

# Global Catholic Education Report

2022



## Ending Violence in Schools: An Imperative for Children’s Learning and Well-being

September 2022



#### Acknowledgements:

This report is a product of the volunteer-led [Global Catholic Education](#) project which aims to contribute to Catholic education and integral human development globally with a range of resources, including a blog, events, guidance on good practices, publications, and data. Part II of the report is based in large part on a study on ending violence in schools by the author at the World Bank (the World Bank publications license permits re-using published material provided the original source is cited). The author is especially grateful to the co-authors for the study, and in particular to Chloe Fèvre, Ada Nayihouba, and Charta Malé. The report is co-sponsored by the [International Office of Catholic Education](#) (OIEC), the [International Federation of Catholic Universities](#) (IFCU), the [World Organization of Former Students of Catholic Education](#) (OMAEC), and the [World Union of Catholic Teachers](#) (UMEC-WUCT). The author is grateful to Philippe Richard, François Mabilie, José Ramon Batiste, and Giovanni Perrone, who serve as Secretary General or Executive Vice-President of OIEC, IFCU, OMAEC, and UMEC-WUCT, for their encouragement and advice in preparing this report. The author is a Lead Economist at the World Bank and serves pro bono as Distinguished Research Affiliate with the College of Business at Loyola University New Orleans. However, the report was produced on the author's volunteer time and should not be seen in any way as representing the views of the World Bank, its Executive Directors, or the countries they represent. The findings, interpretations, and conclusions expressed in the study are solely those of the author and may also not represent the views of OIEC, IFCU, OMAEC, and UMEC-WUCT. Any omissions or errors are those of the author alone.

#### Rights and Permissions:

© 2022 Quentin Wodon.

For questions on citing or using this work, please send an email to [GlobalCatholicEducation@gmail.com](mailto:GlobalCatholicEducation@gmail.com).

#### Suggested citation:

Wodon, Q. 2022. *Global Catholic Education Report 2022: Ending Violence in Schools – An Imperative for Children's Learning and Well-being*. Washington, DC: Global Catholic Education.

Cover photo: © Campañas de Buen Trato en las escuelas.

The Good Treatment Campaigns in schools is a program from Mesa BICE Centroamérica which received funding from the Bureau International Catholique de l'Enfance (BICE).

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD	iv
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY: KEY FINDINGS	1
INTRODUCTION	10
<b>PART I – ENROLLMENT TRENDS IN CATHOLIC EDUCATION</b>	
CHAPTER 1: ENROLLMENT TRENDS IN CATHOLIC K12 SCHOOLS	
Introduction	12
Trends in enrollment	13
Summing up	20
CHAPTER 2: ENROLLMENT TRENDS IN CATHOLIC HIGHER EDUCATION	
Introduction	24
Trends in enrollment	25
Summing up	32
<b>PART II – ENDING VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS</b>	
CHAPTER 3: PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS	
Introduction	33
Types of Violence	33
Prevalence of Violence in Schools Globally	35
Prevalence of Violence in Catholic Schools	39
Summing up	45
CHAPTER 4: POTENTIAL IMPACTS OF VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS	
Introduction	48
Students’ Experience in School	49
Learning in School	50
Reasons for Dropping Out of School	52
Injuries, Health, and Psychological Well-being	54
Work in Adulthood	56
Violence in Catholic Schools: A Case Study	56
Summing up	58
CHAPTER 5: PROMISING INTERVENTIONS TO END VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS	
Introduction	59
Risk Factors	59
Protective Factors	61
Parenting Skills and Preventing Maltreatment	62
Positive Emotions and Conflict Resolution	64
Anti-bullying and Gender Equality	66
Referral Pathways	69

Beyond Specific Programs: Policies and Laws	71
Summing Up	72
CHAPTER 6: ENGAGING ALL STAKEHOLDERS TO END VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS	
Introduction	74
Whole School Approaches	75
Teachers' Skills and Classroom Management	75
Engaging with Parents and Caregivers	77
Working with Communities on Social Norms and Safe Passage To Schools	78
Summing up	81
CONCLUSION	84
REFERENCES	85
STATISTICAL ANNEX	97

## FOREWORD

This is the third issue of the Global Catholic Education Report. In 2019, Catholic schools served 62.1 million children in pre-primary, primary, and secondary schools globally. In addition, 6.7 million students were enrolled in Catholic institutes and universities at the post-secondary level. These data for 2019 provide a baseline to assess the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on enrollment, but it will take a few more years to have a better understanding of those effects. What is clear is that Catholic educational institutions will remain the largest non-state provider of education in the world, thus contributing to efforts to achieve the fourth Sustainable Development Goals.

The theme for this report is ending violence in schools. The pandemic has led to a worsening of many indicators of well-being, especially for children. Ending violence in schools is an imperative for children's well-being and to make sure that they can go to school and learn while in school. The Global Compact on Education called by Pope Francis suggests a number of commitments, the first of which is to put the human person at the center of what Catholic educational institutions do. Ending violence in school is an important first step towards such an approach.

As for previous reports, the Global Catholic Education Report 2022 consists of two parts. The first part provides the latest data on trends in enrollment in Catholic educational institutions over time. The second part focuses on analyses related to the theme for the report.

The aim of this and previous reports is twofold: to connect Catholic education to the world, and the world to Catholic education. It brings global knowledge on education and integral human development to Catholic schools, universities, and other organizations by sharing evidence-based good practices emerging from international experience. And it also brings to the attention of the international community the work of Catholic schools, universities, and other organizations promoting integral human development, including their approaches to educate the whole person towards fraternal humanism.

The Global Catholic Education Report series is a product of the volunteer-led Global Catholic Education project and website. As always, we are thankful to Quentin for launching and managing the project, creating its website, and writing this report. A range of other reports and analyses are available on the website.

This report is co-sponsored by our four organizations: the International Office of Catholic Education (OIEC), the International Federation of Catholic Universities (IFCU), the World Organization of Former Students of Catholic Education (OMAEC), and the World Union of Catholic Teachers (UMEC-WUCT).

Together, we are serving the cause of Catholic education globally to enable Catholic schools and universities to contribute to educating new generations towards fraternal humanism.

Philippe Richard, Secretary General, OIEC  
François Mabile, Secretary General, IFCU  
José Ramon Batiste, Executive Vice President, OMAEC  
Giovanni Perrone, Secretary General, UMEC-WUCT

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY: KEY FINDINGS

The Global Catholic Education Report is published annually, with two aims. The first is to make the experiences and contributions of Catholic schools and universities better known in the international community. The second is to bring to Catholic educators global knowledge and expertise from the international community on what works to improve education. There is much to be gained from stronger collaborations between Catholic schools and universities, governments managing national education systems, and international organizations. The Global Catholic Education Reports series aims to inform such collaborations through better mutual understanding.

This report is the third in the series. The first report published in 2020 was dedicated to the challenges brought about by the COVID-19 crisis. The second report published in 2021 was about learning poverty, education pluralism, and the right to education. This third report is about the need to end violence in schools, and promising approaches to do so.

The report is structured into two parts. Part I reviews enrollment trends in Catholic K12 and higher education. Part II is about the need to end violence in schools for children's learning and well-being. The analysis is based in large part on a report by the author at the World Bank (the World Bank publications license permits re-using published material provided the original source is cited), but with additional insights for Catholic schools. It includes chapters on the prevalence of violence in schools, its impacts on children, promising interventions to prevent it, and the need to engage all stakeholders. This executive summary highlights key findings by chapter.

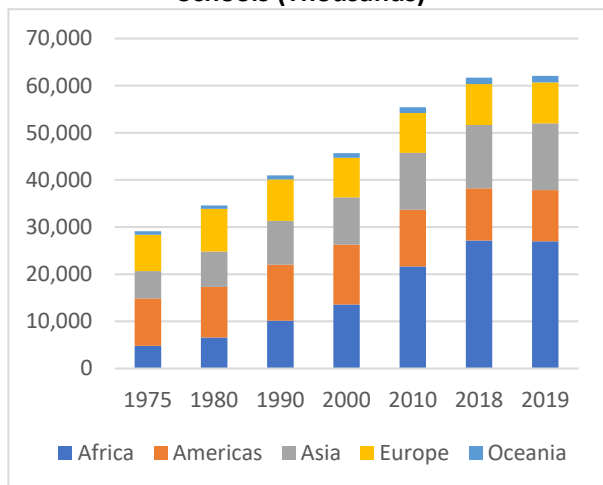
### Enrollment Trends in Catholic K12 Schools

The analysis follows closely that of previous reports, but with data updated to 2019. This helps in providing stylized facts about the footprint of Catholic education globally for readers who may not have seen previous reports. Globally, the Catholic Church estimates that 35.2 million children were enrolled in Catholic primary schools in 2019, with 19.4 million children enrolled in Catholic secondary schools and 7.5 million children enrolled at the preschool level. Below are a few highlights:

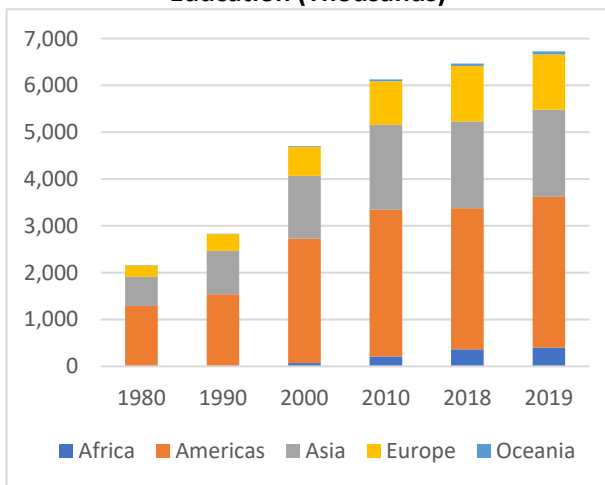
- Enrollment in K12 education almost doubled between 1980 and 2019 globally, from 34.6 million to 62.1 million students (Figure ES.1). Most of the growth was concentrated in Africa due to high rates of population growth and gains in educational attainment over time.
- The highest growth rates are also observed for Africa, but growth rates are also high in Asia and Oceania. The growth rates in those regions are two to three times larger than those observed globally. In the Americas and Europe, growth rates tend to be much smaller, and in some cases are negative.
- There are substantial differences between regions in the share of students enrolled by level. Globally, primary schools account for 56.7 percent of K12 enrollment, versus 31.2 percent for secondary schools, and 12.1 percent for preschools. In Africa however, primary schools account for 71.3 percent of total enrollment. In Europe, they account for only 35.4 percent of K12 enrollment.

Enrollment in Catholic K12 schools almost doubled from 1980 to 2019. For higher education, enrollment increased three-fold. Globally, there are seven times more students in K12 education than in higher education, but geographic patterns of enrollment and growth differ by education level.

**Figure ES.1: Total Enrollment in Catholic K12 Schools (Thousands)**



**Figure ES.2: Total Enrollment in Catholic Higher Education (Thousands)**



Source: Compiled by the author from the statistical yearbooks of the Church.

- India has the largest enrollment in Catholic K12 schools, followed by four sub-Saharan African countries: the Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda, Kenya, and Malawi. Together, the top 15 countries in terms of enrollment size account for about two thirds of global enrollment in Catholic K12 schools.
- The highest growth rate in enrollment is for preschools. This is a positive development as research demonstrates that early childhood is a critical period in a child's education and investments at this time have high returns.

### Enrollment Trends in Catholic Higher Education

The analysis again follows that of the previous Global Catholic Education Report, but with data updated to 2019. The Church estimates that it provided post-secondary education to 6.7 million students globally in 2019. This includes 2.4 million students in non-university higher institutes, 0.5 million students enrolled in ecclesiastical studies at the university level, and 3.8 million students enrolled in other types of university studies. Below are a few highlights:

- Enrollment in Catholic higher education tripled between 1980 and 2019, from 2.2 million students to 6.7 million. Most of the growth took place in the Americas, Asia, and Europe. However, in proportionate terms from the base, the highest growth rates are in Africa (Figure ES.2).
- Globally, students in universities account for most of the enrollment. Yet in India and Asia, there are more students in higher institutes. Globally, the shares of students enrolled in higher institutes and universities did not change a lot despite ups and downs. But among university students, the share of students in ecclesiastical studies increased over time, especially in Africa, the Americas, and Asia, but with a recent decline.
- Together, the top 15 countries account for about four fifths of global enrollment. Enrollment remains highly concentrated in a few countries. The United States has the largest enrollment followed by three large middle income countries: India, the Philippines, and Brazil. Italy is next, probably in part due to historical reasons.

## Ending Violence in Schools<sup>1</sup>

The second part of the report focuses on the need to end violence in and around schools (VIAS). VIAS is a threat to schooling and learning and to children’s well-being, health, and future earnings as adults. Violence is the result of an abusive use of force. The harm can be actual or threatened. It can lead to injury or death, but also to trauma or other mental health symptoms. Violence is often multidimensional, as individuals are often subjected to multiple forms of violence and in multiple locations.

VIAS remains widespread in developing and developed countries alike. Failing to prevent it will affect not only children today, but also their future families, communities, and societies as a whole. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, schools were closed for substantial periods of time in many countries, but several of the factors that may lead to higher violence against children overall and violence on schools in particular have been exacerbated. The need to end violence in school is even more pressing today.

## High Prevalence of Violence in Schools

As shown in Table ES.1, more than one in three children are subjected to physical violence, and almost one in three are bullied. The prevalence of sexual violence is much lower, but likely underestimated especially when the topic remains taboo. Girls and boys experience VIAS in different ways. Apart from differences in exposure to sexual violence, girls are more likely to experience verbal/emotional abuse whereas boys are more likely to be physically abused. While there are no cross-country estimates of violence in Catholic schools, data for a few countries suggest that in some, Catholic schools have lower levels of violence, but in other countries, this does not seem to be the case.

More than one in three children are subjected to physical violence, and almost one in three are bullied. The prevalence of sexual violence is much lower, but likely underestimated.

**Table ES.1: Prevalence of Violence in Schools in Multi-country Surveys (%)**

	GSHS	HBSC	PISA	VACS	DHS
<b>GSHS, HBSC, and PISA surveys</b>					
Attacked in last 12 months	37.8	-	-	-	-
Involved in fight in last 12 months	27.6	31.2	-	-	-
Injured in last 12 months	31.3	44.5	-	-	-
Injured from fight	1.5	1.8	-	-	-
Bullied in last 30 days	29.5	29.0	-	-	-
Others left me out of things	-	-	36.8	-	-
Students made fun of me	-	-	42.7	-	-
Threatened by other students	-	-	23.8	-	-
Others destroyed my things	-	-	26.5	-	-
Hit by other students	-	-	23.4	-	-
Nasty rumors about me	-	-	33.5	-	-
<b>VACS and DHS surveys</b>					
Physical violence in schools	-	-	-	28.7	-
Emotional violence in schools	-	-	-	3.5(*)	-
Sexual violence in schools	-	-	-	2.8(*)	1.5(*)

Source: Authors’ estimates.

Note: (\*) The prevalence of emotional and sexual violence in schools in VACSs and DHSs may be underestimated.

<sup>1</sup> This section of the executive summary follows closely the summary of a World Bank study by the author on which Part II of the report is based (Wodon,

Fèvre et al., 2021). For references, see the main text in this report or the original study.



### Box ES.1: Simple Approaches to Data Collection

Typical surveys of violence in schools are conducted at the national level for a sample of schools in a country. This is useful to obtain national estimates of the prevalence of violence and some of its effects, and to set national strategies, but for a particular school, such data may not be as useful as data collected specifically for the school. When a school implements its own survey, it can adapt the survey to its needs, and it may be able to implement the survey at very low cost. To assess patterns of violence in two Catholic schools in Nigeria, a web survey was implemented in such a way that student anonymity could be ensured. The survey had only 11 questions, but those questions enabled the school to better understand patterns of violence, how to prevent it, and how to respond when violence occurs.

While there are no cross-country estimates of violence in Catholic schools, data for a few countries suggest that in some, Catholic schools have lower levels of violence, but in other countries, this does not seem to be the case.

Corporal punishment by and corruption among teachers and school officials (which may involve threats of violence against students) also remain widespread. Some 67 countries still do not have legislation banning corporal punishment in schools. In Francophone Africa, data on corporal punishment from PASEC suggest that more than a third of teachers in sixth grade of primary school use corporal punishment in the classroom, leading to almost two-thirds of students being beaten by teachers.

The COVID-19 pandemic is likely to have exacerbated some of the factors that lead to violence against children in general, and VIAS in particular. Many individuals and households are under stress due among others to social isolation, losses in employment and income, and illnesses or death from the pandemic.

### Potential Impacts of Violence in Schools

Although this is not discussed in this report, the World Bank study estimates that the cost of VIAS in lost future lifetime earnings could be of the order of US\$11 trillion. The estimate is based on the risk of children not learning in school because of VIAS, and the risk of some children dropping out of school (other costs such as those related to health are not included).

- *Children learning less in school:* Based on regression analysis using data from the PISA and PASEC international student assessments, ending violence in school could result in gains in learning of about two percent versus baseline values. These effects may seem limited, but for students affected by violence, they are often similar and sometimes larger than the potential impact of variables capturing the socio-economic background of the student, a disability, or factors such as teacher absenteeism, the level of education of teachers, or selected characteristics of schools.
- *Children dropping out of school:* In a few countries where household surveys include VIAS as one of the possible reasons for dropping out of school, VIAS accounts for some of the drop-outs at the primary or secondary levels. If such drop-outs could have been avoided, and if children would have completed their secondary education, human capital could have been higher (for girls, dropping out of school involves higher risks of marrying as children – see Box ES.2 on the potential role of faith leaders in this area).

Apart from leading to losses in learning and more drop-outs, VIAS is highly detrimental for students' experience in school as well as their health and psychological well-being.

Apart from leading to losses in learning and drop-outs, VIAS is highly detrimental for students' experience in school as well as their

health and well-being. If VIAS were eliminated, this would have potentially large effects for a wide range of indicators of health and well-being. For example, for perceived health, surveys ask questions on difficulties sleeping, having headaches, stomach-ache, or back-ache and a self-assessment of health. For risky behaviors, questions are asked about whether the children have ever smoked, used alcohol, drug or cannabis, or had sex. Finally, for psychological well-being, questions are asked about whether the children ever considered suicide, planned to commit suicide, or attempted to commit suicide. Questions are also available on whether children are feeling low, irritable, nervous, or dizzy. In virtually all cases, experiencing VIAS is associated with worse indicators after controlling for other factors. Some of the largest effects are observed for the probabilities of feeling bad about one's health, trusting other people, having suicidal thoughts, and having sex before the age of 18.

In Catholic schools in Nigeria, girls who were the victim of violence often felt sad, depressed, or angry. While some level of forgiveness took place, for one fifth of students, there was no reconciliation. Students also felt that school responses to violence were insufficient.

### Promising Interventions

Risk factors for violence include factors at the levels of the individual, the household, the community, and society. The accumulation of risk factors often explains why an individual behaves more violently or is more prone to be victimized than others. Instead of looking for a single best intervention that would be most effective in preventing violence, it often makes sense to combine interventions that can both mitigate the most salient risk factors and enhance relevant protective factors in a given context and for a specific group. Many interventions have high returns (Box ES.3).

### Box ES.2: Girls Dropping Out of School, Child Marriage, and the Role of Faith Leaders

For adolescent girls, when VIAS leads them to drop out of school, it increases the risk of them marrying as a child (i.e., before the age of 18) or having a child when they may not yet be physically and psychologically ready to do so. In sub-Saharan Africa, faith leaders can play an important role in raising community awareness about the negative effects of child marriage and the benefits from girls' education. They have a great deal of influence on the population, and they have an attentive audience during masses, prayer ceremonies, or traditional festivals, as well as during court cases in which disputes are settled in the villages. Faith leaders are also those who perform most marriages, and they can advise against a marriage when girls are not psychologically or physically ready to marry.

Do faith leaders play this role? Data from qualitative fieldwork in the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Republic of Congo suggest that this is not always the case. In each of the two countries, data were collected in three communities (the capital city and two rural areas). In the Democratic Republic of Congo, responses to a question about whether faith leaders at least talk about the issue of child marriage suggests that this is the case in the two rural areas, but less so in Kinshasa. In the two rural areas, more than two thirds of faith leaders talk about the issue of child marriage, while in the capital city of Kinshasa, this is the case only for one third of faith leaders. In the Republic of Congo, about half of respondents in the capital city of Brazzaville and one of the rural areas state that faith leaders do not talk about this issue, and the proportion reaches nine in ten respondents in the other rural area.

This suggests that faith leaders could do more in both countries more to promote girls' education and prevent child marriage. The same holds for faith-based schools which often are not of high quality, as is the case for public schools.

### Box ES.3: Cost-Benefit Analyses

Cost-benefit analyses suggest that promising interventions have high benefits to costs ratios. While these ratios are sensitive to assumptions used in the analyses, results suggest that reducing violence in and around schools is a smart economic investment. While most of the available analyses are from developed countries, programs should generate high benefits in developing countries as well if one presumes that results of a similar magnitude could apply.

There is no unique way to categorize programs to prevent VIAS, but a lifecycle approach is useful because risk factors evolve over a child's life.

There is no unique way to categorize programs to prevent VIAS, but a lifecycle approach is useful because risk factors leading to VIAS evolve over time in a child's life.

- *Early childhood interventions* are essential to prevent VIAS. This includes center-based interventions, but many programs also include home visiting, parenting advice, health and nutrition services, and referrals for social services).
- In primary schools, programs helping children improve their social and emotional skills also have high returns.
- In secondary schools, a key area of focus should be to reduce bullying. Reviews suggest that intensive and long-lasting programs are needed to change behaviors, with parental sessions contributing to success.

### Engaging All Stakeholders

So-called whole school approaches can help reduce VIAS at a limited cost. Engaging with the entire school community is beneficial. A whole school approach uses multiple strategies to develop a common vision and shared values and rules for the school, and works through the curriculum, teacher training, parental engagement, and student learning towards a

safe and inclusive school climate and respectful school values.

### Box ES.4: Evaluating Pilot Interventions

Few interventions to reduce violence in schools have been evaluated in developing countries. A team from the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine is supporting a pilot intervention in Zimbabwe that will be rigorously evaluated. The intervention is supported by the Zimbabwe Catholic Bishops Conference (ZCBC). It will aim to promote Catholic values and ethos in schools, reduce teacher and peer violence, and strengthen referral mechanisms, so that responses to violence are appropriate. The focus on school responses to violence is an innovative component, as most existing interventions have focused more on prevention than response.

One example is the Good School Toolkit (GST) in Uganda. Evaluations suggest that after 18 months of implementation, the program reduced the risk of physical violence by teachers and school staff against students by 42 percent, halved the number of teachers who reported using physical violence against students, and improved students' connectedness and sense of safety and belonging with their school. The program also increased teachers' satisfaction in their role at school and increasing students' wellbeing and sense of safety at school. Importantly, if the GST program were implemented at scale, unit costs for implementation would be low.

Supporting teachers to enhance their skills in positive discipline and classroom management is also effective. Providing teachers with skills to improve their relationship with students and manage behaviors lessens disruptive and aggressive behaviors in the classroom and enhance prosocial behaviors later in life. By contrast, punitive interactions tend to feed a vicious circle of violence, delinquency, and further exclusion. The Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children and the WHO handbook on school violence prevention provide

useful resources on positive discipline for teachers and schools. When teachers and the entire school community understand that respect and trust are key pillars for child's healthy development and that corporal punishment is not only counterproductive but negatively impacts a child's learning, the school climate can be transformed.

A whole school approach uses multiple strategies to develop a common vision and shared values and rules for the school, and works through the curriculum, teacher training, parental engagement, and student learning towards a safe and inclusive school climate.

#### **Box ES.5: Building Peace One School at a Time**

Under the leadership of the Catholic Institute of Education, schools in South Africa implement a Building Peaceful Schools programme focused on peacebuilding, conflict management, and restorative justice. Peace circles were one of the features used to encourage open discussion. Surveys were used to assess whether the program was having an impact on pupil-pupil interactions, pupil-teacher interactions, and the school environment. While progress has been slow in some areas, there were hopeful signs. For example, the surveys suggest a reduction in instances of teachers hitting pupils. Zooming too far out (to national aggregates) proved not as useful as looking at individual schools. In some schools, great progress was achieved, while this was less the case in other schools, which is useful to know for planning.

Families need to be part of school programs. Engaging with parents of adolescents that display behavioral problems can yield significant results even in a relatively short period of time. But parenting programs should follow evidence-based practices, including focusing on positive discipline, positive communication, and increased bonding among family members. As with teachers, providing alternative tools and skills to caregivers in

dealing with their children can help break the intergenerational cycle of violence. Effectively engaging with parents requires choosing wisely among alternative programs, as well as recruiting parents and keeping them engaged. The most challenging part is to keep parents engaged long enough to produce sustained behavioral change, but techniques have been developed to do so.

Engaging with communities to shift norms also matters. The SASA! program is a good example of how norms can be challenged. SASA! means "Now!" in Kiswahili. The program employs multiple strategies to build a critical mass of engaged community members, leaders, and institutions, including local activism, media and advocacy, communication materials, and training. In comparison to control communities, SASA! communities reported a reduction in levels of violence against women of 52 percent, an increase in the share of women and men who believe it is acceptable for women to refuse sex of 28 percent, and an increase of 50 percent in the share of men and women who believe that physical violence against a partner is unacceptable. Essentially, SASA! works with key stakeholders at the community level to deconstruct power in intimate partnerships. Another interesting program is the Bell Bajao! (Ring the Bell) campaign in India. Engaging with community is also important to ensure safe passage to schools by identifying hot spots where children may feel vulnerable, and placing adult monitors on those spots.

These various interventions and approaches have proven benefits, but they are not exhaustive in terms of the types of programs and policies that may help prevent violence in school or cope with its effects. Guidance on how to prevent violence in school is available from the WHO Handbook on school-based violence prevention and for violence against children more broadly from the INSPIRE framework. Also relevant is the new strategy adopted by the Safe to Learn initiative to which a wide range of organizations are contributing.

Beyond efforts in individual schools, strategies to end VIAS should be led by Ministries of Education with other Ministries or agencies, as well as independent school networks such as those federating Catholic schools.

Beyond efforts in individual schools, strategies to end VIAS should be led by Ministries of Education with other Ministries or agencies, as well as independent school networks such as those federating Catholic schools. To sustainably shift norms, parent associations and teacher unions, as well as religious groups and political parties, need to participate and be heard. Several guides exist in that respect, including on engaging religious leaders to end VIAS. Codes of conducts and zero tolerance policies towards violence by teachers need to be adopted. More generally, four steps in the strategic process can be suggested: (1) Setting clear standards for all including through codes of conduct and appropriate laws including on corporal punishment; (2) Establishing a solid diagnostic of VIAS; (3) Developing a common vision and action plan with accountability mechanisms; and (4) Promoting a whole school approach to enhance students' connectedness with schools and ensure a positive learning environment.

Finally, better data are needed both to update existing school health surveys in many countries and to ensure that broader information is collected, especially on sexual violence. Figures on VIAS may represent lower bound estimates, especially because data are not widely available for some forms of violence. In some cases, prevalence may be underreported, as is likely the case for sexual violence. In addition, in many countries, the available data are dated and school health surveys should be updated. Improving and expanding questionnaires in various existing surveys would also be highly valuable.

### **Box ES.6: Prevention Training for the Clergy**

In the Diocese of Lugano in Switzerland, the Foundation ASPI provided training for diocesan priests towards the prevention of sexual abuse and violence against children. The objectives were to help participants (1) deepen their knowledge of issues related to child sexual abuse and maltreatment; (2) identify potential indicators of abuse and maltreatment; (3) know the procedure to follow in cases of suspicion; (4) understand and integrate prevention messages in the clergy's activities; and (5) know what help is available for potential abusers.

Three sensitive aspects emerged during the training as well as from written evaluations (these are also aspects often mentioned by parents and teachers).

First, it must be recognized – including by the clergy, that sex education plays a fundamental role in the prevention of sexual abuse of children. As 50 percent of sexual abuse occurs in children under 9 years of age, and in 80 percent of cases this is by a family member), sex education is necessary from a very early age, and that this task cannot be entrusted to families alone. Schools must play an active role (in a way appropriate for children's age).

Second, the issue of secrecy must be dealt with, including as it relates to confession. Can a priest remain silent if he becomes aware of ongoing sexual abuse of minors, or if he becomes aware of a real risk that abuse may occur?

Third a key aspect of prevention is non-violent education. For some individuals, corporal punishment may still be perceived as acceptable or even part educating children. Yet when an adult suffers violence, it is considered a crime. Why then should violence done to a child who cannot defend himself or herself be justified?

## Summing Up

Violence in schools remains widespread, including in Catholic schools. Students and education systems around the world have been profoundly affected by the COVID-19 crisis that started more than two years ago. Apart from leading to much higher rates of learning poverty (defined as the inability for a ten year old child to read and understand an age-appropriate text), there is evidence that the crisis has exacerbated some of the risk factors traditionally associated with violence against children, including VIAS. The need to end VIAS is more pressing than ever.

Pope Francis' call for a Global Compact on Education emphasizes the need to put the human person at the center of what Catholic and other educational institutions do. Ending violence in school is a clear first step. Preventing VIAS is a moral imperative, but is also a smart investment. The negative effects of VIAS are widespread. Children's life is profoundly affected when they are victims or perpetrators of violence, with scars that last a lifetime. Ending violence in schools could bring large benefits. The good news is that promising evidence-based interventions to end VIAS are available.

### Box ES.7: The Global Catholic Education Project

[Global Catholic Education](http://www.GlobalCatholicEducation.org) is a volunteer-led project to contribute to Catholic education and integral human development globally with a range of resources. The website went live symbolically on Thanksgiving Day in November 2020 to give thanks for the many blessings we have received. Catholic schools serve close to 62 million children in pre-primary, primary, and secondary schools globally. In addition, almost 7 million students are enrolled at the post-secondary level (data for 2019). The Church also provides many other services to children and families, including in healthcare, social protection, and humanitarian assistance. Our aim is to serve Catholic schools and universities, as well as other organizations contributing to integral human development, with an emphasis on responding to the aspirations of the poor and vulnerable. If you would like to contribute to the project, please contact us through the website at [www.GlobalCatholicEducation.org](http://www.GlobalCatholicEducation.org). On the website, you can also subscribe to receive our weekly blog.

## INTRODUCTION

The first Global Catholic Education Report published in 2020 focused on some of the challenges brought about by the pandemic for education systems, including Catholic schools and universities. The theme of the second report published in 2021 was learning poverty, education pluralism, and the right to education. For this third report, the theme is ending violence in schools – an imperative for children’s learning and well-being.

When Pope Francis called for a Global Compact on Education in September 2019, his aim was to “*rekindle our dedication for and with young people, renewing our passion for a more open and inclusive education.*”<sup>2</sup> Pope Francis suggested a set of seven practical commitments to renew our vision for education: (1) to make human persons the center; (2) to listen to the voices of children and young people; (3) to advance the women; (4) to empower the family; (5) to welcome; (6) to find new ways of understanding (the) economy and politics; and (7) to safeguard our common home<sup>3</sup>.

This report is about an important aspect of the first of these commitments: making human persons the center requires ending violence in schools and its devastating negative impacts on children. Violence in schools remains highly prevalent all over the world, including in Catholic schools (and universities). But there are evidenced-based approaches to reduce it, as well as interesting experiences to be shared from Catholic schools all over the world.

The Global Catholic Education Report 2022 has two parts. The first part reviews enrollment trends in Catholic educational institutions globally. In 2019, Catholic schools served 62.1 million children in pre-primary, primary, and secondary schools globally. In addition, 6.7 million students were enrolled in Catholic institutes and universities at the post-secondary level. These data do not reflect the

impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on enrollment, and it will probably take a few more years to have a better understanding of those effects. What is clear is that Catholic educational institutions remain the largest non-state provider of education in the world, thus contributing to efforts to achieve the fourth Sustainable Development Goals.

The second part of the report is about the need to end violence in schools, including in Catholic schools. The analysis is based in large part on a recent report completed by the author at the World Bank<sup>4</sup>, but with additional insights and case studies from Catholic schools. In the context of the sexual abuse crisis in the Catholic Church, this is an important topic for the Church and for Catholic schools in particular (Box I.1).

### Box I.1: Committing to Child Protection

Child protection has become a major issue in the Catholic Church. Participants at the 2019 World Congress of the International Office of Catholic Education adopted nine commitments, the last of which reads as follows<sup>5</sup>: “*9. The challenges of child protection and the fight against all forms of abuse.* The Church is now going through a difficult time due to the scandals related to paedophilia. Catholic schools must be particularly careful about the protection of children against any form of attack or abuse, which they cannot tolerate or conceal under any circumstances if they wish to remain exemplary. Beyond sexual abuse alone, they must focus on promoting in each country and for each school, tools for the prevention and protection of minors, such as guidelines, protection standards, adapted training tools for teachers and an efficient recruitment procedure for teachers. They must also educate young people about a human sexuality.”

<sup>2</sup> Francis (2019).

<sup>3</sup> On the global compact, see Wodon (2022b).

<sup>4</sup> Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021).

<sup>5</sup> Cattaro et al. (2021).

As noted in the introduction to that World Bank report, violence against children, including violence in and around schools (VIAS), is a violation of their human rights. It results in significant impacts on their health and wellbeing, affecting in turn the enjoyment of other rights. Preventing violence against children is a moral imperative. It is also a smart investment.

In today's fast changing world, education – and more generally human capital, is the foundation of countries' future economic development. Education is essential to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) – not only for SDG4 which is about education, but also for many other areas. Education also has a unique role to play in promoting respect for human rights, and contributing to safe and inclusive societies that do not condone the use of violence, but rather provide children with the skills they will need as adults to find peaceful solutions to conflicts and advance gender inequality. One of the drivers of violence against children including in schools is actually gender inequality. Safe and inclusive societies that do not condone violence against children, but condemn it, are also societies that value girls and boys equally.

Unfortunately, violence against children, including VIAS, remains widespread in developing and developed countries alike, and in Catholic as well as in other schools. The COVID-

19 pandemic is likely to have exacerbated some of the factors that lead to violence against children in general, and violence in schools in particular. Given its negative long-term consequences for children's wellbeing and their capacity to learn, preventing VIAS is simply a prerequisite to enable children to thrive. Failure to do so will negatively affect not only the children today, but also the members of their future families as adults and societies as a whole.

This report is structured in six chapters. The first two chapters document long-term trends in enrollment in pre-primary, primary, and secondary education (chapter 1) and higher education (chapter 2). The analysis follows the model used in the Global Catholic Education Report 2021 which relied on data up to 2018, but with an update for data for 2019.

The next four chapters focus on VIAS. Chapter 3 outlines the different types of violence that children may be subject to, and provides estimates of the prevalence of violence in schools using a wide range of surveys. Chapter 4 documents some of the negative impacts of violence in school on children. Chapter 5 reviews the literature on promising interventions to end VIAS. Chapter 6 discusses the need to engage all stakeholders to end VIAS. A brief conclusion follows.



# PART I

## ENROLLMENT TRENDS IN CATHOLIC EDUCATION

### CHAPTER 1

#### ENROLLMENT TRENDS IN CATHOLIC K12 SCHOOLS

For readers who may not be familiar with previous Global Catholic Education Reports, this chapter reproduces the analysis of enrollment trends in Catholic K12<sup>6</sup> schools included in previous reports, but with data updated to 2019. After a brief introduction providing background, trends in enrollment from 1980 to 2019 are documented. The introduction and discussion of trends has been slightly shortened versus previous reports.

#### Introduction<sup>7</sup>

Globally, the Catholic Church estimates that 35.2 million children were enrolled in Catholic primary schools in 2019, with 19.4 million children enrolled in Catholic secondary schools and 7.5 million children enrolled at the preschool level<sup>8</sup>. These estimates for 2019 are likely to be a lower bound for the number of students served by the Catholic Church because they do not fully account for the role played by Catholic institutions in providing other education services, such as technical and vocational education and training, as well as informal education services. Overall, the Catholic Church is therefore one of the largest providers of education services worldwide after the governments of China and India.

