference of 10 percentage points in grade 2 or 3. Countries where girls perform worse than boys include the DRC, where there is a -7.5-percentage point difference between boys and girls; Kenya, where the difference is -5.8 percentage points; and Pakistan, with a difference of -18.4 percentage points.

By the end of primary, the average for crisis-affected states has shifted so that girls are performing worse than boys in mathematics. In most cases the gap is quite small, but there are some extreme differences. The most pronounced difference is in Burundi, where there is a 9.8 percentage point difference between girls and boys. These differences are illustrated in Figure 15.
Figure 15: Percentage-point difference between girls and boys who achieved at least minimum proficiency in mathematics at end of primary school


Figure 16 compares youth and adult literacy rates in crisis-affected contexts to average rates in low-income countries, middle-income countries, and the world. There is little change in these figures from the first Mind the Gap report (INEE, 2021), which drew from data up to 2019. Women continue to lag behind men in all categories, although women in crisis-affected contexts do slightly better overall than women in low-income countries. There are wider gender gaps in adult literacy than youth literacy. The gap among those ages 15-24 in crisis-affected countries is 6 percentage points, but it widens to 12 percentage points when the whole adult population is included.
Figure 16: Youth and adult literacy rates in crisis-affected countries compared to LMICs and globally

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Youth (15-24)</th>
<th>Adult (15+)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crisis-affected</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-income*</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-income*</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World*</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* Indicates UIS estimate

6.5 MORE FEMALE TEACHERS ARE STILL NEEDED AT THE SECONDARY AND TERTIARY LEVELS

The data updated to 2021 show little change in the overall proportion or distribution of female teachers in any context; there is no change at all in the global figures. Women in crisis-affected contexts continue to make up 88% of the pre-primary teaching workforce and just 38% of the secondary teaching workforce. There has been an increase in the proportion of female teachers at the primary level, from 51% to 54%, and at the tertiary level, from 29% to 30%.
In July 2021, building on its call for action to teachers that was launched in March 2020, the International Task Force on Teachers (2021) put out a call for greater investment in teachers and teaching. This highlighted the important role female teachers play in supporting girls’ education, but also points out that they that have been disproportionately affected by the COVID-19 crisis (see Dogra & Kaushal, 2021). It calls for governments to pay greater attention to the needs of female teachers in order to keep them in the profession (International Task Force on Teachers, 2021). In the pre-primary subsector, where the workforce is predominantly female, teachers have experienced barriers to continued employment, and many staff members were not compensated or received only partial compensation during the crisis (UNESCO, 2021c).

Source: UIS database (n.d.); crisis-affected countries' averages based on authors' own calculations from most recent data between 2016 and 2021 for 34 crisis-affected countries with data available. Retrieved October 2021.
CHAPTER 7: FUNDING FOR GIRLS’ AND WOMEN’S EDUCATION IN CRISIS-AFFECTED COUNTRIES

7.1 NATIONAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURES

Key findings

- In 2021, ten crisis-affected countries made public commitments to dedicate at least 20% of their government expenditure to education by endorsing the Kenyatta Declaration. A further 11 crisis-affected countries committed to spending 15%-20% by endorsing the Paris Declaration.
- In 2020, only two crisis-affected countries met both of the international benchmarks for public spending on education (5% of GDP and 20% of national budgets).
- UIS data indicate that, from 2016 to 2020, many crisis-affected countries (12 out of 31 with data available) reduced government spending on education as a proportion of GDP, but a similar number (13) increased it.
- The proportion of humanitarian aid requested for education has increased from 3.8% in 2019 to 7.6% in 2021, but the proportion allocated to education remains low, at around 3% of humanitarian aid.
- ODA to education is not always going where it is needed most to address gaps in girls’ education. Some crisis-affected countries with large populations of out-of-school girls receive little aid for education.
- Around half of ODA to basic and upper secondary education in crisis-affected countries targets gender equality and women’s empowerment. However, it remains difficult to estimate the proportion of education aid that benefits girls and women in crisis contexts.

The Incheon Declaration states that at least 20% of each government’s expenditure of 5% of GDP should go to education (Education 2030, 2015). Ten of the 44 crisis-affected countries committed to the 20% target by endorsing the Kenyatta Declaration in July 2021 (see chapter 2). The Paris Declaration, which was launched at the Global Education Meeting on December 10, 2021, reinforced these targets and urged governments to allocate at least 4%-6% of GDP and/or at least 15%-20% of total public expenditure to education (Global Education Meeting, 2021). More than 40 countries gave their support to the Paris Declaration, including 12 of the crisis-affected countries covered by this report. With the exception of Zimbabwe, these 12 were in addition to the countries committing to 20% through the Kenyatta Declaration.

33 Burkina Faso, Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Malawi, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Somalia, Uganda, and Zimbabwe
34 These include Bangladesh, Colombia, Ethiopia, Haiti, Lebanon, Mali, Myanmar, Philippines, Syria, Venezuela, Yemen, and Zimbabwe.
Only limited updated data are available from UIS on crisis-affected contexts; 2020 data for government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP is only available from Georgia, Kenya, Malawi, and Mauritania. Updated figures on education expenditure as a percentage of total government expenditure have been much more widely updated, with 2020 data available from 11 of the 44 crisis-affected countries. The updated data show that just three countries have reached these targets:

- Burkina Faso: 5.8% of GDP and 22.7% of government expenditure
- Ethiopia: 5.1% of GDP and 24.0% of government expenditure
- Senegal: 5.3% of GDP and 21.1% of government expenditure

The most recent available data for the 35 crisis-affected countries where both indicators are available show that the overall average of spending on education as a proportion of national budgets has fallen from 15.8% in 2019 (INEE, 2021) to 14.6% in 2021. Spending as a proportion of GDP has also fallen, from 3.7% to 3.4%, during the same period.

Figure 18: Government education expenditure in crisis-affected countries vs. Incheon (latest available data 2016-2021)


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35 Data are from 2016-2021 for Afghanistan, Angola, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central Africa Republic, Chad, Colombia, Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Georgia, Haiti, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Myanmar, Niger, Pakistan, oPt, Philippines, Senegal, Turkey, Uganda, Ukraine, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of), and Zimbabwe.
Table 5 shows changes in national spending over time. For the 30 countries with sufficient data available, 11 are in the category of low and declining spending on education as a proportion of GDP. Six countries can be classified as high spending and showing an increase in spending over time—Burkina Faso, Burundi, Mozambique, oPt, Senegal, and Ukraine.

Table 5: Change in government spending on education as a percentage of GDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Government spending as % of GDP (most recent data)</th>
<th>Declining spending as % of GDP (2016-2020)</th>
<th>Little change in spending (less than 0.1%) (2016-2020)</th>
<th>Rising spending as % of GDP(2016-2020)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low government spending on education (&lt;4.5%)</strong></td>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>Madagascar</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td></td>
<td>Niger</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td></td>
<td>Uganda</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mali</td>
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<td>Haiti</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Malawi</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High government spending on education (&gt;4.5%)</strong></td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Burundi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>oPt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Insufficient data</strong> (no data from 2018 on, or only one data point in the last five years)</td>
<td>DPRK</td>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>Syria</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on UIS database (n.d.); 2016-2021 data on government spending as a percentage of GDP. Retrieved October 2021.

As mentioned in chapter 2, the GPE summit in July 2021 was used to launch the Kenyatta Declaration, which called for an increase in domestic financing toward the 20% global benchmark and was endorsed by 19 GPE partner countries. A number of governments have committed a percentage of their national budgets over the five-year period, as summarized in Figure 19. Note that the spending commitments by the government of Afghanistan were made prior to the Taliban takeover. We do not yet have data on whether or how that has changed since de facto authorities took over in 2021.
Figure 19: Governments’ commitment to education spending as a percentage of their total budget, up to 2025

NB: Some countries have reported these figures as a percentage that includes debt servicing commitment; others reported excluding debt service commitment.
Source: GPE (n.d.)
7.2 INTERNATIONAL EXPENDITURE

This section analyses international expenditure in terms of global humanitarian aid to education, using data from the UN OCHA Financial Tracking Service (FTS), which tracks global humanitarian aid. The FTS is a voluntary reporting mechanism, wherein much of what is reported is not specified by sector. Reporting for 2020 also includes COVID-19 response by sector category, but which sectors or activities are covered is not reported.

The percentage of all humanitarian aid allocated to education has remained fairly steady since 2019, at around 2.8%. However, there has been a large increase in the appeal funding requested for education, from 3.8% in 2019 to 7.6% in 2021.

![Figure 20: Proportion of humanitarian aid to education, 2010 to 2021](image)

This increase is also evident in data on the absolute amounts requested. In 2018, appeals requested US$876 million for education; this had risen to almost US$1.4 billion by 2020. Although the absolute amount funded has increased, the proportion of appeals funded has fallen from 48% in 2018 to 40% in 2020. This is shown in Figure 21.
Figure 21: Absolute humanitarian aid to education

Fluctuations in the percentage of education requests funded over time is shown in Figure 22. There are only two years, 2010 and 2018, where the requests funded rose above 45%.