In the context of efforts by the international community to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals, faith-based

organizations play an important role in the provision of education and health services, and more generally in investments in human capital. Many of these organizations are Christian, and among Christian organizations, in part for historical reasons, Catholic institutions often tend to have the largest networks of schools and healthcare facilities. In the case of healthcare, one prominent example is that of the Christian Health Associations which provide care in many sub-Saharan African countries, and especially in East and Southern Africa<sup>9</sup>. In the case of education, large networks of schools are managed by Catholic dioceses and religious orders, especially in sub-Saharan Africa<sup>10</sup>.

As long as Catholic schools are faithful to their mission, providing education to a larger as opposed to a smaller number of students helps the Church, including in terms of its evangelization mission, which should not be equated to proselytism. But for communities and society at large, a robust network of Catholic schools may also be beneficial in various ways. First, it is sometimes believed that Catholic schools perform comparatively well in terms of learning outcomes for students, even though the empirical evidence to that effect is mixed<sup>11</sup>. Catholic schools and the Church also have a long tradition of serving the poor<sup>12</sup>, even if doing so in practice is difficult especially when the schools do not receive support from the state. Finally and perhaps most importantly, Catholic and

<sup>6</sup> K12 means kindergarten to 12<sup>th</sup> grade. This covers pre-primary, primary, and secondary education.

<sup>7</sup> This chapter follows the same structure as in Wodon (2021a). Estimates have been updated with data for 2019.

<sup>8</sup> Secretariat of State of the Vatican (2021).

<sup>9</sup> Olivier et al. (2015), Dimmock et al. (2017).

<sup>10</sup> Wodon (2014, 2015, 2018a, 2020a).

<sup>11</sup> On Catholic schools in Africa, see for example Wodon and Tsimpo (2021).

<sup>12</sup> Pontifical Council for Justice and Peace (2004), Francis (2015), McKinney (2018).

other faith-based schools provide valuable options for parents, thus contributing to healthy pluralism in the educational choices available to them (this aspect was discussed in the Global Catholic Education Report 2021)<sup>13</sup>. To set the stage for the discussion in this report, it is useful to first review long term and more recent trends in enrollment.

## Trends in Enrollment

How has the number of students in pre-primary, primary and secondary Catholic schools evolved over the last four decades? In which parts of the world is growth in enrollment taking place, and where do we observe a potential decline? How is enrollment distributed between the pre-primary, primary, and secondary levels? Which are the countries with the largest enrollment in Catholic schools?

To answer these questions, this chapter documents trends in enrollment in Catholic schools from 1980 to 2019 and discusses some of the implications for the future of Catholic schools. The chapter updates with the most recent data available the analysis provided in the Global Catholic Education Report 2021<sup>14</sup>.

Data on the number of students in Catholic K12 schools are available in the Catholic Church's annual statistical yearbooks, with the most recent data available for 2019<sup>15</sup>. The yearbooks provide data among others on enrollment in K12 schools by level, considering separately preschools, primary schools, and secondary schools for each country and some territories. While the data are self-reported by the chancery offices of ecclesiastical jurisdictions that fill the annual questionnaire, they seem to be of sufficient quality to document broad trends over time. In a typical year, about five percent of the ecclesiastical jurisdictions do not fill the questionnaire, but this is the case mostly for small jurisdictions, so that the missing data

should not affect the overall results substantially for most countries, or at the regional and global levels.

Data on enrollment in Catholic K12 schools are from the Church's annual statistical yearbooks, with the most recent data pertaining to 2019.

Table 1.1 provides estimates of enrollment for preschools, primary schools, and secondary schools, as well as total enrollment for all three levels combined. For primary and secondary schools, data are provided from 1980 to 2019. In order to show changes from the previous year, apart from estimates by decade, estimates for 2018 are also provided. Estimates are provided by region – as defined in the yearbooks, and globally. As already mentioned, in 2019, 7.5 million children were enrolled in Catholic preschools globally, 35.2 million children attended primary schools, and 19.4 million children attended secondary schools, for a total in K12 education of 62.1 million children.

Figures 1.1 through 1.4 provide a visualization of the trends in enrollment by region for five regions: Africa, the Americas, Asia, Europe, and Oceania. The analysis is kept at that level to keep the Tables manageable, but data are available at the country level in the statistical yearbooks. A number of interesting findings emerge from the data. Five findings are highlighted here. First, the trends in Figures 1.1 through 1.4 suggest growth in enrollment over time. Total enrollment in K12 education almost doubled between 1980 and 2020 globally, from 34.6 million to 62.1 million students (in 1975, which was the base year used in the Global Catholic Education Report 2021, 29.1 million students were enrolled in K12 Catholic schools, so that enrollment more than doubled if that baseline is used instead). Most of the growth in enrollment in absolute terms was concentrated in Africa, and within that region, in sub-Saharan

<sup>13</sup> See Wodon (2021a) and Wodon (2021e, 2021f).

<sup>14</sup> The basic analysis of trends in Catholic K12 education was first published by the author in

*Educatio Catholica*, the journal of the Congregation for Catholic Education in Rome (see Wodon, 2018a).

<sup>15</sup> Secretariat of State of the Vatican (2021).

Africa (not shown in the Table). This is not surprising, given that the continent has a high rate of population growth and that thanks to efforts to achieve education for all, enrollment rates have risen substantially, especially at the primary level, even if gaps remain.

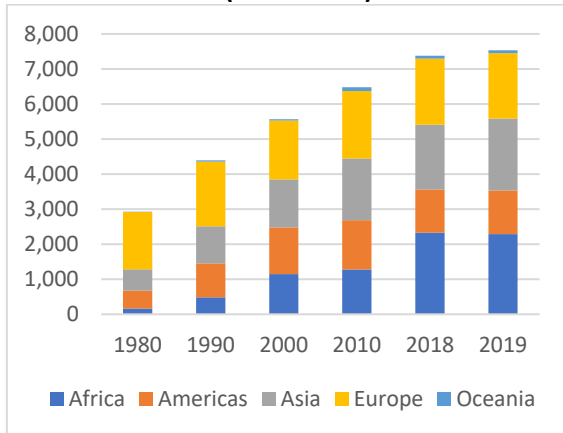
Total enrollment in Catholic K12 schools almost doubled between 1980 and 2019 globally, from 34.6 million to 62.1 million students.

**Table 1.1: Trends in the Number of Students Enrolled in Catholic K12 Schools (Thousands)**

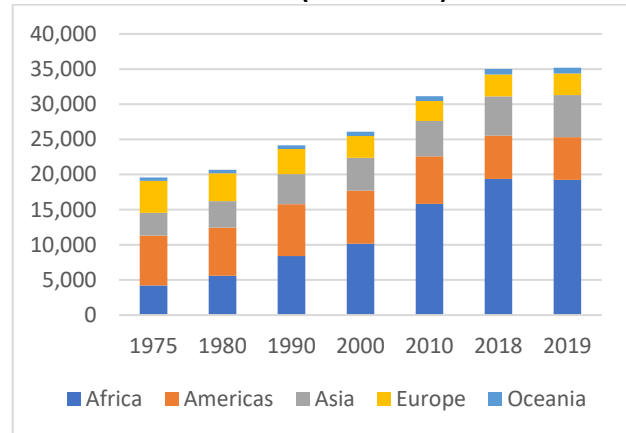
	1980	1990	2000	2010	2018	2019
<b>Preschools</b>						
Africa	162.4	484.6	1,147.9	1,277.5	2,327.0	2,286.5
Americas	514.0	968.7	1,331.1	1,409.6	1,235.3	1,248.3
Asia	607.0	1,058.6	1,369.8	1,761.1	1,846.2	2,048.5
Europe	1,634.4	1,845.1	1,681.0	1,923.4	1,890.0	1,869.4
Oceania	7.6	33.5	37.1	107.0	78.3	80.3
<b>World</b>	<b>2,925.4</b>	<b>4,390.5</b>	<b>5,566.8</b>	<b>6,478.6</b>	<b>7,376.9</b>	<b>7,533.0</b>
<b>Primary Schools</b>						
Africa	5,610.7	8,393.8	10,158.4	15,821.3	19,365.1	19,238.6
Americas	6,838.6	7,380.6	7,554.7	6,766.0	6,143.7	6,086.6
Asia	3,752.6	4,289.9	4,668.9	5,023.8	5,608.8	5,969.7
Europe	3,979.0	3,569.2	3,099.4	2,846.0	3,126.7	3,081.2
Oceania	480.3	510.9	615.7	694.0	767.7	812.7
<b>World</b>	<b>20,661.2</b>	<b>24,144.5</b>	<b>26,097.1</b>	<b>31,151.2</b>	<b>35,012.0</b>	<b>35,188.8</b>
<b>Secondary Schools</b>						
Africa	806.5	1,275.2	2,267.1	4,540.9	5,462.8	5,448.3
Americas	3,364.0	3,506.0	3,797.6	3,868.1	3,684.0	3,549.7
Asia	3,150.9	3,982.1	4,017.4	5,292.0	5,993.4	6,125.5
Europe	3,436.0	3,358.3	3,593.8	3,666.4	3,657.7	3,750.1
Oceania	257.6	319.3	350.8	426.1	509.6	497.2
<b>World</b>	<b>11,015.0</b>	<b>12,440.9</b>	<b>14,026.7</b>	<b>17,793.6</b>	<b>19,307.3</b>	<b>19,370.8</b>
<b>Total</b>						
Africa	6,579.6	10,153.6	13,573.4	21,639.8	27,154.8	26,973.3
Americas	10,716.6	11,855.3	12,683.3	12,043.7	11,063.0	10,884.6
Asia	7,510.5	9,330.6	10,056.1	12,076.9	13,448.3	14,143.7
Europe	9,049.3	8,772.6	8,374.3	8,435.8	8,674.5	8,700.7
Oceania	745.5	863.7	1,003.6	1,227.1	1,355.5	1,390.2
<b>World</b>	<b>34,601.5</b>	<b>40,975.9</b>	<b>45,690.6</b>	<b>55,423.4</b>	<b>61,696.2</b>	<b>62,092.5</b>

Source: Compiled by the author from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

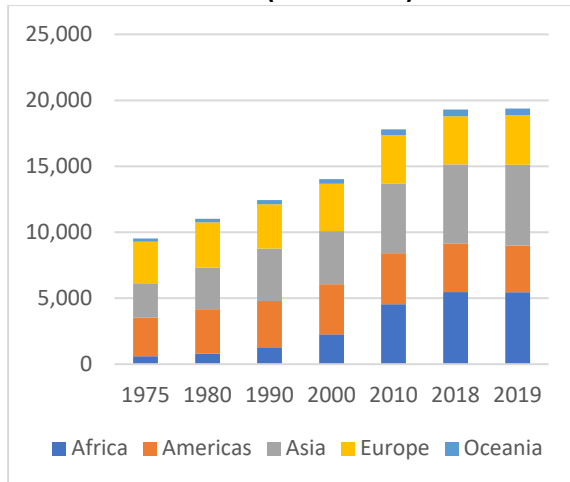
**Figure 1.1: Enrollment in Catholic Preschools (Thousands)**



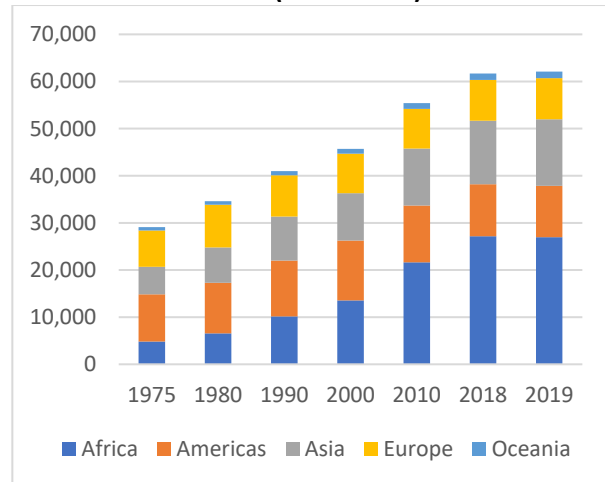
**Figure 1.2: Enrollment in Catholic Primary Schools (Thousands)**



**Figure 1.3: Enrollment in Catholic Secondary Schools (Thousands)**



**Figure 1.4: Total Enrollment in Catholic K12 Schools (Thousands)**



Source: Statistical Yearbooks of the Church.

By 2019, the Africa region had 27.0 million children enrolled in Catholic K12 schools. Of those, 19.2 million were enrolled in Catholic primary schools. This accounted for 55 percent of all children enrolled in Catholic schools at that level globally. The numbers of children in Catholic preschools and in Catholic secondary schools in Africa were estimated in 2019 at respectively 2.3 million and 5.5 million, accounting in both cases for about three in ten children enrolled at those levels in Catholic schools globally. The other region with a large increase in enrollment in absolute terms over

the last few decades is Asia, mostly due to gains in India, especially at the secondary level.

The largest gains in enrollment in absolute terms are observed in Africa. This was expected given that high rates of population growth as well as gains in educational attainment in the region over the last few decades.

It is worth noting that over the last few years, enrollment leveled off, with in fact a (small) decline in enrollment. The levelling off can be seen in Table 1.1 by looking at changes between 2018 and 2019. Enrollment actually

peaked in 2016 at 62.4 million students. In the context of the COVID-19 crisis, there may be a risk that Catholic schools will have lost students and some schools may close (see Box 1.1).

A second key finding is the fact that there are substantial differences between regions in the share of students enrolled by level (see Table 1.2 and Figure 1.5). Globally, primary schools account for 56.7 percent of all enrollments in Catholic schools in 2019, versus 31.2 percent for secondary schools, and 12.1 percent for preschools. In Africa however, primary schools still account for 71.3 percent of total enrollment, mostly because the transition to secondary schools is still weak in many countries (for example, only four in ten students in Africa complete their lower secondary school according to the World Bank's the World Development Indicators). By contrast, in Europe, primary schools account for only a third (35.4 percent) of total enrollment in Catholic schools. This is due to substantial enrollment at the secondary level and in preschools.

There are substantial differences between regions in the share of students enrolled by level. Globally, primary schools account for 56.7 percent of all enrollments in Catholic schools. In Africa however, primary schools still account for 71.3 percent of total enrollment, mostly because the transition to secondary schools is still weak.

### **Box 1.1: Impacts of the COVID-19 Pandemic**

The pandemic is likely to also have affected Catholic schools, especially in countries where they do not benefit from state funding. In a survey implemented in April 2020 with national Catholic school leaders, respondents were asked if they were anticipating losses in enrollment due to the crisis. In some countries no losses were expected (these were mostly countries where the state funds the schools), but in other countries losses larger than 10 percent were expected, which could threaten financial sustainability for some schools. In the United States, enrollment in Catholic schools has decreased for some time<sup>16</sup>, but the pandemic had a large effect<sup>17</sup>.

Catholic school leaders were also asked if they were able to implement distance learning solutions for students, and if so, using which media. Schools in developed countries were able to rely on the internet, but in developing countries and especially in Africa, lack of connectivity has limited the ability to provide distance learning<sup>18</sup>. Another question in the survey was about plans to adapt the curriculum or provide remedial education in the next school year to enable students to catch up, given that many suffered from losses in learning during school closures. The ability for Catholic schools in developing countries to adapt their curriculum and provide remedial education was again much weaker than in developed countries, especially in Africa. Catholic schools and their students face major challenges from the COVID-19 crisis due not only to a lack of access to distance learning options, but also to limited options for remediation and adaptation of the curriculum.

<sup>16</sup> Several factors may have contributed to the long-term decline in enrollment in Catholic schools in the United States, but lack of affordability looms large (Murnane and Reardon, 2018; see also Wodon, 2018b, 2022a).

<sup>17</sup> See NCEA (2021). On the potential impact of the pandemic on Catholic schools in developed and developing countries, see Wodon (2020d, 2020e).

<sup>18</sup> On digital connectivity and the effect of the pandemic on Catholic schools, see Wodon (2021d) and Wodon, Male and Nayihouba (2021).

**Table 1.2: Proportion of Students Enrolled in Catholic K12 Schools by Level (%)**

	1980	1990	2000	2010	2018	2019
Preschools						
Africa	2.5	4.8	8.5	5.9	8.6	8.5
Americas	4.8	8.2	10.5	11.7	11.2	11.5
Asia	8.1	11.3	13.6	14.6	13.7	14.5
Europe	18.1	21.0	20.1	22.8	21.8	21.5
Oceania	1.0	3.9	3.7	8.7	5.8	5.8
<b>World</b>	8.5	10.7	12.2	11.7	12.0	12.1
Primary Schools						
Africa	85.3	82.7	74.8	73.1	71.3	71.3
Americas	63.8	62.3	59.6	56.2	55.5	55.9
Asia	50.0	46.0	46.4	41.6	41.7	42.2
Europe	44.0	40.7	37.0	33.7	36.0	35.4
Oceania	64.4	59.2	61.4	56.6	56.6	58.5
<b>World</b>	59.7	58.9	57.1	56.2	56.7	56.7
Secondary Schools						
Africa	12.3	12.6	16.7	21.0	20.1	20.2
Americas	31.4	29.6	29.9	32.1	33.3	32.6
Asia	42.0	42.7	40.0	43.8	44.6	43.3
Europe	38.0	38.3	42.9	43.5	42.2	43.1
Oceania	34.6	37.0	35.0	34.7	37.6	35.8
<b>World</b>	31.8	30.4	30.7	32.1	31.3	31.2

Source: Compiled by the author from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

A third finding is that in proportionate terms, as a percentage change from the base, the highest growth rates are also observed for Africa, as was the case for absolute gains in enrollment. But growth rates are also high in Asia and Oceania. Annual growth rates by decade for the period from 1980 to 2019 are computed taking into account compounding. They are provided in Table 1.3 and visualized in Figure 1.6. Growth rates from 2018 to 2019 are also provided (thus over the last year). Over the last few decades, the annual growth rates were highest for Africa. The growth rates for the continent are two to three times larger than those observed for enrollment in Catholic schools globally. In Asia, growth rates in Catholic school enrollment are typically slightly above those observed for the world. By contrast, in the

Americas and in Europe at all levels, growth rates tend to be much smaller, and in some cases are negative. Importantly, some of the regional growth rates for the last year (between 2018 and 2019) are negative, with only a small gain in enrollment globally. The large gain for Asia at the preschool level in the last year is a bit surprising, but overall, the patterns of growth appear reasonable.

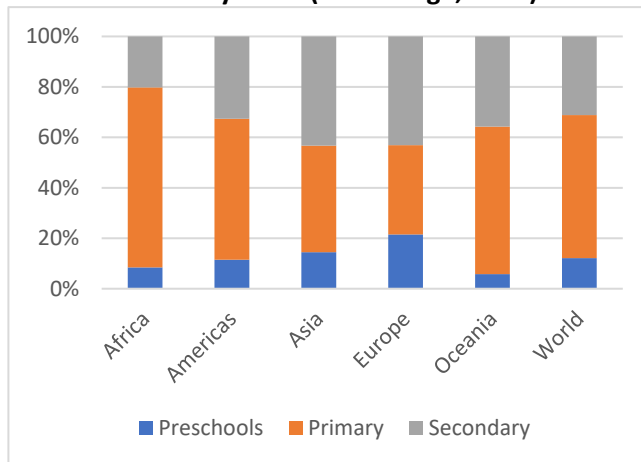
The highest growth rates in enrollment are observed for Africa, but growth rates have also been high in Asia and Oceania. For the last year however, some regional growth rates were negative and there was only a slight overall gain in enrollment in Catholic K12 schools globally.

**Table 1.3: Annual Growth Rate for Enrollment in Catholic K12 Schools (%)**

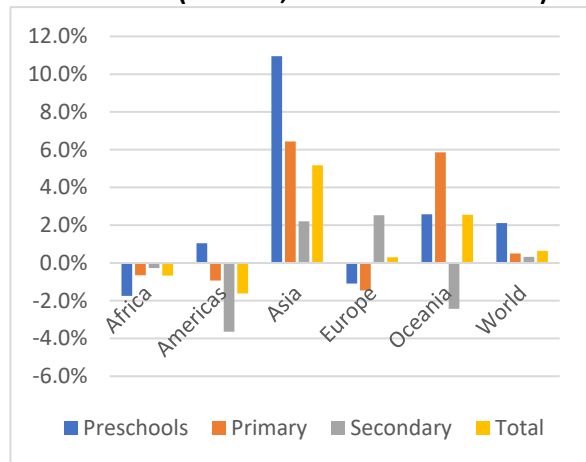
	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	2010-2019	2018-2019
<b>Preschools</b>					
Africa	11.6%	9.0%	1.1%	6.7%	-1.7%
Americas	6.5%	3.2%	0.6%	-1.3%	1.0%
Asia	5.7%	2.6%	2.5%	1.7%	11.0%
Europe	1.2%	-0.9%	1.4%	-0.3%	-1.1%
Oceania	15.9%	1.0%	11.2%	-3.1%	2.6%
<b>World</b>	4.1%	2.4%	1.5%	1.7%	2.1%
<b>Primary Schools</b>					
Africa	4.1%	1.9%	4.5%	2.2%	-0.7%
Americas	0.8%	0.2%	-1.1%	-1.2%	-0.9%
Asia	1.3%	0.9%	0.7%	1.9%	6.4%
Europe	-1.1%	-1.4%	-0.8%	0.9%	-1.5%
Oceania	0.6%	1.9%	1.2%	1.8%	5.9%
<b>World</b>	1.6%	0.8%	1.8%	1.4%	0.5%
<b>Secondary Schools</b>					
Africa	4.7%	5.9%	7.2%	2.0%	-0.3%
Americas	0.4%	0.8%	0.2%	-1.0%	-3.6%
Asia	2.4%	0.1%	2.8%	1.6%	2.2%
Europe	-0.2%	0.7%	0.2%	0.3%	2.5%
Oceania	2.2%	0.9%	2.0%	1.7%	-2.4%
<b>World</b>	1.2%	1.2%	2.4%	0.9%	0.3%
<b>Total</b>					
Africa	4.4%	2.9%	4.8%	2.5%	-0.7%
Americas	1.0%	0.7%	-0.5%	-1.1%	-1.6%
Asia	2.2%	0.8%	1.8%	1.8%	5.2%
Europe	-0.3%	-0.5%	0.1%	0.3%	0.3%
Oceania	1.5%	1.5%	2.0%	1.4%	2.6%
<b>World</b>	1.7%	1.1%	1.9%	1.3%	0.6%

Source: Compiled by the author from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

**Figure 1.5: Proportion of K12 Students in Catholic Schools by Level (Percentage, 2019)**



**Figure 1.6: Annual Growth Rates in Enrollment (Percent, Last Year 2018-2019)**



Source: Author's estimations from the Statistical Yearbooks of the Church.

For the Americas, a difference between the United States and the other countries should be noted. While enrollment continues to grow in some countries in Central and Latin America, there has been a steep decline in enrollment in the United States, from more than five million students in primary and secondary schools in the early 1960s to less than two million today<sup>19</sup>. This is due in part to a lack of public funding for schools which generates budget savings for the state, but implies out-of-pocket costs on parents<sup>20</sup>. The decline in enrollment has affected private schools more generally<sup>21</sup>, with the middle class facing increasing difficulties given stagnant wages to afford private schools due to their cost in the absence of state or federal subsidies (in contrast to private schools, charter schools have expanded over time thanks to public funding – these are formally public schools but they are privately managed).

Fourth, the share of students enrolled in Catholic schools globally has remained somewhat stable over time. Estimates of these shares were provided in the Global Catholic Education Report 2021. Analysis suggests that globally the shares have not changed substantially over time<sup>22</sup>. This share decreased over the last few decades slightly at the secondary level, but it increased slightly at the primary level. There are differences however between regions. In Africa (combining sub-Saharan and North Africa), the share of students in Catholic schools is much higher, with one in ten children enrolled in a Catholic primary school. In Oceania, the shares are even larger, with one in five students in primary schools enrolled in a Catholic school. This is due in part to Australia, where Catholic schools benefit from state funding. In many other countries, only a

small share of students enroll in Catholic schools, and in some cases (such as China), there are no Catholic schools.

The share of students enrolled in Catholic schools globally has remained somewhat stable over time. It decreased slightly at the secondary level and increased slightly at the primary level.

It is worth noting that gains (or losses) in enrollment can come from building new schools (or closing schools in cases of losses), or accommodating more students in existing schools (or less students in the cases of losses). Analysis suggests that gains were achieved for the most part from creating new schools<sup>23</sup>. This is not surprising since there is a limit to ability of existing schools to accommodate more students. But it may be a source of concern in some countries where the Church or communities may not have the means to build new schools, especially at the secondary level. As governments and low cost for-profit providers expand the coverage of their secondary schools in low and lower-middle income countries, even if enrollment in Catholic secondary schools increased, the share of students enrolled in Catholic schools may not.

Fifth, there is heterogeneity between countries in the size of their Catholic school networks. Table 1.4 provides the list of the 15 countries with the largest enrollment in Catholic K12 schools in 2019. Estimates of enrollment are provided by level in each country. Together, these 15 countries account for about two thirds of the global enrollment in Catholic K12 schools. As mentioned earlier, enrollment is largest in absolute terms in India due to the sheer size of the country. The next four countries are from

<sup>19</sup> On recent trends in enrollment in the United States, see National Catholic Educational Association (2021, 2022). For a discussion of factors affecting those trends, see Wodon (2018b, 2022a).

<sup>20</sup> On savings from Catholic education for governments in OECD countries, see Wodon (2018c) for higher education and Wodon (2019a) for schools.

<sup>21</sup> Murnane et al. (2018).

<sup>22</sup> Wodon (2018a).

<sup>23</sup> Wodon (2019b).



sub-Saharan Africa: the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Uganda, Kenya, and Malawi. Three are classified as low-income by the World Bank. Kenya like India is a lower-middle income country, the next level in the income classification of the World Bank. The fact that the footprint of Catholic schools is today especially large in low and lower-middle income countries is a positive development for the mission of the Church to serve low income students. In countries such as the DRC, even households in the second top quintile of income are not “well off” economically by any means.

In the DRC as well as Uganda, Kenya, and Malawi, most Catholic schools are considered as public schools and are at least partially funded by the state<sup>24</sup>. In the DRC for example, Catholic schools are part of *écoles conventionnées*<sup>25</sup>. Catholic schools in the DRC have a large market share due in part to historical factors and the limited ability of the state to provide education services during periods of conflict. The smallest country in Table 1.4 is Belgium. It has a high level of enrollment because the state funds (almost) equally Catholic and public schools. But in the other countries, while the number of student enrolled in Catholic schools may be high due to

population sizes, the market share of Catholic schools is often low, given limited or no state support leading to cost recovery from parents by the schools, and thereby higher costs that may not be affordable for the poor. This is for example the case in the United States and India.

The fact that the footprint of Catholic schools is large in low income countries is important for the mission of the Church to serve the poor.

Sixth, high growth rates in enrollment for preschools are worth acknowledging. This is good news. The literature demonstrates that early childhood is a critical period in the life of children and that investing in children at that time has high returns (and often higher returns than investments later in life). This is the case especially for the first 1,000 days in the life of children when brain development occurs, but also later, including to make sure that children are ready to enter primary school<sup>26</sup>. Early stimulation and preschools have therefore been identified as key interventions that governments as well as other organizations should promote when investing in human development<sup>27</sup>.

**Table 1.4: Top 15 Countries by K12 Enrollment in Catholic Schools, 2019**

	Preschool	Primary	Secondary	Total
India	1,261.6	4,245.9	4,084.8	9,592.3
Congo, Dem. Rep.	70.1	4,672.4	1,532.7	6,275.2
Uganda	188.3	4,416.8	409.7	5,014.8
Kenya	428.3	2,687.1	1,041.0	4,156.4
Malawi	418.5	1,847.6	75.6	2,341.7
France	378.4	605.3	1,163.6	2,147.4
United States	150.8	1,239.3	551.9	1,942.1
Philippines	240.2	503.4	893.1	1,636.7
Rwanda	89.6	1,076.9	342.4	1,508.9
Argentina	236.0	693.8	532.6	1,462.4
Spain	234.1	568.9	582.4	1,385.4
Belgium	164.8	522.4	550.7	1,238.0
Mexico	181.2	586.5	420.5	1,188.3
Nigeria	194.5	498.9	359.9	1,053.4
Ghana	264.2	488.0	288.6	1,040.7

Source: Compiled by the author from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

<sup>24</sup> This can lead to challenges (D’Agostino et al., 2019).

<sup>25</sup> Backiny-Yetna and Wodon (2009), Wodon (2017a).

<sup>26</sup> Black et al. (2017).

<sup>27</sup> Denboba et al. (2014).

## Summing Up

This chapter updated an analysis of trends in enrollment in Catholic K12 schools provided in the Global Catholic Education Report 2021. The focus was on long-term trends, as opposed to the potential impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. A few findings stand out.

First, much of the growth in enrollment has been observed in Africa<sup>28</sup>. There has been a leveling off in enrollment in Catholic K12 schools in recent years, and the added pressure from the COVID-19 pandemic crisis may lead to a plateau in enrollment for a few years. However, in the medium to long term, growth is expected to continue (see Box 1.2). Now, the fact that the global growth in enrollment is mostly due to low income African countries does not mean however that in those countries, Catholic schools succeed in reaching the very poor, even if many of the students they serve are likely to be poor. The risk for the schools to enroll proportionately more children from the well-to-do has long been recognized<sup>29</sup>. Congregations which used to be able to provide quasi-free education in their schools a few decades ago may not anymore have the personnel and resources to do so today. In the absence of state support, cost recovery may lead the schools to be unaffordable for some among the poor. These pressures may become more severe over time in countries where Catholic schools do not benefit from state funding. In these countries, engaging in discussions with governments about the possibility of receiving (partial) funding is essential for the future.

Second, while the analysis in this report was conducted separately for the three levels of schooling being considered, there are links between these three levels. While enrollment in Catholic preschools may not necessarily lead to higher enrollment in Catholic primary schools,

the link between Catholic primary and secondary schools is likely to be stronger, with primary schools serving as feeder schools for secondary schools. Given the rise in enrollment at the primary school, and higher transition rates to secondary schools in many low and lower-middle income countries, growth in enrollment should continue for some time at the secondary level in those countries as large cohorts of students enrolled in primary school complete their primary education. This has implications for strategy and planning. In much the same way that governments use simple forecasting models to project trends in enrollment at various levels based on population growth and education parameters, this type of analysis could be beneficial for Catholic networks, including to assess budget and cost recovery requirements.

Third, gains in enrollment may require accommodating more students in existing schools or building new schools as there is a limit to the ability of existing schools to welcome more students. This could be a source of concern for the market share of Catholic schools since networks of Catholic schools may not always have the means to build new schools, especially at the secondary level where the cost of new schools is higher than at the primary level. As governments and low cost for-profit providers expand the coverage of their secondary school networks in low and lower-middle income countries, even as enrollment in Catholic secondary schools may increase, the market share of Catholic schools at the secondary level may fall, as it did to some extent globally over the last few decades<sup>30</sup>.

Given rising competitive pressures, the need to excel not only academically, but also in other dimensions of the education being provided by Catholic schools, may only intensify over time.

<sup>28</sup> On broad trends in the developing world, see the Global Catholic Education Report 2021 (Wodon, 2021a). For a more detailed analysis on Africa, see Wodon (2021a) and Wodon (2021b) for a comparison with health sector provision by the Catholic Church.

<sup>29</sup> Congregation for Catholic Education (1977).

<sup>30</sup> Another challenge is to build secondary schools in poor areas. See Wodon (2020b) on Uganda.

### Box 1.2: Has Catholic K12 Education Peaked?

For most of the period between 1980 and 2019, year-on-year growth in enrollment in Catholic K12 schools was positive. Yet since 2016, there was a small decline as enrollment in K12 schools dropped from 62.4 million in 2016 to 62.1 million students in 2019. This drop is small and could be due to statistical errors in reporting for some countries, but it is important to note that it is pre-COVID. Given the time lag in the production of the statistical yearbooks of the Church, it will take a few more years before we can assess whether there has been a substantial loss in enrollment from the pandemic.

In the medium and long term however, global enrollment in Catholic education is likely to continue to grow, in part because of sub-Saharan Africa. The market share of Catholic schools in that region is high. As enrollment continues to grow in that region due to population growth and gains in educational attainment, global enrollment in Catholic K12 education should also increase even if enrollment drops in other parts of the world. By 2030, simple 'business-as-usual' projections<sup>31</sup> suggest that close to two thirds of all students in Catholic primary schools and more than 40 percent of all students in Catholic secondary schools could live in the African continent.

Fourth, in some countries Catholic schools may struggle between two priorities. On the one hand, the schools have a Catholic identity that they are aiming to maintain, or even strengthen. Investing in the spiritual capital of teachers and staff is crucial for this mission<sup>32</sup>. But on the other hand, the schools also need to ensure that students adequately learn while in school. Even if Catholic schools perform comparatively well in national or international

student assessments, it does not mean that they are performing well everywhere.

The World Development Report 2018 on education and more recent work since then demonstrate that many education systems are currently failing their students<sup>33</sup>. For basic literacy and numeracy in primary schools, the average student in low income countries performs worse than 95 percent of the students in high-income countries. Even top students in middle-income countries rank in the bottom fourth of the achievement distribution in high income countries. These gaps are likely to be observed for students in Catholic schools as well as those in public schools. This in turn has implications for the ability of students to become lifelong learners and acquire the socio-emotional skills that they need in life. As public schools raise their game in this area, so must Catholic schools. The point is not to pitch one mission of Catholic schools against the other, but simply to recognize that both missions are complementary, and that long-term efforts need to be undertaken in both areas.

Finally, even though there has been substantial growth in enrollment in Catholic schools over the past four to five decades, the competitive pressures faced by the schools should not be underestimated. They are likely to increase in the future as the market for K12 education is becoming increasingly competitive.

This is the case in a number of developed countries where the market share of Catholic schools has been declining, but it is may also become increasingly the case in developing countries. Public provision is expanding especially in low income and lower-middle income countries, and as mentioned earlier, the emergence of low cost private schools in those countries represents an additional source of competition. While many Catholic schools used to benefit from a comparative advantage in the

<sup>31</sup> Wodon (2019c).

<sup>32</sup> Grace (2002a, 2002b).

<sup>33</sup> World Bank (2018). Among companion studies, see Bashir et al. (2018) for sub-Saharan Africa. For more

recent data on learning poverty, including in terms of simulations for the impact of the covid-19 pandemic, see World Bank et al. (2022).

form of skilled and low-cost teachers from religious orders, this is less the case today.

School responses to rising competitive pressures will need to be based on local contexts, but it seems clear that the need to

excel not only academically but also in other dimensions of the education being provided by Catholic schools, may only intensify over time.

## CHAPTER 2

### ENROLLMENT TRENDS IN CATHOLIC HIGHER EDUCATION

For readers who may not be familiar with previous Global Catholic Education Reports, this chapter reproduces the analysis of enrollment trends in Catholic higher education included in previous reports, but with data updated to 2019. After a brief introduction providing background, trends in enrollment from 1980 to 2019 are documented and briefly discussed.

#### Introduction

Globally, the Catholic Church estimates that in 2019, 6.7 million students were enrolled in Catholic institutions of higher education. This includes 2.4 million students in higher institutes, 0.5 million students in ecclesiastical studies at the university level, and 3.8 million students in other types of university studies<sup>34</sup>.

How has enrollment in Catholic institutions of higher education evolved over time? Does enrollment remain concentrated in few high income countries, or is it increasing in the global south? In which region is enrollment the largest and where is it growing fastest? How is enrollment split between universities and other institutions of higher education, and by types of studies within universities (ecclesiastical and other studies)? To answer these questions, as done in the previous chapter for enrollment trends in K12 schools, this chapter documents trends in enrollment in Catholic institutions of higher education from 1980 to 2019 and discusses some of the implications for the future of these institutions<sup>35</sup>.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, it is often argued that Catholic education provide special benefits to students and the broader society. First, there is a perception that the

education provided in Catholic institutions of higher education is comparatively of good quality. Second, while welcoming students from all religious backgrounds, Catholic institutions pride themselves in providing an education that is grounded in the Catholic faith and that emphasizes moral values. The question of Catholic identity or “What makes us different?” is often the focus of debates in scholarly work on Catholic education. At the same time, Catholic institutions are not immune to broader challenges faced by all institutions of higher learning, whether Catholic or not. There could even be a risk of focusing too much on issues related to Catholic identity at the expense of confronting other challenges.

This chapter is written in a context of rising competitive pressures facing institutions of higher learning in both developed and developing countries, as well as persistent difficulties. These pressures are also observed for K12 schools, but they may be even stronger for higher education. In a relatively recent report, the World Bank’s Independent Evaluation Group<sup>36</sup> identified three core challenges faced by institutions of higher learning in developing countries, which also apply for the most part in developed countries.

Challenges faced by institutions of higher learning in developing countries include a lack of equity in access, risks of low quality, and lack of employability for graduates. These challenges are also present in high income countries.

First, access to universities and other institutions of higher learning remains highly unequitable, with the poor often excluded. This

<sup>34</sup> Secretariat of State of the Vatican (2021).

<sup>35</sup>The chapter updates with the most recent data available analysis published previously in several

papers (Wodon, 2018c, 2020c, 2021a). On Catholic higher education, see also Wodon (2022c, 2022d).

<sup>36</sup> World Bank (2017).

is especially problematic for Catholic institutions given their aim, in one way or another, to contribute to the preferential option for the poor. Realistically, Catholic institutions of higher learning will continue to face equity challenges in the foreseeable future.

The second challenge is the low quality in the education being provided by many institutions of higher learning, which contributes to delays in graduation and higher costs for both students and states. The problem of low quality is also prevalent in K12 education in many countries as noted by the World Development Report 2018 on the learning crisis<sup>37</sup>. Better preparation for students at the secondary level should help, but efforts to improve quality in institutions of higher learning are also key.

The third challenge is that of employability with, again in many countries, high rates of unemployment and underemployment among university graduates. This comes in part from the issue of low quality, but it also relates to insufficient interactions between universities and the private sector. What students learn is not necessarily what is needed in the labor market<sup>38</sup>.

While a university education should not cater only to the demand from the labor market, it should lead to adequate employment opportunities given the financial sacrifices made by students, parents, and tax payers for acquiring tertiary education. In low income countries where the formal sector is small, this could for example mean putting a stronger emphasis on entrepreneurial skills, as well as a shift towards fields of study where labor demand is stronger.

While these challenges may be more severe in the developing world, they also apply to developed countries. This can be illustrated in

the case of the United States. While enrollment at the tertiary level is much more widespread than in developing countries, low income students do face serious and rising challenges to acquire post-secondary education. Quality is perceived to be an issue, with substantial heterogeneity between institutions in the value added being provided and associated concerns about the cost of college (after years of cost increases above inflation) in comparison to potential benefits. This concern relates itself in part to concerns about the availability of well-paying jobs after graduation and the vulnerability inherent to the 'gig economy' and the broader pressures from the changing nature of work<sup>39</sup>.

As for Catholic K12 schools, data on enrollment in Catholic higher education are available in the Catholic Church's annual statistical yearbooks. This chapter documents global and regional trends in enrollment from 1980 to 2019.

The objective of this chapter is to provide a broad overview of trends in enrollment in Catholic higher education globally and regionally from 1980 to 2019. Growth or even stability in enrollment is probably not a primary objective of Catholic institutions of higher education, but it does matter. A healthy enrollment level is necessary for financial sustainability in an increasingly competitive higher education market. It also contributes to the evangelization mission of the Church. Beyond the Church, as for K12 education, Catholic higher education provides benefits to society at large. Catholic institutions of higher learning provide choice for students and thereby contribute to pluralism in democratic societies. There are also indications that Catholic

---

<sup>37</sup> World Bank (2018).

<sup>38</sup> See World Bank (2019) on the future of work and its implications for education.

<sup>39</sup> See World Bank (2019). Limited funding from governments whose budgets are often stretched may be of the factors contributing to low quality in

education and as a result lack of employability for graduates. Affordability is especially an issue in the developing world, but it matters also in developed countries. In the United States, declining support from states for tuition at public colleges and universities has contributed to higher student debt.

institutions of higher education perform relatively well, including in terms of graduation rates. Finally, as for other private colleges and universities, Catholic institutions generate substantial savings for state budgets since most of the cost of education is born by students or their family.

As is the case for other universities, Catholic universities must follow the evaluation processes and quality standards that prevail in their country. In addition, guidance is also provided by the Holy See on specific aspects. The documents providing that guidance differ between (the minority of) ecclesiastical or pontifical universities and other universities<sup>40</sup>.

In most countries including those with a strong Catholic tradition, many students attending Catholic institutions are not Catholic themselves. In the United States for example, just over half of first year students at four-year Catholic colleges and universities self-identify as Catholic. While a majority of students in Catholic institutions of higher learning globally are enrolled in colleges and universities, the Church also runs a large number of other institutions at the post-secondary level, especially in the developing world. In India for example, apart from a dozen large medical colleges and universities, the Catholic Church operated recently approximately 25 management institutions, 300 professional colleges and engineering institutes, 450 degree colleges, and 5,500 junior colleges, all of which are post-secondary institutions<sup>41</sup>.

---

<sup>40</sup> Ecclesiastical or pontifical universities and faculties are established or recognized by the Holy See and may grant ecclesiastical degrees in theology, philosophy, and Canon Law. They are governed by Pope Francis' Apostolic Constitution *Veritatis Gaudium* which updated guidance from *Sapientia Christiana*. Most Catholic universities are governed instead by Pope John Paul's Apostolic Constitution *Ex Corde Ecclesiae*. Beyond a focus on theology and

## Trends in Enrollment

Data on the number of students in Catholic higher education are available in the Church's annual statistical yearbooks<sup>42</sup>. As noted in chapter 1, the data are self-reported by chancery offices of ecclesiastical jurisdictions through an annual questionnaire. Less than five percent of the jurisdictions do not fill the questionnaire, and those tend to be small, thus not affecting results substantially.

Based on those data, Table 2.1 provides estimates of enrollment in Catholic institutions of higher education for the three categories of students mentioned earlier and for the total number of students enrolled. As in chapter 1, except for the last time period, the data are provided by ten-year intervals from 1980 to 2019 globally and for five regions: Africa, the Americas, Asia, Europe, and Oceania. These regional aggregates are used because they are the ones according to which data are reported in the statistical yearbooks. Data are also provided for 2018 to analyze recent trends.

In 2019, 6.7 million students were enrolled in Catholic Higher Education. Of those, 2.4 million were in higher institutes, 0.5 million were enrolled in ecclesiastical studies in universities, and 3.8 million were studying other topics at Catholic universities. Figures 2.1 through 2.4 visualize the trends in enrollment by region and globally. The analysis is kept at that level to keep the Tables manageable, but data are available at the country level in the statistical yearbooks.

A few findings are worth emphasizing. First, the trends in Figures 2.1 through 2.4 suggest substantial growth in enrollment over

related disciplines, Catholic universities often provide training in religious sciences more broadly, including for future teachers of Catholic religion. Across the various types of Catholic universities, most students are actually enrolled in secular as opposed to religious programs, even if they may be required to take one or more courses in religious studies.

<sup>41</sup> Manidapam (2018).

<sup>42</sup> Secretariat of State of the Vatican (2021).

time. The combined enrollment in Catholic higher education grew three-fold globally between 1980 and 2019, from 2.2 million students to 6.7 million. Catholic higher education thus grew even faster than K12 education. But while for K12 education most of the growth was in Africa, for tertiary education most of the growth in absolute terms took place in the Americas (gain of 1.9 million students), Asia (gain of 1.2 million students), and Europe (gain of 0.9 million students). In terms of annual growth rates, as will be discussed below, Africa

is doing well, but it is starting from a low base, so that absolute gains remain smaller.

In terms of the three categories of students, the largest gains were observed in absolute terms for university students not engaged in ecclesiastical studies and students in higher institutes. For students in ecclesiastical studies, large gains were also observed, but with a slight decline over the last year which could potentially be related to the crisis in vocations, although more detailed analysis would be needed to ascertain whether this is the case.

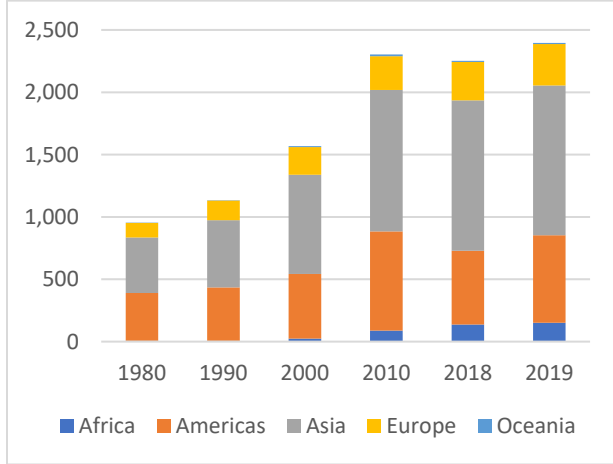
**Table 2.1: Trends in the Number of Students Enrolled in Catholic Higher Education (Thousands)**

	1980	1990	2000	2010	2018	2019
	Higher Institutes					
Africa	6.5	6.8	24.8	88.4	137.2	150.9
Americas	383.0	427.9	517.5	795.1	591.9	702.4
Asia	445.9	539.6	795.7	1,135.7	1,205.6	1,200.7
Europe	116.3	157.2	221.8	270.5	308.5	332.3
Oceania	3.1	2.7	8.8	14.5	8.6	9.2
<b>World</b>	954.7	1,134.2	1,568.6	2,304.2	2,251.6	2,395.5
	Universities – Ecclesiastical Studies					
Africa	1.0	1.4	5.8	15.6	49.6	51.2
Americas	28.5	31.9	53.9	158.4	233.1	232.2
Asia	7.0	8.7	71.5	184.3	129.3	112.3
Europe	29.0	52.7	65.8	116.0	89.2	93.5
Oceania	1.3	1.7	3.8	12.4	6.7	6.5
<b>World</b>	66.8	96.5	200.9	486.7	507.9	495.7
	Universities – Other Studies					
Africa	0.9	2.1	41.1	106.2	177.5	197.9
Americas	870.3	1,070.2	2,088.5	2,183.6	2,187.0	2,286.7
Asia	169.4	376.1	467.3	490.7	518.2	544.8
Europe	98.2	149.9	332.7	541.7	788.0	756.8
Oceania	0.2	2.6	5.1	16.2	36.9	46.8
<b>World</b>	1,138.9	1,600.9	2,934.7	3,338.5	3,707.6	3,833.0
	Total					
Africa	8.3	10.3	71.7	210.1	364.3	400.1
Americas	1,281.8	1,530.0	2,660.0	3,137.2	3,012.0	3,221.3
Asia	622.2	924.4	1,334.6	1,810.8	1,853.0	1,857.8
Europe	243.5	359.9	620.3	928.2	1,185.6	1,182.5
Oceania	4.6	7.0	17.7	43.1	52.2	62.5
<b>World</b>	2,160.4	2,831.7	4,704.2	6,129.3	6,467.1	6,724.2

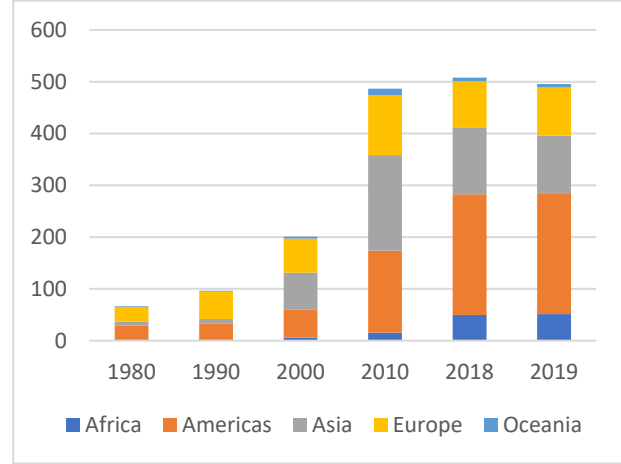
Source: Author, compiled from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.



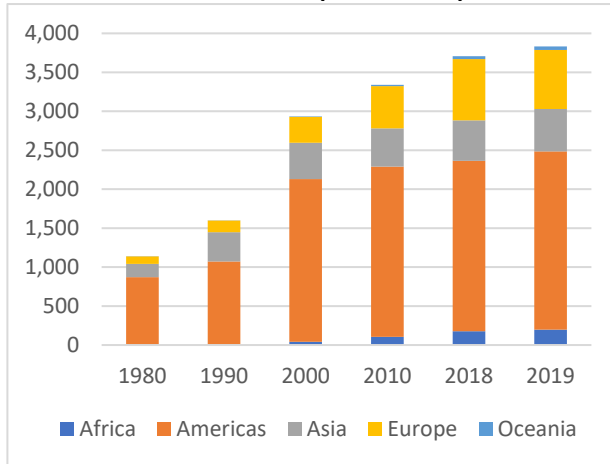
**Figure 2.1: Enrollment in Catholic Higher Institutes (Thousands)**



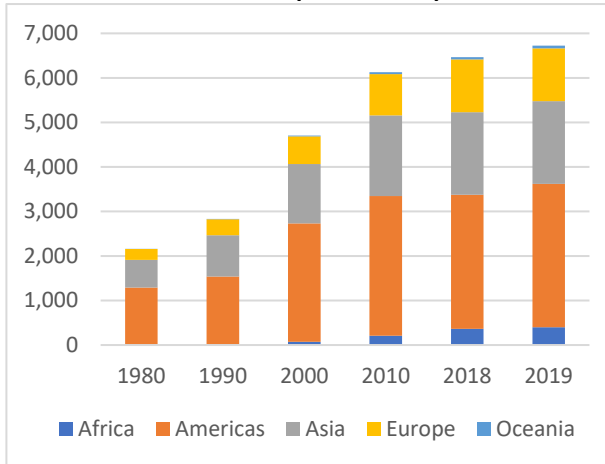
**Figure 2.2: Enrollment in Catholic Universities: Ecclesiastical Studies (Thousands)**



**Figure 2.3: Enrollment in Catholic Universities: Other Studies (Thousands)**



**Figure 2.4: Total Enrollment in Catholic Higher Education (Thousands)**



Source: Author, compiled from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

Second, as shown in Table 2.2 and Figure 2.5, there are differences between regions in the share of students enrolled by type of higher education. Globally, students in universities account for 57.0 percent of total enrollment, versus 35.6 percent for students in higher institutes. Asia, where India plays a major role (given virtually no Catholic institutions in China), is the only one of the five regions where most students are enrolled in higher institutes. This is related in part to the explosion of private non-university institutions of higher education in India as a response to a demand from the rising middle class for higher education. Globally,

within university students, there are about eight students in non-ecclesiastical studies for each student in ecclesiastical studies, but again with regional differences.

Globally, students in universities account for 57.0 percent of total enrollment, versus 35.6 percent for students in higher institutes. Yet in Asia, where India plays a major role, a majority of students are in higher institutes.

Globally, the shares of students enrolled in higher institutes and universities did not fundamentally change over the last four

decades, despite ups and downs by five-year intervals. Among universities, there was a rise for some time of the share of students enrolled in ecclesiastical studies, but that share declined in recent years. Still, in 1980, these students represented only three percent of total enrollment in Catholic higher education globally. By 2019, this had risen to 7.4 percent especially thanks to gains in the Americas and Asia. By contrast, in Europe and Oceania, there was a substantial decline in the share of students in ecclesiastical studies since 2010, albeit from higher baseline levels. Note that at the regional level, there are a few jumps in the shares reported in Table 2.2 for ecclesiastical studies.

This is due in part to the fact that estimates of enrollment for these students are smaller in absolute terms, especially in Oceania, so that even comparatively small changes can lead to jumps in shares. There may also be some issues of comparability across years.

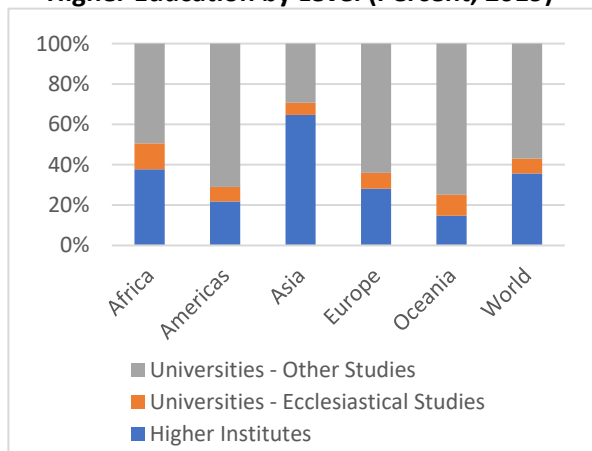
There has been a steady rise of the share of students enrolled in ecclesiastical studies. In 1980, they represented only three percent of total enrollment in Catholic higher education globally. By 2019, the share was at 7.4 percent, although with a recent decline in this share.

**Table 2.2: Proportion of Students Enrolled in Catholic Institutions of Higher Education by Type (%)**

	1980	1990	2000	2010	2018	2019
<b>Higher Institutes</b>						
Africa	77.5	66.3	34.6	42.1	37.7	37.7
Americas	29.9	28.0	19.5	25.3	19.7	21.8
Asia	71.7	58.4	59.6	62.7	65.1	64.6
Europe	47.8	43.7	35.8	29.1	26.0	28.1
Oceania	67.4	38.0	49.6	33.7	16.4	14.7
<b>World</b>	44.2	40.1	33.3	37.6	34.8	35.6
<b>Universities – Ecclesiastical Studies</b>						
Africa	11.6	13.6	8.1	7.4	13.6	12.8
Americas	2.2	2.1	2.0	5.0	7.7	7.2
Asia	1.1	0.9	5.4	10.2	7.0	6.0
Europe	11.9	14.7	10.6	12.5	7.5	7.9
Oceania	29.4	24.6	21.7	28.8	12.9	10.4
<b>World</b>	3.1	3.4	4.3	7.9	7.9	7.4
<b>Universities – Other Studies</b>						
Africa	10.8	20.2	57.3	50.5	48.7	49.5
Americas	67.9	69.9	78.5	69.6	72.6	71.0
Asia	27.2	40.7	35.0	27.1	28.0	29.3
Europe	40.3	41.7	53.6	58.4	66.5	64.0
Oceania	3.3	37.5	28.7	37.6	70.7	74.9
<b>World</b>	52.7	56.5	62.4	54.5	57.3	57.0

Source: Author, compiled from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

**Figure 2.5: Proportion of Students in Catholic Higher Education by Level (Percent, 2019)**

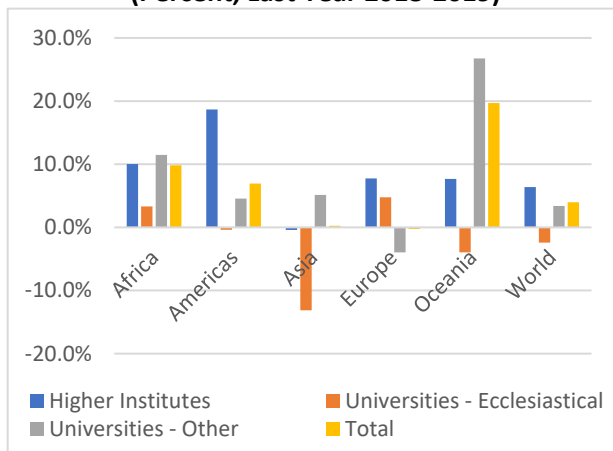


Source: Author, compiled from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

Third, in proportionate terms, as a percentage change from the base, the highest growth rates in overall enrollment are observed in Africa, even though in absolute terms larger gains are reported in other regions. Annual growth rates by decade from 1980 to 2019 (taking into account compounding) are provided in Table 2.3 and visualized for the last year (from 2018 to 2019) in Figure 2.6. In Africa and Oceania, total enrollment grew especially rapidly. In the case of Africa, if the growth in enrollment continues to be higher than in the rest of the world, the region will account for a progressively larger share in total enrollment, but this will take some time. As mentioned earlier, there was a contraction in enrollment in ecclesiastical studies in recent years.

Fourth, as is the case in K12 education, there are substantial differences between countries in the size of their Catholic higher education networks. Table 2.4 provides data on the top 15 countries in terms of total enrollment in 2019. Together, these countries account for about four fifths of global enrollment. By comparison, the top 15 countries account for about two thirds of global enrollment in Catholic K12 schools. As expected given the correlation between enrollment in higher education and economic development, there is a higher concentration of enrollment in a few countries

**Figure 2.6: Annual Growth Rates in Enrollment (Percent, Last Year 2018-2019)**



for higher education than for K12 education. The country with the largest enrollment is the United States, with 1.2 million students in higher education. Three large developing countries follow: India, the Philippines, and Brazil. Italy is next, possibly in part because of a concentration of students in ecclesiastical and other studies in Rome.

As for K12 education, the smallest country with a large enrollment in Catholic higher education is Belgium. This is in part because under the Constitution, Catholic schools and universities institutions benefit from public funding.

One of the smallest country in the mix by population size in Table 2.4 is again Belgium, as was the case for K12 education. This is in part because under the Constitution, Catholic higher education institutions benefit from public funding as do public universities. None of the countries in the top 15 are classified as low income by the World Bank (low income countries have a level of Gross National Income per capita of \$1,085 or less in 2021). By contrast, for K12 education, three of the top five countries in terms of total enrollment are low income (the Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, and Uganda).

**Table 2.3: Annual Growth Rate for Enrollment in Catholic Institutions of Higher Education (%)**

	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	2010-2019	2018-2019
<b>Higher Institutes</b>					
Africa	0.5%	13.8%	13.6%	6.1%	10.0%
Americas	1.1%	1.9%	4.4%	-1.4%	18.7%
Asia	1.9%	4.0%	3.6%	0.6%	-0.4%
Europe	3.1%	3.5%	2.0%	2.3%	7.7%
Oceania	-1.4%	12.5%	5.1%	-4.9%	7.7%
<b>World</b>	1.7%	3.3%	3.9%	0.4%	6.4%
<b>Universities – Ecclesiastical Studies</b>					
Africa	3.4%	15.3%	10.4%	14.2%	3.3%
Americas	1.1%	5.4%	11.4%	4.3%	-0.4%
Asia	2.2%	23.4%	9.9%	-5.4%	-13.1%
Europe	6.2%	2.2%	5.8%	-2.4%	4.8%
Oceania	2.7%	8.4%	12.6%	-7.0%	-4.0%
<b>World</b>	3.7%	7.6%	9.3%	0.2%	-2.4%
<b>Universities – Other Studies</b>					
Africa	8.8%	34.6%	10.0%	7.2%	11.5%
Americas	2.1%	6.9%	0.4%	0.5%	4.6%
Asia	8.3%	2.2%	0.5%	1.2%	5.1%
Europe	4.3%	8.3%	5.0%	3.8%	-4.0%
Oceania	29.2%	7.0%	12.3%	12.5%	26.8%
<b>World</b>	3.5%	6.2%	1.3%	1.5%	3.4%
<b>Total</b>					
Africa	2.2%	21.4%	11.4%	7.4%	9.8%
Americas	1.8%	5.7%	1.7%	0.3%	6.9%
Asia	4.0%	3.7%	3.1%	0.3%	0.3%
Europe	4.0%	5.6%	4.1%	2.7%	-0.3%
Oceania	4.3%	9.7%	9.3%	4.2%	19.7%
<b>World</b>	2.7%	5.2%	2.7%	1.0%	4.0%

Source: Author, compiled from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

**Table 2.4: Top 15 Countries by Enrollment in Catholic Higher Education, 2019**

	Higher Institutes	Univ. - Eccl.	Univ. - Others	Total
United States	365,686	27,725	848,549	1,241,960
India	752,739	19,317	133,395	905,451
Brazil	28,603	90,867	446,355	565,825
Philippines	340,685	50,635	162,113	553,433
Italy	6,227	23,984	301,515	331,726
Colombia	16,343	3,245	256,280	275,868
Mexico	38,414	21,401	176,758	236,573
Great Britain	53,550	118	181,123	234,791
Belgium	125,842	2,731	77,940	206,513
Chile	91,289	323	110,971	202,583
Argentina	60,967	654	101,097	162,718
France	81,013	26,269	17,504	124,786
Spain	15,797	3,089	96,915	115,801
Peru	27,564	645	86,168	114,377
Ecuador	1,064	44,261	50,136	95,461

Source: Author, compiled from the annual statistical yearbooks of the Church.

Note: (\*) The estimate for non-ecclesiastic university studies for Great Britain seems erroneous. See Box 2.1.

### **Box 2.1: Quality of Enrollment Data**

This report relies on data from the annual statistical yearbooks to measure trends over time in enrollment. In most cases, the data are consistent over time and appear reasonably accurate. But in a few instances, this may not be the case. In Table 2.4, the estimate of enrollment in non-ecclesiastic university studies for Great Britain is too high and may not be correct given the small number of Catholic universities in the country. In the Global Catholic Education Report 2021, the corresponding data point for the year 2018 was of a similar order of magnitude. However, in the 2016 and 2017 yearbooks, the corresponding estimates were much lower, at less than 40,000 students, which seems much closer to actual enrollment. For this report, potential data errors at the level of individual countries are not too consequential because analysis is done at the aggregate level. But when conducting country-level work, it is particularly important to check for consistency over time.

Fifth, the fact that the highest growth rates in enrollment in Catholic higher education over the last four decades is observed for students in ecclesiastical studies may be good news for the Church. As mentioned earlier, these students account for a small but growing share of all students in universities, and their numbers are rising fastest in Africa and to a lower extent Asia. These are also the two regions where the number of diocesan priests has been increasing the most in recent years, but the trend may also reflect the rising number of permanent deacons in comparison to priests in the Church. While this is beyond the scope of this report, it would be useful in subsequent work to look in more details at the factors explaining the long-term increase in the number of students in ecclesiastical studies, as well as the recent decline.

### **Summing Up**

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a simple descriptive analysis of trends in enrollment in Catholic higher education globally using the same approach as that in Chapter 2 so that comparisons in terms of stylized facts are easier to make. Five main findings emerge from the data.

First, enrollment in Catholic higher education grew three-fold between 1980 and 2019 globally, reaching 6.7 million students by 2019. In the long run, one can expect growth to continue given higher demand from higher completion rates for secondary education as well as population growth especially in the developing world over time.

Second, in most regions, Catholic institutions enroll more students in universities than in higher institutes, but in Asia, the reverse is observed, in large part because of the particularities of India where there has been rapid growth in enrollment in higher education institutions that are not universities (this is also true for non-Catholic private higher education).

Third, in proportionate terms, as a percentage change from the base, the highest growth rates in enrollment are observed in Africa. In absolute terms by contrast, larger gains are reported in other regions, with most of the students in Catholic higher education still residing in high and middle income countries. Growth in enrollment has slowed however in recent years.

Fourth, there are substantial differences between countries in the size of their Catholic higher education networks. The United States still has the largest enrollment, but India is progressively catching up.

Finally, within universities, there has been over the last few decades a steady rise of the share of students enrolled in ecclesiastical studies, but that share dropped in recent years.

## PART II ENDING VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS

### CHAPTER 3 PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE IN SCHOOL

One of the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic has been a worsening of factors associated with violence against children and women. While schools were closed for many months, the pandemic has led to higher risks of violence at home, and possibly higher risks of violence in schools once children returned to school. More generally, the pandemic has affected mental health negatively. Part 2 II of this report is about the need to end violence in schools, including in Catholic schools. Given that a key objective of the Global Catholic Education Reports series is to share insights from the international community on what works to improve education systems, the analysis in this chapter is based in large part on excerpts from a recent report by the author at the World Bank<sup>43</sup> with additional illustrative analysis for Catholic schools. This chapter introduces the types of violence that children may be affected by and provides estimates of the prevalence of violence in and around schools (VIAS).

#### Introduction

Violence is a ubiquitous problem in schools in many communities throughout the world, directly affecting teachers and students and indirectly having an impact on the wider community itself. It has multiple, lasting impacts on students. It also undermines the ability of communities and governments to create schools that are safe harbors where children and adolescents can develop their abilities and skills

<sup>43</sup> Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021). Chata Malé and Ada Nayihouba made very substantial contributions to the analysis in the World Bank study from which this chapter is adapted.

while also embracing the values of cooperation, mutual respect, peaceful problem solving, inclusion, and gender equality. This chapter first defines the various forms of VIAS before providing information on their prevalence using a range of data sets. The issues of corporal punishment in schools, the continuum of violence, the risk of poly-victimization, and the transmission of violence across generations are also briefly discussed. The chapter then provides measures of the prevalence of VIAS based on a range of surveys.

#### Types of Violence

A commonly accepted definition of violence comes from the World Health Organization's 2002 World Report on Violence and Health<sup>44</sup> which, following an earlier consultation<sup>45</sup>, defined violence as *"the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against a person or group that results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment, or deprivation."*

Violence results from an abusive use of force or power against a person. The harm can be actual or threatened and may take different forms.

Violence is the result of an abusive use of force or power against a person. The harm can be actual or threatened and it may take different forms. It can lead to injury or death, but also to

<sup>44</sup> Krug et al. (2002).

<sup>45</sup> WHO Global Consultation on Violence and Health (1996).

trauma or other mental health symptoms. As such, the consequences of violence may not always be highly visible, but they are nevertheless damaging. Violence is also often multidimensional, meaning that individuals are often subjected to multiple forms of violence and in multiple locations, not only (for children) at school, but also at home and in communities, including online communities.

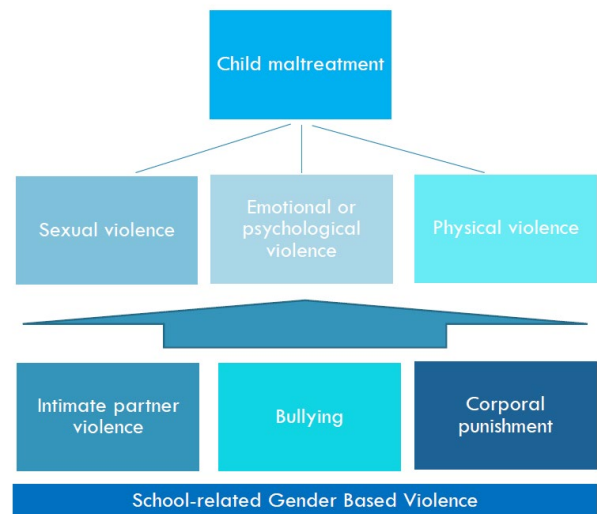
Figure 3.1 provides a diagram with key concepts often used when talking about violence against children. Child abuse is a broad category that reflects among others violence and neglect occurring to children under 18 years of age. It includes all types of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect, negligence and commercial or other exploitation, which results in actual or potential harm to the child’s health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power. Exposure to intimate partner violence is also sometimes included as a form of child abuse. Abuse is a broader concept than violence per se, but all three main forms of violence – sexual and emotional or psychological, and physical violence contribute to abuse:

- *Sexual violence* is defined as any sexual act, intimidation, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances against another individual using coercion. In addition to the lasting physical and psychological damage that sexual violence frequently exacts on victims, it also can have subsequent and lasting negative effects on victims’ health in terms of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), and other health issues.
- *Emotional or psychological violence* may include verbal and emotional abuse, such as isolating, rejecting, ignoring, insulting, spreading rumors, making up lies, name-calling, ridiculing, humiliating and threatening. It can be inflicted in schools by student as, but also by teachers through forms of punishment that humiliate, denigrate, scapegoat, threaten, scare, or ridicule students, frequently

again with long-term consequences for the children’s health and well-being. While emotional violence may be less visible than physical or sexual violence, it can also have significant and lasting impacts on students.

- *Physical violence* is any form of physical aggression with intent to hurt another person. It can manifest itself from student to student, student to teacher, or teacher to student. One manifestation of teacher to student violence is corporal punishment which remains used in many schools as a form of discipline mechanism to correct misbehavior in the classroom, or punish children for poor academic performance or other reasons. Physical violence is the most common form of violence in schools and is highly visible to all students.

**Figure 3.1: Forms of Violence in and Around Schools (VIAS)**



Source: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021).

In addition to those three broad categories or forms of violence, given the specific focus of this study on violence in and around schools, Figure 3.1 also highlights particular types of violence which can themselves sometimes be expressed in multiple

ways through physical, emotional, or sexual violence.

- *Bullying* is defined as unwanted, unwelcomed, repeated aggressive behavior among students, and is among the most common forms of violence in school settings. As for other types of violence, bullying can have serious and lasting physical, mental and emotional problems for victims. In an era of rapid technological growth, and in the context of a higher emphasis placed on remote learning brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic, cyberbullying (bullying which takes place over digital devices) has become a front-and-center issue that schools, educators, parents, and communities must struggle with. Bullying and cyberbullying are highly prevalent in schools.
- *Corporal punishment* is also a common form of violence against children worldwide. It includes any punishment in which physical force is used and intended to cause some degree of pain or discomfort, however light, as well as cruel and degrading non-physical forms of punishment. Corporal punishment remains highly prevalent in schools as a way to discipline students.
- *Intimate partner violence* or IPV refers to any behavior within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship. Dating violence between students is a form of IPV and VIAS, while sexual harassment on the way to or from school by individuals who are not a partner is a form of VIAS, but not of IPV.

Finally, Figure 3.1 highlights gender-based violence, which refers to acts or threats of sexual, physical, or emotional violence occurring in and around schools, perpetrated as a result of

gender norms and stereotypes, and enforced by unequal gender dynamics. When considering gender-based violence in schools, it is important to understand the link between violence against women and violence against children. This link persists through the intergenerational transmission of violence and the gendered continuum of violence. Children who have witnessed or experienced violence at home at an early age are more likely to either perpetrate violence or be victimized when they grow up. Child maltreatment is particularly damaging for the child's development, but simply witnessing violence is also damaging. Children who live in a household where the mother or other women are chronic victims of violence face higher risk factors for future violence or victimization.

Different forms of violence reinforce each other and tend to feed a self-reproducing cycle. This is referred to as the continuum of violence from the home to the streets to the school, where victimized children tend to experience violence in multiple places, often in multiple forms. The root causes for this continuum of violence include patriarchal systems that endorse the use and abuse of power over others, installing a hierarchy among forms of violence that tends to acknowledge the severity of some (for example, when men are mostly victims) while understating the impacts of others (for example, when women and children are affected). As such, systematically looking at violence dynamics and risk factors with a gender lens is crucial in identifying sustainable solutions.

### **Prevalence of Violence in Schools Globally**

Reports and studies<sup>46</sup> have been published on the prevalence of various forms of violence, including in and around schools. For violence in schools, analysis typically relies on multi-country school health surveys which focus

---

<sup>46</sup> See among others UNICEF (2014), Office of the SRSG on Violence against Children (2016), Hillis et al. (2016), UNICEF (2017, 2019), Know Violence in

Childhood (2017), UNESCO (2019), and World Health Organization et al. (2020).



on physical violence and bullying, although other types of surveys can be used for specific countries. In a recent report on the prevalence of violence in schools globally, UNESCO finds that a third of students are bullied by their peers at school at least once in the last month and a similar proportion are affected by physical violence. Among the subset of countries with trends over time, half of the countries had a decline in violence, one fifth had an increase, and there was no change over time in prevalence in the other countries. This suggests that without more forceful programs and policies, limited progress is likely to be achieved over time<sup>47</sup>.

Table 3.1 provides a summary of estimates prepared for the World Bank report on the prevalence of VIAS from a range of surveys. Three of the surveys are implemented in secondary schools: (1) the Global School Health Survey (GSHS) which includes mostly low and middle income countries; (2) the Health Behavior in School-Age Children survey (HBSC) which includes mostly European countries as well as Canada and a few countries from the MENA region; and (3) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) which includes mostly middle and high income countries. The other two surveys are implemented in the population as a whole: the Violence against Children Survey (VACS) and the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), both of which have been implemented in low and middle income countries. Details are available in background notes. Estimates are averages across countries.

The proportions of children involved in fights or victims of bullying are broadly similar in both the GSHS and HBSC surveys for which

questions tend also to be broadly comparable. In the PISA survey, the questions that are asked are different<sup>48</sup>, but the estimates of VIAS are of the same order of magnitude as in the GSHS and HBSC surveys. The share of children affected by physical violence is a bit lower in the VACS surveys. For other forms of emotional violence and for sexual violence (not available in GSHS and HBSC surveys), proportions are lower in the VACS, but due to limits in the data as well as the possibility of underreporting, actual values could be larger. In the DHS, sexual violence (being forced to have sex) likely to happen in school is limited, but may be underreported, for example when the topic is considered taboo. Unfortunately, data on sexual harassment which affects mostly girls are not widely available.