Figure 22: Proportion of appeals funded, 2010 to 2020

The UN OCHA FTS data on humanitarian appeals and spending indicate a marked increase in humanitarian actors’ demand for education aid between 2019 and 2021, both in absolute terms and relative to other humanitarian sectors. This rise in demand has coincided with the COVID-19 pandemic, which could have been a contributing factor. However, this could have led to increased demand for humanitarian aid across many sectors. Appeals for funding in the health sector and in the water, sanitation, and hygiene sector saw a more modest increase in appeals over the same period. Between 2019 and 2021, appeals for humanitarian aid to education increased by 172%, compared to an increase of 65% for health. Appeals to child protection and protection from
GBV more than tripled during that period. These changes indicate increased concentration on education and protection during the COVID-19 period, but it is difficult to know whether these changes were driven by increased awareness of the importance of these two closely related sectors, or by an actual increase in needs as a result of school closures and lockdowns. Appeals in the “multi-sector” category decreased significantly (by 81%), and it is possible that increased appeals in some sectors may have been driven in part by more specific targeting of appeals by sector. Further research would be needed to understand the reasons for these changes.

While the appeals data indicate an increased demand in aid for education from those preparing humanitarian appeals, the funding data indicate that it remains a relatively low priority for donors, at around 3% of all humanitarian funding. However, humanitarian funding for protection from GBV almost quadrupled between 2019 and 2021 (from US$55 million in 2019 to US$207 million in 2021). This shows the response to the increased need for protection in this area as a result of COVID-19 restrictions, but is also a positive sign of the growing awareness among donors of the importance of protecting women and girls in crisis situations.

Patterns in the distribution of ODA to education across crisis-affected countries indicate that it is not currently distributed in accordance with the level of need in girls’ education. Comparing the total ODA to education received by crisis-affected countries to the number of out-of-school girls of primary and lower secondary age as a measure of need reveals that some countries with a very high number of out-of-school girls receive very low levels of ODA to education (see Figure 23). Chad, Madagascar, and Sudan have a very high number of out-of-school girls but they received relatively little aid for education compared to other crisis-affected countries. At the other end of the scale are countries that received large amounts of ODA for education relative to their specific need for girls’ education. Jordan received US$35 in education aid per capita and oPt US$92 per capita, compared to less than US$1 in Sudan. The role the UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) plays in formal education service delivery in oPt means that the country is one of the largest recipients of ODA to education.

Figure 23: Number of out-of-school girls (primary and lower secondary school age) compared to total official development assistance to education disbursed in 2019, in US$ (constant prices)

Figure 24: Pledges by donor governments to the GPE replenishment, in US$ million

Source: GPE (n.d.)
7.3 FUNDING WOMEN’S AND GIRLS’ EDUCATION

As discussed in the first Mind the Gap report (INEE, 2021), the way ODA is recorded in systems like the OECD CRS and the OCHA FTS make it difficult to monitor how much international aid goes to supporting girls’ and women’s education in crisis contexts. It also should be noted that aid to other sectors, including child protection, protection from GBV, and improving gender equality in the workforce, can all help to overcome gendered barriers to education. Changes to aid in these sectors can have a positive impact on girls’ education.

Box 19: Charlevoix funding dashboard

In order to promote transparency and accountability in the commitments made by G7 donors and funding partners as part of the Charlevoix Declaration on Quality Education, the INEE Reference Group on Girls’ Education in Emergencies developed a public-facing interactive dashboard that visualizes the amount of funding pledged and disbursed as a result of the Charlevoix commitments. The Charlevoix Funding Dashboard illustrates funding flows from donors and funding partners to regions, countries, and implementing partners. It also provides information on project focus areas and populations served, and highlights specific projects.

This dashboard represents a milestone in the transparent tracking of funding for education for girls and women in crisis-affected contexts. It holds donors to account for the commitments made in the Charlevoix Declaration on Quality Education, and also helps the humanitarian sector and relevant stakeholders to understand what progress has been made with those resources on a programmatic level. Given the global picture it provides on regions, education levels, populations served, and programmatic areas covered, it is envisaged that this tool could be used by donors and funding partners to analyze their existing funding and determine where they may want to support additional girls’ education programming in the future. It also could be used by the humanitarian sector to review underfunded areas of girls’ education.

It is important to note that the Charlevoix funding dashboard is deliberately limited to showing the funding pledged and disbursed by Charlevoix donors and funding partners relative to their June and September 2018 Charlevoix commitments. It does not include all funding for girls’ and women’s education and training in contexts of conflict and crisis since 2018. Due to the limited scope and purpose of the dashboard, it only captures Charlevoix funding and serves as a tracking and accountability mechanism for the Charlevoix Declaration. However, the dashboard does show that all Charlevoix donors have either met or are on track to meet their pledged Charlevoix commitments, and many have exceeded their commitments. It provides a useful snapshot of which areas and types of programs are being supported generally by major donors and funding partners in the girls’ education and emergencies space.

The OECD CRS (OECD, n.d.) tracks whether development aid targets gender equality and women’s empowerment. Analysis of data from the 44 countries shows a general increase in the proportion of spending that has targeted gender equality over the last decade. Basic education, which includes lower secondary, has risen from 40% in 2010 to 45% in 2019. It has risen more sharply at the upper secondary level, from 36% in 2010 to 54% in 2019.36

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36 The term “basic education” as used here is based on OECD CRS DAC reporting coding. It includes primary education, early childhood education, basic life skills for youth and adults, and lower secondary education. Secondary includes upper secondary and technical and vocational training. See DAC and CRS code lists at https://www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-standards/dacandcrscodelists.htm.
There are examples of dedicated funds focused on girls, such as the UK Girls’ Education Challenge Fund and the GPE Girls’ Education Accelerator. The Support Her Education Initiative raised more than US$150 million in funding for the Girls’ Education Accelerator, primarily from Germany, with additional contributions from Denmark, Ireland, and the LEGO Foundation (GPE 2021c; GPE 2022). It should be noted that many international funds and donors require recipients to explain how gender equity is being addressed. For example, ECW (2020) requires recipients to show explicitly how gender-equitable interventions are designed, monitored, and reported.

However, it is difficult to estimate how much of the vast majority of international funding for education directly benefits girls and women. Where spending explicitly targets gender equality, it could be assumed that the proportion of girls among the beneficiaries is close to or above the proportion of girls enrolled in the education system being supported. For aid to education that does not explicitly target gender equality, and where girls are underrepresented in the education system being supported, girls are likely to be less than half of those benefited by education aid. Even where there is an explicit emphasis on improving girls’ education, the decision-making processes around how aid is spent tend to leave out women’s rights and adolescent girls’ organizations, thereby missing out on the local knowledge and expertise that such organizations could bring to programming (Equal Measures 2030, 2022).
8.1 EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS

There is some evidence that progress has been made toward the Charlevoix Declaration goals since the first Mind the Gap report was published. Changes in the international data on access to education, training, and learning for girls and women affected by crisis and conflict have been small, but the evidence indicates that, in the period just before the COVID-19 pandemic, the situation was improving and gender gaps in access and learning were closing. There is emerging evidence that the COVID-19 pandemic will have led to significant and long-term setbacks in this progress, especially for the most disadvantaged girls, but it is still too early to reliably estimate the scale of the setbacks and the extent to which they will widen pre-existing gender gaps.

There has been improvement in the availability of data. The following developments have contributed to this:

- Better use of more sophisticated data modeling to extrapolate forward from older household survey data
- Pragmatic and coordinated use of learning-outcome data from a wider variety of sources
- Improved data-collection techniques, such as the use of technology to provide more confidentiality and privacy for those reporting their experience of SRGBV on surveys

Perhaps one of the most significant areas of progress has been the increased awareness, especially among donors, of the importance of ensuring that all girls, including those affected by crises, should be able to complete 12 years of safe, quality education. This is evidenced through commitments made at the 2021 G7 Summit, and the willingness of development partners to unite behind joint targets for girls’ education. It includes increased awareness of:

- the vital protective role schooling plays for girls and the need to build systems to protect girls from GBV during school closures;
- the fact that, in an emergency, education really cannot wait; if systems are to prevent learning loss, the provision of education must be rapid and it must reach all students;
- the fact that innovative solutions can be implemented at scale to enable access to learning when there is no access to school;
- the need to build back better, and to build in and scale some of the innovations implemented in response to the COVID-19 crisis in order to ensure that education systems become more resilient to future shocks and the climate crisis;
- the need for gender-responsive emergency education interventions and the need to build back equitably;
- the significant role girls’ education should play in climate change resilience and mitigation efforts; and
- the need to meaningfully engage girls and young women and young feminist organizations as partners in the design and delivery of education programs.

The exposure of high-income economies to a crisis requiring school closures and to climate-related weather
disasters within their own borders has arguably helped raise awareness. However, it also has meant that many
donor governments are now primarily focused on dealing with emergencies within their own borders. This could
divert attention and resources away from the ongoing need to improve girls’ and women’s education and training
where it is farthest behind, which is predominantly in low- and lower-middle-income countries that were facing
crises prior to COVID-19 and now are dealing with the effects of the pandemic.

➔ This is a critical moment for the education in emergencies community to act and capitalize on this increased
awareness. INEE should use its convening power to bring donors, policy-makers, and implementers together
to drive improvements at scale for girls’ education in crisis contexts.

➔ Civil society must hold donor governments to account in terms of meeting their spending commitments to
education for girls and women in crisis, especially where politicians seek to justify a reduction in ODA to ed-
ucation based on the need to prioritize domestic expenditure.