The prevalence of VIAS is high in most countries, with typically a third of all students being subjected to bullying and more than a third involved in fights. Sexual violence is less common, but nevertheless prevalent and likely to be underestimated in surveys.

Overall, the data indicate that the prevalence of VIAS is high in most countries. This said, there needs to be some caution on differences in prevalence between countries since the data sets are limited in geographical scope and age groups included, and the measures used for different surveys are not always the same and therefore not strictly comparable, even if the surveys have many commonalities.

pushed around by other students; and (6) Other students spread nasty rumors about them. Among those, (1) and (2) are not strictly speaking measures of violence and therefore are not reported here, but they are included as controls in subsequent regression analysis.

<sup>47</sup> UNESCO (2019).

<sup>48</sup> In PISA, children are asked if during the past 12 months, they (1) were left me out of things on purpose by other students; (2) other students made fun of them; (3) they were threatened by other students; (4) other students took away or destroyed things that belonged to them; (5) they got hit or

**Table 3.1: Prevalence of Violence in Schools in Multi-country Surveys (%)**

	GSHS	HBSC	PISA	VACS	DHS
<b>GSHS and HBSC surveys</b>					
Attacked in last 12 months	37.8	-	-	-	-
Involved in fight in last 12 months	27.6	31.2	-	-	-
Injured in last 12 months	31.3	44.5	-	-	-
Injured from fight	1.5	1.8	-	-	-
Bullied in last 30 days	29.5	29.0	-	-	-
<b>PISA Assessments</b>					
Threatened by other students	-	-	23.8	-	-
Others destroyed my things	-	-	26.5	-	-
Hit by other students	-	-	23.4	-	-
Nasty rumors about me	-	-	33.5	-	-
<b>VACS and DHS surveys</b>					
Physical violence in schools	-	-	-	28.7	-
Emotional violence in schools	-	-	-	3.5(*)	-
Sexual violence in schools	-	-	-	2.8(*)	1.5(*)

Source: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021).

Note: (\*) The prevalence of emotional and sexual violence in VACS and DHS surveys may be underestimated.

The COVID-19 pandemic may have led to higher levels of violence, including in school once students returned to school. This is because the pandemic is likely to have exacerbated some of the factors that lead to violence against children in general, and violence in schools in particular. Many individuals and households are under stress due among others to social isolation, losses in employment and income, and illnesses or death from the pandemic.

Initial predictions of the economic impacts of the crisis were dire<sup>49</sup> for both developed<sup>50</sup> and developing countries<sup>51</sup>. Estimates suggested that the crisis may have led to an increase in the number of poor people of 150 million<sup>52</sup>. Of those, about half are children. According to the World Food Programme, the number of people suffering from acute hunger

doubled<sup>53</sup>. Student learning suffers during recessions<sup>54</sup>, and estimates suggested that learning poverty – the share of children not able to read and understand a simple text, could increase by 10 percentage points under a pessimistic scenario<sup>55</sup>. For schooling, girls are especially likely to be affected<sup>56</sup>, leading to higher risks of child marriage<sup>57</sup> with major implications for the rest of their life<sup>58</sup>. More generally, children from vulnerable groups, including not only girls and those in extreme poverty, but also children with disabilities, refugees and internally displaced persons, and other groups are especially at risk.

Over time many of these projections were revised, but with risks of a global recession, the consequences of the overlapping crises faced today by many countries may be severe, with

<sup>49</sup> International Monetary Fund (2020).

<sup>50</sup> For Europe, see European Commission (2020).

<sup>51</sup> For sub-Saharan Africa, see World Bank (2020a).

<sup>52</sup> World Bank (2020b).

<sup>53</sup> School lunch programs were also affected. These programs serve many children (World Food Programme, 2013, 2020).

<sup>54</sup> Shores and Steinberg (2019).

<sup>55</sup> Azevedo (2020), Azevedo et al. (2019).

<sup>56</sup> See UNDP (2015), Onyango et al. (2019), and Bandiera et al. (2019). See also World Bank (2020c) for a review, as well as Asfaw (2018) on Ethiopia, Dureya et al. (2007) and Cerutti et al. (2019) on Brazil, and Lim (2000) on the Philippines.

<sup>57</sup> Wodon et al. (2016), Wodon, Male et al. (2017), Kassa et al (2019).

<sup>58</sup> Wodon, Montenegro et al. (2018).

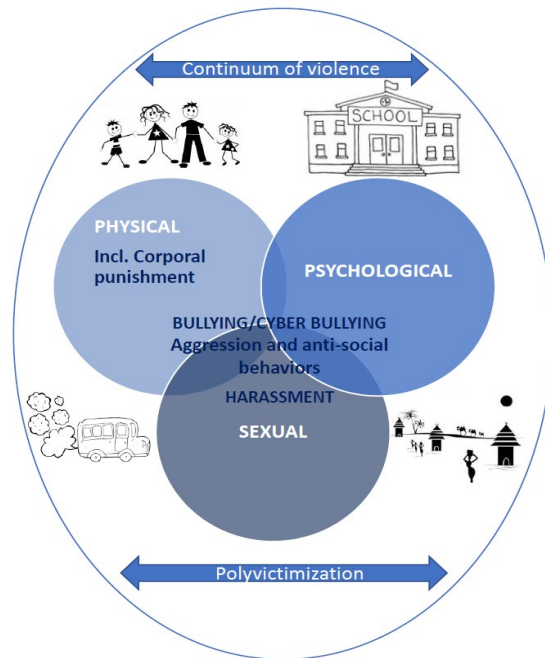
these overlapping crises leading to higher risks of violence<sup>59</sup>.

### Continuum of Violence and Poly-victimization

The various forms of violence often do not occur in isolation. Instead, they tend to reinforce each other. In addition children are often victims of violence in separate locales, at school but also at home and in the community. This feeds into a self-reproducing cycle<sup>60</sup> which can be referred to as the continuum of violence from the home to the streets to the school, where victimized children tend to experience violence in multiple places and often through multiple forms as suggested in Figure 3.2. Poly-victimization is another term used to refer to the fact that children may be affected by violence in multiple locales, as well as by multiple forms of violence – not only physical violence, but also sexual and emotional violence. In the United States, the National Survey of Children’s Exposure to Violence shows that for a child who experienced physical violence in the past year, the risks of being victim of sexual abuse and suffering from child maltreatment are five and four times higher, respectively.

Children’s poly-victimization has multiplier effects on their wellbeing and capacity to learn as children exposed to multiple forms of violence are at higher risk of lasting physical, mental and emotional harm. Poly-victimization has a cumulative negative effect that leads to complex trauma, which requires specific attention as it signals a child’s greater vulnerability and distress. Policymakers and stakeholders working in school need to take poly-victimization into account to respond to multiple layers of risks and distress, and to target the most vulnerable children<sup>61</sup>.

**Figure 3.2: Continuum of Violence and Poly-victimization**



Source: Adapted from UN Women and UNESCO<sup>62</sup>.

Children may be affected by violence in multiple locales, as well as by multiple forms of violence – not only physical violence, but also sexual and emotional violence.

As an illustration of poly-victimization at work in schools, Table 3.2 provides estimates of the marginal impact of one type of violence on the likelihood of being the victim of another type of violence using multi-country surveys (GSHS and HBSC). For example, in the GSHS surveys, the coefficient of 0.169 in the last column of the first row suggests that having been bullied is associated with an increase in the likelihood of having been attached by 16.9 percentage points. All coefficients in the Table are positive and statistically significant, suggesting positive associations between the various forms of violence and thus pointing to the fact that children are often the victims of multiple forms

<sup>59</sup> See UN Women (2021) on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on violence against women, and Bathia et al. (2021) on violence against children.

<sup>60</sup> Wilkins et al. (2019).

<sup>61</sup> Finkelhor et al. (2011).

<sup>62</sup> UN Women and UNESCO (2016).

of violence. This is not only the case in school, but also at home and in the community, leading to more serious trauma for the children affected.

**Table 3.2: Poly-victimization – Marginal Effects between Multiple Types of Violence**

	Attacked	Fought	Injured	Bullied
<b>GSHS</b>				
Attacked	-	0.268	0.140	0.169
Fought	0.256	-	0.143	0.122
Injured	0.127	0.136	-	0.138
Bullied	0.171	0.129	0.155	-
<b>HBSC</b>				
Fought	-	-	0.094	0.114
Injured	-	0.115	-	0.075
Bullied	-	0.107	0.058	-

Source: Authors' estimation based on GSHS and HBSC surveys.

One of the root causes for this continuum of violence is the patriarchal system that endorses the use and abuse of power over others, including by installing a hierarchy among forms of violence that tends to acknowledge the severity of some (when men are mostly victims) while possibly understating the impacts of others (for forms of violence that women and children mostly experience). In school, violence may also start with actions among students that may seem innocuous to educators, but they can escalate and lead to extreme consequences such as death or suicide. Understanding this continuum is critical to act early to prevent episodes of violence from escalating or prevent them from happening.

Some groups of children may be especially at risk of VIAS, in some cases with compounding effects when multiple risk factors are combined. Children who have witnessed or experienced violence at home, including at an early age, tend to have a higher probability to either perpetrate violence or be victimized when they grow up<sup>63</sup>. Violence in childhood is

particularly damaging, with consequences that can last for a life time<sup>64</sup>. Witnessing violence is also damaging as children. When the mother or another woman in the household is a victim of violence, children are at higher risk of both perpetrating violence or being a victim later in life<sup>65</sup>. Some groups of children are especially vulnerable to violence, for example when they are mocked by other children or not seen as equals. This is the case for children with disabilities as well as various minorities – including (depending on the country) ethnic, racial, religious, LGBTQ, and indigenous peoples<sup>66</sup>. Some studies suggest a link between violence against non-gender conforming students and suicidal behavior. The prevalence of various forms of VIAS also differs by gender and age. For example, the prevalence of physical violence and bullying tends to decrease among older students, although the severity of particular episodes of VIAS may in some cases increase.

### Prevalence of Violence in Catholic Schools

The estimates of the prevalence of violence in schools provided in Table 3.1 are based on national school surveys and other instruments. These surveys do not identify Catholic schools separately. It is therefore not feasible to provide regional or global estimates of violence in Catholic schools specifically. Data are however available in a handful of countries on violence in different types of schools, including faith-based or religious schools in comparison to other types of schools.

There are no cross-country data to assess the level of violence in Catholic versus other schools. But illustrative country data suggests that in some countries, Catholic schools may have less violence, while in others this is not the case.

<sup>63</sup> On LGBTQ, see for example Hotaling and Sugarman (1986), Bandura (1986), Fargo (2009).

<sup>64</sup> Zolotor et al. (1999), MacMillan et al. (2009).

<sup>65</sup> Bair-Merritt et al. (2006), Fulu et al. (2017), Jewkes et al. (2002), Meltzer et al. (2009), Guedes et al. (2016), Fry et al. (2018).

<sup>66</sup> UNESCO (2017).

### Box 3.1: Sexual Abuse Crisis in the Church

Multiple reports have been published on the sexual abuse crisis in the Catholic Church. In the United States, the Boston Globe exposed widespread abuse by priests in the Boston area and cover-up by the Church. A subsequent 2004 Church-commissioned report suggested that more than 4,000 priests had faced credible sexual abuse allegations in the United States between 1950 and 2002 (four percent of the number of priests in ministry during that period), involving more than 10,000 children<sup>67</sup>. These estimates are likely to underreport the actual prevalence of abuse. Subsequent revelations of abuse in various areas of the country have forced dioceses into bankruptcy. Similar scandals have emerged elsewhere. For example, in France, a 2021 report documented that 216,000 children were sexually abused by members of the clergy since 1950. While most instances of abuse do not take place in schools, some do.

Under the leadership of Pope Francis, the Catholic Church has intensified efforts to stem sexual abuse by clergy and other staff, including through a change in the Church's criminal code. As noted by Fr. Zollner in an interview (see excerpts in Box 3.3), the February 2019 summit on the protection of minors led to new norms on accountability of bishops and other Church leaders. Through the new law *Vos estis lux mundi*, this included the elimination of the pontifical secret in relation to cases of sexual abuse of minors and vulnerable adults, as well as greater involvement of the laity in criminal proceedings within the Church. In July 2020, a Vademecum was published, detailing procedural issues surrounding cases of sexual abuse of minors committed by clerics, in order to better interpret canon law and push for concrete action. It will be essential for the Church as well as well as other parties to monitor and assess whether these efforts are sufficient.

These country-level data suggest that while in some cases, violence in schools may be lower in Catholic and other faith-based schools, this is not always the case. To illustrate these findings, case studies are provided for the United States and Uganda. In addition, data for two Catholic schools in Nigeria (without comparisons with other types of schools) are also provided. Finally, while data on sexual violence in schools are hard to obtain<sup>68</sup>, it is clear that Catholic schools are not exempt from it (see Box 3.1).

#### *United States*

In the United States, estimations of the prevalence of violence in schools can be based on data from the School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey. The dataset is nationally representative and the survey is implemented among children aged 12 to 18. The analysis in this section is based on the 2015 and 2017 rounds of the survey. Using two successive surveys enables to check for robustness of the results between surveys. The survey makes it feasible to compare religious and public schools. Given that Catholic schools account for a majority of religious schools in the country, the estimates for religious schools are a good proxy for the levels of violence that could be encountered in Catholic schools.

In the United States, the prevalence of violence in schools is higher in public than private schools, whether religious or not. This suggests that Catholic schools tend to have a lower prevalence of violence than public schools.

Data are collected among others on (1) whether students were involved in the school year in one or more fights at school; (2) whether children were bullied, with multiple categories of bullying included (being made fun of, rumors spread, threatened with harm, pushed, shoved, tripped,

<sup>67</sup> Bennett et al. (2004).

<sup>68</sup> Tentative estimates can be obtained from DHS surveys as mentioned above but these are not available by type of schools.

spit on, coerced, excluded, or property destroyed) as well as multiple forms of abuse (verbal, physical, and social abuse); (3) Whether hate was expressed at the student's race, religion, ethnic or national origin, disability, gender, or sexual orientation; (4) Whether students adopted avoidance strategies to avoid being victimized (such as not taking the shortest route to school or avoiding parts of the school, and whether the student avoid classes, activities, or skipped to avoid being victimized); (5) whether the student has been afraid and where; (6) whether the student ever brought guns to the school and if so what type of weapon, and whether the student saw weapons on school ground; and finally (7) whether there are gangs in the school.

Table 3.3 provides estimates of the prevalence of the various forms of violence by type of schools, distinguishing public schools located in the neighborhood where children live, other public schools, religious schools, and other private schools. Apart from statistics by type of violence, estimates are also provided as to

whether students are exposed to any type of violence (this is measured by combining the various categories of violence). For all types of violence, the prevalence is higher in public than private schools, whether religious or not.

For example, in neighborhood public schools, bullying affected 14.2 percent of students in 2015, versus 8.8 percent in religious schools. Fights affected 3.1 percent of students in public neighborhood schools, versus 2.0 percent in religious schools. A larger share of students brought or saw weapons in public neighborhood schools (8.1 percent) than in religious schools (3.8 percent). About one in ten students stated that there were gangs in public neighborhood schools versus about one percent in religious schools. Similar differences were observed for other variables, and when considering all types of violence combined, the likelihood that students were exposed to at least one type of violence was at 32.6 percent in public neighborhood schools in 2015 versus 17.7 percent in religious schools.

**Table 3.3: Prevalence of Violence in Schools by Type of School, United States, 2015 and 2017 (%)**

School Type	Public, Neighborhood	Public, Other	Private, Religious	Private, Other
2015				
Any type of violence	32.6	36.5	17.7	19.9
Fights	3.1	2.8	2.0	1.2
Bullied	14.2	17.1	8.8	9.4
Hate	5.7	7.6	1.7	1.9
Avoidance	6.0	8.1	2.6	4.1
Fear	4.4	5.3	3.3	5.2
Weapons	8.1	7.7	3.8	3.9
Gangs in school	11.3	10.6	1.2	5.0
2017				
Any type of violence	33.8	36.2	21.1	22.1
Fights	3.1	3.8	1.9	4.8
Bullied	19.8	21.5	15.2	16.5
Hate	6.5	7.9	2.7	6.4
Avoidance	7.4	7.1	1.9	7.3
Fear	5.3	5.2	2.8	4.7
Weapons	7.4	7.6	3.9	4.7
Gangs in school	9.4	9.1	0.7	3.3

Source: Author's estimates from School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey.

**Table 3.4: Prevalence of Violence in Schools by Gender, United States, 2015 and 2017 (%)**

	2015, all schools			2017, all schools		
	Boy	Girl	All	Boy	Girl	All
Any type of violence	32.3	32.0	32.2	30.7	35.6	33.1
Fights	4.2	1.8	3.0	4.6	1.7	3.2
Bullied	12.4	16.0	14.2	16.3	23.1	19.6
Hate	6.1	5.2	5.7	5.9	7.0	6.4
Avoidance	5.4	6.7	6.1	6.1	8.1	7.1
Fear	3.3	5.6	4.5	4.2	6.1	5.1
Weapons	9.3	6.2	7.8	7.6	6.7	7.1
Gangs in school	10.7	10.5	10.6	7.8	9.6	8.7

Source: Author’s estimates from School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey.

In general, despite some differences depending on the specific types of violence being considered, other public schools had a similar prevalence of violence as public neighborhood schools, while private non-religious schools were closer in terms of prevalence to religious schools. The estimates for 2017 are broadly of a similar order of magnitude, albeit slightly higher in most cases than in 2015. There are as expected some differences in the types of violence affecting students by gender, as shown in Table 3.4. Boys are more likely to be involved in fights and more likely to know about the presence of gangs in schools, but girls are more likely to be bullied or victims of hate speech. They are also slightly more likely to use avoidance strategies and be afraid. And when all types of violence are combined, girls are in 2017 more likely to be victims of violence than boys (although in 2015 proportions by gender are similar).

Why is violence lower in religious and private schools in the United States? One factor could be that parents who send their children to religious and private schools tend to be better off in socio-economic terms. This is because parents must pay for tuition since religious and private schools typically do not benefit from state funding. This implicit selection may imply that children in religious and private schools

tend to be less exposed to violence in their community.

Another factor could relate to the fact that parental interests and priorities may differ, including in terms of the emphasis placed by schools (and at home) on different aspects of the education of children. Religious (and possibly private) schools may also place more emphasis on some aspects of the education of children versus others. There is an emerging literature on the potential benefits of private and especially religious education in various domains beyond academic success<sup>69</sup>, which may in turn increase the likelihood that students later participate in the democratic process<sup>70</sup> and reduce the risk of being caught in the criminal justice system<sup>71</sup>.

One should however be careful not to overstate the potential benefits from attending a Catholic or other faith-based school, nor should one underestimate the risk of violence in Catholic schools, including the risk of sexual violence by school staff and the clergy. As demonstrated by the sexual abuse crisis in the Catholic Church in the United and elsewhere, without proper accountability mechanisms, the risk of sexual abuse – whether in Catholic or other schools, is very real (see the discussion in Box 3.1 above).

<sup>69</sup> See for example Hertzke (1998), Pennings et al. (2014), Yang and Kayaardi (2004), Casagrande et al. (2019a), Catt and Rhinesmith (2016), Erickson (2017), and Hunter and Olsen (2018).

<sup>70</sup> Campbell (2006), Cheng and Sikkink (2019).

<sup>71</sup> DeAngelis and Wolf (2019), McEachin et al. (2020).

## Uganda

While there are differences in the prevalence of various forms of violence in religious and public schools in the United States, this may not necessarily be observed in other countries. For Uganda, data are available from the baseline survey implemented for the evaluation of the Good School Toolkit (the intervention has been successful in reducing violence in schools, as discussed in Chapter 5). The baseline survey covered a total of 42 schools, hence the sample is not nationally representative, but the results are still instructive.

As shown in Table 3.5, the prevalence of violence in the schools is very high, with 54 percent of students declaring having been the victims of violence from school staff in the past week (corporal punishment by teachers is widespread). Emotional violence from staff and violence from peers are less common, but still highly prevalent since the measures capture episodes of violence over just one week. The prevalence of physical violence by school staff is slightly lower in Catholic schools, but the difference with other types of schools is not statistically significant given the sample size.

Other measures provided in Table 3.5 to measure peer, school, and family connectedness for students are not very different between the different types of schools, nor are average SDQ

scores. As noted by the Early Intervention Foundation, the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) is a 25-item measure used to assess behaviors, emotions and relationships over the last six months in children aged 4–17 years. Subscales focus on conduct problems, emotional symptoms, hyperactivity, peer problems and prosocial behavior. There are no clear differences between the various types of measures between different types of schools.

While this may reflect the relatively small size of the sample, it may also reflect the fact that because most faith-based schools in Uganda are actually public schools funded and to a large extent managed by the state, the differences in school culture and the characteristics of the students in different types of schools may be smaller than in countries where faith-based schools are not funded by the state, which implies a higher selectivity of the schools, among others in terms of the socio-economic background of students (as just noted for the case study on the United States).

In Uganda, analysis based on baseline data for an impact evaluation suggests that the prevalence of violence in Catholic and other faith-based schools may not be different from that in other schools, including public schools.

**Table 3.5: Student Characteristics by School Religious Affiliation, Uganda, 2012**

	Catholic	Anglican	Muslim	Adventist	None	All
<b>Violence</b>						
Past week physical, from staff	47%	59%	53%	58%	54%	54%
Past week emotional, from staff	11%	12%	9%	17%	12%	11%
Past week physical, from peers	9%	9%	6%	12%	7%	9%
Past week emotional, from peers	16%	17%	16%	19%	12%	16%
<b>Other indicators</b>						
SDQ Score (range 0-2)	0.46	0.47	0.44	0.49	0.45	0.46
Peer connectedness (range 0-5)	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.2
School connectedness (range 0-5)	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7
Family connectedness (range 0-5)	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7

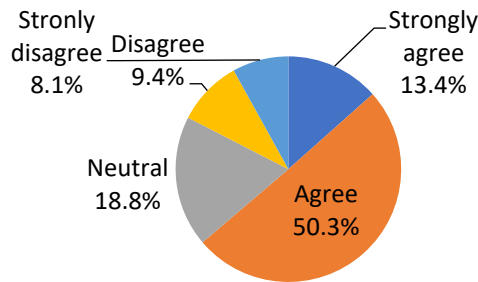
Source: Data from the evaluation of the Good School Toolkit provided by Karen Devries.



## Nigeria

As a third case study to suggest that violence in schools is present in many Catholic schools, consider two Catholic schools for girls in Nigeria<sup>72</sup>. To assess patterns of violence, a web survey was conducted in November 2021 among students in such a way that student anonymity could be ensured<sup>73</sup>. Asked if they agreed that violence exists in Catholic schools, almost two thirds (63.7 percent) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed. About one in five students (18.8 percent) was and less than one in five (17.5 percent) disagreed (Figure 3.3).

**Figure 3.3: Is there Violence in Catholic Schools?, Nigeria, 2021**

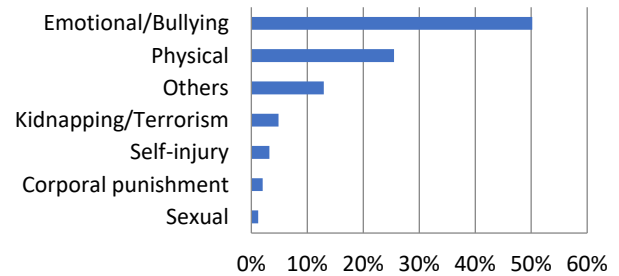


Source: Opara and Wodon (2022).

Asked about the prevalence of different types of violence, students identified emotional violence and especially bullying as the most prevalent, followed at a distance by physical violence and especially fights (Figure 3.4). Other forms of violence mentioned included the fear of kidnapping or terrorism (this is frequent in Nigeria), self-injuries including suicide attempts, corporal punishment by teachers, and sexual violence. Other types of violence, including destruction of school property or some students stealing from other students were also common. It is noteworthy that several students mentioned self-harm including suicidal behavior and self-mutilation as forms of violence.

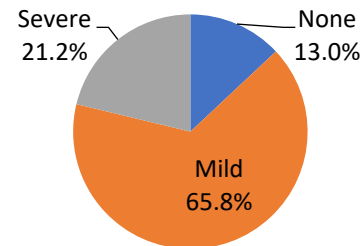
In two Catholic schools for girls in Nigeria, almost nine in ten students stated having been affected by violence in school at some point. For one in five students, the violence was deemed severe.

**Figure 3.4: Types of Violence Experienced (%), Nigeria, 2021**



Source: Opara and Wodon (2022).

**Figure 3.5: Severity of the Violence Experienced (%), Nigeria, 2021**



Source: Opara and Wodon (2022).

Another question was about whether students themselves experienced any form of violence, and if this was the case, whether their experience was mild (slight) or severe. As shown in Figure 3.5, two thirds of students (65.8 percent) stated they had experienced mild violence. One in eight students (13.0 percent) stated they had experienced severe violence. Only one in five students (21.2 percent) stated they had not experienced any violence, although among those, some witnessed their friends being subjected to violence. Based on the student's own assessment of episodes of

<sup>72</sup> This section is based on Opara and Wodon (2022).

<sup>73</sup> A total of 151 responses were received (response rate of about 20 percent). While the survey may not

be representative of the views of all students, it is still instructive.

violence, most appeared to be mild, but one in five episodes was considered as severe.

### **Box 3.2: Simple Approaches to Data Collection**

Typical surveys of violence in schools are conducted at the national level for a sample of schools in a country. This is useful to obtain national estimates of the prevalence of violence and some of its effects, and to set national strategies, but for a particular school, such data may not be as useful as data collected specifically for the school. When a school implements its own survey, it can adapt it to its needs, and it may be able to implement the survey at very low cost. To assess patterns of violence, the Nigeria survey was implemented online in such a way that student anonymity could be ensured<sup>74</sup>. The survey had only 11 questions, but those questions enabled the school to better understand patterns of violence, how to prevent it, and how to respond. The questions were:

1. How would you define violence in schools?
2. Do you agree that violence exists in Catholic schools? [Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly agree].
3. What types of violence actions are prevalent in your school? Name three types.
4. Have you experienced school violence? [Yes, No, Maybe].
5. Describe your experience.
6. Rate your experience of violence. [Slight, Heavy].
7. How does it feel to be the object of school violence? [Sad, Angry, Afraid, Depressed, Bored].
8. Were you pleased with the way it was handled? [Yes, No, Not sure].
9. What is the major way your school handles violence?
10. Did you forgive the person and was reconciled? [Yes, No, Maybe].
11. Give two suggestions how your school can reduce violence.

## **Summing Up**

Preventing VIAS is a moral imperative. It is also essential to reap the benefits from education and ensure children's well-being. Receiving an education of good quality is the right of every child, as enshrined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Education plays a unique role in promoting respect for human rights, and contributing to safe and inclusive societies that do not condone the use of violence, but rather provide children with the skills they will need as adults to find peaceful solutions to conflicts. Education also plays a fundamental role in countries' ability to achieve the targets set forth under the Sustainable Development Goals.

Unfortunately, VIAS affects children profoundly and remains widespread in developing and developed countries alike. Typically, according to data from interventional multi-country school health surveys and student assessments, about a third of children are affected by physical violence, and another third by emotional violence including bullying. The limited available data on sexual violence suggests a lower prevalence, but many children, especially girls, are nevertheless affected.

Catholic schools are not immune to VIAS, as illustrative data for a few countries made clear. Failing to prevent VIAS will affect not only children today, but also the members of their future families, their communities, and societies as a whole. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, schools were closed for substantial periods of time in many countries, but several of the factors that may lead to higher violence against children overall and violence in schools in particular are likely to have been exacerbated. The need to end VIAS is even more pressing today. In the next chapter, the potential impacts of violence in schools are discussed. Thereafter, the focus is on interventions that could end violence in schools.

---

<sup>74</sup> Opara and Wodon (2022).

**Box 3.3: Excerpts from an Interview with Fr. Hans Zollner, SJ, Professor at the Gregorian University**<sup>75</sup>

**What are some of the programs that work to protect children from abuse? And what does not seem to work well?** In order to truly be effective in protecting children from abuse, one cannot simply memorize facts and then check a box, considering it a mission accomplished. The knowledge must be relayed between the head and the heart. It has to be a deeply felt mission to do everything possible to protect those who are most vulnerable. Constructive programs come in many forms: local workshops or workshops held for Bishops' Conferences, seminaries, and colleges; global conferences which bring together experts from various fields like the 2017 Child Dignity in the Digital World; collaboration and open dialogue with tech companies, NGOs, international charities, programs and governments; educational programs like our Centre for Child Protection's Licentiate (Master) in Safeguarding...

**How much progress is the Catholic Church making in protecting children against sexual abuse?** The February 2019 summit on the protection of minors held in the Vatican brought about several concrete changes: norms on accountability of bishops and other Church leaders, including according to the new law *Vos estis lux mundi*, the elimination of the pontifical secret in relation to cases of sexual abuse of minors and vulnerable adults, as well as greater involvement of the laity in criminal proceedings within the Church. Then, in July 2020, a *Vademecum* was published, detailing procedural issues surrounding cases of sexual abuse of minors committed by clerics, in order to better interpret canon law and push for concrete action. I have seen a very strong push in every part of the Church I have encountered to create safe spaces for children, to create regulations and policies regarding the sexual abuse of children and vulnerable people, and to educate their employees on procedures to follow in the case abuse is reported. Beyond this, there has been a major shift in how the church speaks about abuse: it is a topic of conversation that has become much more in the open in recent years. Not only has the church started to confront the reality that abuse of minors has been happening, but members are also dealing with the fact that there have been many cases of cover-up surrounding abuse that has taken place.

Accompanying those who have come forward with their stories is essential to the healing process for both victim-survivors and the church as a whole as well as preventing further abuse from happening. It is not something that is done once, checked off a list, and set aside; rather, it is an ongoing process, a commitment that should span lifetimes in order to bring about deep long-lasting change and healing. At this point, it is key to keep this conversation going; to educate as many as possible about abuse, how to prevent it, and how to intervene when it does happen; to push even the most closed cultures to confront this harsh reality that abuse of children has taken place in their midst. Thanks to movements like #MeToo, the Church, like many other institutions, has made progress to squash abuse when it is spotted and bring justice to victim-survivors who seek it. Certainly, as of late, prevention of abuse and safeguarding in general have become tasks that involve the entire ecclesial community – not just a few experts.

**Are Catholic primary and secondary schools doing enough in this area or should they be doing more? Does this vary between countries?** It certainly varies between countries. Some countries have very strict rules in place to protect minors from abuse within schools, churches, or other organizations, while other cultures still normalize child-brides and female genital mutilation. So clearly, there is a huge gap in beliefs, laws, and standards surrounding child abuse. Cultural differences are not absent in the universal Catholic Church. However, my sincere belief is that Catholic parishes, schools and social organizations are doing much to create a universal standard of protection for children who are a part of their institutions. In every country I have visited – now more than 70 – I have found bishops, men and women religious, and Catholic lay people all very enthusiastic about and intent on making spaces safe for minors.

---

<sup>75</sup> Zollner (2021).

## CHAPTER 4

### POTENTIAL IMPACTS OF VIOLENCE IN SCHOOL

The World Bank study on ending violence<sup>76</sup> includes estimates of its impacts on a wide range of outcomes for children. As for Chapter 3, to share insights from the international community that may be beneficial to Catholic educators, the first part of this chapter highlights key findings from the World Bank study. The terminology of potential impacts is used as the analysis is based on correlations from regression analysis (which may not imply causation), and not experimental data. In addition, a few insights for experiences in Catholic schools are also provided. Please note that while the World Bank study included an estimation of the cost of violence in schools, this analysis is not summarized here except for a brief mention of that cost in the conclusion.

#### Introduction

VIAS can have a wide range of negative impacts. This chapter provides evidence of potential impacts related to the student's experience in school, his/her health and psychological well-being and whether he/she engages in risky behaviors, and the student's expected productivity in adulthood.

For students' experience in schools<sup>77</sup>, the focus is on (i) the student's perception of his/her experience in school or connectedness with the school and whether he/she missed days at school; (ii) the student's learning performance measured through international assessment

data; and (iii) whether VIAS is a major reason for students' decision drop out of school.

For health, the analysis explores whether students who are victimized are more likely to suffer from emotional and behavioral problems, including sleep disturbances, separation anxiety, hyper-vigilance, physical complaints, irritability, regression, emotional withdrawal, blunted emotions and distractibility. In addition, bullying and violence have consequences lasting well beyond the formative school years. For example, students who are bullied are more likely to engage in risky behaviors, such as drinking at an early age, using drugs, and engaging early in sexual activities.

Although this is not measured in the World Bank study, violence also affects students who witness it even if they are not direct victims. Although bystanders to school violence and bullying may not feel the direct impacts of it, they can experience lasting psychological and emotional scars. Research shows that student bystanders often feel harm through vicarious injury, which may trigger personal insecurities and contribute to trauma, shame or guilt from not intervening to stop an attack (especially for students who are highly empathic), fear and anxiety that they may be victims of violence or bullying next, and concern about participating in violence and bullying resulting from peer pressure from friends. VIAS also has negative inter-generational effects. Lack of education for mothers is correlated with higher fertility rates,

their teaching performance, and student learning. Because schools are embedded in communities, IAS may lead to violence and crime in communities, and vice versa. Failure to prevent VIAS can have lasting negative impacts. This chapter provides evidence of some of these potential impacts, focusing on students who are victimized as opposed to students who are perpetrators of violence or may have witnessed violence but were not the target of it.

---

<sup>76</sup> Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021). Ada Nayihouba made very substantial contributions to the analysis in the World Bank study from which this chapter is adapted.

<sup>77</sup> Students who are victims of VIAS are more likely to miss school, feel anxious, and lack friends and trust in teachers and principals. They may not be learning as well. Teachers working in violent environments are also often underpaid, overworked, and possibly fearful of being victims of VIAS themselves. They may lack the skills to manage violence. This may affect

poor health outcomes for their children, and household poverty.

Finally, for potential impacts related to work in adulthood, the focus is on (i) expected (wage) earnings when working; (ii) labor force participation and the type of employment held; and (iii) perceptions of the household standard of living. It is important to emphasize that violence in schools can have both direct and indirect impacts on children. When considering schooling, learning, and health, direct potential impacts of VIAS are estimated. By contrast, when considering work-related outcomes, indirect potential impacts are estimated through educational attainment and learning.

### **Students' Experience in School**

Violence in school affect the relationships between students, and between students and their teachers. It can also affect the community, or vice-versa, and reinforce exclusion. This in turn can affect how students view their own education, and how they perceive not only their schools, but their teachers as well as whether they even want to go to school. Simply said, violence in school affects student's socio-emotional well-being as well as their socio-emotional skills (SEL), which in turn are critical for the student's growth, resilience, as well as her openness and tolerance vis à vis others' cultures and beliefs.<sup>78</sup> In contexts marked by violence, both in school and in the community or country, experiences in schools may contribute to distrust, so that specific support mental health or psychosocial support may be required to help students<sup>79</sup>. In this section, the aim is to suggest estimates of

the potential negative impact of violence in school on student's experience in school.

Data are available on student's perception of their experience in school in the HBSC, GSHS, and PISA surveys – the main surveys to measure the prevalence of physical violence and bullying in schools<sup>80</sup>. It is, therefore, feasible to assess the direct potential impact of VIAS on those perceptions. In the PISA data which covers many middle and high income countries, data are available on whether (1) students have no close friends, (2) feel lonely, (3) feel that other students do not accept them like they are, and (4) find it easy to make friends. Information is also available on whether students feel that their teachers (5) make them confident, (6) listen to them, and (7) understand them

With the HBSC surveys for European countries plus Canada and a few countries in the Middle East and North Africa region, information is available on whether students (1) like their school; (2) feel that their teachers think they are doing poorly academically in comparison to other students; (3) feel that other students do not accept them the way they are; (4) feel that their teachers do not accept them the way they are; (5) feel that their teachers do not care about them as a person; and finally (6) have no trust in their teachers<sup>81</sup>. The data from the GSHS are less detailed, but three perceptions of students related to their experience in school are available: (1) whether the students have close friends in school; (2) whether they missed school days; and (3) whether they can benefit from help from other students or not.

To assess the direct potential impacts of VIAS on those perceptions controlling for the factors that may affect them, a range of controls were included in the regression analysis<sup>82</sup>.

---

<sup>78</sup> As an example of analysis of student well-being with PISA data, see OECD (2015).

<sup>79</sup> See Inter-Agency Standing Committee (2007).

<sup>80</sup> As mentioned in the previous chapter, GSHS stands for Global School-based Student Health Survey. HBSC stands for Health Behaviour in School-aged Children study. And PISA stands for Programme for International Student Assessment.

<sup>81</sup> In most cases, multiple answers can be provided by students, for example, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree when asked about various perceptions, but all outcome variables have been dichotomized (yes/no coding) for the analysis in order to facilitate the interpretation of the results.

<sup>82</sup> For a list of controls, see Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021).

Estimates of the potential impacts of the variables of interest (VIAS) on various outcomes are available in the World Bank study. Here, we summarize the analysis with a focus of the share of various outcomes that appear to be related to VIAS. In other words, we ask what might be the aggregate potential impact on various outcomes if VIAS were to be simply eliminated?

Estimates are provided in Table 4.1. Consider as an example the fact that some students miss school days. If all forms of VIAS were eliminated, the simulations reported in Table 4.1 suggests that 16.7 percent of the problem is associated with VIAS. In other words, almost one in six instances of missing school could be due to VIAS. For other outcomes, the proportions are lower, but still substantial.

VIAS appears to account for a substantial share of students having poor experiences in school.

**Table 4.1: Students' Experience in School: Share of Outcomes Associated with VIAS (%)**

	Share
<b>GSHS Surveys</b>	
No close friends in school	7.2
Missed school days	16.7
Not helped by other students	10.3
<b>HBSC Surveys</b>	
I do not like my school at present	10.9
My teachers think I am not doing well	8.7
Other students do not accept me	14.7
My teachers do not accept me like I am	14.3
My teachers do not care about me	5.6
I do not feel a lot of trust in my teachers	7.4
<b>PISA Assessment</b>	
I have no close friends	9.2
I feel Lonely	10.1
Other students do not accept me	6.8
It is not easy to me to make friends	2.5
My teachers do not make me confident	7.5
I feel my teachers do not listen to me	6.1
I feel my teachers do not understand me	6.1

Note: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021). Estimates do not include country weights. See the full study for details.

<sup>83</sup> Ranieri (2019).

<sup>84</sup> Mitu et al. (2019).

<sup>85</sup> Nelson (2009).

## Learning in School

Violence in school may also affect student learning, especially for vulnerable groups including girls. In some cases, teachers may be the perpetrators of violence instead of supporting for safe learning environments.

Qualitative studies have pointed to relationships between VIAS and educational outcomes. In the Northern Triangle of Central America, gangs generate climates of generalized fear that affects the quality of relationships and student's academic performance<sup>83</sup>. A qualitative study for Bangladesh found that teachers and other adults suggests that experiences of corporal punishment could be a factor leading to school dropout and thereby a loss in learning<sup>84</sup>. In the UK, life histories suggest that a negative relationship between abuse learning outcomes<sup>85</sup>. Violence in school is also associated with various types of disruptions in the classroom. Some students may be deeply affected, while others may simply be distracted, but in both cases this can have negative implications for their ability to concentrate.

Teachers may need to spend more time managing disruptions in the classroom, or may resort to classroom management practices correlated with lower academic performance for students. The level of disruption in classrooms can be measured, and studies suggest that such disruptions are associated with lower student performance, in turn suggesting that improving the classroom disciplinary climate may boost student performance<sup>86</sup>. More generally, the quality of teacher interactions with students can be beneficial for students well-being as well as for their learning<sup>87</sup>, but violence in school may prevent such quality interactions. Following the analysis of the previous section, the aim of this section is to estimate the potential negative impact of violence in school on student learning.

<sup>86</sup> Cahu and Quota (2019).

<sup>87</sup> See Hallinan (2008) and Baafi and Kwabena (2020).

Data from the PISA Assessment can be used to assess the potential impact of violence in school on students' test scores. The assessment is implemented among 15 year-old children to assess their ability to use their reading, mathematics and science knowledge and skills to meet real-life challenges. The data sets include a wide range of variables that can be used as controls when estimating the association between violence in school and student performance. Children were asked if during the past 12 months, they (1) were left out of things on purpose by other students; (2) other students made fun of them; (3) they were threatened by other students; (4) other students took away or destroyed things that belonged to them; (5) they got hit or pushed around by other students; and (6) other students spread nasty rumors about them. Among those variables, items (1) and (2) are not strictly speaking measures of violence, but they are included as controls.

Would ending VIAS make a large difference in PISA scores at the national level? Table 4.2 provides the results of simulations in

which the four types of violence (listed above and captured in the PISA) are eliminated. Average reading scores across countries would increase by 11.9 points for boys and girls combined, which represents an increase in performance of 3.1 percent from the base. Estimates for mathematics and science are of a similar order of magnitude, albeit a bit smaller, with gains of 2.1 percent from the base for mathematics and 2.3 percent for science. In some countries, gains are larger, while in other countries gains are lower. These gains may look small, but improving learning is not easy, and gains in simulations for the potential impacts of other types of variables or interventions are often not larger.

When a student is threatened, this is associated with a reduction in performance on student assessments. The negative effects are large, and in some cases larger than the potential impact of a wide range of other variables traditionally associated with student performance.

**Table 4.2: Simulations of Potential Impacts of Ending VIAS on Learning Performance, PISA**

	Gain (absolute value)			Gain (proportion from base, %)		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
Reading (70 countries)	12.8	11.2	11.9	3.3	2.9	3.1
Mathematics (70 countries)	9.1	7.8	8.5	2.3	2.0	2.1
Sciences (70 countries)	10.2	8.9	9.5	2.5	2.2	2.3

Source: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021).

Proxies for VIAS are also available in the PASEC data for primary schools in ten Francophone African countries<sup>88</sup>. The latest available data are for 2014 (only parts of the data for the 2019 assessment were available at the time of writing). The PASEC dataset also includes information on corporal punishment by teachers –whether teachers report using it, and whether children state that they are beaten by teachers when they are punished or are perceived by teachers as not performing well. Students are asked whether other children play with them (a

negative response may be a good predictor of bullying, at least for some students) and whether they feel scared in the classroom/school, which could be a reflection of violence including corporal punishment by teachers. Almost two-thirds of students reported being beaten by teachers and one-third reported that other children don't play with them, or that they are scared in school. Finally, teachers are asked whether they experienced physical, emotional, or sexual harassment, and how they perceive the school climate and security in the schools.

<sup>88</sup> PASEC stands for Programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs de la CONFEMEN.

Would ending VIAS make a large difference in PASEC scores at the national level? Table 4.3 provides the results of simulations in which violence and corporal punishment by teachers have been eliminated. Average reading scores for all student in the 10 countries would increase by 5.7 points (5.2 points for boys and 6.4 for girls), which represents an increase in performance of 1.2 percent from the base (1.1 percent for boys and 1.3 percent for girls). Estimates for mathematics are of a similar order of magnitude, with gains of 6.4 points overall (5.1 points for boys and 7.5 for girls), which represents an increase in performance of 1.24 percent from the base (1.1 percent for boys and 1.6 percent for girls). As was found for the PISA assessment, in some countries gains are larger, while in others they are lower. But while impacts in PASEC are slightly smaller than those in PISA, their order of magnitude is similar to what was observed in the analysis of PISA.

In West Africa, at the margin VIAS affects learning as much if not more than the socio-economic background of the student, a hearing or visual disability, or factors affecting learning such as teacher absenteeism, the level of education of teachers, or school characteristics.

Another interesting feature of PASEC is that teachers are asked whether they have experienced harassment, which is a form of

violence, and their perceptions of the school climate in general, and specifically in terms of security at schools. Some teachers state that they have been harassed emotionally, but the prevalence of physical and especially sexual harassment is lower. A small share of teachers also mention a lack of security at school and a negative school climate. Harassment of teachers in particular affects teacher satisfaction with their working conditions, which in turn may affect the school climate and how well children learn in school as measured by student assessments.

One of the strategies for ending VIAS consists in providing appropriate pre-service and in-service training to teachers on how to ensure that schools remain safe. Still another result from the PASEC analysis worth mentioning is the fact that unfortunately, such training is rarely provided in Francophone Africa, and probably in low and lower-middle income countries more generally. The data suggest that training on child-friendly and inclusive schools, the topics most closely related to preventing violence in school, are the two categories of in-service training provided the least to teachers.

It is also worth noting that Afrobarometer data for three dozen African countries suggest that one in five individuals are affected by petty corruption, which may lead to bribes, gifts, or favors, but may also in some cases to sexual violence against children.

**Table 4.3: Simulations of Potential Impacts of Ending VIAS on Learning Performance, PASEC**

	Gain (absolute value)			Gain (proportion from base, %)		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
Reading (10 countries)	5.2	6.4	5.7	1.1	1.3	1.2
Mathematics (10 countries)	5.1	7.5	6.4	1.1	1.6	1.4

Source: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021).

### Dropping Out of School

VIAS may also lead some students to drop out of school. Measuring the potential impact of VIAS on educational assessment is difficult as school surveys are not adequate for

this purpose since information is available only for students still in school. However, using other surveys, various approaches can be used to assess whether VIAS leads children to drop out of school and how large the potential impacts may be. One such approach relies on reasons



stated by parents as to why their children dropped out of school or is not in school.

In some countries, surveys ask specifically if violence in school was the reason for dropping out. In particular, insights can be gained from the Young Lives survey whose questionnaires include up to 30 modalities (depending on the country) as potential reasons for dropping out of school. Findings for Ethiopia, India, and Vietnam for children aged 9-17 are provided in Table 4.4 (for Peru, another country included in Young Lives, the same data in the survey are not available). The data from the modalities have been summarized in a few aggregate categories for easier interpretation.

The main reason for not being in school full-time is lack of affordability for boys as well as for girls in India and Ethiopia. This factor is also prominent in many other surveys with fewer modalities for responses. Truancy or the fact that the child does not want to go to school or is not interested is also a major factor for not being in school full-time, especially for boys, and in Vietnam it is the dominant factor. Gender issues, namely marriage and gender norms which are forms of structural violence on girls and can also involve direct physical, sexual and emotional violence, do affect girls<sup>89</sup>. The quality of the schools is less of a factor. This does not mean that the schools are of good quality, but simply

that other factors play a more important role. One could also argue that poor quality is probably leading to lack of interest in pursuing their education for many children. The “other” category is very large, although for different reasons depending of the country, and it seems to reflect data issues in some of the countries.

Factors explicitly related to VIAS account only for a small share of the reasons for not being in school full-time in the Young Lives Surveys. The estimates are at 1.2 percent, 5.3 percent, and 1.9 percent for India, Ethiopia, and Vietnam. But other reasons for not being in school full-time, especially the truancy/lack of interest category, may be due in part to VIAS. If one were to assume that about one-tenth of the truancy/lack of interest reasons actually reflect issues related to VIAS, then the proportions of drop-outs related to VIAS would increase to 3.0 percent in India, and 6.2 percent for both Ethiopia and Vietnam.

Factors explicitly related to VIAS account only for a small share of the reasons for not being in school full-time in the Young Lives Surveys. But other reasons for not being in school full-time, especially the truancy/lack of interest category, may be due in part to VIAS.

**Table 4.4: Reasons for Not Being Full-time in School, Young Lives Data (%)**

	India			Ethiopia			Vietnam		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
Violence	0.0	2.5	1.2	5.5	5.2	5.3	2.4	1.3	1.9
Truancy and no interest	26.3	9.8	17.8	9.8	8.8	9.5	46.2	38.2	42.8
Affordability	45.6	44.2	44.9	19.6	20.9	20.4	9.4	16.7	12.4
Gender	4.4	0.6	2.5	7.1	6.5	6.9	5.1	3.0	4.2
Quality	0.6	11.0	5.8	0.3	1.6	0.9	0.3	3.4	1.6
Others	23.1	31.9	27.7	57.7	57.0	57.2	36.6	37.3	37.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Authors’ estimations using Young Lives data.

<sup>89</sup> Note that because the sample of children included is from 9 to 17 years, with most girls who marry as children doing so at 16 or 17, the estimates over the larger age group tend to not fully reflect the pressure

that adolescent girls have to marry early especially in India and Ethiopia despite progress in reducing the practice of child marriage in both countries.

#### **Box 4.1: Girls Dropping Out of School, Child Marriage, and the Role of Faith Leaders**

For adolescent girls, when VIAS leads them to drop out of school, it increases the risk of them marrying as a child (i.e., before the age of 18) or having a child when they may not yet be physically and psychologically ready to do so. In sub-Saharan Africa, faith leaders can play an important role in raising community awareness about the negative effects of child marriage and the benefits from girls' education. They have a great deal of influence on the population, and they have an attentive audience during masses, prayer ceremonies, or traditional festivals, as well as during court cases in which disputes are settled in the villages. Faith leaders are also those who perform most marriages, and they can advise against a marriage when girls are not psychologically or physically ready to marry.

Do faith leaders play this role? Data from qualitative fieldwork in the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Republic of Congo suggest that this is not always the case<sup>90</sup>. In each of the two countries, data were collected in three communities (the capital city and two rural areas). In the Democratic Republic of Congo, responses to a question about whether faith leaders at least talk about the issue of child marriage suggests that this is the case in the two rural areas, but less so in Kinshasa. In the two rural areas, more than two thirds of faith leaders talk about the issue of child marriage, while in the capital city of Kinshasa, this is the case only for one third of faith leaders. In the Republic of Congo, about half of respondents in the capital city of Brazzaville and one of the rural areas state that faith leaders do not talk about this issue, and the proportion reaches nine in ten respondents in the other rural area.

This suggests that faith leaders could do more in both countries more to promote girls' education and prevent child marriage. The same holds for faith-based schools which often are not of high quality, as is the case for public schools.

One factor that may lead to relatively small shares of parents stating that violence in school is a reason for not being in schools is the normalization of violence. Parents may consider use of corporal punishment as a legitimate way to discipline children and may not fully assess the consequences on the wellbeing and health of girls and boys. Similarly, bullying can be interpreted as a 'normal' experience in the schooling life of a child. As such, and given qualitative research showing the widespread acknowledgement that different forms of violence happen in and on the way to schools, such results may underestimate the potential impact of violence in school. Still, overall, the estimates from the Young Lives Surveys suggest that VIAS play a role for drop outs, but is not the main factor. This finding is based on parental responses on reasons why their children dropped out of school, but it is corroborated by other data that include questions to children themselves or to teachers and principals as to the reasons for drop-outs.

#### **Injuries, Health, and Psychological Well-being**

Physical violence can lead to injuries, which may have important health consequences for students and healthcare costs for parents. The two main datasets to estimate the risk of injuries from VIAS in schools are again the GSHS and HBSC. The datasets do not identify injuries from VIAS, but in both cases, questions are asked about circumstances for injuries. The categories most likely to reflect VIAS are "I was attacked or abused or was fighting with someone" for the GSHS, and "Fighting" for the HBSC. Data on the share of students involved in fights in schools, the share of students injured (all reasons included), and the share injured through fights are provided in Table 4.5. Injuries from fights are, as expected, much more likely for boys than girls.

**VIAS – and especially physical violence, may lead to injuries for students while in school.**

<sup>90</sup> See Wodon, Boungou Bazika et al. (2022a, 2022b).

**Table 4.5: Injuries from Fights, GSHS and HBSC Data**

	GSHS Data			HBSC Data		
	Fought	Injured	Injured from fight	Fought	Injured	Injured from fight
Boys	37.4	37.4	2.3	45.3	49.1	2.6
Girls	17.1	24.9	0.6	18.5	40.1	0.9
Total	27.6	31.3	1.5	31.6	44.5	1.8

Source: Authors' estimations using GSHS and HBSC data.

As violence is the result of the accumulation of context-based risk factors, that in turn can be reinforced and perpetuated as a consequence to violence, thus feeding a self-perpetuating vicious cycle, it is important to highlight and critically analyze impacts of VIAS on risky behaviors, health, and wellbeing. The analysis conducted in this section with GSHS, HBSC, and PISA data is similar in approach to what was done for schooling and learning. Data are available for a wide range of indicators. For example, for the GSHS data, information is available on perceived health (difficulty to sleep), risky behaviors (ever smoked, ever used alcohol, ever used drug, ever has sex), and psychological well-being (ever considered suicide, ever planned to commit suicide, ever attempted to commit suicide). The indicators available in the HBSC data also cover perceived health (self-assessment of health, having headaches, having stomach-ache, having back-ache, difficulty to sleep), risky behaviors (ever had sex, ever smoked, ever drank alcohol, ever used cannabis) and psychological well-being (feeling low, feeling irritable, feeling nervous, and feeling dizzy). In some cases, multiple answers can be provided by students, for example ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, but variables have been dichotomized (yes/no coding) to facilitate interpretation of the results. The same controls are used for the analysis of the potential impacts of VIAS on student's experience in school.

Table 4.6 provides key results in terms of the potential impact that ending VIAS could have. Consider for example the likelihood of having difficulties sleeping in the GSHS data. The simulations suggests that 16.4 percent of sleeping difficulties may be associated with VIAS,

which is large. Other results in the Table suggest potentially large impacts of VIAS on a range of outcomes with all three datasets. For example, for risky behaviors in the GSHS survey, a fourth of the outcomes are associated with VIAS, while with the HBSC survey, the proportion is typically at one fifth. The proportion is at its highest for the variables associated with considering, planning, or attempting suicide.

Simulations suggests that 16.4 percent of sleeping difficulties may be associated with VIAS, which is large. Other results suggest with all three datasets potentially large impacts of VIAS on a range of health and well-being outcomes.

**Box 4.2: Violence against Children Surveys**

Self- perceptions of health and well-being of children and youth can also be assessed with Violence against Children surveys or VACS. While detailed results from the World Bank study are not reported here, the analysis suggests again substantial negative potential impacts of violence (in schools as well as at home and in the community) on a wide range of indicators including having interactions with friends and other attitudes, outcomes related to sexual and reproductive health, trust, and health. As just one example, having been exposed to violence as a child tends to lead to more tolerance towards wife beating and a range of behaviors that limit women's agency.

**Table 4.6: Students’ Health and Well-being: Share of Outcomes Associated with VIAS (%)**

	Share
<b>GSHS</b>	
<b>Perceived health</b>	
Difficulty to sleep	16.4
<b>Risky behaviors</b>	
Ever smoked	28.5
Ever used Alcohol	21.4
Ever used drug	31.9
Ever has sex	28.2
<b>Psychological well-being</b>	
Ever considered suicide	27.3
Ever planned to suicide	27.1
Ever attempted to suicide	32.9
<b>HBSC</b>	
<b>Perceived health</b>	
Good self-assessment of health	14.0
Having headaches	7.7
Having stomach-ache	8.8
Having back-ache	9.6
Difficulty to sleep	7.8
<b>Risky behaviors</b>	
Ever had sex	19.3
Ever smoked	20.9
Ever drank alcohol	13.0
Ever used cannabis	21.2
<b>Psychological well-being</b>	
Feeling low	11.0
Feeling irritable	7.5
Feeling nervous	7.4
Feeling dizzy	12.4
<b>PISA</b>	
<b>Perceived health</b>	
Difficulty to sleep	5.6
Poor self-assessment of health	17.3
Having headaches	2.2
Having stomach-ache	5.2
Having back-ache	5.0
<b>Psychological well-being</b>	
Feeling depressed	4.4
Feeling irritable	2.8
Feeling nervous	3.0
Feeling dizzy	10.7
Feeling anxious	6.3

Note: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021). Estimates do not include country weights. See the full study for details.

## Work in Adulthood<sup>91</sup>

Through both schooling and learning, VIAS then has an indirect potential impact on labor force participation and earnings for children as they become adults, as well as other outcomes. Consider first the benefits from educational attainment for earnings. There is a large body of literature on this topic<sup>92</sup> In the World Bank study, estimates of the potential impact of education on earnings were based on wage regressions estimated using the GLD database<sup>93</sup>. The aim was to assess the potential impact on earnings of both educational attainment and learning – with literacy as a proxy for learning. As expected, gains in earnings associated with educational attainment were substantial, especially at the secondary and tertiary levels.

Through schooling and learning, VIAS has an indirect potential impact on labor force participation and earnings in adulthood.

Through its impact on educational attainment, VIAS may also affect labor force participation in adulthood. Indeed, apart from leading to higher expected earnings for working men and women, a higher level of educational attainment may also increase labor force participation or the number of hours that they work, especially for women. When women are better educated, the opportunity cost of not working or only working part time increases, which may lead more women to enter the labor force, or work full time instead of part time. To measure the potential effect of educational attainment on labor force participation, the analysis relied on data from the Gallup World Poll for many countries, suggesting effects of educational attainment on labor force participation and employment status.

<sup>91</sup> This section is adapted from Wodon, Onagoruwa et al. (2019).

<sup>92</sup> See Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2018) for a review.

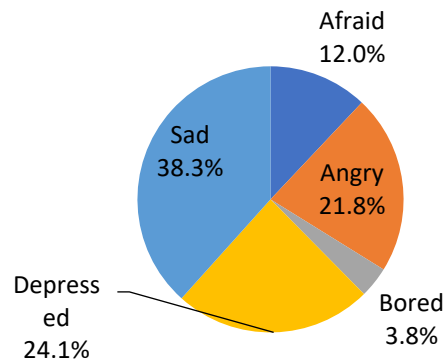
<sup>93</sup> Montenegro and Wodon (2019).

### Violence in Catholic Schools: A Case Study<sup>94</sup>

In Chapter 3, comparative data were provided on the prevalence of violence in schools in different types of schools for the United States and Uganda. When looking at the impact of violence on schools, because of limited sample sizes, it often makes sense to consider all schools together, as opposed to separate types of schools one by one. In that case, estimates are not available to assess whether violence in schools may have different potential impacts in Catholic and other faith-based schools in comparison to public and other private schools<sup>95</sup>. But it is still feasible to provide some insights into the potential effects on students of violence in Catholic schools using a case study approach. This is done here based on the data collected in Nigeria mentioned in Chapter 3.

Students who were affected by violence in the two Nigerian schools for girls were asked about how it felt to be the object of such violence. They could choose one of five modalities: being sad, angry, afraid, depressed, or bored. As shown in Figure 4.1, feelings of sadness and being depressed were the most likely responses. About a fifth of students felt angry, and one in eight felt afraid. While this was not asked in the survey, when students are affected by violence, academic aspirations may also be weakened. Furthermore, research suggests that violence has both immediate and long-term adverse consequences for victims, but also for perpetrators. If the fear generated by violence is not contained and becomes widespread, it can have crippling psychological effects, again leading to a higher risk of student absenteeism or some students dropping out.

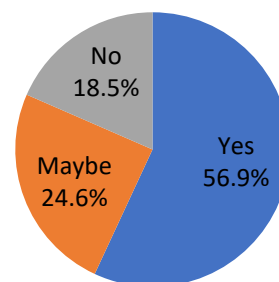
**Figure 4.1: Emotional State following Violence, Nigeria, 2021 (%)**



Source: Opara and Wodon (2022).

An interesting question asked in the survey is whether the students who were affected by violence forgave the person who committed the violence or reconciled. As shown in Figure 4.2, more than half of the students stated that they forgave perpetrators or reconciled, and one fourth answered maybe. Still, for almost one fifth of the students, there was no reconciliation or forgiving. Forgiveness and reconciliation are virtues that are encouraged in Catholic schools. To a large extent, students seem to practice these virtues. Yet in some cases violence may be more severe or may affect students profoundly, leading forgiving and reconciliation to be more difficult.

**Figure 4.2: Reconciliation after Violence, Nigeria, 2021 (%)**



Source: Opara and Wodon (2022).

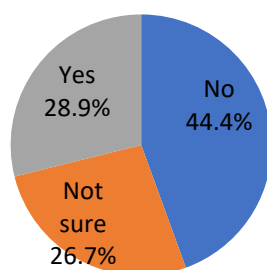
<sup>94</sup> This section is based on Opara and Wodon (2022).

<sup>95</sup> It would seem that unless threshold effects are present, episodes of violence would have similar

negative effects on the students affected wherever they go to school.

Questions were also asked in the survey about students' perceptions of the schools' responses to episodes of violence. Figure 4.3 provides the responses of students on whether they were satisfied with their school's response to violence. Unfortunately, only slightly more than one in four students were satisfied, with another fourth not being sure and just under half not satisfied. This suggests that the schools may not yet have mechanisms to adequately respond, despite the fact that measures are typically taken after episodes of violence, including dismissal and other forms of punishment, as well as counseling.

**Figure 4.3: Satisfaction with School Response, Nigeria, 2021 (%)**



Source: Opara and Wodon (2022).

Girls who were the victim of violence often felt sad or depressed, as well as angry. While some level of forgiveness took place, for one fifth of the students, there was no reconciliation. Students also felt that school responses to episodes of violence were insufficient.

What are some of the suggestions made by students to reduce violence in their schools? By and large, students expect more severe actions to be taken against offenders. They feel that issues related to violence are not taken seriously enough when reported. They also suggest that students should be more aware of the consequences of violence for those being victimized. Based more broadly on the context in which many schools operate in Nigeria and the experience of the school leadership for the two

schools in which the survey was implemented, a few more specific recommendations can be suggested, at least tentatively. Those recommendations will be discussed in the next chapter as part of a discussion on promising interventions to end violence in schools.

### Summing Up

VIAS leads to children learning less in school. Based on regression analysis using data from the PISA and PASEC international student assessments, ending violence in school could result in aggregate gains in learning of about two percent versus baseline values. These aggregate effects may seem limited, but at the margin, they are as large if not larger than the potential impact of variables capturing the socio-economic background of the student, a disability, or factors such as teacher absenteeism, the level of education of teachers, or selected characteristics of schools.

VIAS may also lead some children to drop out of school: In a few countries where household surveys include VIAS as one of the possible reasons for dropping out of school, VIAS accounts typically for part of drop-outs at the primary or secondary levels. Based on available data for a few countries, a reasonable conclusion is that across countries, perhaps of the order of five percent of drop-outs may be due to VIAS.

Although this was not discussed here, the combined loss from the potential impact of VIAS on educational achievement and attainment is valued in the World Bank study at just under US\$ 11 trillion. This estimate is only an order of magnitude and a range of costs could be provided with different assumptions.

Apart from leading to losses in learning and drop-outs, VIAS is highly detrimental for students' experience in school as well as their health and well-being. If VIAS were eliminated, this would have potentially large effects for a wide range of indicators of health and well-being. For example, for perceived health, surveys ask questions on difficulties sleeping, having headaches, stomach-ache, or back-ache

and a self-assessment of health. For risky behaviors, questions are asked about whether the children have ever smoked, used alcohol, drug or cannabis, or had sex. Finally, for psychological well-being, questions are asked about whether the children ever considered suicide, planned to commit suicide, or attempted to commit suicide. Questions are also available on whether children are feeling low, irritable, nervous, or dizzy. In virtually all cases, experiencing VIAS is associated with worse indicators after controlling for other factors that may affect these indicators. Some of the largest effects are observed for the probabilities of feeling bad about one's health, not trusting

other people, having suicidal thoughts, and having sex before the age of 18.

Finally, a case study for two Catholic schools in Nigeria suggests that girls who were the victim of violence in the schools often felt sad or depressed, as well as angry. While some level of forgiveness took place after the episodes of violence, for almost one fifth of the students, there was no reconciliation. Students also felt that school responses to episodes of violence were insufficient. Students made a number of suggestions to teachers and principals about what could be done to reduce violence in the schools, as will be discussed in the next chapter together with evidence from the literature on the type of interventions that work.

## CHAPTER 5

### PROMISING INTERVENTIONS TO END VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS

The World Bank study on ending violence in schools<sup>96</sup> includes a review of the literature on the factors that may be associated with violence and some promising interventions. The analysis in this chapter consists again for the most part of excerpts from that report, but with additional insights from experiences in Catholic schools. Please note that while the World Bank study included a review of benefit-cost analyses for promising interventions, this analysis is not reproduced here, but examples of low cost interventions are provided in slightly more details than is the case in the World Bank study.

#### Introduction

There is growing international evidence on what works to prevent VIAS. But first, to provide a framework for such interventions and understand their logic, it is useful to consider the factors that lead to VIAS. Preventing violence requires an understanding of the factors that influence it. No single factor can perfectly predict incidents of violence. Rather, it is often a combination of risk factors at the individual, relationship, school, community, and societal levels that leads to violence. This can be suggested with the ecological model as a conceptual device (as well as a governance tool when implementing programs and policies) to better understand why and where violence occurs, and suggest options for programs and policies to prevent violence through so-called protective factors. These protective factors in turn underline the types of interventions and approaches to prevent VIAS that are discussed

next along the life cycle since the ecological model suggests that various types of interventions are needed from early childhood to the completion of secondary school.

#### Risk Factors

The ecological model is a comprehensive framework that helps in understanding and disentangling the complex factors leading of violence and thereby identify some of its root causes. Inspired by the public health literature and focusing on prevention, the model is dynamic and gender-sensitive, focusing on the root causes for violence and the accumulation of disadvantages or layers of exclusion in a child's life that makes him or her more prone to behave violently or experience violence<sup>97</sup>.

The ecological model is a comprehensive framework that helps in understanding and disentangling the complex factors leading of violence and thereby identify some of its causes.

Risk factors for violence are typically recognized at the levels of individual, relationship, community, and society. For this study, because the focus is on VIAS, an additional level is included within the community corresponding to the school. Some of the risk factors for perpetrating violence or experiencing violence are determined by biology, others are environmental, and yet others are behavioral (Figure 5.1).

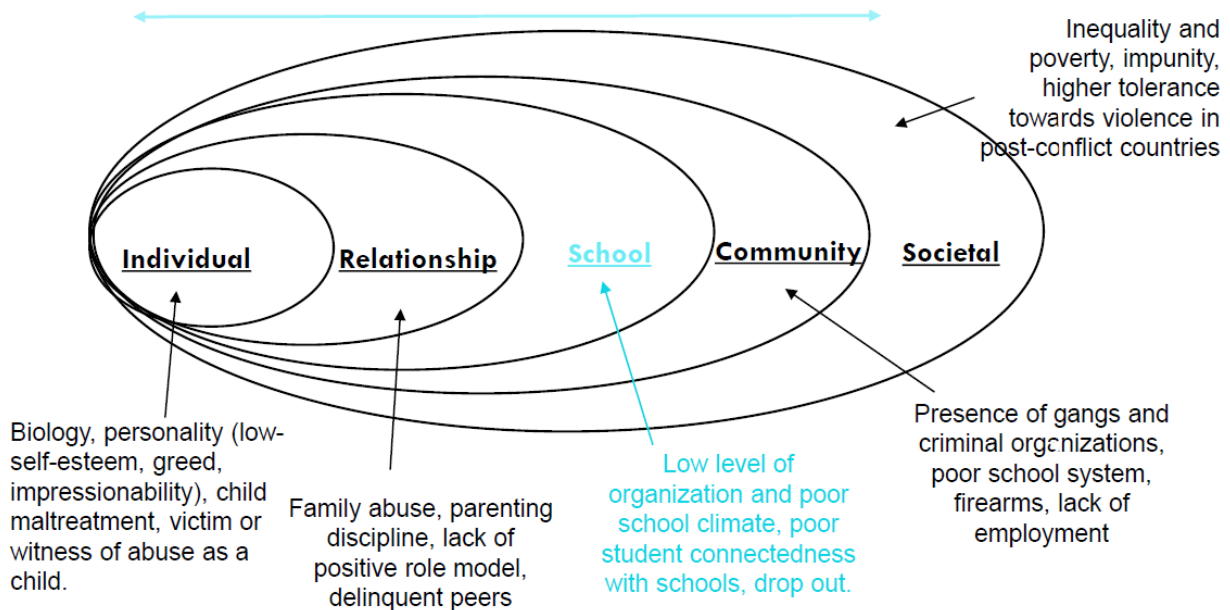
<sup>96</sup> Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021). Chloë Fèvre made very substantial contributions to the analysis in the World Bank study from which this chapter is adapted.

<sup>97</sup> See WHO (2002) and Mercy et al. (1993).



**Figure 5.1: The Ecological Model**

Accumulation of context-based risk factors that evolve along a chronosystem



Source: Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021), adapted from WHO <sup>98</sup>.

At the family level, a wide range of factors may lead to victimization or perpetration of violence. In particular, child maltreatment has been shown to have large effects on the propensity to be a perpetrator of violence later in life or be a victim of violence <sup>99</sup>. It is also associated with a higher risk of delinquency, and more so than unemployment, educational attainment, gun ownership, or exposure to lead through paint or gasoline <sup>100</sup>. In addition, too soft or too harsh discipline at home, corporal punishment, parental deviance, domestic violence, and the fact of witnessing violence at home, parental rejection, and poor supervision may all lead to higher risks of violence later in life. Issues such as food insecurity may also be risk factors for violence.

At the school level, risk factors include (among others) lack of resources, lack of

organizational capacity, and a school climate characterized by anti-social behaviors. Lack of student bonding with their schools, use of corporal punishment in the school, and more generally a lack of positive role models and caring adults also tend to result in higher risks of violence <sup>101</sup>. Drop-outs and student absenteeism and the presence of alcohol and drugs in the school are also negative factors. Poor school governance and classroom environment, including dilapidated infrastructure and lack of safety making it easier for perpetrators to enter schools are also detrimental <sup>102</sup>. But above all, gang activity within schools and access to various types of weapons are especially detrimental <sup>103</sup>.

At the community level, the presence of gangs is a major risk factor, as is the prevalence of crime and violence in the community. Availability of firearms, high levels of

<sup>98</sup> WHO (2002).

<sup>99</sup> See for example Mercy (2008) and Currie and Tekin (2012).

<sup>100</sup> Chioda (2017).

<sup>101</sup> Watson (1995) and Rossman and Morley (1996).

<sup>102</sup> Fisher (2001).

<sup>103</sup> Abramovay (2002).

unemployment or underemployment, high population density, poverty<sup>104</sup>, and norms conducive of violence and gender inequality also tend to be associated with higher risks of violence in schools.

At the societal level, wars or dictatorships, norms condoning the use of violence to solve conflict, sometimes in the aftermath of political conflict, norms condoning gender inequality such as patriarchal systems, and climates marked by impunity and corruption all tend to be associated with higher risks of violence<sup>105</sup>. Violence as portrayed in the media can also affect behaviors for both children and adults alike, as can weak police and legal systems and cultural norms condoning violent behaviors, for example by husbands towards their wives and other dependents.

Important risk factors start as early as during pregnancy and the early years of a child's life, with negative impacts not only the child's development, but also for future risks that the child may engage in violence, and lack the ability to be resilient to episodes of violence when victimized. This suggests that a life cycle approach to preventing violence may be warranted. Among different risk factors, both child aggression and child maltreatment have been shown to have large effects in terms of future delinquency<sup>106</sup> and aggression<sup>107</sup>. Physical aggression may appear as early as the first year of life and typically increases between 24 and 48 months of age before decreasing as children learn to control their aggression<sup>108</sup>. Longitudinal studies suggest that aggression at an early age is a strong predictor of aggression later in life as well as other antisocial behavior including criminality. It may also lead to higher risks of unemployment and mental health issues<sup>109</sup>. Maltreatment of children and the children's aggression may reinforce each other.

---

<sup>104</sup> Gottfredson (2001).

<sup>105</sup> WHO (2002).

<sup>106</sup> Currie and Tekin (2012).

<sup>107</sup> Huesmann et al. (1984).

<sup>108</sup> Tremblay (2004).

The various risk factors are context-based and change over time in the life of children. For an infant or a young child, risk factors will mainly be at the individual and family levels, while as the child grows and goes to school, he or she will face new forms of victimizations and risk factors associated with schools, peers and communities will gain more salience. As such, adopting a life cycle approach follows a developmental theory to violence prevention. If violence is a learned behavior, it can be unlearned and not learned in the first place and risk factors contributing to it can be mitigated. Research shows that enhancing multiple protective factors early in life breeds success to prevent violence later in life<sup>110</sup>.

### Protective Factors

Each of the above risk factors has corresponding protective factors that can be enhanced to both prevent episodes of violence and increase the resilience of children, families and schools to violence. Protective factors are defined as characteristics of the child, family, and wider environment that reduce the negative effect of adversity on child outcome<sup>111</sup>.