8.2 WHERE GAPS REMAIN

8.2.1 UNADDRESSED GENDER GAPS IN THE DESIGN OF EDUCATION EMERGENCY RESPONSES

In the rush to provide remote education alternatives during COVID-19-related school closures, many education
providers clearly did not take a gender-responsive or inclusive approach in the design and planning of their re-
sponses. Technology is too often seen as a panacea for delivering distance education, as it can provide rapid and
wide reach, often at a relatively low cost to the service provider. However, where technology-mediated remote or
distance education programs do not take into account the gendered barriers to accessing learning through tech-
nology, they risk widening gender gaps and excluding many girls from opportunities to learn. These gendered
barriers include the challenges of accessing devices, and the availability of time and space to study at home.

The protection gap girls are exposed to when schools close has also not been sufficiently addressed in many
national governments’ COVID-19 responses. The increase in humanitarian aid for protection from GBV in 2020
and 2021 indicate that the humanitarian community and donors are responding to this gap.

The barriers and risks faced by girls are highly contextual and vary from one country to another. Therefore, gov-
ernments need to know and understand the specific challenges faced by girls in their own countries and design
emergency response programs to mitigate these challenges. This requires having good access to data on girls’
education and protection prior to a crisis, along with systems that will enable schools and education systems to
keep in contact with girls during a crisis.

➔ Governments and their development partners should ensure that an up-to-date and thorough gender analy-
sis of national education is available, that it includes populations in chronic crisis situations, and draws from
data on barriers to learning at home and in the school system.

➔ Government and humanitarian actors should include gender analysis in any rapid assessment of learning
opportunities during crises.

➔ Government and humanitarian actors should design and adapt education-sector crisis responses in accor-
dance with the findings of these gender analyses.

Governments also need to understand, coordinate, and leverage the resources available within communities that
can help support girls’ learning, protection, and well-being during a crisis, especially where a crisis might result in
school closure. This could include coordinating with community volunteers to monitor girls’ safety and well-being,
delivering paper-based learning materials, facilitating small reading groups or radio education listening groups,
and encouraging re-enrollment when schools reopen.

➔ Governments should establish school or community-based roles for maintaining contact between the educa-
tion system and girls’ households.

➔ Government, humanitarian, and development actors should coordinate their efforts across sectors to deliver,
monitor, and support girls’ learning, protection, and well-being during crises.
Governments need to understand parental attitudes and behavior toward girls’ learning, communicate to them the practical ways they can support their daughters’ continued learning during crises, and the benefits of doing so.

- Government, humanitarian, and development actors should work with parents and caregivers to break down gendered barriers to remote learning for girls.
- Government, humanitarian, and development actors should provide parents and caregivers with practical guidance on supporting their daughters’ learning.

### 8.2.2 EVIDENCE AND DATA GAPS

As discussed above, designing gender-responsive and gender-transformative education emergency responses and programming requires a thorough understanding of the challenges girls and women face within their living contexts, as well as evidence-informed knowledge of what type of interventions work. This report has identified a number of key data and evidence gaps around distance education, SRGBV, and education for climate change mitigation that would need to be filled in order to improve policy, planning, and programming in these areas.

The proliferation of approaches used during COVID-19-related school closures provide a unique opportunity to research at scale how different approaches to distance and remote education have contributed to girls’ continuity of learning, retention, and re-entry into school. The findings of this report also indicate a greater need for quantitative data and qualitative research on girls’ access to and engagement with communications technologies for learning, including radio, television, mobile phones, and other devices with internet connectivity.

- As schools reopen, donors and other education research funders should invest in rigorous empirical studies of the effectiveness of different approaches to remote learning on girls’ learning, access, and retention in education.
- Collectors and collators of global monitoring data, including governments and UIS, should consider how data on digital access, disaggregated by sex, and children’s and young people’s digital skills could be improved.

Major data gaps remain in the area of SRGBV, including its prevalence, particularly among forcibly displaced populations. There also is a need to improve data-collection methods so that data can be collected in a sensitive way that respects victims’ privacy. There also are gaps in the evidence on what works to prevent SRGBV, particularly in the effective implementation of government policies (see section 8.2.3). Progress has been made in generating evidence on the effectiveness of whole school approaches in reducing SRGBV, but the studies so far are small scale and rarely measure the longer-term impact.

- Government and humanitarian actors should work to improve the collection of data on SRGBV, particularly in contexts of forced displacement.
- Funders of programming and research should invest in longer-term evaluations of the effectiveness of SRGBV prevention programs.

**Girls’ education and climate change** is a relatively new area of interest and discourse among researchers and the international community. There are still fundamental data gaps on forced displacement resulting from extreme weather, including a lack of data disaggregated by age and gender in many contexts, which makes it difficult to estimate the global impact on girls and women.

- Government and humanitarian actors should ensure that data on forced displacement due to weather-related disasters are disaggregated by age and sex.

Education can play an important role in climate change mitigation and resilience, but the main burden of responding to climate change should fall on the major carbon-emitting countries. This means that high-income countries need to invest in understanding how their own education systems can more effectively prepare the next generation to address climate change.

- High-income countries need to invest in researching and delivering education content that enables learners to develop skills and adopt behaviors that will help to mitigate climate change.
- Donors and development partners should fund research that explores how education can equip girls to be agents of change in the climate crisis, and fund the development and piloting of effective approaches in this area.
8.2.3 GAPS IN POLICY IMPLEMENTATION TO REDUCE SRGBV

Evidence presented in section 5 of this report indicates that the majority of crisis-affected countries have national programs to reduce violence perpetrated by school staff members and national action plans to reduce violence in schools. However, a growing body of data available on the prevalence of violence in schools, SRGBV in particular, in this same set of countries indicates weak policy implementation. One of the implementation gaps identified is that education leaders at the district and school levels had not received the training or resources to monitor or respond to cases of SRGBV, hence they had limited capacity to enforce laws and enact policies. Some donor-funded programs were effective in building institutional capacity around safeguarding.

➔ Government, humanitarian, and development actors should support schools, non-formal education providers, and district education offices to develop robust safeguarding systems.

➔ Government, humanitarian, and development actors should train district and school staff members to implement safeguarding systems and provide the necessary resources.

8.2.4 RHETORIC-REALITY GAP IN THE DONOR DISCOURSE ON GIRLS’ EDUCATION AND EMERGENCIES

As noted in chapter 2, in 2021, world leaders endorsed high-level statements on the importance of investing in girls’ education, especially girls affected by crisis. They also noted the importance of girls’ education in advancing climate change mitigation. However, there so far is no strong evidence that this is translating into donor funding or programming that directly addresses these issues.

Rhetoric around the need to ensure that all girls complete a secondary education has not been reflected in funding allocations in recent years. Some crisis-affected countries with a high number of out-of-school girls receive very small amounts of aid to education. Calls by donors to equip girls to become agents of change in the climate crisis have not yet resulted in funding and programming to support these calls. The policy discourse on girls’ education and climate change has begun relatively recently, and we should expect a time lag between policy-making and aid disbursement. Although the evidence and policy discourse on supporting girls’ education in crisis contexts more broadly have clearly pointed to the need to invest for many years, funding remains low.

➔ When allocating ODA to education, donors should prioritize countries and contexts that are experiencing crises, especially those with large populations of out-of-school girls.

➔ Donors and national systems should work together to improve the quality, content, and gender responsiveness of climate change education and education for environmental sustainability.

➔ Donors need to support crisis-affected countries in delivering education for climate change resilience, especially to girls.

The gaps and progress highlighted in this report represent both challenges and opportunities for stakeholders to improve the situation around girls’ education in crisis-affected countries. For further recommendations on how to address the gaps and challenges highlighted in this report, please refer to the accompanying policy brief, “Closing the Gap 2: Delivering safe and sustainable solutions for girls’ education in crises.”
ANNEX 1: CASE STUDIES

CASE STUDY 1: MAKING WAVES INTERACTIVE RADIO INSTRUCTION

War Child Canada has 20 years of experience working globally with communities affected by conflict. It has been working in the DRC since 2005, where it has strong, long-standing relationships with local communities, governments, and a range of education stakeholders.

War Child Canada began developing and implementing an IRI project (now known as Making Waves) in the DRC in 2014 to explore whether the methodology could be used to provide educational opportunities for, and boost the academic success of, adolescent girls in conflict-prone settings by allowing them to catch up on their education in a safe, community-based setting. In 2017, War Child Canada piloted and implemented lower secondary curriculum-based radio education to support the return to learning for children and youth in hard-to-reach areas of the DRC.

In 2019, War Child Canada received funding from Global Affairs Canada to expand the Making Waves program, with the goal of reaching more than 28,000 beneficiaries. It was to target out-of-school children and youth between the ages of 12 and 16 over a two-year implementation period in Kinshasa, Uvira, and Bukavu.37

In 2020, in response to new realities created by the COVID-19 pandemic, the Making Waves project received additional funding from Global Affairs Canada to keep learners engaged in education and to support schools when learners returned to class. This additional funding targeted youth ages 12-18 in Kinshasa, Uvira, Bukavu, Lubumbashi, Bunia, and Kalemie. The COVID-19 support is estimated to have reached 366,937 learners directly through publicly broadcast radio programming. The program, in collaboration with the minister of social affairs, also provided 55 schools with handwashing stations and water, sanitation, and hygiene kits.38

EFFECTIVE DELIVERY OF INTERACTIVE RADIO INSTRUCTION

By September 2021, 2,091 (1,575 females, 53%) out-of-school children ages 12 to 16 had attended classes supported by the radio program (Making Waves, 2021a). In these classes, learners listened to radio programming in a space donated by the communities, which were known as education centers. Learners were guided by an education assistant who reviewed the previous day’s lesson and then guided learners through additional learning activities. Each education center was equipped with a radio that could be powered by a battery, solar source, or plugged into a wall. The lessons were provided on a USB stick that could be plugged into and played on the radios provided. Due to the prohibitive cost and timing of public radio broadcasts, USB radios have proven to be a more flexible and affordable long-term way to provide IRI programs. Learners participated in the program for ten months, the same time frame as formal school in the DRC.