Risk factors have corresponding protective factors that can be enhanced to both prevent episodes of violence and increase the resilience of children, families and schools to violence.

At the individual and school levels, protective factors include good student achievement, the ability of students to bond with the schools, strong work motivation, the ability in developed countries to reach higher education, support and supervision by teachers, clear rules, and other positive features of the school and class climate<sup>112</sup>. Research suggests

<sup>109</sup> Chioda (2017).

<sup>110</sup> Tremblay and Craig (1995).

<sup>111</sup> Masten and Reed (2002).

<sup>112</sup> Lösel and Farrington (2012).

that enhancing protective factors might be more effective to reduce VIAS than simply focusing on mitigating risk factors<sup>113</sup>.

Individual and family-level protective factors include caring relationships with parents and other adults as well as positive communication and discipline, all of which can help prevent violent behavior and strengthen children's resilience when violence occurs. Caring relationships also provide children with positive role models and help create a strong sense of connectedness to both family and community while promoting positive values<sup>114</sup>. Students who develop higher self-esteem and self-efficacy are less likely to engage in violent behavior and acquaint themselves with delinquent peers. These students can also adjust to change and recover from disruption and stressful situations. Finally, children with outgoing personalities – a trait which can to some extent be nurtured, may interact more easily with other children, which may again allow them to avoid engaging in violence as perpetrators or being victims of violence.

School-based protective factors include some of the same caring relationships that work at the family level, but in this case with teachers and other school staff. In addition, students who are given opportunities to participate in the classroom and are recognized for their contributions, efforts, and progress in school, are more likely to develop strong bonds of attachment and commitment to school, family and community<sup>115</sup>. By contrast, alienation from such processes in a student's development can result in the loss of bonds with the school, a potential precursor to violent behavior. Indicators of school-level resources such as reasonable student/teacher ratios also can play a role. Teachers who have fewer students in the classroom can dedicate more time to each student and focus on those students that tend to interrupt the development of the lessons and

the classroom. This helps for student engagement and performance, thus reducing the risk of disorderly behavior. Adequate physical infrastructure matters as well since schools that create a warm and welcoming environment not only help for the student experience, but also for fostering a sense of physical and social order. Efforts to create a sense of school ownership among students as well as proper management of access to various school areas (including minimizing opportunities for out-of-sight activities or blind spots) can all foster a safe environment. Finally, maintaining high expectations also matters as both parents and schools that transmit high expectations to children and provide them with the necessary support to achieve these goals have higher rates of academic success, and lower risks of violence.

Community and societal protective factors include participation in community networks. Students who belong to groups such as neighborhood associations or religious and school organizations that foster the development of positive informal and formal ties with other children, adults, and organizations are less likely to demonstrate aggression and/or violence<sup>116</sup>. The accumulation of risk factors often contributes to either perpetrating or being a victim of violence. Rather than relying on a single intervention to prevent violence, it is often better to combine interventions to tackle risk factors and enhance protective factors. The following sections focus on school-based interventions within a life cycle approach.

### **Interventions in Early Childhood**

Risk factors start during pregnancy and the early years of a child's life. Therefore, interventions to prevent VIAS should begin with prenatal care and selected other ECD programs<sup>117</sup>. In Rio, child care programs have been shown to improve child assessments and

---

<sup>113</sup> Resnick (2000).

<sup>114</sup> Blum et al. (2000).

<sup>115</sup> Hawkins et al. (1991).

<sup>116</sup> Catalano et al. (1999) and Violence Prevention Institute (2001).

<sup>117</sup> Denboba et al. (2014).

lessen behavioral problems<sup>118</sup>. The Colorado Blueprints for Healthy Youth Development<sup>119</sup> identifies three effective programs targeting 0-4 years old (infants and preschool children) and 16 promising programs. While not reviewing all programs here, a few can be highlighted.

Risk factors start during pregnancy and the early years of a child's life. Therefore, interventions to prevent VIAS should begin with prenatal care and selected other ECD programs.

A first well known intervention focusing on healthy pregnancy and parenthood readiness is the Nurse Family Partnership in the United States. This home visitation program accompanies women during their first pregnancy to prevent substance use (alcohol, tobacco, or drugs), promote a healthy diet, and equip them with positive parenting skills. It also focuses on raising knowledge of infants' needs, including awareness of the dangers of exposure to toxic substance. The program helps in preventing child maltreatment and increasing bonding with infants and positive discipline. It also helps to increase the importance given by mothers to early child care. Evaluations show significant positive outcomes in both the short and long term. In the short term, substantial reductions in child abuse and neglect were observed. In addition, in the long term, a 15-year follow-up assessment showed reduction in serious antisocial behaviors as measured through the number of arrests and convictions in comparison to control groups. Effects were even greater for children from disadvantaged families, suggesting the benefits from well targeted interventions<sup>120</sup>.

The High/Scope Perry Preschool program is another well-known program that has been rigorously evaluated and has strong results. Disadvantaged children attended the program daily for 2.5 hours per day for two

years, from 3 to 5 years of age and a total of 30 weeks a year. The curriculum focuses on stimulating cognitive development and enhancing self-control skills, was organized in small groups dynamic (5:1 teacher-children ratio), and had weekly home visitation and parenting program to involve parents in the socio-emotional development of their children<sup>121</sup>. Children who participated in the program were followed up to age 27. Positive impacts included higher educational performance, including higher rates of high school completion, lower involvement in delinquency (fewer lifetime arrests), and improved economic status when adults<sup>122</sup>.

The Child-Parent Center Education Program in Chicago targeted inner city children aged 3 to 9. Participating children showed higher educational attainment, income, socioeconomic status, as well as lower rates of justice-system involvement and substance abuse later in life. The program emphasized basic skills in language arts and math through structured and diverse learning experiences that included whole-class instruction, small-group and individualized activities, and frequent field trips. All teachers were certified and had bachelor's degrees. Classes were small and staffed by aides. In addition to the head teacher in each site, the parent resource teacher and outreach representative directed multi-faceted and intensive services in the parent resource room. The scope of services helped ensure high participation. Heavy outreach by staff also led to participation by families most in need<sup>123</sup>.

Parent Corps is an evidence-based intervention that enhances pre-K programs in schools and early education centers, serving primarily children of color from low-income communities. It helps key adults in children's lives — parents and teachers — to create safe, nurturing, and predictable environments at

<sup>118</sup> Carneiro and Evans (2013).

<sup>119</sup> See the organization's website at <https://www.blueprintsprograms.org/publications/>.

<sup>120</sup> Olds et al. (1998), Farrington and Welsh (2007).

<sup>121</sup> Tremblay and Craig (1995), Heckman et al. (2010).

<sup>122</sup> Schweinhart et al. (1993).

<sup>123</sup> Reynolds et al. (2011).

home and in the classroom and improve relationships and communication between parents and teachers. ParentCorps includes three main components: professional learning for leaders, teachers, mental health professionals, and parent support staff; parenting program for families of pre-k students, and social-emotional learning classroom curriculum. Among various outcomes, children showed less child internalizing and externalizing problems at two-year follow-up (age 8) than those in the control group <sup>124</sup>.

Other programs shown to be effective for children's healthy development include Project STAR and Generation PMTO, a family training program focused on family management skills. To ensure quality implementation of evidence-informed early childhood interventions, performance checklists (lists of tasks or steps required to complete a practice competently) such as those developed by the Early Childhood Technical Assistance Center at the University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill can be a valuable tool. A meta-analysis of performance checklists for ECD interventions in the United States showed that the 26 checklists developed to implement best practice ECD programs were based on solid practice-outcome relationships. That is, they used strong evidence and findings from research syntheses and empirical studies to inform the selection or development of checklist indicators. <sup>125</sup> This suggests that performance checklists might be relevant and reliable tools, in particular in efforts to adapt or scale up programs.

Finally, healthy nutrition in early childhood is also critical. Poor nutrition and especially stunting can lead to long-term damage to the brain, which, in turn, can impact a child's emotional and psychological responses to stress, learning disabilities and other medical complications. This may affect educational

performance and achievement, as well as productivity in adulthood. Later in the child's life, once healthy nutritious habits are acquired, they can last beyond the school years and into adulthood. Insights are available on new interventions that focus on nutrition, mental health, and mindfulness, as a tool to curve violence <sup>126</sup>, especially in primary schools to which we now turn.

### Interventions Typically for Primary Schools

Socio-emotional learning (SEL) programs are a common and effective approach to prevent VIAS. As show in Figure 5.2, SEL and socio-emotional skills can be broadly categorized in five groups of skills related to self-awareness (understanding one's own emotions, personal goals, and values, as well as one's strengths and limitations), self-management (regulating one's emotions and behaviors, for example by delaying gratification, managing stress, controlling impulses, and showing grit), social awareness (understanding, empathizing, and feeling compassion others, including those with different backgrounds or cultures), relationship skills (establishing and maintaining healthy and rewarding relationships), and responsible decision making (make constructive choices about personal behavior and social interactions across diverse settings) <sup>127</sup>.

Socio-emotional learning (SEL) programs are a common and effective approach to prevent VIAS. SEL seeks to empower students to manage their emotions, achieve positive goals, empathize with others, sustain positive relationships, and make responsible decisions.

SEL seeks to empower students to manage their emotions, achieve positive goals, empathize with others, sustain positive relationships, and make responsible

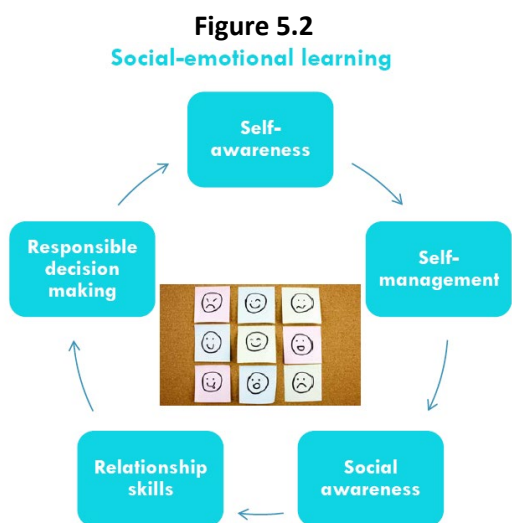
<sup>124</sup> Brotman et al. (2013), Dawson-McClure et al. (2015), Brotman et al., (2016).

<sup>125</sup> Dunst (2017).

<sup>126</sup> Chioda (2017).

<sup>127</sup> Weissberg et al. (2015), Oberle et al. (2016).

decisions<sup>128</sup>. A related approach to SEL emphasizes conflict resolution skills for students. Programs focusing on the skills can help students reduce instances of interpersonal conflicts, thereby preventing or reducing violence and bullying.



Source: Weissberg et al. (2015).

A review of four meta-analyses of school-based SEL programs suggests many positive outcomes including lower levels of conduct problems and emotional distress and higher academic performance for children participating from preschool through secondary education. Even though immediate results were stronger, positive outcomes persisted in the long term in a variety of contexts<sup>129</sup>. While SEL programs have been successful in enhancing prosocial behaviors across age groups, some interventions had particularly strong results in primary education. The Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) in Jamaica focused on enhancing socio-emotional skills, in particular self-control and emotions regulations through a multi-component programs in primary schools (5-11 years old students), with strong results in

enhancing protective factors such as better educational and employment outcomes<sup>130</sup>.

Mindfulness is a relatively simple and low intensity technique that has shown positive results in terms of stress reduction, self-control but also reduction of suspension and grades improvement. In the United States, mindfulness has been introduced in elementary and middle schools through short sessions of breathing exercise and learning to be in the present moment. Evaluations and systematic reviews consistently found positive outcomes<sup>131</sup>. In San Francisco, the program Quiet Time that involves two 15 minutes sessions of breathing meditation per day (one in the morning and one in the afternoon) has led to a significant drop in anti-social behavior in school and outside school. This includes a reduction of 45 percent of suspensions and grades improvement<sup>132</sup>. A similar intervention implemented in Oakland called the Mindful Schools had similar positive results on stress reduction and self-control<sup>133</sup>.

Some programs focus on peaceful conflict resolution. The Aulas en Paz program seeks to reduce and prevent aggression and promote peaceful coexistence in Colombian schools. The program consists of a curriculum to develop competencies in the classroom, extracurricular activities in groups of children identified initially as aggressive with children identified to having more prosocial skills, and workshops, visits, and regular phone calls to parents. More than 80,000 children have benefited from the program in elementary schools. An evaluation suggests reductions in levels of aggression and indiscipline and an increase in prosocial behavior among beneficiaries. The success of the intervention, particularly in violent contexts, appears to be predicated on the mix of universal activities for the general school population and targeted

<sup>128</sup> Weissberg and Cascarino (2013).

<sup>129</sup> Mahoney et al. (2018).

<sup>130</sup> Chioda (2017).

<sup>131</sup> Napoli et al. (2005), Weare (2013), McKeering and Hwang (2019).

<sup>132</sup> Hölzel et al. (2011).

<sup>133</sup> Chioda (2017).

activities for those who need more targeted attention<sup>134</sup>.

Steps can be taken in primary school to prevent gender-based violence in adolescence. Gender-based violence results in part from cultural norms, traditional gender roles in the family and society, and power imbalances within the family, community, and society. School violence prevention programs must incorporate a gender lens. For example, if a school is designed properly, the risk of gender-based violence can be mitigated. In addition, the school is a place where cultural norms can be challenged and reshaped to support gender equality and prevent gender-based violence. Even when teaching traditional academic subjects, teachers can strive to promote a culture of non-violence, as well as equality and respect for different genders and sexual orientations both within the school and the wider community.

### Interventions Typically for Secondary Schools

Some interventions tend to be more effective with older children, especially to prevent bullying defined as repeated aggression (physical, verbal or psychological) among peers who have an imbalance of power (one child being more powerful than the other) over a prolonged period of time. In Europe, anti-bullying programs have been most successful with children aged 11 or older, even if more research is needed on differentiated impacts for sub groups of children by gender, ethnicity, developmental needs, disability and other characteristics.<sup>135</sup> A meta-analysis on school-based violence prevention programs in the United States also suggests that programs focused on at-risk and older children had stronger effects in reducing violence<sup>136</sup>. This is in line with research on conflict resolution

education mentioned earlier that tends to be more effective for older than younger children<sup>137</sup>. After-school programs also tend to be more effective for adolescents<sup>138</sup> probably due to positive peer associations. However, mixing students is not always effective probably because of the same yet reverse reason (working with peers can be counterproductive if this is associated with increased victimization and even a potential increase in bullying)<sup>139</sup>. Remedial education and life skills and training programs for very high-risk adolescents also show positive outcomes<sup>140</sup>.

Some interventions tend to be more effective with older children, especially to prevent bullying defined as repeated aggression (physical, verbal or psychological) among peers who have an imbalance of power (one child being more powerful than the other).

The Campbell meta-analysis of 44 evaluations of anti-bullying programs reviewed studies with evidence of impact conducted from 1983 to 2009<sup>141</sup>. It shows that on average, the programs achieved to reduce bullying by 20-23 percent and victimization by 17-20 percent. Program components that proved more effective to reduce bullying included: parent training/meetings, improved playground supervision, disciplinary methods, classroom management, teacher training, classroom rules, whole school anti bullying policy, school conferences, information for parents, and cooperative group work. The most effective components were parent trainings/meetings and disciplinary methods, as well as intensity for children and parent training/meetings. For victimization, videos and disciplinary methods were the most effective components, followed by parent training/meetings and cooperative group work. Among the different components,

<sup>134</sup> Jimenez et al. (2010).

<sup>135</sup> Farrington and Ttofi (2009).

<sup>136</sup> Park-Higgerson et al. (2008).

<sup>137</sup> Garrard and Lipsey (2007).

<sup>138</sup> Gottfredson et al. (2004).

<sup>139</sup> Farrington and Ttofi (2009).

<sup>140</sup> Guerra et al. (2013).

<sup>141</sup> Farrington and Ttofi (2009).

enhancing playground supervision, with more teacher presence, identifying hot spots and hot times for bullying, and reorganizing the built environment and natural surveillance (supervision) accordingly were also promising and relatively low-cost interventions.

Comprehensive programs inspired by the Olweus model - which aims to address bullying and improve pupil relationships from elementary school to high schools, tend to work well. The program has been implemented in a dozen countries. Students respond to a short anonymous survey to assess the nature and prevalence of bullying in the school. A conference day is then convened for school staff to discuss the results of the survey with support from consultants. A Bullying Prevention Coordinating Committee with representation from all key stakeholders is created and an action plan is designed. Actions include adult supervision of school areas where bullying tends to occur. Regular classroom discussions and activities are held to reinforce rules and anti-bullying values and norms. The program also encourages parental involvement. Finally, some steps target students who bully and those who are bullied, as well as their parents. Evaluation suggests that the program may reduce bullying by half<sup>142</sup>.

Comprehensive programs inspired by the Olweus model - which aims to address bullying and improve pupil relationships from elementary to high school, tend to work well.

For such programs to work, attention must be paid to the comprehensiveness of the program (number of components), as well as its duration (number of days) and intensity (number of hours) for teachers and children influence effectiveness towards bullying reduction. Intensive and long-lasting program are needed to change behaviors and norms in and around schools, which matters for prioritization when designing school programs. As will be discussed

<sup>142</sup> Hazelden Foundation (2007).

below with respect to stakeholder engagement, engaging with families and communities is also key for success. Parents sessions were particularly effective for both reducing bullying and preventing victimization<sup>143</sup>.

For at-risk adolescents that display serious anti-social behaviors, are involved in delinquency and/or are at the verge of dropping out of secondary school, other approaches such as cognitive behavioral training (CBT) have proven effective to lessen impulsiveness and enhance empathy. CBT challenges automatic responses and questions triggers that often leads to unwelcomed consequences. The Colorado Blueprints identify six model interventions that involve CBT: LifeSkills Training, Blues Program, Brief Alcohol Screening and Intervention for College Students, New Beginnings (for Children of Divorce), Project towards no Drug Abuse, and Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies. In addition, the Colorado Blueprints identify 12 promising CBT programs. The focus of the discussion below is on impacts on delinquency and physical violence. CBT may also mitigate the effects of child sexual abuse, including depression, post-traumatic stress and anxiety, but a meta-analysis suggest that those impacts are generally modest.

The LifeSkills Training (LST) program has been rigorously evaluated multiple times with consistent, strong evidence of its effectiveness to prevent violence and substance abuse for high school students. LST uses multiple methods (instruction, demonstration, feedback, reinforcement and practice) to teach high school students personal self-management skills, social skills, and information and resistance skills related to drug use. A total of 30 sessions are taught over three years with a decreasing number of sessions over time (15, 10, and 5 sessions per year). Additional violence prevention lessons also are available each year. Results from a large-scale randomized study in New York City showed a reduction of 32 percent

<sup>143</sup> Farrington and Ttofi (2009).



in delinquency and 26 percent in the likelihood of fighting after the first year of the program<sup>144</sup>.

Becoming a Man (BAM) targets at-risk adolescent boys from very disadvantaged neighborhoods in Chicago. It focuses on emotions management, interpersonal problem solving, goal setting, empathy, and personal integrity using CBT and role modeling in and after school. Youth meet on a voluntary basis every week with a mentor for a check-in during which they can share personal concerns. The group listens in and situations are reviewed in groups to analyze responses and alternatives. Those sessions are followed up with sport sessions with trained coaches. Sports activities help reinforce SEL and positive conflict resolutions with specialized guidance. BAM lasts 27 hours with weekly group sessions over the school year. Evaluations show positive short-term effects not only in reducing antisocial behaviors, but also in improving academic achievements. Specifically, BAM helped reduce violent crime arrest by 44 percent and arrests related to vandalism and weapons crimes by 36 percent. In addition, participants were more likely to graduate from high school compared to non-participants<sup>145</sup>.

Mentoring, teachers' skills enhancement, counselling and mental health services, and academic support have also been found effective to reduce exclusion, and thereby avoid its negative consequences on adolescents' learning achievements and violence perpetration.

Mentoring, teachers' skills enhancement, counselling and mental health services, and academic support have also been found effective to reduce exclusion, and thereby avoid its multiple negative consequences on both adolescents' learning achievements and violence perpetration and victimization.

<sup>144</sup> Botvin et al. (2006).

<sup>145</sup> Heller et al. (2013).

<sup>146</sup> Hemphill and Hargreaves (2010).

Disciplinary exclusion has been linked to antisocial behaviors and delinquency<sup>146</sup> as well as poor learning outcomes, including dropout<sup>147</sup> with long-term negative outcomes in terms of employment and training opportunities<sup>148</sup>. Meta-analysis found that skills training for teachers and mentoring programs were the most effective (in the short term) to reduce exclusion<sup>149</sup>. Other effective interventions included enhancement of academic skills and counselling/mental health services. These findings are in line with other research that emphasized the importance of teacher-student relationships to enhance students' motivation, engagement to school, and more generally prosocial and less aggressive behaviors in life. Positive mentoring also had multiple positive effects in promoting prosocial behaviors as they provide positive role models and positive connectedness with a caring adult.

Specific interventions focus on preventing dating violence. Adolescents are particularly vulnerable to reproducing patterns of violence witnessed at home or in the community in terms of gender-based violence. Effective programs aim to empower adolescents to build and maintain healthy relationships. They usually include knowledge on how to detect abuse and develop skills to ensure respect in romantic relationships. Interventions such as Fourth R in Canada aim to empower adolescents to build and maintain healthy relationships. They usually include knowledge on how to detect abuse and develop skills to ensure respect in romantic relationships. An evaluation suggests that students, particularly males, who participated in the program at aged 14-15 were significantly less likely to perpetrate acts of violence towards their partners two years following program participation at age 16-17,

<sup>147</sup> Arcia (2006), Michael (2011), Noltemeyer and Ward (2015).

<sup>148</sup> Massey (2011).

<sup>149</sup> Valdebenito et al. (2019).

compared to peers who did not participate<sup>150</sup>. Other programs focusing on sexual education have also shown positive results in reducing coercive sex between students and fostering higher resilience to pressure for having sex. This included the World Starts with Me in Uganda that targeted both male and female students aged 12-19<sup>151</sup>.

After-school programs can promote positive use of free time, positive peer association, and mentoring while strengthening socio-emotional learning, gender equality, and life skills.

Finally, after-school programs usually combine recreational activities (sports or arts) and academic support to promote adolescents' positive use of free time, positive peer association, and mentoring while strengthening socio-emotional learning, gender equality, and life skills. When reviewing after-school programs and their respective effectiveness, attention should be paid to the diversity of programs in terms of form, structure and specific goals, and the need to focus on quality.<sup>152</sup> Some after school programs provide intensive, small-group instruction or individual tutoring programs, while others only provide unstructured homework time, which is unlikely to lead to significant results. Provided they follow evidence-based practices, after-school programs can lead to significant reductions in conduct problems and drug use, as well as gains in achievement (as measured through test scores), grades, and school attendance. Researchers summarize these practices as SAFE, which stand for (S)tep-by-step training approach, (A)ctive forms of learning by having youth practice new skills, (F)ocused time and attention on skill development, (E)xplicit in defining the skills to be promoted. After-school programs tend to be more effective for adolescents, probably

because they enable positive peer association<sup>153</sup>.

### Referral Pathways

The interventions mentioned so far focus on prevention. When violence or bullying occurs in schools, the students who have been victimized need support. Child-friendly, safe, and reliable reporting mechanisms and referral pathways must be in place to allow an ethical and timely response when a child experiences violence. This is crucial to prevent further trauma and revictimization, provide children with the right support and services, and prevent perpetrators from continuing doing harm. Different modalities exist to enable safe reporting in school, including child-friendly helplines, chat rooms and online reporting, anonymous boxes, and trained counselors or focal points in schools.

Raising awareness on the need to report is not an easy task, however. Data from surveys measuring violence against children suggest lack of reporting of episodes of violence, both in school and elsewhere. In Kenya and Uganda for example, between 40 and 60 percent of boys and girls who were victims of VIAS told someone about the incident, but less than 10 percent of victims receive services<sup>154</sup>. Part of the issue is a lack of awareness about the services that are needed or available. Another issue is the high level of normalization of violence against children. There is, therefore, also a need to teach children, including young boys and girls, to identify abuse. But in addition, lack of reporting is also due to lack of trust that appropriate actions will be taken and perceptions that no retaliation against perpetrators will happen. In some settings, there may also be incentives for principals and teachers not to report violence in their school, for example to preserve the school's reputation.

<sup>150</sup> Wolfe et al. (2009).

<sup>151</sup> Rijdsdijk et al. (2011), UN-Women and UNESCO (2016).

<sup>152</sup> Durlak et al. (2010), Hirsch et al. (2010).

<sup>153</sup> Hill et al. (2011), Chioda (2017).

<sup>154</sup> Catholic Relief Services (2019).

When reporting incidents of violence, adequate referral pathways are needed. Referral pathways are protocols for a series of actions or steps to take after identifying a student who has been the victim of violence and bullying. Their primary objective is to ensure that survivors/victims of violence and bullying receive prompt and coordinated responses from service providers while also ensuring the safety and privacy of the victim. The services provided must be comprehensive and may include health services, psychosocial support, protective care (police services), and legal services if needed, as well as linkages to other community service providers. During this process, school actors must ensure that existing policies and agreed procedures are followed, including for prosecution of perpetrators.

Ensuring the confidentiality of the survivor/victim is critical as is maintaining high ethical standards during the process of referral.

Ensuring the confidentiality of the survivor/victim is critical as is maintaining high ethical standards during the process of referral. To that end, school may want to identify and train focal points for both genders within the schools so that student victims/survivors can reach out directly to them in order to maximize the effectiveness of the referral pathway system. Many countries have adopted referral pathways, including Guatemala and Peru, as well as Kenya and Uganda. In Kenya, a free National Child helpline was set up with trained volunteer counselors and a clear referral pathway with a list of service providers specialized in child services. More research is needed on how effective referral pathways are in practice, but guidance on how to choose reporting mechanisms is available<sup>155</sup>.

#### Box 5.1: Prevention Training for the Clergy

In the Diocese of Lugano in Switzerland, the Foundation ASPI provided training for diocesan priests towards the prevention of sexual abuse and violence against children. The objectives were to help participants (1) deepen their knowledge of issues related to child sexual abuse and maltreatment; (2) identify potential indicators of abuse and maltreatment; (3) know the procedure to follow in cases of suspicion; (4) understand and integrate prevention messages in the clergy's activities; and (5) know what help is available for potential abusers. Three sensitive aspects emerged during the training as well as from written evaluations (these are also aspects often mentioned by parents and teachers).

First, it must be recognized – including by the clergy, that sex education plays a fundamental role in the prevention of sexual abuse of children. As 50 percent of sexual abuse occurs in children under 9 years of age, and in 80 percent of cases this is by a family member), sex education is necessary from a very early age, and that this task cannot be entrusted to families alone. Schools must play an active role (in a way appropriate for children's age).

Second, the issue of secrecy must be dealt with, including as it relates to confession. Can a priest remain silent if he becomes aware of ongoing sexual abuse of minors, or if he becomes aware of a real risk that abuse may occur?

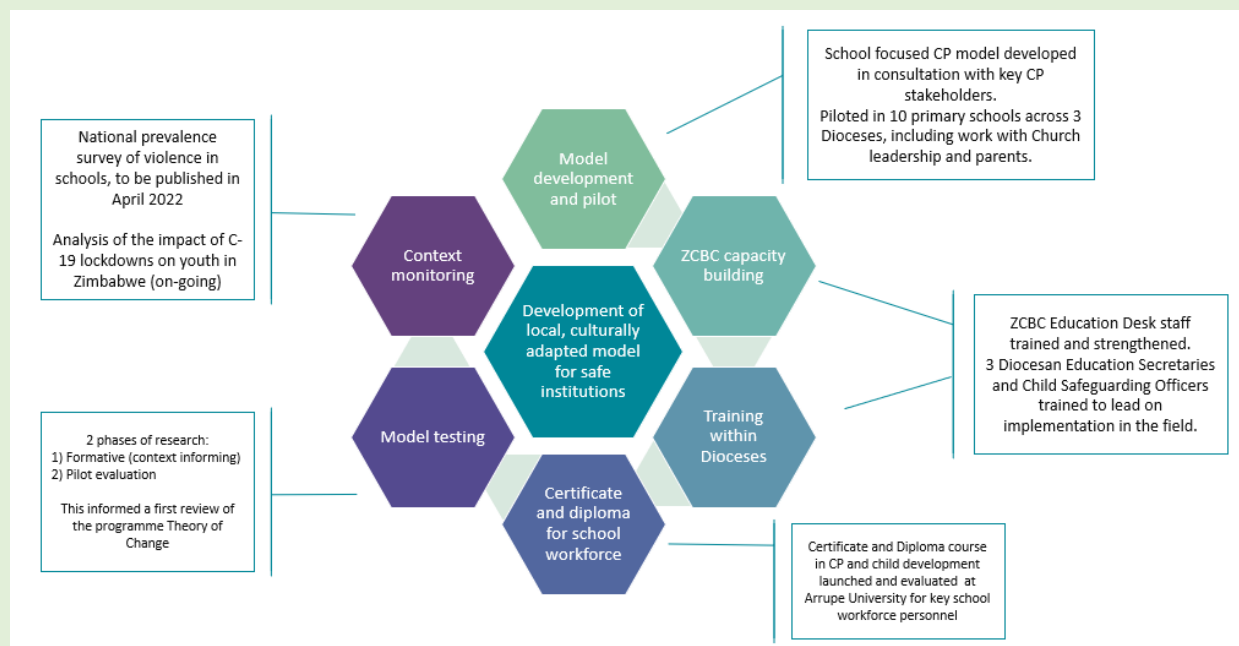
Third a key aspect of prevention is non-violent education. For some individuals, corporal punishment may still be perceived as acceptable or even part educating children. Yet when an adult suffers violence, it is considered a crime. Why then should violence done to a child who cannot defend himself or herself be justified?

<sup>155</sup> UN-Women and UNESCO (2016).

### Box 5.2: Evaluating Pilot Interventions – A Case Study for Catholic Schools in Zimbabwe

Few interventions to reduce violence in schools have been evaluated in developing countries. A team from the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine is supporting a pilot intervention in Zimbabwe that will be rigorously evaluated. The intervention is supported by the Zimbabwe Catholic Bishops Conference (ZCBC). It will aim to promote Catholic values and ethos in schools, reduce teacher and peer violence, and strengthen referral mechanisms within schools, so that responses to violence are appropriate. The focus on school responses to violence and referrals to appropriate mechanisms is an innovative component, as most existing school violence interventions have focused more on prevention than response and referral.

**Figure 5.3: Design of the Intervention with the Zimbabwe Catholic Bishops Conference**



Source: Eldred et al. (2022).

### Beyond Specific Programs: Policies and Laws

Beyond specific programs, it is also important to mention the importance of broader policies, including laws. When policies are implemented well, and national laws have adequate enforcement mechanisms, they can have a major impact towards reducing violence at scale, which may in turn reduce the need for specific programmatic interventions. The referral pathways mentioned above is one example of broader policies, as are codes of conduct in schools adopted by school systems.

Laws to prevent the use of corporal punishment policies in school are another example of national policies that can make a difference at scale. Yet while many countries have adopted laws to prevent corporal punishment, including in school, the practice often remains used by teachers due to weak enforcement. This does not mean that laws should not be adopted, but rather that actual practices should be monitored and sanctioned when needed.

To illustrate how laws related to violence in schools remain inadequate in many countries, consider an analysis conducted using

data from the Women, Business, and the Law program at the World Bank<sup>156</sup>. The analysis documents global trends in legal protection for women and girls against domestic violence and sexual harassment. In particular, Women, Business and the Law collects data on legislation on sexual harassment, defined as any unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favor, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behavior of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation. Sexual harassment may occur when it interferes with work, is made a condition of employment or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment. It may also occur in public and private spaces and in schools.

The share of countries without laws on sexual harassment is decreasing. Between 2013 and 2017, it dropped by three percentage points from 16.3 percent to 13.5 percent thanks to legal reforms in Cameroon, Chad, Egypt, and Guinea. Similarly, when considering other areas, some gains were observed as well. At the same time, one in five countries does not have appropriate laws against sexual harassment in employment. The proportion is much higher at six in ten countries for sexual harassment in education and at four in five countries for sexual harassment in public spaces. Criminal penalties for sexual harassment, such as fines or imprisonment are in place in only two thirds of countries and less than half for sexual harassment in employment. There is heterogeneity between regions in the share of countries with adequate laws, with weaker laws for some (but not all) categories in the Middle East and North Africa as well as sub-Saharan Africa. In nearly nine out of ten countries, laws covering sexual harassment do not specifically apply to the different domains of employment, education and public places combined,

suggesting that most countries continue to have at least some gaps in their laws.

Despite more countries adopting laws against sexual harassment, including in education, the number of women not protected under the law is decreasing only slowly, in part due to population growth. In 2017, 287 million adult women were not legally protected from sexual harassment, versus 320 million in 2013. The share of women not protected was reduced from 12.5 percent to 10.6 percent. But when considering specific domains, the statistics are worse. Estimates of the number of women lacking legal protection against sexual harassment in employment, education, and public places are at 359 million globally, 1.5 billion, and 2.2 billion, respectively. These estimates are all very high.

### Summing Up

Ending VIAS requires multifaceted interventions, but promising interventions have high benefits to costs ratios. Risk factors for violence include factors at the levels of the individual, the household, the community, and society<sup>157</sup>. The accumulation of risk factors often explains why an individual behaves more violently or is more prone to be victimized than others. Instead of looking for a single best intervention that would be most effective in preventing violence, it often makes sense to combine interventions that can both mitigate the most salient risk factors and enhance relevant protective factors in a given context and for a specific group. There is no unique way to categorize programs to prevent VIAS, but a lifecycle approach is useful because risk factors leading to VIAS evolve over time in a child's life.

---

<sup>156</sup> Tavares and Wodon (2018).

<sup>157</sup> School safety issues at the school level can compound each other. For example poor infrastructure and lack of basic services at schools is

associated with increases in violence. Community factors, such as conflict/fragility can also influence school level relationships and contribute to exclusion and negative behaviors such as bullying/violence.

### **Box 5.3: Cost-benefit Analyses**

While this has not been discussed here, the World Bank study emphasizes the fact that cost-benefit analyses suggest that promising interventions have high benefits to costs ratios. While these ratios are sensitive to assumptions used in the analyses, results suggest that reducing violence in and around schools is a smart economic investment. While most of the available analyses are from developed countries, programs should generate high benefits in developing countries as well if one presumes that results of a similar magnitude could apply.

Early childhood interventions are essential to prevent VIAS and often have high returns. Cost-benefit analyses have been implemented mostly for center-based interventions (typically preschools, although many programs also include home visiting, parenting advice, health and nutrition services, and referrals for social services)<sup>158</sup>. In primary schools, programs helping children improve their social and emotional skills also have high returns. In secondary schools, a key area of focus should be to reduce bullying. Reviews suggest that intensive and long-lasting programs are needed to change behaviors, with parental sessions contributing to success.

---

<sup>158</sup> Dalziel et al. (2015).

## CHAPTER 6

### ENGAGING ALL STAKEHOLDERS TO END VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS

Finally, the World Bank study on ending violence in schools<sup>159</sup> argued that it is essential to engage all stakeholders to end violence in schools – not only teachers, principals, school staff and students, but also parents and communities. The analysis in this last chapter consists once again for the most part of excerpts from the World Bank report, but with additional insights from experiences in Catholic schools.

#### Introduction

Multiple stakeholders must be engaged to ensure that schools are safe. This includes stakeholders within the school – not only students, but also teachers and principal – as well as stakeholders in the community, including parents and caregivers. There are examples of successful programs adopting so-called whole school approaches to violence prevention, as noted by WHO.

Engaging with the school community at large helps to change mindsets on VIAS (and more generally violence against children), while also challenging where needed patterns of gender inequality that sustain gender-based violence.

One of the objectives of engaging with the school community at large is to change mindsets on VIAS (and more generally violence against children), while also challenging where needed patterns of gender inequality that sustain gender-based violence. This section and the sections that follow consider ways to strengthen teacher training and engage parents/caregivers so that they fully participate in programs. Examples of programs that have

managed to change community norms towards the use of violence are also provided.

A whole school approach is a comprehensive approach that seeks to change norms at the school level to promote respect, inclusion, good behavior, and learning and safety. This is done by engaging with the entire school community, including pupils/students, principals, teachers, school administrative staff, counsellors, parents, and community members and leaders. Potential components of a whole school approaches have been defined by various organizations in slightly different ways, but with similar intent. Beyond the prevention of VIAS, the Center for Disease Control considers 10 components in its Whole School, Whole Community, Whole Child (WSCC) approach: Physical education and physical activity; Nutrition environment and services; Health education; Social and emotional school climate; Physical environment.; Health services; Counseling, psychological and social services; Employee wellness; Community involvement; and Family engagement.

The United Nations Girls Initiative suggests that core elements of a whole school approach towards ending gender-based violence should include: Effective school leadership and community engagement; Establishing and implementing a code of conduct; Capacity building of teachers and educational staff; Empowering children on child rights, participation, and gender equality; Improving reporting, monitoring, and accountability; Addressing incidents; Strengthening physical learning environments; and Engaging parents. These two lists are not exhaustive: other ways of conceptualizing the whole school approach have been proposed<sup>160</sup>.

<sup>159</sup> Wodon, Fèvre et al. (2021). Chloë Fèvre made very substantial contributions to the analysis in the World Bank study from which this chapter is adapted.

<sup>160</sup> CEAPA (2012).

A whole school approach uses multiple strategies to develop a common vision and shared values and rules for the school, and works through the curriculum, teacher training, parental engagement, and student learning towards a safe and inclusive school climate and respectful school values<sup>161</sup>. A key characteristic of a whole school approach is thus collaboration among main school stakeholders. Teachers and parents play an especially crucial role. One of the objectives is to change mindsets on corporal punishment and violence against children as a way to educate children<sup>162</sup> as well as gender inequality that sustains root causes for violence. Breaking these habits and cognitive frames is not easy, but it can be done possible. In Sweden for instance, a general ban on all forms of corporal punishment against children with corresponding public education campaigns helped decreased public support to corporal punishment from 54 percent to 11 percent in 25 years<sup>163</sup>.

In primary schools, a well-known program using a whole-school approach is the Good School Toolkit (GST) in Uganda, a country with substantial structural issues related to poverty, large class sizes, poor physical infrastructure, and a lack of resources for teaching. The program was developed by the NGO Raising Voices in consultation with teachers and children in 600 schools. It works through six sequential steps to provide behavioral change techniques to teachers, school staff and students. It focuses on goal setting, positive discipline, empathy, and reflection and practice of new behavioral skills. Teachers and school staff are trained and supported throughout implementation. An evaluation suggests that after 18 months of implementation, GST reduced the risk of physical violence by teachers and school staff against students by 42 percent;

<sup>161</sup> Bradshaw et al. (2012), Cornell et al. (2012), Lewis et al. (2013), Ward and Gersten (2013), Sprague et al. (2016), Un-Women and UNESCO (2016), WHO (2019).

<sup>162</sup> Frankenberg et al. (2010), Payet and Franchi (2008).

<sup>163</sup> Durrant (1999).

halved the number of teachers who reported using physical violence against students; and improved students' connectedness and sense of safety and belonging with their school. GST also increased teachers' satisfaction in their role at school and increasing students' wellbeing and sense of safety at school<sup>164</sup>.

### **Teachers' Skills and Classroom Management**

Supporting teachers to enhance their skills in positive discipline and classroom management is one of the most effective approaches to preventing bullying and VIAS. Among the different types of school violence prevention interventions reviewed in a meta-analysis<sup>165</sup>, those focusing on providing teachers with skills to improve their relationship with students and manage students' behaviors had the strongest and most reliable results in terms of lessening disruptive and aggressive behaviors in the classroom and enhancing prosocial behaviors later in life. By contrast, punitive interactions tend to feed a vicious circle of violence, delinquency, and further exclusion. These results are in line with other systematic reviews and meta-analyses<sup>166</sup>.

Supporting teachers to enhance their skills in positive discipline and classroom management is one of the most effective approaches to preventing bullying and VIAS.

The types of training reviewed in the meta-analyses included training focusing on facilitating mutual respect between teachers and students<sup>167</sup>, training focusing on class management and establishing clear classroom rules<sup>168</sup>, and training providing teachers with strategies for working in alliance with parents to

<sup>164</sup> Devries et al. (2015), Naker (2018), WHO (2019).

<sup>165</sup> Valdebenito et al. (2019).

<sup>166</sup> Oliver et al. (2011), Obsuth et al (2016), Allen et al. (2007), Cornelius-White (2007), Roorda et al. (2011).

<sup>167</sup> Okonofua (2016).

<sup>168</sup> Hawkins et al. (1988).



promote students' engagement in school activities<sup>169</sup>. SEL training should be included in teacher training given its positive effects on students' prosocial behaviors and learning achievements<sup>170</sup>.

Several programs have been effective at empowering teachers at different levels of education to use positive discipline and improve trust and mutual respect in their interaction with children. The Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children and the WHO handbook

on school violence prevention provide useful resources on positive discipline for teachers and schools<sup>171</sup>. When teachers and the entire school community understand that respect and trust are key pillars for child's healthy development and that corporal punishment is not only counterproductive but negatively impacts a child's learning ability, the whole school culture and climate may be transformed.

#### **Box 6.1: Building Peace One School at a Time – A Case Study for Catholic Schools in South Africa**

A case study on Catholic schools in South Africa illustrates how to engage teachers and students to end VIAS. Under the leadership of the Catholic Institute of Education (CIE), the service arm of the Catholic Board of Education, schools started to implement a Building Peaceful Schools (BPS) programme in 2013. The program aimed among others to develop a school ethos and a climate of care and prevent corporal punishment by teachers. BPS has been implemented so far in 61 schools across six regions.

The program focused on three areas: peacebuilding, conflict management, and restorative justice. Peace circles were one of the features used to encourage open discussion. In the circles, symbolically everyone is seated equally. Questions asked include: Is my heart at peace? Is there something creative I can do about the situation? Is there someone with influence I can approach? Is there a relationship I can build? Am I willing to learn? When iterating BPS workshops, these questions are adapted and deepened.

CIE staff designed surveys to assess whether the program was having an impact. This included surveys for Grade 6 and 7 pupils that focused on pupil-pupil interactions, pupil-teacher interactions, and the school environment. While progress has been slow in some areas, there are hopeful signs. For example, the surveys suggest a reduction in instances of teachers hitting pupils. Zooming too far out (to national aggregates) proved not as useful as looking at individual schools. In some schools, great progress was achieved, while this was less the case in other schools, which is useful to know for planning.

Source: Baker et al. (2022).

<sup>169</sup> Jalongo et al. (2001).

<sup>170</sup> Mahoney et al. (2018), Schonert-Reich et al. (2017).

<sup>171</sup> WHO (2019).

At the preschool level, the IRIE Classroom Toolbox has empowered early childhood teachers to create emotionally supportive classroom environments, teach preschool children socio-emotional skills, use classroom management techniques, and develop behavior planning. Evaluation showed reduction in teachers' use of violence against teachers and overall improvement in children's prosocial behavior<sup>172</sup>. Another promising program for primary teachers is EmpaTeach developed by the International Rescue Committee. This is a low- intensity 10-week intervention during which teachers are taught strategies to maintain discipline in their classrooms in nonviolent ways. EmpaTeach focuses on teachers themselves using cognitive-behavioral therapy and behavioral science techniques to help them identify their triggers, change destructive thought patterns, and plan for positive reactions. Pilot findings showed a reduction in physical and emotional VIAS (as self-reported by students), higher student connectedness, less depression, and more engagement in school. The use of the empathy building module also succeeded in changing teachers' attitudes towards corporal punishment.<sup>173</sup>

### **Engaging with Parents and Caregivers**

Since many risk factors associated with aggression and violence are the individual and family levels, families need to be part of school programs as they keep playing an important role in children and teenagers' life and development. In fact, engaging with parents of adolescents that display behavioral problems can yield significant results in a relatively short period of time. For instance, the Functional Family Therapy program in the United States works with the entire family in 12 sessions over 3 months to

increase bonding, problem solving and communication. Results suggest a large reduction in recidivism for youth participating in the program (79 percent reduction after 3 years<sup>174</sup>). Another well-known program is the Multisystemic Therapy which has also succeeded in reducing behavioral problems. The program combines CBT, parenting programs to promote affection and communication, after school activities, and increased parental involvement in the education of children and youth (12-18 years of age)<sup>175</sup>.

Parenting programs need to follow evidence-based practices and focus on positive discipline, positive communication, and increased bonding among family members. As with teachers, providing alternative tools and skills to caregivers in dealing with their children can help to break the cycle of violence. Child maltreatment is a major risk factor for perpetrating or experiencing violence later in life, leading to multiple negative outcomes<sup>176</sup>. Even mild corporal punishment can be detrimental to children's healthy development and wellbeing, with negative multiplier effects in terms of externalizing and internalizing behavior problems, impaired cognitive ability, low self-esteem, and the normalization of violence against children.<sup>177</sup> Communication within the family is also important to identify potential experiences of violence or bullying that may be ignored if there is no communication or trust in the family. However, not all programs are equal, with different types, structures and intensity affecting outcomes.<sup>178</sup> While some parenting interventions have step-by-step protocols and resources and tools with sessions in the classrooms and sharing of practical how-to information with parents and caregivers, others may simply consist of newsletters or unstructured engagement with uncertain results. Several resources on promising

---

<sup>172</sup> Baker-Henningham et al. (2017).

<sup>173</sup> International Rescue Committee (2017).

<sup>174</sup> Gordon et al. (1995).

<sup>175</sup> Weiss et al. (2013), Timmons-Mitchell et al. (2006), Dekovic et al. (2012), Asscher et al. (2014).

<sup>176</sup> Zingraff et al (1994), Hagborg et al. (2018).

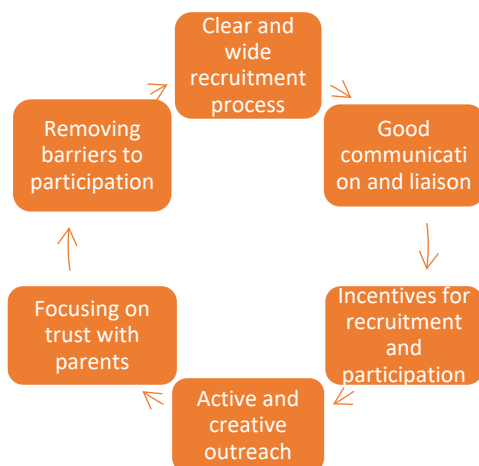
<sup>177</sup> Gershoff (2002), Gershoff and Grogan-Kaylor (2016), Font and Cage (2018).

<sup>178</sup> Durlak et al. (2010), Hirsch et al. (2010), Yohalem and Wilson-Ahlstrom (2010).

examples of parenting programs are available including the WHO School Violence Handbook<sup>179</sup>, the UN Women’s guidance on school-related gender-based violence<sup>180</sup>, the INSPIRE Handbook and associated resources<sup>181</sup>, and resources from various clearinghouse websites.

Effectively engaging with parents not only requires choosing among alternative programs, but also recruiting parents and keeping them engaged long enough to produce sustained behavioral change.

**Figure 6.1: Engaging with Parents and Caregivers**



Source: adapted from Axford et al.<sup>182</sup>

Effectively engaging with parents not only requires choosing among alternative programs, but also recruiting parents and keeping them engaged. The most challenging part of engaging with parents is probably not to choose among the many parenting methodologies, even though quality matters, but to keep them engaged long enough to produce sustained behavioral change. A few

lessons emerge from research and practice (Figure 6.1)<sup>183</sup>. A thorough recruitment process, good communication and liaison with stakeholders, incentives for recruitment and retention (such as in-kind incentives for parents<sup>184</sup> but also rewards for recruiters<sup>185</sup>), active and creative outreach work providing flexibility for practitioners to innovate, investment in building relationships with parents, making programs easily accessible, and having realistic expectations can all help making parenting programs work. Other studies confirm these best practices and show that building relationships with parents focusing on trust, possibly through home visits by practitioners, is effective<sup>186</sup>. Finally, removing barriers to participation such as inadequate timing, lack of interest, or stigmatization is as important as providing catch-up sessions to prevent children from dropping out.

### Working with Communities on Social Norms and Safe Passage To Schools

As schools do not operate in isolation, it is important to engage with communities to shift norms conducive of violence, be they the endorsement of corporal punishment as a way to discipline a child, gender inequality, or the use of violence to solve conflicts or exert power over others. Apart from the Good School Toolkit mentioned earlier, SASA! is a good example that shows how norms can be challenged even in a relatively short period of time. SASA! means “Now!” in Kiswahili. The program was developed by Raising Voices to prevent violence against women and has been implemented in Uganda by the Center for Domestic Violence Prevention. It employs multiple strategies to build a critical mass of engaged community members, leaders, and institutions, including local activism, media

<sup>179</sup> WHO (2019).

<sup>180</sup> UNESCO and UN Women (2016).

<sup>181</sup> WHO et al. (2016, 2018).

<sup>182</sup> Axford et al. (2012).

<sup>183</sup> Axford et al. (2012).

<sup>184</sup> McDonald et al. (2012).

<sup>185</sup> Baker et al. (2011).

<sup>186</sup> Caspe and Lopez (2006), Davidson and Campbell (2007).

and advocacy, communication materials, and training. The Activist Kit that is central to SASA! community engagement and mobilization involves four phases: Start, Awareness, Support, and Action. The content evolves with each phase, with power as a central theme. Results from a randomized controlled trial suggest positive effects after three years of programming. In comparison to control communities, SASA! communities reported a reduction in levels of violence against women of 52 percent; an increase in the share of women and men who believe it is acceptable for women to refuse sex of 28 percent; and an increase of 50 percent in the share of men and women who believe that physical violence against a partner is unacceptable. Essentially, SASA! works with key stakeholders at the community level to deconstruct power in intimate partnerships<sup>187</sup>.

It is important to engage with communities to shift norms conducive of violence, be they corporal punishment as a way to discipline a child, gender inequality, or the use of violence to solve conflicts or exert power over others.

Another interesting program is the Bell Bajao! (Ring the Bell) Campaign<sup>188</sup>. The campaign was launched in 2008 to call on men and boys across India to take a stand against domestic violence by performing a simple bystander intervention – ringing the doorbell when they witnessed domestic violence taking place. The campaign’s integrated cultural, organizational and media strategy sought to make the issue part of mainstream conversations, increase knowledge about and change community attitudes towards domestic violence and towards HIV-positive women; and alter individual behavior. By the end of the three-year campaign, through television, radio and print, online multimedia campaign,

<sup>187</sup> Michau et al. (2008), Abramsky et al. (2014).

<sup>188</sup> Breakthrough (2013), Michau et al. (2016).

<sup>189</sup> This is often referred to Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design.

educational materials and travelling video vans, over 130 million people had been reached. In addition, more than 75,000 rights advocates were trained to become agents of change. The efforts resulted in a 49 percent increase in the number of people aware of the Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act in India, and a 15 percent increase in access to services for survivors.

Engaging with community is also important as violence commonly happens on the way to or from school. Ensuring a safe passage is key.

Engaging with community is also important as violence commonly happens on the way to or from school. Ensuring a safe passage to schools usually implies identifying the main routes to schools, hot spots where children (both girls and boys of different ages) feel most vulnerable, and placing adult monitors on those strategic routes during commute times. Safe passages can also be enhanced, for example by cleaning up routes, improving the physical environment in and outside the school, making sure schools can close, working with street vendors or other shop keepers in the surrounding of the schools to enhance positive natural surveillance, ensuring public lighting works, and improving road safety<sup>189</sup>. Evaluation of the Chicago Safe Passages suggests positive results in terms of crime reduction on the main routes to school as compared to neighboring roads where the program was not implemented<sup>190</sup>. Other examples of safe passage mechanisms include Walking Buses in Iraq with two trained adults escorting girls to school<sup>191</sup> and the Jamaican Integrated Community Development Project that combined road wardens, community mobilization, training in violence prevention and road safety and proper signals on the main roads to school<sup>192</sup>.

<sup>190</sup> Curran (2019).

<sup>191</sup> UNICEF (2010).

<sup>192</sup> World Bank (2019).

### Box 6.2: Potential Roles for Faith-Based Actors

When working with communities on social norms, there is a range of actions that faith-based actors can take to help prevent and reduce violence, including VIAS. These include:

- Highlight and promulgate scriptural passages and social teachings that promulgate spiritually-based response to situations and alternatives to engaging in violence
- Explore and re-examine sacred text passages, interpretations of scripture and religious teachings, and local social norms that condone violence
- Undertake parenting/caregiver programming with the goal of reducing violence and promoting spiritual capacity development
- Promote whole child development programming across spiritual, socio-emotional, cognitive and physical domains
- Incorporate violence prevention and spiritual capacity development, as integral parts of faith-based school curriculum and school practice
- Ensure that school-based violence prevention efforts are accompanied by home-based violence prevention efforts
- Ensure that house of worship-based violence prevention efforts are accompanied by home-based violence prevention efforts
- Raise public awareness on the importance of the child, healthy forms of child rearing, and spiritual responses to violence
- Engage in interfaith dialogues, or dialogues with secular and faith-based actors dialogue around violence prevention
- Collaborate with governmental or civil society child protection mechanisms, to infuse a spiritual component into these mechanisms.
- Collaborate with those engaged in advocacy, to push for greater policy engagement in violence prevention.

Source: Anis (2022).

Efforts to prevent VIAS can take place in a single school, or a group of schools, but ideally they should be broader and led by Ministries of Education at the national level, often in collaboration with other Ministries or agencies. To that end, systemic approaches are needed since of the aims is to transform societies so that VIAS is no longer accepted, justified and practiced. To sustainably shift norms, parent associations and teacher unions, as well as religious groups and even political parties, need to participate and be heard. Several useful guides and handbooks exist in that respect, for example on engaging with religious leaders to end VIAS<sup>193</sup>. More generally, four steps in the strategic process can be suggested, whether this is done nationally or at a sub-national level.

A first step is to set clear standards for all, which can be done by passing laws that prohibit all forms of violence, and in particular violence against children in school. As mentioned earlier, on corporal punishment, according to the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 132 countries have prohibited the practice in schools and 56 have done so in all settings including at home. However, thirty years after the adoption of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, corporal punishment in schools is still lawful in 67 countries. Legislation is necessary but not sufficient however, especially in contexts where corporal punishment is seen as a necessity to properly discipline a child and enforcement systems are unlikely to exist or work even when corporal punishment is outlawed. Legislative efforts must be accompanied by continued and multi-pronged awareness raising efforts. Such efforts need to happen at all levels of society and be relayed by influential groups. All stakeholders, including teacher unions, political parties, religious groups, parent associations, and children need to better understand children's rights and the detrimental effects of VIAS as well as the link between violence against

<sup>193</sup> Dodd (2011).

women and violence against children. Educational campaigns also need to focus on the benefits of non-violent alternatives as children who are not afraid in schools have a higher connectedness, mental health and educational achievements.

Some countries have adopted codes of conduct focusing on school communities. Like legislation, codes of conduct are useful tools to set standards and signal priorities and values. They set guidelines and ethical standards for school staff (teachers and principals) as well as students and parents and clearly outline unacceptable behaviors such as the use of any type of violence, sexual harassment, and abuse of power in school. To be effective though, they need to be widely known and enforceable.

A second step is the development of solid diagnostics to guide the elaboration of action plans at different levels. To prevent violence and be able to target efforts and monitor progress, it is crucial to understand the prevalence of different types of violence in a given context. It is also important to analyze risk and protective factors associated with different forms of violence. Through the Safe to Learn campaign, a diagnostic tool has been developed that covers key elements that need to be in place to ensure a safe learning environment for children. The tool helps identify assets and gaps in terms of legislation, policy, budgeting, capacity, from the national level all the way down to the school level. Each layer of influence is looked at, with suggestions based on the evidence and best practices available.

A third step is to develop a common vision and action plan not only to clearly set priorities and responsibilities, but also define standards and accountability mechanisms across agencies and sectors. Action plans can be set at all levels of influence to be closer to the context. These plans ideally are co-created, that is, they adopt a participatory process and involve all relevant stakeholders, including teachers, unions, parents, and community leaders. Action

plans need to have relevant indicators on behavioral change (not just outputs) to assess progress and improve programs as needed.

A fourth step is to promote a whole school approach to enhance students' connectedness with schools, and ensure a positive learning environment. As mentioned earlier, a whole school approach seeks to change norms at the school level by engaging all stakeholders, from students to teachers and principals, and parents as well as community members and leaders. In implementing such approaches, due attention should be paid to what the empirical evidence suggests in terms of what works and what may not, taking into account the form of violence being considered, age group affected, gender dynamics, and context. This is the case for the prevention of violence as well as for steps that are taken when violence occurs.

Finally, it must be recognized that investment projects in the social sectors including education can exacerbate the risk of Sexual Exploitation and Abuse and Sexual Harassment (SEA/SH). Donors and government agencies must therefore be careful go assess such risks in their projects. At the World Bank, within the context of the Environmental and Social Framework, principles and approaches to identify and mitigate the risk of SEA/SH in projects are outlined in a good practice note<sup>194</sup> currently under development, the principles of which may also be of interest to government Ministries.

## Summing Up

So-called whole school approaches can help reduce VIAS at a limited cost. Engaging with the entire school community is beneficial. A whole school approach uses multiple strategies to develop a common vision and shared values and rules for the school, and works through the curriculum, teacher training, parental engagement, and student learning towards a

---

<sup>194</sup> World Bank (2021).

safe and inclusive school climate and respectful school values. One example is the Good School Toolkit (GST) in Uganda. Evaluations suggest that after 18 months of implementation, the program reduced the risk of physical violence by teachers and school staff against students by 42 percent, halved the number of teachers who reported using physical violence against students, and improved students' connectedness and sense of safety and belonging with their school. The program also increased teachers' satisfaction in their role at school and increasing students' wellbeing and sense of safety at school<sup>195</sup>. Importantly, if the GST program were implemented at scale, unit costs for implementation would be low<sup>196</sup>.

Supporting teachers to enhance their skills in positive discipline and classroom management is also effective. Providing teachers with skills to improve their relationship with students and manage behaviors lessens disruptive and aggressive behaviors in the classroom and enhance prosocial behaviors later in life. By contrast, punitive interactions tend to feed a vicious circle of violence, delinquency, and further exclusion. The Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children and the WHO handbook on school violence prevention<sup>197</sup> provide useful resources on positive discipline for teachers and schools. When teachers and the entire school community understand that respect and trust are key pillars for child's healthy development and that corporal punishment is not only counterproductive but negatively impacts a child's learning, the school climate can be transformed.

Families need to be part of school programs. Engaging with parents of adolescents that display behavioral problems can yield significant results even in a relatively short period of time. But parenting programs should follow evidence-based practices, including focusing on positive discipline, positive communication, and increased bonding among

family members. As with teachers, providing alternative tools and skills to caregivers in dealing with their children can help break the intergenerational cycle of violence. Effectively engaging with parents requires choosing wisely among alternative programs, as well as recruiting parents and keeping them engaged. The most challenging part is to keep parents engaged long enough to produce sustained behavioral change, but techniques have been developed to do so.

Engaging with communities to shift norms also matters. The SASA! program is a good example of how norms can be challenged. SASA! means "Now!" in Kiswahili. The program employs multiple strategies to build a critical mass of engaged community members, leaders, and institutions, including local activism, media and advocacy, communication materials, and training. In comparison to control communities, SASA! communities reported a reduction in levels of violence against women of 52 percent, an increase in the share of women and men who believe it is acceptable for women to refuse sex of 28 percent, and an increase of 50 percent in the share of men and women who believe that physical violence against a partner is unacceptable<sup>198</sup>. Essentially, SASA! works with key stakeholders at the community level to deconstruct power in intimate partnerships. Another interesting program is the Bell Bajao! (Ring the Bell) campaign in India. Engaging with community is also important to ensure safe passage to schools by identifying hot spots where children may feel vulnerable, and placing adult monitors on those spots.

These various interventions and approaches have proven benefits, but they are not exhaustive in terms of the types of programs and policies that may help prevent violence in school or cope with its effects. Guidance on how to prevent violence in school is available from the WHO Handbook on school-based violence

---

<sup>195</sup> Devries et al. (2015).

<sup>196</sup> Greco et al. (2018).

<sup>197</sup> World Health Organization (2019).

<sup>198</sup> Abramsky et al. (2014).

prevention<sup>199</sup> and for violence against children more broadly from the INSPIRE framework<sup>200</sup>. Also relevant is the new strategy adopted by the Safe to Learn initiative<sup>201</sup> to which a wide range of organizations are contributing. The organizations that are member of the Safe to Learn initiative have made the prevention of violence in schools a priority in their own strategies. For example, at the World Bank, the Safe and Inclusive Schools Initiative is one of five pillars of the Bank's approach to realize the future of learning<sup>202</sup>.

---

<sup>199</sup> WHO (2019).

<sup>200</sup> WHO (2018).

<sup>201</sup> Safe to learn Initiative (2021).

<sup>202</sup> World Bank (2020d). The five pillars are: (1) learners are engaged; (2) teachers facilitate learning;

(3) learning resources are adequate and diverse; (4) schools are safe and inclusive; and (5) and systems are well managed.



## CONCLUSION

As in previous Global Catholic Education Reports, the first part of this report was devoted to a review of trends in enrollment in K12 Catholic schools and in Catholic higher education. In 2019, Catholic schools served 62.1 million children in pre-primary, primary, and secondary schools globally. In addition, 6.7 million students were enrolled in Catholic institutes and universities at the post-secondary level. These data for 2019 provide a baseline to assess the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on enrollment, but it will take a few more years to have a better understanding of those effects. What is clear is that Catholic educational institutions remain the largest non-state provider of education in the world, thus contributing to efforts to achieve the fourth Sustainable Development Goals.

The theme for the second part of the report was ending VIAS. Students and education systems around the world have been profoundly affected by the COVID-19 crisis that started more than two years ago. Apart from leading to much higher rates of learning poverty (defined as the inability for a ten year old child to read and understand an age-appropriate text), there is evidence that the crisis has exacerbated some of the risk factors traditionally associated with violence against children, including VIAS. The need to end VIAS is more pressing than ever. Pope Francis' call for a Global Compact on Education emphasizes the need to put the human person at the center of what Catholic and other educational institutions do. Ending violence in school is a clear first step.

Preventing VIAS is a moral imperative. The negative effects of VIAS are widespread. Children's life is profoundly affected when they

are victims or perpetrators of violence, with scars that last a lifetime. Violence in school affects virtually all aspects of a child's well-being, including especially mental health. Conversely, ending violence in schools would have large benefits for children and their future families.

Based in large part on a recent World Bank study by the author, this report has provided rigorous data and evidence on both the negative impacts of VIAS and the large potential benefits of ending VIAS. Promising interventions to end VIAS are available, including based on experiences in Catholic schools. It turns out that these interventions are often affordable to implement, and have high benefit to cost ratios. The case for investments towards ending VIAS is clear. Ending VIAS is a smart investment apart from being the right thing to do.

As is the case for previous Global Catholic Education Reports, the aim of this report and of the broader Global Catholic Education project was twofold: to connect Catholic education to the world, and the world to Catholic education. In this report more than the two previous ones for 2020 and 2021, a substantial share of the analysis was based on previous work aiming to distill good practices from international experience. In so doing, it is hoped that the report will have contributed in a small way to bringing global knowledge on education and integral human development to Catholic schools, universities, and other organizations, while also highlighting a few interesting experiences from Catholic education.

## REFERENCES

- Abramovay, M., and Das Graças Rua, M. (2002). *Violence in Schools*. Brasilia: UNESCO.
- Abramsky, T., Devries, K., Kiss, L., Nakuti, J., Kyegombe, N., Starmann, E., Cundill, B., Francisco, L., Kaye, D., Musuya, T., Michau, L., and Watts, C. (2014). Findings from the SASA! Study: A cluster randomized controlled trial to assess the impact of a community mobilization intervention to prevent violence against women and reduce HIV risk in Kampala, Uganda. *BMC Medicine*, 12. 10.1186/s12916-014-0122-5.
- Alcaraz, R. (2002). *School Violence. Fact Sheet*. Southern California Center of Excellence on Youth Violence Prevention, Riverside, CA: University of California Riverside.
- Alda, E. (2005). *School-Based Violence Prevention*. Technical Brief 11. Washington DC: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Allen, M., Witt, P. L., Wheelless, L. R., Allen, M., Witt, P. L., and Wheelless, L. R. (2007). The role of teacher immediacy as a motivational factor in student learning: Using meta-analysis to test a causal model. *Communication Education*, 55(1), 21–31.
- Anis, K. (2022). Faith-based Actors as Keystones for Preventing Violence in Childhood. Mimeo.
- Arcia, E. (2006). Achievement and enrollment status of suspended students: outcomes in a large, multicultural school district. *Education and Urban Society*, 38(3), 359-369.
- Asscher, J. J., Dekovic, M., Manders, W., van der Laan, P. H., Prins, P. J. M., and van Arum, S. (2014). Sustainability of the effects of multisystemic therapy for juvenile delinquents in the Netherlands: effects on delinquency and recidivism. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 10, 227–243.
- Axford, N., Lehtonen, M., Kaoukji, D., Tobin, K. and Berry, V. (2012). Engaging parents in parenting programs: Lessons from research and practice. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34, 2061–2071.
- Azevedo, J. P. 2020. Learning Poverty: Measures and Simulations. Policy Research Working Paper No. 9446. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Azevedo, J. P., A. Hasan, D. Goldemberg, S. A. Iqbal, and M. K. Geven. 2020. Simulating the Potential Impacts of COVID-19 School Closures on Schooling and Learning Outcomes: A Set of Global Estimates. World Bank Policy Research Paper 9284. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Baafi, A., and R. Kwabena (2020). Teacher-Student Relationship And Student Learning Outcomes In Senior Public Secondary Schools In Ghana. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 6(12), 147-161.
- Backiny-Yetna, P., and Q. Wodon. (2009). Comparing the performance of faith-based and government schools in the Democratic Republic of Congo. In *Emerging Evidence on Vouchers and Faith-Based Providers in Education: Case Studies from Africa, Latin America, and Asia*, edited by F. Barrera-Osorio, H. A. Patrinos, and Q. Wodon. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Baker, A., MacKenzie, C., and McCormick, J. 2021. Building peace one school at a time: a case study for Catholic schools in South Africa, *International Studies on Catholic Education*, 13(2): 217-227.
- Baker, C.N., Arnold, D.H., and Meagher, S. (2011). Enrollment and attendance in a parent training prevention program for conduct problems. *Prevention Science*, 12(2), 126-138.
- Baker-Henningham, H., Bowers, M., Francis, T. et al. (2017). The Irie Classroom Toolbox: a cluster randomised trial of a universal violence prevention programme in Jamaican preschools. Abstract submitted to the Society for Prevention Research Annual Meeting.
- Bair-Merritt, M. H., Blackstone, M. and Feudtner, C. (2006). Physical health outcomes of childhood exposure to intimate partner violence: a systematic review. *Review Pediatrics*, 117(2), e278-90.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Bashir, S., M. Lockheed, E. Ninan, and J. P. Tan. (2018). *Facing Forward: Schooling for Learning in Africa*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

- Belfield, C., Klapp, A., and Lebin, H. M. (2015). The Economic Value of Social and Emotional Learning, *Journal of Benefit-Cost Analysis*, 6(03).
- Black, M. M., Walker, S. P., Fernald, L. C. H., Andersen, C. T. et al. (2017). Early Child Development Coming of Age: Science through the Life-Course, *The Lancet*, 389 (10064): 77-90.
- Blum, R. W., and Rinehart, P. (1997). *Reducing the Risk: Connections That Make a Difference in the Lives of Youth*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Division of General Pediatrics, Adolescent Health.
- Blum, R. W., Beuhring, T., and Rinehart, P. M. (2000). Protecting teens: *Beyond race, income and family structure*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Center for Adolescent Health.
- Botea, I., Chakravarty, S., Haddock, S. and Wodon, Q. (2017). Interventions Improving Sexual and Reproductive Health Outcomes and Delaying Child Marriage and Childbearing for Adolescent Girls. Ending Child Marriage Notes Series. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Bradshaw, C. P., Waasdorp, T. E., and Leaf, P. J. (2012). Effects of school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports on child behavior problems. *Pediatrics*, 130(5), e1136–e1145.
- Breakthrough Insights. (2013). *Breakthrough's Bell Bajao! A Campaign to Bring Domestic Violence to a Halt*. Available at: [http://www.breakthrough.tv/o/wp-content/files\\_mf/1330816837BellBajao\\_Insight.pdf](http://www.breakthrough.tv/o/wp-content/files_mf/1330816837BellBajao_Insight.pdf).
- Brotman, L.M., Dawson-McClure, S., Calzada, E.J., Huang, K.Y., Kamboukos, D., Palamar, J.J., and Petkova, E. (2013) Cluster (school) RCT of ParentCorps: impact on kindergarten academic achievement. *Pediatrics*, 131(5):e1521-9.
- Brotman, L. M., Dawson-McClure, S., Kamboukos, D., Huang, K. Y., Calzada, E. J., Goldfeld, K., and Petkova, E. (2016). Effects of ParentCorps in Prekindergarten on Child Mental Health and Academic Performance: Follow-up of a Randomized Clinical Trial Through 8 Years of Age. *JAMA pediatrics*, 170(12), 1149–1155.
- Botvin, G. J., K. W. Griffin, and T. R. Nichols. (2006). Preventing Youth Violence and Delinquency through a Universal School-Based Prevention Approach. *Prevention Science*, 7: 403–8.
- Carneiro, P., and D. Evans. (2013). The Impact of Formal Child Care Attendance in Rio de Janeiro on Child Development and Maternal Outcomes. Working paper.
- Caspe, M. and Lopez, E. (2006). *Lessons from Family-Strengthening Interventions: Learning from Evidence-Based Practice*. Harvard Family Research Project.
- Cahu, P. and Quota, M. (2019). Does School Safety and Classroom Disciplinary Climate Hinder Learning? Evidence from the MENA Region. Policy Research Working Paper No. 8822. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Catalano, R.F., Oxford, M.L., Harachi, T.W., Abbott, R.D., and Haggerty, K.P. (1999). A test of the social development model to predict problem behaviour during the elementary school period. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, 9:39–56.
- Cattaro, G. Richard, P. and Q. Wodon. (2021). Challenges and Opportunities for Catholic Schools Globally: Insights from OIEC's World Congress, *Journal of Catholic Education*, 24(1): 239-251.
- Chioda, L. (2017). *Stop the Violence in Latin America: A Look at Prevention from Cradle to Adulthood*. Latin American Development Forum. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Congregation for Catholic Education. (1977). *The Catholic School*. Vatican City: Libreria Editrice Vaticana.
- Congregation for Catholic Education. (2017). *Educating to Fraternal Humanism: Building a "Civilization of Love" 50 Years after Populorum Progressio*. Vatican City: Libreria Editrice Vaticana.
- Cornell, D. G., Allen, K., and Fan, X. (2012). A randomized controlled study of the Virginia student threat assessment guidelines in kindergarten through grade 12. *School Psychology Review*, 41(1), 100–115.
- Cornelius-white, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: a meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113–143.
- Curran, F. C. (2019). Does the Chicago Safe Passage Program Reduce Reported Crime Around Elementary Schools? Evidence From Longitudinal, Geocoded Crime Data. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 30(9), 1385–1407.