The Making Waves project follows the national curriculum, which ensures that students are able to take national examinations when they complete the program. In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, and with the support of the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Making Waves project publicly aired lessons on six local radio stations. The stations also ran COVID-19 awareness radio spots to address misinformation, and gender-focused spots to raise awareness of the importance of girls’ education.

37 Details of the GAC-funded project are available at https://w05.international.gc.ca/projectbrowser-banqueprojets/project-projet/details/P006963001.
38 Details of the COVID-19 response are available at https://w05.international.gc.ca/projectbrowser-banqueprojets/project-projet/details/P006963002.
In addition to developing and broadcasting the radio program, Making Waves has trained 34 education assistants (34 female) in inclusive gender-responsive pedagogy, and it delivered additional training on how to support crisis-affected learners through radios and phones.39

**POSITIVE IMPACT ON LITERACY AND NUMERACY**

In December 2020, a mixed methods evaluation of the Making Waves took place, which compared the impact of the IRI program with traditional alternative learning programs in the DRC. The evaluation found that, overall, parents, teachers, and students were all supportive of the IRI program as a highly effective way to improve student learning outcomes. Many parents and community members overcame their initial skepticism to become highly supportive of IRI.

A total of 447 students (50% female) completed a reading and math learning assessment, as well as a short questionnaire. Key findings include the following:

- Students in the IRI program had higher mean scores on all the reading and math subtasks in the assessment.
- The number of IRI students who failed to complete any items on the literacy and numeracy assessments, which would indicate a very low learning level, was low for most subtasks, and lower across subtasks than for students in traditional alternative learning programs.40

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40 School to School unpublished evaluation of gender-inclusive radio education. 2021
Qualitative data supported these results by explaining how IRI reduced distractions for students and offered a complementary approach to education that combined radio lessons with teacher-facilitated instruction and group work. Respondents frequently acknowledged that orphans, students with disabilities, girls, students in remote areas, students who speak a minority language, and students affected by conflict faced barriers to education, and that IRI reduced those barriers by avoiding fees. Tolerance was also seen as an important aspect of the program’s success. Learners who have participated commented that,

The radio explains word for word and makes it easy to remember what has been taught. Now I understand lessons better.
— Female learner, Level 4, Bandal.41

It used to be difficult to understand lessons. Now I understand everything. The radio approach is better than traditional education. I am happy because with the radio I can do the exercise and it is easy to understand the lesson.
— 14-year-old female learner, Kinshasa.42

Going forward, War Child Canada hopes to expand the geographic reach of IRI programming and further support learners’ outcomes by providing complementary literacy education to caregivers, with a particular focus on women and adults with disabilities. War Child Canada will continue to adapt to lessons learned and put best practices in gender-responsive education at the core of its project design.

42 Making Waves. Unpublished internal monitoring data, collected in 2021 as part of a video participatory monitoring pilot
CASE STUDY 2: RAISE ABOVE: COMMUNITY LEARNING KIOSKS IN THE PHILIPPINES

Children in the Philippines have endured one of the longest periods of school closure due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Schools at all levels were closed in March 2020, which affected 27 million learners; at the time of writing, the majority of schools remained closed. A limited pilot of phased reopening commenced in November 2021, which allowed about 5,000 learners to set foot again in nearly 100 public schools (Reuters, 2021; Department of Education, 2021).

RAISE ABOVE PROJECT

The Real Assets through Improved Skills and Education for Adolescent Girls (RAISE Above) project began on January 15, 2019. It is implemented by Plan International Philippines, with support from Dubai Cares, which is part of Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum Global Initiatives. The project targets adolescent girls, young women, and young men in the rural province of Western Samar who are out of school or in school but at risk of dropping out. Although secondary school completion rates in the Eastern Visayas region, where Western Samar is located, have improved in recent years, reaching 74.2% in 2018-2019, these rates and scores on the national achievement test still remain below the national average (National Economic and Development Authority, 2020).

The project delivers activities in three areas:

1. **Improving girls’ agency** through community awareness-raising and sensitization. Youth and peer educators were trained to deliver life-skills training and content on sexual and reproductive health and rights and other subjects, and to create “youth corners” in the schools where young people could safely assemble.

2. **Reducing dropout** by targeting girls vulnerable to pregnancy and early marriage with a reading and literacy programming. This programming is complimented by an open high school program that allows learning to take place at a distance through the use of self-instructional modules, flash drives containing curated content, or radio-based instruction.

3. **Building employability skills** by developing links with employers. This includes providing career guidance and job-readiness assistance.

DEVELOPING COMMUNITY LEARNING SPACES

In response to the school closures, RAISE Above pivoted so that activities would take place in the community. The planning staff noted that parents of learners at the primary and secondary levels were struggling to collect and drop off learning modules at the schools, and that learners faced a lack of time, space, support, and resources to complete their assignments.

Community learning kiosks were established in partnership with the community and youth leaders elected to the Sangguniang Kabataan. The learning kiosks initially served as one-stop distribution centers, where learners and parents could pick up and submit their distance learning modules and access learning materials, school supplies, educational toys, and books, all of which were donated by the community. Information education communication materials produced by Plan International Philippines were also available. These materials addressed topics such as GBV and adolescent health. Over time, the kiosks have evolved into a space where students can go to read, study, access materials, and get tutorial help in reading and mathematics.

Distance learning is an established part of the education system in the Philippines and a central part of the national COVID-19 response plan. The country rolled out multiple modalities for remote learning and empowered provinces to choose what best fit their context. Western Samar implemented the modular distance learning program, where parents collected the printed self-instructional modules from the schools. Students studied the modules and completed the worksheets and assignments. Once complete, the parents submitted the modules to the teachers.

THE LEARNING KIOSKS TACKLED BARRIERS TO REMOTE LEARNING

Girls and young women in the Philippines have been disproportionately affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Early data from the Philippine Commission on Women showed increased complaints of violence against women (Philippine Commission on Women, 2020). A Plan International survey conducted in April and May 2020 with more than 1,000 adolescent girls revealed that problems with internet connectivity, doing household chores, and taking care of siblings were the main barriers to studying at home (Plan Philippines, 2020a).

43 The Sangguniang Kabataan is a council of elected young leaders which represent the youth in each barangay in the Philippines.
Rey, a male community volunteer, shared the following:

The learning kiosks are supported by volunteers who provide additional tutorial support to those having difficulties with distance learning. They also advise children on COVID-19 prevention measures and refer those who may need additional support (i.e., psychosocial support, help due to a visual/hearing impairment, other medical attention) to the appropriate services. Volunteers include college students, health workers, and youth leaders, all of whom are vetted and have undergone training in child safeguarding, child rights, and gender equality. They also are familiar with the content of the distance learning modules.

One volunteer describes her experience:

Learners who have benefited from the kiosks have highlighted the value of their proximity, the availability of learning materials and learning support, and the opportunities they provide for peer-to-peer connection and in-person mentorship.

Communities led the future of learning kiosks

Once village leaders saw the value of the learning kiosks, they began to establish their own, with support from the project. Today there are 32 learning kiosks in the province, serving a minimum of 100 children per community. Five of these kiosks are located in project communities, while the rest are outside the project sites. The project supported the training of kiosk managers and volunteers, provided basic learning materials, fans, a speaker, writing board, and writing supplies. The village leaders provided the site/space, television sets, books, and school supplies, and they paid the cost of operating the kiosks.

At the time of writing, RAISE Above had enabled 13,276 learners (6,400 girls and 6876 boys) to access distance learning, and more than 3,000 students have benefited from the learning kiosks. To ensure the sustainability of the learning kiosks, barangay officials and community members established a learning kiosk committee that oversees kiosk cleanliness, safety, and security. Through community donations, each learning kiosk is equipped with proper ventilation, tables and chairs, cleaning materials, face masks, and hand sanitizer to prevent the spread of COVID-19.

The learning kiosks also enable peer leaders, who previously coordinated the creation of youth corners in schools, to continue to lead activities in a safe space and to provide support and information important for students’ well-being, including around bullying, exploitation, and how to prevent and report abuse. Peer leaders also have been able to speak to local officials about the experience of girls during lockdown, including reporting the negative impact on their mental health and well-being. In an interview conducted during a field monitoring visit in one of the targeted partner communities, a mother expressed her gratitude for the activities and programs conducted by the youth volunteers in the learning kiosk:

With the establishment of the community learning center in our community, it helped the learners who are having difficulty understanding their modules. Distance learning is new to us and not all parents are able or capable to teach their children. My child is always eager to attend the sessions conducted in the learning kiosk and has improved his reading and writing skills.

— Arma, mother of a learner, Barangay Tagnao, Gandara, Sama

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44 Plan International Philippines. Unpublished program documentation from monitoring visit May 2021
45 Plan International Philippines. RAISE Above newsletter #2, November 2020, unpublished
46 Plan International Philippines, unpublished program documentation from monitoring visit May 2021

Annex 1: Case studies
**CASE STUDY 3: HEALING IN HARMONY: ARTISTS, NOT PATIENTS**

Healing in Harmony is a therapeutic music program developed by Canadian-based NGO, Make Music Matter (MMM). Healing in Harmony uses therapeutic music programming to help survivors of trauma build resilience and coping skills. The first program began in 2015, when MMM partnered with the Panzi Hospital in the DRC to help female survivors of sexual and gender-based violence (MMM, 2020).

MMM’s development of standard operating procedures, an easy-to-use training manual, and curriculum resources have facilitated the scaling of the program and its expansion into other countries and contexts, including Guinea, Uganda, Turkey, and Syria. A partnership with World Vision expanded the work into Beni in eastern DRC in 2018, into Peru in 2019, where it worked with migrant Venezuelan and host Peruvian youth, and to a multi-year project in Kasai Province in the DRC that was funded by Global Affairs Canada.

The project in Kasai aims to address issues of mental health and psychosocial stress, and of sexual and gender-based violence faced by girls displaced by conflict, in order to facilitate their re-entry into formal and informal learning opportunities. The three-year project, called Equality for Girls Access to Learning (EGAL), hypothesizes that addressing mental health and psychosocial stress as a barrier to education access will result in increased enrollment, retention, and, ultimately, improved learning outcomes for girls and boys who participate in HiH. The project plans to run five cohorts that will reach a total of 2,520 girls, 484 boys, and 100 caregivers. Two were completed in 2021, and three more will be run in 2022.

In Kasai Province, more than 1.4 million people were displaced by conflict in 2016-2018, when an estimated 150,000 children lost access to schooling. With the restoration of more peaceful, stable conditions, some families have returned, but many children, especially girls who have faced early marriage and motherhood or children forcibly enlisted into militias, have been out of school and without access to educational opportunities. Vulnerable girls and boys who have experienced the trauma of conflict and displacement are identified to participate in HiH within the EGAL project by community women’s networks and the schools.

### ARTISTS, NOT PATIENTS: HEALING IN HARMONY APPROACH

HiH is an intensive four-month group therapy program. The therapeutic approach, based on cognitive behavioral therapy, combines group therapy and music creation in an artistic process that empowers participants as artists and does not treat them like patients. The program covers four stages:

1. Participants complete pre- and post-treatment tests that measure levels of stress, anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) using the Harvard Trauma Questionnaire and Johns Hopkins Symptoms Checklist, which have been appropriately adapted for the context.
2. Working with a trained and certified psychotherapist and professional music producer, participants write, record, and professionally produce songs about their emotions and experiences.
3. The professionally produced songs are disseminated through local radio programs, community concerts, social media, and streaming platforms.
4. The artists become advocates for change in their communities and for the reduction of stigma, and they work to raise awareness about issues such as sexual violence, education rights for girls, gender norms, mental illness, and displacement/refugee status. (MMM, 2020)

Creating music enables artists to start to make meaning of their experiences and puts the power for change into their hands, through the act of performing. Throughout the program, each participant’s emotional state is closely monitored to ensure that one-to-one counselling is provided when needed, and that participants are referred for more intensive mental health support if necessary (Cikuru et al., 2021). HiH participants gradually learn to guide their own healing, and to determine their own treatment pathway and the therapeutic tools they can rely on long after the program ends.

### A LASTING, POSITIVE IMPACT ON MENTAL HEALTH

In 2017-2018, the International Centre for Advanced Research and Training, in partnership with Evangelical University in Africa and the University of Michigan, undertook a study of the impact of the HiH program (Cikuru et al., 2021). The study included 167 women between ages 15 and 69 in Mulamba, a rural area of the South Kivu province of the DRC. The study used a stepped wedge design, where participants were enrolled in HiH at regular cohort intervals.

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47 Make Music Matter: Responding to trauma, stigma and Covid-19, Healing in Harmony supporting girls’ return to education in DRC, internal presentation
Participation in HiH was associated with significant improvements in women’s mental health. The women taking part in the program were assessed twice, pre-test and post-test, and in follow-up interviews three and six months after completing the program.

The tests measured three primary mental health indicators—anxiety, depression, and PTSD—using standardized checklists from Harvard and Johns Hopkins that had been adapted for the local context, culture, and language. The results showed a 54% decline in depression, 67% decline in anxiety, and 53% decline in PTSD. There also were positive effects on self-perceived stigma, feelings of unworthiness, and unhappiness. Before participating in the program, about 40% of women reported feeling happy, and less than a third said they were proud of themselves. After participating in the program, more than 60% of the women reported being happy, the probability that they would feel proud of themselves nearly doubled, and the proportion of women who reported that they like themselves increased by 65% (Cikuru et al., 2021).

Despite ongoing conflict and instability in the area, the improvement in women’s mental health was sustained up to six months after completing the program. Preliminary data from EGAL show similar results with girls and boys both in and out of school who participated in the first HiH cohort.

In one targeted community, among the children participating in both pre- and post-tests in the first HiH cohort, 94.8% tested positive for anxiety at pre-test, 100% for depression, and 93% for trauma-related behavior. At post-test, and after only three months in the program, these numbers were reduced to 37.9% testing positive for anxiety (a 60% reduction) and 60% testing positive for trauma-related behavior (a 33% reduction). Although all children still reported some degree of depression, 80% reported a reduction in their level of depressive symptoms (e.g., from severely depressed to somewhat depressed). One young female artist spoke about her participation in HiH:

"I realized that I was not responsible for what had happened to me. My thoughts about my life, my environment, and my future changed. I relieved myself by sharing my story and also, I feel good with my body, to the point that I continue doing some relaxation exercises at home and feel connected to the child I thought I will never love because the child used to remind me all that I went through.

— Young female participant, Kasai, who has since expressed a desire to return to school and finish her education"

Data collected on the next four cohorts of the HiH program and through the EGAL research project will provide further insights into the impact HiH has on levels of anxiety, depression, and PTSD, and on education access, enrollment, retention, and learning outcomes. The outcomes of the research and final evaluation of the HiH program will be available at end of the project in 2023.

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49 Make Music Matters data, collected December 2021 in Kasai and analyzed by ICART research staff at Panzi Hospital, unpublished.

50 Make Music Matter unpublished monitoring data, collected December 2021 in Kasai and analyzed by ICART research staff at Panzi Hospital.

Annex 1: Case studies
CASE STUDY 4: WHOLE SCHOOL APPROACH PILOT ZIMBABWE

Between September 2018 and February 2021, the UN Girls’ Education Initiative and the Forum for African Women Educationalists Zimbabwe Chapter, with support from UNICEF and with Miske Witts as a technical partner, launched a pilot initiative to test the minimum standards of a whole school approach to combat SRGBV (see chapter 4 for more detail on what these entail). Implementation occurred from 2018 to 2020, some of it during Zimbabwe’s COVID-19 lockdown. Despite these extra challenges, the pilot showed promising results in shifting gender attitudes and beliefs in schools and in the community, which also facilitated changes in teaching and in girls’ greater involvement in school leadership.

Studies across Zimbabwe have found that intimate partner violence, sexual harassment, and sexual violence, along with corporal punishment and bullying, are accepted and widespread in the larger society. The 2017 VACS study identified bullying as a gendered form of violence in Zimbabwe; for example, schoolmates and teachers bullied girls from poorer families, calling them “fat girl” or “old mama” when they soiled their uniforms during menstruation because they could not afford sanitary pads. More students (7% male and 4% female) experienced physical punishment from a male teacher, and male students were more likely to perpetuate physical violence on their peers, both male and female. More girls than boys students reported experiencing sexual violence perpetrated by teachers (Together for Girls, 2021b).

PILOT OF THE WHOLE SCHOOL APPROACH

The pilot took place in ten schools in the districts of Chitungwiza and Shamva, and was delivered in collaboration with women’s rights organizations, teachers unions, and the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Department of Learner Welfare Schools Psychological Services.

The initial activities were designed to diagnose the most pressing needs and gaps in the schools, and they took place along with a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation process. In the initial phase, activities included:

1. **Situational analysis** and review of SRGBV tools and resources available in the pilot districts
2. **Visioning workshops**, which brought teachers, school heads, and other school staff members together with the school development committees and learners. In the workshops, participants were encouraged to examine the underlying causes of GBV. They used an appreciative enquiry approach, wherein participants shared the beliefs and norms that shaped their thinking. The approach encouraged reflection on these beliefs, and on the unequal power and privilege that shape daily relationships and interactions.

The workshops identified entry points and practical actions that could be taken to operationalize the eight domains of the whole school approach minimum standards for SRGBV prevention. The areas most in need of strengthening were school codes of conduct, monitoring reporting, and accountability and incident response, which were found to be the weakest areas.

The outcomes of the visioning workshops led to the design and delivery of activities in four areas:

1. Teachers were trained to identify and respond to SRBGV, in gender responsive teaching and learning, and in positive discipline.
2. Tuseme clubs were formed in the schools to empower students to recognize and speak up about violence.51
3. Training of district officials and school heads aimed to improve their awareness of Zimbabwe’s laws and policies regarding GBV, corporal punishment, and school violence.
4. School codes of conduct were establishing and strengthened by adding gender-responsive content and explicit mention of GBV and discrimination. Schools developed action plans to operationalize the minimum standards, which included a range of activities such as hanging banners, posters, and drawings on the school walls, at water-collection points, at the school tuck shop, and elsewhere on the school grounds. All of them had a message about zero tolerance of SRGBV.

Schools in Zimbabwe were closed in March 2020, and while some of the project activities were conducted online, students had difficulty using online platforms like Zoom due to poor network connectivity.

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51 Tuseme means “Let us speak out” in Kiswahili.
IMPACT AND SUCCESS FACTORS

Work with teachers and students had two features that were critical to success. Workshops were led by African gender experts, and by young female activists from Zimbabwe or the broader Forum for African Women Educationalists network in the region. This allowed participants to share and reflect as a community on biases and norms. Both primary and secondary students were participants in the planning workshops. Students who participated in workshops alongside their teachers and school heads served as “eye openers,” and the use of creative facilitation methods empowered students to express their opinions.

The pilot collected baseline and endline data using a repeated set of instruments, including surveys, interviews, and focus groups, with a range of stakeholders. Baseline data collection took place in ten schools. COVID-19 restrictions and ongoing teacher strikes meant that endline data collection in November 2020 was limited to only four schools. Therefore, comparison between districts was not possible, and comparisons of learners should be interpreted with caution. Key findings include the following:

- District education officers had established and reviewed reporting mechanisms for violence. The proportion of respondents who said they were aware of laws against corporal punishment and were able to name a law that protected the rights of women rose from 36% at baseline to 61%.
- While teachers stated that learners now felt comfortable reporting incidents of violence, the students disagreed. Although students were aware of reporting pathways, they reported fearing retribution or being blamed for the abuse. Moreover, 45% of learners strongly agreed with the statement, “Learners who report SRGBV at this school are often asked what they have done to initiate the abuse they have experienced.”

Learners, both girls and boys, demonstrated increased awareness of different forms of violence and perceived that teachers and education staff members had become more gender aware in their teaching and learning practices. Students and teachers made contradictory responses on the use of corporal punishment, and teachers showed increased confidence in using alternative discipline methods, as the male head of an urban secondary school described (Wiger, n.d.):

> These days we no longer physically punish children, but what we do is we take the child or the perpetrator, we sit down in the committees . . . and then we talk with the child. We try and guide the child rather than punishing the child. (Wiger, n.d.)

The pilot also achieved some positive shifts in rigid beliefs about gender roles, but the normalization of violence and, for many, inequitable gender views persisted. For instance, 75% of participants continued to agree or strongly agree with the statement, “Girls who wear short skirts are inviting trouble” (Pellowski Wiger et al., n.d.). This result reinforces the need for ongoing engagement with schools, where violence prevention must be accompanied by work on challenging gender-based discrimination and harmful social norms, both inside and outside of the education sector.
CASE STUDY 5: GIRL-LED ACTION IN MALI, SOMALIA, AND ZIMBABWE

CARE International has facilitated the implementation of integrated climate and education initiatives that combine (i) adolescent-led action on areas of concern identified by girls with (ii) school-based teacher training and (iii) adolescent and community-based financial empowerment, using savings and loans groups. These interventions targeted rural communities severely affected by climate change in Mali, Somalia, and Zimbabwe, where multi-year droughts are destroying agricultural and pastoral livelihoods. In these contexts, traditional gender norms contribute to high rates of early marriage and other forms of GBV and exclusion, which disproportionately affects girls’ education outcomes.

MALI

In Mali, CARE’s Education for Change project, which ran from 2015 to 2021 with funding from the Patsy Collins Trust Fund Initiative, worked with teachers and peer mentors to engage adolescent groups at the school and community levels in girl-led action to mitigate the impact of both climate change and sexual and reproductive health issues in education. The project worked with 52,428 adolescents (25,729 girls), including out-of-school adolescents, primary and lower secondary students, their families, and teachers in 50 school communities located in the conflict-affected Mopti region. The program’s goal was to reduce the underlying barriers to girls’ school enrollment and retention in ultra-marginalized communities.

In the targeted school communities, 1,027 adolescent leaders conducted activities with other students and out-of-school children in their communities to help mitigate the impact of climate change. The activities included reforestation, demonstrating drought-adapted agriculture techniques, and improving water management and sanitation in their communities.

Excessive cutting [of trees] is causing huge problems, especially drought and insufficient rains. I explained to relatives and friends the disadvantage of overcutting trees. Thanks to this awareness, our family has planted several trees.

— Student

In the targeted school communities, 1,027 adolescent leaders conducted activities with other students and out-of-school children in their communities to help mitigate the impact of climate change. The activities included reforestation, demonstrating drought-adapted agriculture techniques, and improving water management and sanitation in their communities.

The adolescents also used a mobile platform to receive and exchange information on disaster risk reduction, menstrual hygiene and other sexual and reproductive health issues, and COVID-19. Overall, 57% of the students and out-of-school children participated in peer-led activities. By the end of the project, 76% of the girls affirmed having received information via the phone on the risk of drought and 72% on the risk of flooding; 42% had contacted the project’s mobile platform to request information on climate change-related events; and 40% had requested information on natural disasters. The proportion of girls who recognized that improved agricultural techniques are an important tool to address climate change had increased from 45% to 73% (Daouna Developpement Conseils, 2021).

SOMALIA

In Somalia, the FCDO-funded Somali Girls’ Education Promotion Project-Transition (2017-2022) supports the ministry of education’s gender units in training mentors for girls’ empowerment forums, wherein groups of adolescents take action on issues affecting girls’ education in pastoralist-majority communities that have been heavily affected by climate change. The project works with 24,605 adolescent girls and 11,034 boys in 199 rural and remote school communities in Somaliland, Puntland, and Galmudug, including areas severely affected by the 2017 and 2020-2021 droughts and impacted by border and clan conflicts.

“The Girls’ Empowerment Forum girls spread awareness about girls’ education and they support each other, so the girls won’t drop out of their education. They don’t spread awareness only among girls, but they also go out into the community.”

Student, rural community

Source: Daouna Developpement Conseils (2021)

Image credit: CARE, Zimbabwe
Adolescent-led actions focused on the barriers faced by pastoralist girls displaced by recurrent droughts, including supporting enrollment, tracking cases of absenteeism and dropout, preventing early marriage, and enhancing awareness of menstrual health management (MHM) and gender rights. These issues all contributed to girls’ poor self-esteem.

The program evaluation found that 46% of the girls supported by the Somali Girls’ Education Promotion Project-Transition project participated in the activities led by peer leaders at girls’ empowerment forums. Participation in the activities was the strongest predictor of improved literacy and numeracy outcomes (an increase of 16 percentage points over the comparison group) and higher retention rates (a difference of 5 percentage points over the comparison group).

Over a three-year period, grade progression increased by 12 percentage points among pastoralist girls affected by drought and displacement at the intervention sites, while it decreased by 22 percentage points more than in areas that received no intervention. The leadership scores of girls who participated in empowerment forums increased 7 percentage points, compared to only 1.2 percentage points in the comparison sites (Miettunen et al., 2020). The findings illustrate the importance of girl-led action as a tool for personal empowerment and for shifting self-defeating narratives among historically marginalized groups that have been highly affected by climate change.

Source: Qualitative data collected as part of the third evaluation round of the Somali Girls’ Education Promotion Project-Transition (2019)

ZIMBABWE

In Zimbabwe, girls engaged in the Building Climate Resilient Schools pilot project that ran from 2018 to 2020, with funding from the New Ventures Fund. This project used solar energy to obtain water for MHM and to maintain school gardens. It also facilitated the development of participants’ leadership skills and helped the community improve its water management system. The project was conducted in the Chivi district of Masvingo Province, where it supported 620 students affected by drought (50% girls). Students disseminated information on improved water management, drought-appropriate nutrition-sensitive agriculture, and MHM, focusing on how the intersection of water scarcity, malnutrition, and poor MHM affected education outcomes in the community.

The adolescent-led management of a solar powered plant to extract water for MHM and school food programs (a school garden and fishpond) improved community understanding and support of nutrition and MHM. The school management committee organized community members, who contributed time and in-kind support to maintain and expand the facility.

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52 Measured by CARE’s Youth Leadership Index, which assesses five dimensions of agency: voice, vision, self-confidence, organization, and decision-making.
CASE STUDY 6: EDUCATION SHIFTS POWER INITIATIVE

Throughout 2021, Plan International, together with a feminist coalition of young in the youth-led organization Transform Education, worked to develop an initiative called Education Shifts Power.53 This initiative used four high-level international forums—the G7, the GPE replenishment, the UN General Assembly, and COP26—to increase financial and political investment in gender-transformative education that aims to advance climate justice and youth leadership. Gender-transformative education can equip girls with the skills and knowledge they need to tackle the climate crisis and to claim and exercise their rights. It also empowers them to become leaders and decision-makers in challenging the systems and norms that reinforce gender, climate, racial, and social injustice around the world.

The high-level international policy processes the initiative used throughout 2021 provided an opportunity to set an ambitious, transformative climate and education agenda, which included galvanizing the international community to prioritize and invest in our children’s future. This coordinated advocacy approach called on leaders to recognize and prioritize this type of education through the four high-level policy processes. The girls’ advocacy brought together different thematic agendas focused on education, climate justice, girls’ leadership, and gender. They worked from offices operating at different levels, including local, national, international, and UN spaces.

During this advocacy initiative, COP26 presented a critical opportunity to ensure that gender-transformative education is recognized as a crucial driver of climate justice, which built on the ambitious commitments made through the G7 Girls’ Education Declaration and the Global Education Summit. Plan International focused its engagement on a number of opportunities central to advancing climate education, such as the review and enhancement of the Doha Work Programme on Action for Climate Empowerment and the COP26 Climate Education Summit.54 This included making bold, ambitious pledges and recognizing the transformative power of education to dismantle oppressive systems and help put the world on course to achieve the 1.5. degree target set by the Paris Agreement.

THE APPROACH

A number of key tools and resources were key to the success of this initiative. First, a new research report based on a global survey of young people highlighted the significant gaps in climate education. The majority of the 15- to 24-year-olds surveyed said that, while their teachers had taught them about the impact of climate change, only 22% had been taught about climate change policies or frameworks, and only 11% had been taught how to participate in formal climate change policy-making processes (Rost et al., 2021). To address this gap, Plan International and Unbounded Associates developed a new workbook to help schools and young people learn and teach about climate policies (2021).

Second, at the UN General Assembly in September 2021, the partners launched a youth-led statement on gender-transformative education for climate justice (UNGEI, 2021). The statement was shared with national COP26 delegations and national Action for Climate Empowerment focal points as a key advocacy tool for COP26. This was followed up with discussion of the importance of the new Doha work program’s including young people in the review and negotiation process, having a prescription for young people to be included in national delegations, and taking a gender-responsive approach.

Broad objectives for COP26

- Secure political and financial commitments to a gender-transformative education that advances climate justice, aligned with the #EducationShiftsPower initiative.
- Support children and youth, especially girls and young women, in claiming their seat in all COP-related processes.

53 Transform Education is hosted by UNGEI. For more information, visit https://www.ungei.org/take-action/advocate/transform-education.
54 Now the Glasgow Work Program on Action for Climate Empowerment.
56 Led by Transform Education, RiseUp Movement, Empodera Clima, and Malala Fund Fellows, and supported by Plan International, the Malala Fund, and UNGEI.
Finally, a video explaining what a gender-transformative education approach for climate justice looks like was also developed and shared at events throughout COP26 (Plan International, 2021a). This was supported by a visual poem, Dear World Leaders, Are You Listening? developed by Transform Education for the G7 Summit (Plan International, 2021b).

THE SUCCESSES

There is increased momentum and recognition of the importance and power of climate education, which is demonstrated through the increased number of events that took place at COP26, such as the high-level climate education event, and increased youth engagement. Many of these events focused on the links between girls’ education and climate justice.

A key achievement of Plan International’s advocacy work at COP26 was the coordination of its regional and country teams and offices to ensure strong connections between global, regional, and national advocacy. This enabled convening and coordination between the ministries of education and the environment to ensure that they make and uphold commitments to climate education and youth leadership. For example, Plan International Sierra Leone led an intergenerational dialogue and workshop with youth activists to shape the new environmental studies module in the national curriculum. Plan International Senegal organized an advocacy event focused on improving the education of girls facing the impact of climate change, and Plan International Malawi worked with the national youth climate coalition to shape the government’s position paper for COP26 and ensure that young activists shared their recommendations.

57 The video can be watched at https://twitter.com/PlanGlobal/status/1456623196464103427?s=20
58 Plan International co-organized and co-hosted a series of side events at COP26, which convened youth activists, policy-makers, and civil society actors to highlight the instrumental power of a gender-transformative education in advancing climate justice and meeting the aims of the Paris Agreement. An event on climate justice, education, and gender equality can be replayed here, and the event on the importance of education in achieving climate justice and youth leadership here.
THE IMPORTANCE OF PARTNERSHIPS WITH YOUNG CLIMATE ACTIVISTS

The partnership with Transform Education was vital to Plan International’s climate justice approach, as it strengthened youth engagement and brought the voices of girls and young women to key processes throughout the year. The partnership was highlighted by young people becoming trailblazers who were grounded in feminist principles and well-being.

The partnership demonstrates the importance of the meaningful inclusion of girls and young people in decision-making processes that directly affect them. It also supports girls’ participation and leadership and provides opportunities for girls to articulate their needs. This support includes participation and co-ownership in developing and organizing events, communications, and materials, and girls’ participation in panel discussions and as keynote speakers.

Figure A4: Partnership with Transform Education
## ANNEX 2: HER ATLAS: LEGAL PROTECTION AGAINST VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS FOR 44 CRISIS-AFFECTED COUNTRIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Her Atlas—legal protection against violence in schools. Scored 1 to five.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Score 3: The Education Law of 1387 (2008) prohibits corporal punishment in schools. No legal provision that expressively prohibits gender-based violence in the education system has been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Score 1: The Child Law (No. 25/12) does not guarantee protection from corporal punishment in education institutions since there is no explicit prohibition. No provision prohibiting all forms of violence has been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Score 3: No legal provision that protects from gender-based violence in the education system has been identified. Corporal punishment is unlawful in schools, according to a supreme court judgment issued on January 13, 2011, and the government has prohibited, by issuing a circular, all forms of corporal punishment in all education institutions. However, it is still not enshrined in the legislation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Score 3: The law on education policy prohibits all forms of violence in educational settings, but does not explicitly prohibit corporal punishment. The latter is explicitly prohibited only at the primary level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Score 3: Burundi has reported that corporal punishment is prohibited in schools. However, no specific legislative provisions have been identified. Burundi has adopted a law on the prevention and punishment of gender-based violence, which stipulates that schools must provide care for victims of gender-based violence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Score 3: The law on education policy in Cameroon prohibits all forms of violence in the education system. Corporal punishment is not explicitly prohibited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>Score 1: No legislative provisions concerning protection from various forms of violence and corporal punishment in educational institutions have been identified. UNESCO has been unable to access the text of Law No. 97/014 of December 10, 1997, on orienting the education system in order to analyze its content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>Score 3: The law on education guarantees the physical and moral integrity of pupils and prohibits violence and physical abuse. The provision is vague, however, and corporal punishment is not explicitly prohibited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Score 5: The Decree explicitly protects from gender-based violence in educational institutions. The Child Code also obliges all primary and secondary education institutions to protect from “all forms of abuse, physical or psychological aggression, humiliation, discrimination or mockery by peers and teachers” and educational environments shall be free from violence and discrimination. Furthermore, any physical or psychological sanctions imposed on students by directors or educators of public or private formal, non-formal, and informal education centers are forbidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>Score 3: The Law on the Protection of the Child provides protection against corporal punishment and applies to education institutions. However, no legislative provisions protecting against other forms of violence have been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic People’s Republic of Korea</td>
<td>Score 1: No legal provision has been identified that explicitly prohibits corporal punishment and other types of violence, including psychological, physical, and sexual violence, in education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Score 1: No legislative provisions protecting against gender-based violence specifically applied to schools have been identified. It has been reported that corporal punishment is prohibited in schools according to Ministerial Order No. MINEPSP CABMIN/00100940/90 of September 1, 1990, on the internal regulations for students. However, UNESCO was unable to access this text. Moreover, the latter reportedly does not explicitly prohibit corporal punishment, but it is not included in the list of authorized punishments. Furthermore, the law on child protection does not explicitly prohibit corporal punishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>Score 1: Although it has been reported that corporal punishment is prohibited in schools, no legislative provision to this effect has been identified, nor has any provision protecting against violence in schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Her Atlas—legal protection against violence in schools. Scored 1 to five.</td>
</tr>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>Score 1: The government reports that the 1977 School Organization Guidelines of the Ministry of Education indicate that any form of corporal punishment is not allowed in schools, that Proclamation No. 1/1991 rejects corporal punishment and flogging, and that the Transitional Criminal Procedure Code prohibits corporal punishment in schools. But no legal provision has been identified relating to protection from corporal punishment and other kinds of violence against children within education institutions. Meanwhile, the Penal Code provides “the right of correction or discipline.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Score 3: Corporal punishment is expressly prohibited in educational settings under the constitution. Children also have a right to be free of “cruel and inhumane treatment” in schools, which provides limited protection from violence in educational institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Score 3: The legal framework protects from any kind violence in education institutions but does not specify gender-based violence. Corporal punishment is not explicitly prohibited, although there is protection from discipline that humiliates the student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>Score 3: Corporal punishment is forbidden in schools. No legal provisions concerning gender-based violence in schools have been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Score 3: The constitution of Iraq prohibits “all forms of violence and abuse in the … school,” although there is no gender-based specificity. Contradictory to the constitutional provision prohibiting violence, the Penal Code upholds corporal punishment as a “legal right” and has yet to be repealed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>Cannot be evaluated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Score 3: The Basic Education Act protects from corporal punishment at the basic education level. No specific provision relating to gender-based violence has been identified in the law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Score 3: The Government of Lebanon reported that “the rules of procedure of public and private schools, and in particular resolution 1130/M/2001 (The rules of procedure of public schools), prohibit any corporal punishment of students by educational staff.” However, this prohibition does not appear explicitly in the law. Furthermore, no legislative provisions governing the prohibition of other forms of violence in schools have been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>Score 1: No legal provision has been identified that explicitly prohibits corporal punishment or other kinds of violence in education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>Score 3: Law No. 2007-023 on the rights and protection of children offers limited protection against corporal punishment, which is not explicitly prohibited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Score 1: The constitution prohibits corporal punishment by the organs of the state but does not mention schools specifically, nor the possibility of corporal punishment in private education establishments. The National Education Standards will only consider schools as meeting “minimum standards” if they “never use corporal punishment.” The legislation does not expressly protect from any kind of violence within education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>Score 3: Corporal punishment is prohibited in schools under internal regulations No. 94-4856/MEB-CAB of 8 April 1994 (concerning basic schools) and No. 94-4999/MEB/CAB (concerning special education institutions). These same decrees stipulate that slurs, thefts, blows, and violent games are prohibited at school. Moreover, the Child Protection Code protects against sexual harassment of any kind in the school system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td>Score 3: The law on the reorganization of public basic education prohibits corporal punishment. No legal provisions concerning gender-based violence in schools have been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Score 3: Corporal punishment is not expressly prohibited in law. There is a limited protection from violence from teachers, although this is not expanded to the entire educational institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>No available data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Score 3: It has been reported that corporal punishment is prohibited in schools by the circular letter No. 16/MEN/DEPD of April 2, 1981. However, corporal punishment has yet to be prohibited by law. No legal provision concerning the prohibition of violence in schools has been identified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Score 1: The Criminal Code (applying to southern states) and the Penal Code (applying to northern states) allow for corporal punishment in education institutions. No legal provision relating to the protection of children from other kinds of violence in education institutions has been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Her Atlas—legal protection against violence in schools. Scored 1 to five.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Score 1: At the federal level, the Penal Code offers a defense for corporal punishment, therefore it is legitimate in situations where it does not reach a threshold of “grievous hurt.” Although certain provinces have implemented legislation that protects from corporal punishment in schools, no legal provision has been found in the Balochistan province on the subject. There is also a lack of protection from other forms of violence in education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oPt</td>
<td>Score 3: The ministry shall be responsible for prohibiting corporal punishment. While the Palestinian Child Law provides that the state shall take measures to preserve the child’s dignity, no legal provision has been identified that explicitly prohibits all violence, including gender-based violence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Score 5: The legislation prohibits the use of corporal punishment within education institutions. Moreover, it provides protection from all gender-based violence, including physical, sexual, and psychological violence occurring in the educational environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Score 3: Corporal punishment is prohibited in primary schools but it is not explicitly prohibited at other levels of education. No legal provisions governing the prohibition of other forms of violence, including gender-based violence, have been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>The score for this indicator cannot be evaluated at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>Score 3: The legislation provides protection from corporal punishment against children in education institutions but no disposition regarding other types of violence has been identified in the legislation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>Score 1: The Child Act of 2010 prohibits “cruel penalties” at schools in article 29, but it is unclear if this wording applies to corporal punishment. Children are protected from all forms of violence, but this is not explicitly relevant to education establishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syrian Arab Republic</td>
<td>Score 1: No legal provisions have been identified that explicitly prohibit corporal punishment and other kinds of violence in education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Score 1: No legal provision has been identified that protects from violence or corporal punishment in education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Score 5: The circular No. 2/2015 details violence that is prohibited in the education system, including corporal punishment, psychological, physical, and sexual violence, but it does not explicitly state gender-based violence. The circular also states that measures of support, guidance, counselling, and appropriate and child-friendly communication mechanisms must be observed in the education institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>Score 5: Law on Education of 2017, Article 54. Rights and responsibilities of educational, academic, and scientific workers, other persons involved in the educational process. Educational, academic, and scientific workers undertake to ... protect education seekers during the educational process from humiliation and breach of their honor and dignity, any forms of physical and psychological violence and exploitation. Law on the Protection of childhood of 2001 (unofficial translation), Article 10. Right to protection from all forms of violence. Every child is guaranteed the right to freedom, personal integrity, and protection of dignity. Discipline and order in the family, educational, and other child establishments have to be secured on these principles, which are based on mutual respect and justice and exclude insulting the honor and dignity of the child. The state protects the child from all forms of physical and mental abuse, insults, neglect and ill-treatment, and exploitation, including sexual abuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)</td>
<td>Score 3: The legal framework guarantees protection from corporal punishment, but no provision on other forms of violence has been identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>Score 3: It has been reported that “Ministerial Decision No. 10 of 2002 prohibiting corporal and psychological punishment in schools was promulgated” and that “the Ministry of Education issued Decree No. 426 (2012) prohibiting corporal punishment in schools.” UNESCO has not been able to access these documents. No legal provision has been identified that explicitly prohibits other forms of violence, including psychological, physical, and sexual violence, in education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Score 1: If the criminal law prohibits corporal punishment against female students, it explicitly authorizes it against male students. Furthermore, no disposition regarding other kinds of violence has been identified.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dataset from 2019; [https://en.unesco.org/education/girls-women-rights](https://en.unesco.org/education/girls-women-rights)
## ANNEX 3: CRISIS-AFFECTED COUNTRIES COVERAGE IN KEY SURVEYS MEASURING ASPECTS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST CHILDREN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>GSHS*</th>
<th>HBSC*</th>
<th>VACS</th>
<th>DHS</th>
<th>MICS</th>
<th>SAQMEC*</th>
<th>PASEC*</th>
<th>TIMSS/PIRLS*</th>
<th>PISA*</th>
<th>ERCE</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Afghanistan</td>
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<td>Bangladesh</td>
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<td>Chad</td>
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<td>Republic of the Congo</td>
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<tr>
<td>Democratic People’s Republic of Korea</td>
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<td>Libya</td>
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<td>Madagascar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>GSHS*</td>
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Source: Adapted from Heslop et al. (2021).
Note: X indicates that at least one survey has taken place in that country.
* GSHS, Global School-based student Health Survey; HBSC, Health Behavior in School-aged Children; SAQMEC, The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality Project; PASEC, Programme d’Analyse des Systèmes Educatifs; TIMSS/PIRLS, Trends in International Mathematics and Science/Progress in International Reading Literacy Study; PISA, Programme for International Student Assessment
### ANNEX 4: GLOSSARY

#### 4.1 TERMINOLOGY RELATING TO DISTANCE EDUCATION

| **Education technology (EdTech)** | Any technology—including hardware, software, and digital content-designed or appropriated for (any) educational purpose (Hennessy et al., 2021). It may be a deliberately designed piece of educational software, such as an educational video platform, or a piece of technology designed for more general use but incorporated into the teaching and learning process, such as database software. The use of this technology may be at home, at an education institution, in an afterschool program, in a library, or at an informal learning center, and education technology may be used by teachers, school directors, or students (Burns, 2021). |
| **Distance education** | Distance education is an educational process and system in which all or a significant proportion of the teaching is carried out by someone or something removed in space and time from the learner. Distance education requires structured planning, well-designed courses, special instructional techniques, and methods of communication with specific delivery systems ranging from print to internet and mobile based (UNESCO, 1997). |
| **Remote learning** | A term that developed during COVID-19 school closures, remote learning is emergency and temporary distance learning. In countries with good internet infrastructure, remote learning essentially equaled online learning. In many others, it meant distance-based technologies, such as radio, TV, and phone-based support, with and without online learning (Burns, 2021). |

#### 4.2 TERMINOLOGY RELATING TO CLIMATE CHANGE

| **Climate vulnerability** | Vulnerability refers to “the propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected by climate hazards. Vulnerability encompasses a variety of concepts and elements including sensitivity or susceptibility to harm and lack of ability to cope and adapt (IPCC, 2014). Different circumstances can give rise to different forms of vulnerability, whether they be socio-economic, social, environmental or institutional and can contribute to the ‘trapped’ status of certain populations” (UNESCO, 2020). |
| **Climate resilience** | “The ability to absorb, adapt and transform in the face of climate-related hazardous events, trends or disturbances” (Malala Fund, 2021, p.2). |
| **Climate risk** | “Climate risk in this context can be measured by a combination of elements, namely, hazard, probability and vulnerability. Climate-related hazards can be slow in their onset, such as sea level rise and changes in temperature and precipitation, while others happen more suddenly, such as storms and flooding” (UNESCO, 2020, p.2). |
| **Climate displacement** | “Climate displaced persons are those who move for reasons relating to climate change. This phenomenon is referred to as climate displacement and covers all forms of human movement, whether internal or cross-border, and whether voluntary to some extent, or forced. Movement may be temporary or permanent and the climate change related trigger may be a slow onset or rapid onset environmental hazard” (UNESCO, 2020, p.2). |
| **Climate change mitigation** | “A human intervention to reduce emissions or enhance the sinks [removal] of greenhouse gases” (IPCC, 2018). |
| **Climate adaptation** | Climate change adaptation is a process by which individuals, communities, and countries identify appropriate adaptation strategies, policies, and measures to cope with the consequences of climate change in order to protect and, when possible, enhance human well-being (Lim et al., 2004). |
| **Conference of parties (COP)** | “The main decision-making body of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Every country that has ratified the convention participates in COP, where the parties review progress towards the convention and decide how to implement it. COP occurs every year, unless the parties decide otherwise. The first COP meeting occurred in Berlin, Germany in March 1995. In November 2021, the U.K. government will host the 26th United Nations Climate Change Conference (COP26)” (Malala Fund, 2021, p.2). |
| **Climate justice** | “Responses to the climate crisis that address the disproportionate impact of climate change on marginalized groups, including girls and women, people of color, Indigenous peoples and low-income communities and countries” (Malala Fund, 2021, p.2). |
| **Green skills** | “The skills individuals need to transition to a low-carbon, climate-resilient economy, participate in traditional green sector jobs, adopt more sustainable behaviors, adapt to the impacts of climate change and take action on climate justice” (Malala Fund, 2021, p.2). |
| **Nationally determined contributions** | “Nationally determined contributions (NDCs) are at the heart of the Paris Agreement and the achievement of these long-term goals. NDCs embody efforts by each country to reduce national emissions and adapt to the impacts of climate change” (UNFCCC, n.d.). |
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