- Currie, J., and Tekin, E. (2012). Understanding the cycle: childhood maltreatment and future crime. *The Journal of human resources*, 47(2), 509–549.
- D’Agostino, T. J., R. Dowd, and J. Mugo. (2019). Faith-based Education in Changing Social, Economic, and Political Contexts: Perspectives from Catholic Educators in Kenya. *The Review of Faith & International Affairs*, 17(4): 76-88.
- Dalziel, K. M., Halliday, D. and Segal, L. (2015). Assessment of the Cost–Benefit Literature on Early Childhood Education for Vulnerable Children: What the Findings Mean for Policy. *SAGE Open*, January–March, 1–14
- Davidson, G. and Campbell, J. (2007). An Examination of the Use of Coercion by Assertive Outreach and Community Mental Health Teams in Northern Ireland, *British Journal of Social Work*, 37(3) 537-555.
- Dawson-McClure, S., Calzada, E., Huang, K.Y., Kamboukos, D., Rhule, D., Kolawole, B., Petkova, E., and Brotman, L.M. (2015). A population-level approach to promoting healthy child development and school success in low-income, urban neighborhoods: impact on parenting and child conduct problems. *Prev Sci*. 16(2):279-90.
- Deković, M., Asscher, J. J., Manders, W. A., Prins, P. J., and van der Laan, P. (2012). Within-intervention change: mediators of intervention effects during multisystemic therapy. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 80(4), 574–587.
- Deloitte Access Economics. (2019). The economic cost of violence against children and young people. Deloitte Access Economics.
- Denboba, A. D., Sayre, R., Wodon, Q. et al. (2014). *Stepping Up Early Childhood Development : Investing in Young Children for High Returns*. Washington, DC: the World Bank.
- Devries, K. et al. (2015). The Good School Toolkit for reducing physical violence from school staff to primary school students: a cluster-randomised controlled trial in Uganda. *Lancet Global Health*, 385, e378–86.
- Devries, K., Fabbri, C., Allen, E., Barongo, V. et al. (2019). Preventing violence against children in schools (PVACS): Protocol for a cluster randomised controlled trial of the EmpaTeach behavioural intervention in Nyarugusu refugee camp. *BMC Public Health*. 19. 10.1186/s12889- 019-7627-y.
- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P. and Pachan, M. (2010). A Meta-Analysis of After-School Programs That Seek to Promote Personal and Social Skills in Children and Adolescents. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 45(3-4):294-309.
- Dimmock, F., Olivier, J., and Wodon, Q. (2017), Network Development for Non-state Health Providers: African Christian Health Associations, *Development in Practice*, 27:5, 580-98.
- Durrant, J. E. (1999). Evaluating the success of Sweden’s corporal punishment ban. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 23(5), 435–448.
- Eldred, E., Turner, E., Fabbri, C., Nyadombo, A. T., Mgugu, D., Muchemwa Nherera, C., Nyakuwa, R., Nhenga-Chakarisa, T., Rank, S., and Devries, K. (2022). Development of an intervention to prevent violence in Catholic primary schools in Zimbabwe: Innovation from within the Church, Mimeo.
- Fang, X. (2015). The Economic Burden of the Health Consequences of Violence Against Children in Cambodia. Cambodia, Phnom Penh: Ministry of Women’s Affairs and UNICEF.
- Fang, X., Brown, D. S., Florence, C. S., and Mercy, J. A. (2012). The economic burden of child maltreatment in the United States and implications for prevention. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 36(2), 156-165.
- Fang, X., Fry, D. H., Brown, D. S. et al. (2015). The burden of child maltreatment in the East Asia and Pacific region. *Review Child Abuse Negl.*, 42,146-62.
- Fang, X., Fry, D. A., Ji. K. et al. (2015). The burden of child maltreatment in China: a systematic review. *Bulletin of the World Health Organisation* 93(3), 176-185C.
- Fang, X., Zheng, X. Fry, D. A. et al. (2017). The Economic Burden of Violence against Children in South Africa. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*, 14(11): 1431.
- Fargo, J. D. (2009). Pathways to Adult Sexual Revictimization: Direct and Indirect Behavioral Risk Factors Across the Lifespan. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 11(24).

- Farrington, D. P., and Welsh, B. C. (2007). *Saving Children from a Life of Crime: Early Risk Factors and Effective Interventions*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Farrington, D. and Ttofi, M. (2009). School-Based Programs to Reduce Bullying and Victimization. *Campbell Systematic Reviews* 2009:6.
- FAWE. (2018). *Gender Responsive Pedagogy: A Toolkit for Teachers and Schools*. Second updated edition. Nairobi: Forum for African Women Educationalists.
- Fearon, J. and Hoeffler, A. (2014). Benefits and Costs of the Conflict and Violence Targets for the Post-2015 Development Agenda: Post-2015 Consensus. Conflict and Violence Assessment Paper. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Consensus Center.
- Field, E. and Ambrus, A. (2008). Early Marriage, Age of Menarche, and Female Schooling Attainment in Bangladesh. *Journal of Political Economy*, 116(5), 881-930.
- Finkelhor, D., Shattuck, A., Turner, H. A., Ormrod, R. and Hamby, S. L. (2011). Polyvictimization in Developmental Context. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Trauma*, 4, 291–300.
- Fisher, K. (2001). *Building Better Outcomes: The Impact of School Infrastructure on Student Outcomes and Behavior*. Rubida Research for the Commonwealth Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Australia.
- Font, S. and Cage, J. (2018). Dimensions of physical punishment and their associations with children's cognitive performance and school adjustment. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 75: 29-40.
- Francis, (2015). *Encyclical letter Laudato Si' of the Holy Father Francis on Care for Our Common Home*, Vatican City: Libreria Editrice Vaticana.
- Frankenberg, S. J., Holmqvist, R., and Rubenson, B. (2010). The care of corporal punishment: Conceptions of early childhood discipline strategies among parents and grandparents in a poor and urban area in Tanzania. *Childhood*, 17(4), 455-469.
- Fry, D., Fang, X., Elliott, S. et al. (2018). The relationships between violence in childhood and educational outcomes: A global systematic review and meta-analysis. *Child Abuse Negl.*, 75, 6-28.
- Fulu, E., Miedema, S., Roselli, T. et al. (2017). Pathways between childhood trauma, intimate partner violence, and harsh parenting: findings from the UN Multi-country Study on Men and Violence in Asia and the Pacific. *Lancet Global Health*, 5(5), e512-e522.
- Garrard, W. M., and M. W. Lipsey. (2007). Conflict Resolution Education and Antisocial Behavior in U.S. Schools: A Meta-Analysis. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 25(1), 9–38.
- Gemignani, R. and Wodon, Q. (2017). Gender Roles and Girls' Education in Burkina Faso: A Tale of Heterogeneity between Rural Communities, *American Review of Political Economy*, 11(2), 163-75.
- Gershoff, E. T. (2002). Corporal punishment by parents and associated child behaviors and experiences: A meta-analytic and theoretical review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(4), 539–579.
- Gershoff, E., and Grogan-Kaylor, A. (2016). Spanking and child outcomes: Old controversies and new meta-analyses. *Journal of family psychology : JFP : journal of the Division of Family Psychology of the American Psychological Association*, 30(4), 453-69 .
- Gordon, D. A., K. Graves, and J. Arbutnot. (1995). The Effect of Functional Family Therapy for Delinquents on Adult Criminal Behavior. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 22, 60–73.
- Gottfredson, D. C. (2001). *Schools and Delinquency*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gottfredson, D. C., S. A. Gerstenblith, D. A. Soule, S. C. Womer, and S. Lu. (2004). Do After-School Programs Reduce Delinquency? *Prevention Science*, 5(4): 253–66.
- Grace, G. (2002a). *Catholic Schools: Mission, Markets and Morality*. London and New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Grace, G. (2002b). Mission Integrity: Contemporary Challenges for Catholic School Leaders. In K. Leithwood and P. Hallinger, editors, *Second International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*, Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Press.

- Greco, G., Knight, L., Ssekadde, W. et al. (2018). Economic evaluation of the Good School Toolkit: an intervention for reducing violence in primary schools in Uganda. *BMJ Global Health*, 3, e000526.
- Guedes, A., Bott, S., Garcia-Moreno, C., and Colombini, M. (2019). Bridging the gaps: a global review of intersections of violence against women and violence against children. *Global Health Action*, 9, 10.3402/gha.v9.31516.
- Guerra, N., Williams, K., Walker, I., and Meeks-Gardner, J. (2013). Building an Ecology of Peace in Jamaica: New Approaches to Understanding Youth Crime and Violence and Evaluating Prevention Strategies. Working paper.
- Guerrero, G. and Rojas, V. (2016). Understanding Children's Experiences of Violence in Peru: Evidence from Young Lives, Innocenti Working Paper 2016-17. UNICEF Office of Research, Florence.
- Hagborg, J. M., Berglund, K., and Fahlke, C. (2018). Evidence for a relationship between child maltreatment and absenteeism among high-school students in Sweden. *Child abuse and neglect*, 75, 41–49.
- Hallinan, M.T. (2008). Teacher Influences on Students' Attachment to School. *Sociology of Education*, 81(3), 271-283.
- Hawkins, J. D., Doueck, H. J., and Lishner, D. M. (1988). Changing teaching practices in mainstream classrooms to improve bonding and behavior of low achievers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 25(1), 31–50.
- Hawkins, J. D., Von Cleve, E., Catalano, R. (1991). Reducing Early Childhood Aggression: Results of a Primary Prevention Program. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 30(2), 208-217.
- Hazelden Foundation. (2007). *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program Scope and Sequence*. Hazelden Foundation.
- Heckman, J., Moon, S.Y., Pinto, R., Savelyev, P., and Yavitz, A. (2010). Analyzing Social Experiments as Implemented: A Reexamination of the Evidence from the HighScope Perry Preschool Program. *Quantitative Economics*, 1(1), 1–46.
- Heise, L. (2011). What Works to Prevent Partner Violence? An Evidence Overview. Working paper. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.
- Heller, S., Pollack, H., Ander, R. and Ludwig, J. (2013). Preventing Youth Violence and Dropout: A Randomized Field Experiment. NBER Working Paper 19014, Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Hemphill, S. A., and Hargreaves, J. (2010). School suspensions. *A resource for teachers and school administrators*. Centre for Adolescent Health, Murdoch Childrens Research Institute, Melbourne.
- Highmark Foundation. (2018). The Cost Benefit of Bullying Prevention: A First-time Analysis of Savings. Highmark Foundation.
- Hill, P. L., Roberts, B., Grogger, J., Guryan, J., and Sixkiller, K. (2011). Decreasing Delinquency, Criminal Behavior, and Recidivism by Intervening on Psychological Factors Other Than Cognitive Ability: A Review of the Intervention Literature. In *Controlling Crime: Strategies and Tradeoffs*, edited by P. Cook, J. Ludwig and J. McCrary. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Hillis S, Mercy J, Amobi A, et al. (2016). Global Prevalence of Past-year Violence Against Children: A Systematic Review and Minimum Estimates. *Pediatrics*, 137(3), e20154079
- Hirsch, B. J., Mekinda, M.A. and Stawicki, J. (2010). More Than Attendance: The Importance of After-School Program Quality. *Am J Community Psychol*, 45, 447–452.
- Hoddinott, J., Behrman, J. R., Maluccio, J. A. , et al. (2013). Adult Consequences of Growth Failure in Early Childhood, *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 98(5), 1170-1178.
- Hölzel, B. K., Lazar, S. W., Gard, T., Schuman-Olivier, Z., Vago, D. R., and Ott, U. (2011). How Does Mindfulness Meditation Work? Proposing Mechanisms of Action From a Conceptual and Neural Perspective. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(6), 537–559.
- Horton S., and Steckel, R. (2013). Global economic losses attributable to malnutrition 1900-2000 and projections to 2050, in B. Lomborg. Ed. *The Economics*

of *Human Challenges*, Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.

Hotaling, G. T. and Sugarman, D. B. (1986). An analysis of risk markers in husband to wife violence: the current state of knowledge. *Violence Vict.* 1(2), 101-24.

Hu, X. Z., Lipsky, R. H., Zhu, G., Akhtar, L. A., Taubman, J., Greenberg, B. D., et al. (2006). Serotonin transporter promoter gain-of-function genotypes are linked to obsessive-compulsive disorder. *American Journal of Human Genetics*, 78, 815–826.

Huesmann, L. Rowell, Leonard D. Eron, Monroe M. Lefkowitz, and Leopold O. Walder. (1984). The Stability of Aggression over Time and Generations. *Developmental Psychology*, 20:1120–34.

Huitsing, G., Barends, S. I., and Lokkerbol, J. (2019). Cost-benefit Analysis of the KiVa Anti-bullying Program in the Netherlands, *International Journal of Bullying Prevention* 2(03), 215–224.

Ialongo, N., Poduska, J., Werthamer, L., and Kellam, S. (2001). The distal impact of two first-grade preventive interventions on conduct problems and disorder in early adolescence. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 9(3), 146–160.

Institute for Economics and Peace (2014). *The Economic Cost of Violence Containment*. Sydney: Institute for Economics and Peace.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee. (2007). *IASC Guidelines on mental health and psychosocial support in emergency settings*. Geneva: IASC.

International Rescue Committee. (2019). *Research at the International Rescue Committee. Looking Back on 2018, Looking Forward in 2019*. New York: International Rescue Committee.

Jewkes, R., Levin, J., and Penn-Kekana, L. (2002). Risk factors for domestic violence: findings from a South African cross-sectional study. *Soc. Sci. Med.*, 55(9), 1603-17.

Jimenez, S., Niles, B. and Park, C. (2010). A mindfulness model of affect regulation and depressive symptoms: Positive emotions, mood regulation expectancies, and self-acceptance as regulatory mechanisms. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 49, 645-650.

Kerr-Wilson, A., Gibbs, A., McAslan Fraser E., Ramsoomar, L., Parke, A., Khuwaja, HMA., and Jewkes, R. (2020). *A rigorous global evidence review of interventions to prevent violence against women and girls*. What Works to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls Global Programme, Pretoria, South Africa.

Know Violence in Childhood. (2017). *Ending Violence in Childhood: Global Report 2017*. New Delhi, India: Know Violence in Childhood.

Krug, E. G., Dahlberg L. L., Mercy, J. A., Zwi, A. B., and Lozano, R.. Eds. (2002). *World Report on Violence and Health*. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Lange, G. M., Wodon, Q. and Carey. K. (2018). Eds. *The Changing Wealth of Nations 2018: Sustainability into the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Lewis, K. M., Schure, M. B., Bavarian, N., DuBois, D. L., Day, J., Ji, P., and Flay, B. R. (2013). Problem behavior and urban, low-income youth: a randomized controlled trial of positive action in Chicago. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 44(6), 622–630.

Lösel F, Farrington DP. (2012). Direct protective and buffering protective factors in the development of youth violence. *Am J Prev Med.*, 43(2 Suppl 1), S8-S23.

McCarthy, M., Taylor, P. Norman, R. E. et al. (2016). The lifetime economic and social costs of child maltreatment in Australia. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 71, 217-226.

MacMillan, H. L., Wathen, N., Jamieson, E. et al. (2009). Screening for intimate partner violence in health care settings: a randomized trial. *JAMA*, 302(5):493-501.

Mahoney, J., Durlak, J. and Weissberg, R. (2018). An update on social and emotional learning outcome research. *Phi Delta Kappan*. 100, 18-23.

Manipadam, J. 2018. Catholic Education Is India's Biggest Anti-poverty Program – It Is Value based and Employment/Career Oriented, mimeo, Office for Education and Culture of the Catholic Bishops of India Conference, New Delhi: Catholic Bishops of India Conference.

Masten, A. S., and Reed, M. J. (2002). Resilience in Development. In C. R. Snyder, and S. J. Lopez. Eds.,

*Handbook of Positive Psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Massey, A. (2011). Best behaviour: school discipline, intervention and exclusion. *Policy Exchange*, 75.

McDaid, D., Hewlett, E., and Park, A. (2017). Understanding effective approaches to promoting mental health and preventing mental illness. OECD Health Working Paper Series No 97. Paris: OECD.

McDonald, L., Coover, G., Sandler, J., Thao, T. and Shalhoub, H. (2012). Cultural adaptation of an evidence-based parenting programme with elders from South East Asia in the US: Co-producing Families and Schools Together-FAST. *Journal of Children's Services*, 7, 113-127.

McKeering, P. and Hwang, Y.-S. (2019). A Systematic Review of Mindfulness-Based School Interventions with Early Adolescents. *Mindfulness*, 10.1007/s12671-018-0998-9.

McKinney, S. J. (2018). The Roots of the Preferential Option for the Poor in Catholic Schools in Luke's Gospel, *International Studies on Catholic Education*, 10(2): 220-32.

Meltzer, H., Doos, L., Vostanis, P. et al. (2009). The mental health of children who witness domestic violence. *Child and Family Social Work*, 14(4), 491-501.

Mercy, J., Rosenberg, M., Powell, K., Broome, C., and Roper W. (1993). Public health policy for preventing violence. *Health Aff (Millwood)*, 12(4), 7-29.

Michail, S. (2011). Understanding school responses to students' challenging behaviour: a review of literature. *Improving Schools*, 14(2), 156–171.

Michau L, Chevannes C, Hundle A, Ensor-Sekitoleko D, McMullen K, Moreaux M, and Sauvé S (2008). *The SASA! Activist Kit for Preventing Violence Against Women and HIV*. Raising Voices, Kampala.

Michau, L., Horn, J., Bank, A., Dutt, M., and Zimmerman, C. (2015). Prevention of violence against women and girls: lessons from practice. *Lancet*, 385(9978), 1672–1684.

Mitu, K., Ala Uddin, M. Camfield, L. and Muz, J. (2019). Adolescent Bodily Integrity and Freedom from

Violence in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Policy Note, Gender and Adolescence: Global Evidence, London.

Montenegro, C. E. and Q. Wodon. (2020). Measuring the Returns to Quality in Primary Education Globally Using Literacy as a Proxy, Mimeo. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Murata, K., P. Weihe, E. Budtz-Jorgensen, P. J. Jorgensen, and P. Grandjean. (2004). Delayed Brainstem Auditory Evoked Potential Latencies in 14-Year-Old Children Exposed to Methylmercury. *Journal of Pediatrics*, 144(2), 177–83.

Murnane, R. J., S. F. Reardon, P. P. Mbekeani, and A. Lamb Olivier. (2018). Who Goes to Private School? Long-term enrollment trends by family income, *Education Next*, 18(4).

Napoli, M., Krech, P., and Holley, L. (2005). Mindfulness Training for Elementary School Students: The Attention Academy. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, 21, 99-125.

Namy, S., Carlson, C., O'Hara, K. et al. (2017). Towards a feminist understanding of intersecting violence against women and children in the family. *Social Science and Medicine*, 184, 40-48.

National Catholic Educational Association. (2021). *Media Brief: Catholic School Enrollment and School Closures, Post COVID-19*. Washington, DC: National Catholic Educational Association.

Naz, A., Khan, W. Daraz, U., Hussain, M. and Khan, Q. (2011). The Impacts of Corporal Punishment on Students' Performance/Career and Personality Development Up To Secondary Level Education in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(12). 130-140.

Nelson, S. (2009) Care and Support Needs of Men who Survived Childhood Sexual Abuse: Report of a qualitative research project. The University of Edinburgh: Edinburgh

Nguyen, M. C., and Wodon, Q. (2014). Impact of Child Marriage on Literacy and Educational Attainment in Africa, Background Paper for Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All. Paris and New York: UNESCO Institute of Statistics and UNICEF.

Noltemeyer, A. L., and Ward, R. M. (2015). Relationship between school suspension and student



outcomes: a meta-analysis. *School Psychology Review*, 44(2), 224–240.

Nove, A., Matthews, Z., Neal, S. and Camacho, A. V. (2014). Maternal mortality in adolescents compared with women of other ages: evidence from 144 countries. *The Lancet Global Health*, 2(3), 155-64.

Oberle, E., Domitrovich, C., Meyers, D. and Weissberg, R. (2016). Establishing systemic social and emotional learning approaches in schools: a framework for schoolwide implementation. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 46. 1-21.

Obsuth, I., Sutherland, A., Cope, A., Pilbeam, L., Murray, A. L., and Eisner, M. (2016). London education and inclusion project (LEIP): results from a cluster-randomized controlled trial of an intervention to reduce school exclusion and antisocial behavior. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 46, 538–557.

OECD (2015). *PISA 2015 Results (Volume III): Students' Well-Being*. Paris: OECD.

Office of the SRSG on Violence against Children. (2016). *Tackling VIAS: A Global Perspective - Bridging the gap between standards and practice*. New York: Office of the SRSG on Violence against Children.

Okonofua, J. A., Pauneskua, D., and Walton, G. M. (2016). Brief intervention to encourage empathic discipline cuts suspension rates in half among adolescents. *PNAS*, 113(19), 5221–5226.

Olds, D, L. M. Pettitt, J. Robinson, C. Henderson Jr., J. Eckenrode, H. Kitzman, R. Cole, and J. Powers. (1998). Reducing Risks for Antisocial Behavior with a Program of Pre-natal and Early Childhood Home Visitation. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 26 (1): 65–83.

Olivier, J., Tsimpo, C., Gemignani, R., Shojo, M., Coulombe, H., Dimmock, F., Nguyen M. C, Hines, H., Mills, E. J., Dieleman, J. L., Haakenstad, A., and Wodon, Q. (2015). Understanding the Roles of Faith-based Healthcare Providers in Africa: Review of the Limited Evidence with a Focus on Magnitude, Reach, Cost, and Satisfaction, *The Lancet*, 386(10005): 1765-75.

Oliver, R. M., Wehby, J. H., and Reschly, D. J. (2011). Teacher classroom management practices: effects on disruptive or aggressive student behavior. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 4, 1–55.

Onagoruwa, A. and Wodon, Q. (2018). Measuring the Impact of Child Marriage on Total Fertility: A Study for Fifteen Countries. *Journal of Biosocial Science*, 50(5), 626-39.

Opara, A. N. and Wodon, Q. (2022). Student Experiences with Violence in Schools: Insights from a Survey in Two Catholic Schools for Girls in Nigeria, *Journal of Global Catholicism*, 6(2): 44-69.

Park-Higgerson, H., Perumean-Chaney, S., Bartolucci, A., Grimley, D. and Singh, K. (2008). The Evaluation of School-Based Violence Prevention Programs: A Meta-Analysis. *The Journal of school health*, 78, 465-79.

Payet, J.-P. and Franchi, V. (2008). The Rights of the Child and The Good of the Learners: A Comparative Ethnographical Survey on the Abolition of Corporal Punishment in South African Schools. *Childhood: A Global Journal of Child Research*, 15.

Pereznieto, P. Harper, C. Clench, B. and Coarasa, J. (2010). *The Economic Impact of School Violence*. London: Plan International and ODI.

Pereznieto, P., Montes, A., Routier, S. and Langston, L. (2014). The costs and economic impact of violence against children. London: ODI and ChildFund Alliance.

Perlman, D., Adamu, F. and Wodon, Q. (2018). Why Do Adolescent Girls Drop Out of School in Niger? A Combined Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis, *Marchés et Organisations*, 32(2), 179-94.

Pontifical Council for Justice and Peace. (2004). *Compendium of the Social Doctrine of the Church*, Vatican City: Libreria Editrice Vaticana.

Promundo and Sonke Gender Justice. (2018). *Breaking the Cycle of Intergenerational Violence: The Promise of Psychosocial Interventions to Address Children's Exposure to Violence*. Washington, DC: Promundo-US and Cape Town: Sonke Gender Justice.

Psacharopoulos. G., and Patrinos, H. A. (2018). Returns to Investment in Education: A Decennial Review of the Global Literature, *Education Economics*, 26(5), 445-458.

Raising Voices and the African Women's Development Fund. (2019). *Preventing Violence against Women: A Primer for African Women's Organisations*. Kampala, Uganda.

- Ranieri, M. (2019). En el fuego cruzado: El impacto de la violencia de maras y pandillas en la educación en el Triángulo Norte de Centroamérica. Save the Children.
- Reynolds, A. J., Temple, J. A., Ou, S. R., Arteaga, I. A., and White, B. A. (2011). School-based early childhood education and age-28 well-being: effects by timing, dosage, and subgroups. *Science*, 333(6040), 360–364.
- Rijsdijk, L. E., Bos, A. E. R., Ruiters, R. A. C. et al. (2011). The World Starts with Me: a multi-level evaluation of a comprehensive sex education programme targeting adolescents in Uganda. *BMC Public Health*, 11: 334.
- Roorda, D., Koomen, H. and Oort, F. (2011). The influence of affective teacher – student relationships on students’ school engagement and achievement: a meta-analytic approach. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(4), 493–529.
- Rossman, S., and Morley, E. (1996). Introduction. *Education and Urban Society*, 28(4), 395–411.
- Saavedra, J. , McDonald, L. Quota, M. and Wodon, Q. (2021). The unacceptable and intolerable reality of corporal punishment of children and youth. Education for Global Development Blog. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Safe to Learn. (2021). *Joining Forces to Embed Violence Prevention and Response in Education Systems Globally. Safe to Learn Strategy 2021-2024*. Global Partnership to End Violence Against Children. Geneva, Switzerland.
- Schäfer, M. and Korn, S. (2002). Bullying als Gruppenphänomen. Manuskript unter Revision bei der Zeitschrift für Entwicklungspsychologie und Pädagogische Psychologie.
- Schonert-Reichl, K., Kitil, J., and Hanson-Peterson, J. (2017). To Reach the Students, Teach the Teachers: A National Scan of Teacher Preparation and Social and Emotional Learning. A Report Prepared for CASEL. Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning.
- Schweinhart, L. J., Barnes, H. V., and Weikart, D. P. (1993). *Significant benefits: the HighScope Perry preschool study through age 27*. Ypsilanti: HighScope Press.
- Sebastião, J. Tomas de Almeida, A., and Campos, J. (2002). A report from Portugal. In Smith, P. (org). *Tackling violence in schools on a European wide basis*.
- Secretariat of State of the Vatican. (2021). *Annuarium statisticum ecclesiae 2019 / Statistical yearbook of the Church 2019 / Annuaire statistique de l'Eglise 2019*. Vatican City: Libreria Editrice Vaticana.
- Shores, K. and M. P. Steinberg. (2019). Schooling During the Great Recession: Patterns of School Spending and Student Achievement Using Population Data. *AERA Open*, 5(3): 1–29.
- Sprague, J., Biglan, A., Rusby, J., Gau, J., and Vincent, C. (2017). Implementing school wide PBIS in middle schools: Results of a randomized trial. *Journal of Health Science and Education*, 1(2), 1-10.
- Tavares, P. and Wodon, Q. (2018). Global and Regional Trends in Women’s Legal Protection against Domestic Violence and Sexual Harassment, *Ending Violence against Women Notes Series*, Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Timmons-Mitchell, J., Bender, M., Kishna, M. and Mitchell, C. (2006). An Independent Effectiveness Trial of Multisystemic Therapy With Juvenile Justice Youth. *Journal of clinical child and adolescent psychology: the official journal for the Society of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 35(3), 227-36.
- Tremblay, R., and Craig, W. (1995). Developmental Crime Prevention. *Crime and Justice*, 19, 151-236.
- Tremblay, R., Daniel, S., Nagin, J., et al. (2004). Physical Aggression during Early Childhood: Trajectories and Predictors. *Pediatrics* 114 (1): e43–e50.
- UNESCO Institute of Statistics. (2017). *Reducing Global Poverty through Universal Primary and Secondary Education*. Policy paper 32/Fact Sheet 44. Montreal, Canada: UNESCO Institute of Statistics.
- UNESCO Institute of Statistics. (2019). New Methodology Shows that 258 Million Children, Adolescents and Youth Are Out of School. Fact Sheet no. 56. Montreal: UNESCO Institute of Statistics.
- UNESCO and UNGEI (2014). *School-related gender-based violence in the Asia-pacific region*. Bangkok: UNESCO.

- UNESCO and UN Women (2016). *Global violence on addressing school-related gender-based violence*. France: UNESCO.
- UNGEI. (2018). *A Whole School Approach to Prevent School-Related Gender-Based Violence: Minimum Standards and Monitoring Framework*, New York: United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.
- UNICEF. (2014). *Hidden in Plain Sight: A Statistical Analysis of Violence against Children*. New York: UNICEF.
- UNICEF. (2017). *A Familiar Face: Violence in the Lives of Children and Adolescents*. New York: UNICEF.
- UNICEF. (2019). *The Economic Burden of Violence against Children: Analysis of Selected Health and Education Outcomes - Nigeria case Study*. New York: UNICEF.
- UNICEF and FIA. (2020). *Guidance for Safe and Healthy Journeys to School During the Covid-19 Pandemic and Beyond*. UNICEF: New York.
- USAID. (2015). *What is the Cost of School-Related Gender-Based Violence?* Factsheet. Washington, DC: USAID.
- Valdebenito, S., Eisner, M., Farrington, D.P. et al. (2019). What can we do to reduce disciplinary school exclusion? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 15, 253–287.
- Violence Prevention Institute (2001). *What Factors Foster Resiliency Against Violence?*. School Violence prevention fact sheets No 5. Oakland, CA.
- Ward, B., and Gersten, R. (2013). A randomized evaluation of the safe and civil schools model for positive behavioral interventions and supports at elementary schools in a large urban school district. *School Psychology Review*, 42(3), 317–333.
- Watson, R. (1995). A guide to violence prevention. *Educational Leadership*, 55(2), 57–59.
- Weare K. (2013). Developing mindfulness with children and young people: a review of the evidence and policy context. *J. Children Serv.*, 8 141–153.
- Weiss, B., Han, S., Harris, V., Catron, T., Ngo, V. K., Caron, A., Gallop, R., and Guth, C. (2013). An independent randomized clinical trial of multisystemic therapy with non-court-referred adolescents with serious conduct problems. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 81(6), 1027–1039.
- Weissberg, R. P., and Cascarino, J. (2013). Academic Learning + Social-Emotional Learning = National Priority. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 95(2), 8–13.
- Weissberg, R., Durlak, J., Domitrovich, C. and Gullotta, T.P. (2015). Social and emotional learning: Past, present, and future. *Handbook for social and emotional learning: Research and practice*. 3-19.
- Welsh, B., and Farrington, D. (2008). Effects of Improved Street Lighting on Crime. *Campbell Systematic Reviews* 2008: 13 (September 24).
- Wilkins, N. J., Zhang, X., Macka, K. A. et al. (2019). Societal determinants of violent death: The extent to which social, economic, and structural characteristics explain differences in violence across Australia, Canada, and the United States. *SSM - Population Health*, 8, 100431.
- Wodon, Q. (2014). *Education in sub-Saharan Africa: Comparing Faith-based, Private Secular, and Public Schools*, Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Wodon, Q. (2015). *The Economics of Faith-based Service Delivery: Education and Health in sub-Saharan Africa*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Wodon, Q. (2017). Catholic Schools in the Democratic Republic of Congo: Trends, Achievements, and Challenges, *International Journal of Education Law and Policy*, 13: 55-66.
- Wodon, Q. (2018a). Enrollment in K12 Catholic Schools: Global and Regional Trends, *Educatio Catholica*, IV(3): 189-210.
- Wodon, Q. (2018b). Catholic Schools in the United States: Basic Diagnostic of Trends in Enrollment and Student Achievement, *International Journal of Education Law and Policy*, 14: 37-51.
- Wodon, Q. (2018c). Enrollment in Catholic Higher Education across Countries, *Educatio Catholica*, IV(4): 173-95.
- Wodon, Q. (2019a). Pluralism, the Public Purse, and Education: An International Estimate of Savings to State Budgets from K-12 Catholic Schools, *Review of*

- Faith & International Affairs*, 17(2): 76-86.
- Wodon, Q. (2019b). More Schools, Larger Schools, or Both? Patterns of Enrollment Growth in K12 Catholic Schools Globally, *Journal of Catholic Education*, 22(1): 135-53.
- Wodon, Q. (2019c). Implications of Demographic, Religious, and Enrollment Trends for the Footprint of Faith-Based Schools Globally, *Review of Faith and International Affairs*, 2019, 17(4): 52-62.
- Wodon, Q. (2020a). *Global Catholic Education Report 2020: Achievements and Challenges at a Time of Crisis*. Rome: International Office of Catholic Education.
- Wodon, Q. (2020b). Are New Secondary Schools Built Where They Are Needed Most? Comparing Catholic with Public and Other Private Schools in Uganda, *Review of Faith and International Affairs*, 18(2): 44-60.
- Wodon, Q. (2020c). Enrollment in Catholic Higher Education: Global and Regional Trends, *Journal of Catholic Higher Education*, 39(1): 87-104.
- Wodon, Q. (2020d). Covid-19 Crisis, Impacts on Catholic Schools, and Potential Responses, Part I: Developed Countries with Focus on the United States, *Journal of Catholic Education*, 23(2): 13-50.
- Wodon, Q. (2020e). Covid-19 Crisis, Impacts on Catholic Schools, and Potential Responses, Part II: Developing Countries with Focus on sub-Saharan Africa, *Journal of Catholic Education*, 23(2): 51-86.
- Wodon, Q. (2021a). *Global Catholic Education Report 2021: Education Pluralism, Learning Poverty, and the Right to Education*. Washington, DC: Global Catholic Education.
- Wodon, Q. (2021b). Catholic Schools in Africa: Achievements and Challenges, in S. C. Ilo. Editor. *The Handbook of African Catholicism*. South Bend, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Wodon, Q. (2021c). Catholic Health Facilities in Africa: Achievements and Challenges, in S. C. Ilo. Editor. *The Handbook of African Catholicism*. South Bend, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Wodon, Q. (2021d). Digital Connectivity, COVID-19 Crisis and Catholic Schools: Part 1 – Global and Regional Analysis, *International Journal of Education Law and Policy*, 117-132
- Wodon, Q. (2021e). Measuring Education Pluralism Globally, *Review of Faith & International Affairs*, 19(2): 102-109.
- Wodon, Q. (2021f). Does Pluralism Matter for Fulfillment of the Right to Education? Exploring New Indices, *Review of Faith & International Affairs*, 19(2): 110-118.
- Wodon, Q. (2022a). Decline in Student Enrollment, Parental Willingness to Consider Catholic Schools, and Sources of Comparative Advantage in the United States, *Journal of Global Catholicism*, 6(2): 94-115.
- Wodon, Q. (2022b). Responding to Pope Francis' Call for a Global Compact on Education: Insights from Interviews by the Global Catholic Education Project, *Journal of Global Catholicism*, 6(2): 116-149.
- Wodon, Q. (2022c). Catholic Higher Education Globally: Enrollment Trends, Current Pressures, Student Choice, and the Promise of Service Learning, *Religions*, 2022, 13: 735, pp. 1-18.
- Wodon, Q. (2022d). Catholic Higher Education in the United States: Exploring the Decision to Enroll from a Student's (or Student Advisor's) Point of View, *Religions*, 2022, 13: 732, pp. 1-18.
- Wodon, Q., Boungou Bazika, J. C., and Bagamboula, G. 2022. Educating Girls and Ending Child Marriage in Central Africa: Insights from Qualitative Fieldwork, Part I: The Democratic Republic of Congo. Mimeo.
- Wodon, Q., Boungou Bazika, J. C., and Mféré, W. 2022. Educating Girls and Ending Child Marriage in Central Africa: Insights from Qualitative Fieldwork, Part I: The Republic of Congo. Mimeo.
- Wodon, Q., Fèvre, C. Malé, C., Nayihouba, A., and Nguyen, H. (2021). Ending Violence in Schools: An Investment Case, Washington, DC: The World Bank, The Global Partnership to End Violence against Children, and Safe to Learn.
- Wodon Q., Male, C. and Nayihouba, A. (2021). Digital Connectivity, COVID-19 Crisis and Catholic Schools: Part 2 – Case Study for Benin, *International Journal of Education Law and Policy*, 133-151.

- Wodon, Q. and C. Tsimpo. (2021). Not All Catholic Schools Are Private Schools: Does It Matter for Student Performance?, *International Studies in Catholic Education*, 13(2): 175-189.
- Wodon, Q., Male, C., Nayihouba, A., Onagoruwa et al. (2017). *Economic Impacts of Child Marriage: Global Synthesis Report*. Washington, DC: The World Bank and ICRW.
- Wodon, Q., Montenegro, C., Nguyen, H., and Onagoruwa, A. (2018). *Missed Opportunities: The High Cost of Not Educating Girls*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Wodon, Q., Nguyen, C., and Tsimpo, C. (2016). Child Marriage, Education, and Agency in Uganda, *Feminist Economist*, 22(1), 54-79.
- Wodon, Q., Onagoruwa, A., Malé, C., Montenegro, C., Nguyen, H. and De la Brière, B. (2019). *How Large Is the Gender Dividend? Measuring Selected Impacts and Costs of Gender Inequality*. The Cost of Gender Inequality Notes Series. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Wolfe, D. A., Crooks, C., Jaffe, P., Chiodo, D., et al. (2009). A school-based program to prevent adolescent dating violence: A cluster randomized trial. *Archives of pediatrics and adolescent medicine*, 163(8), 692-699.
- World Bank. (2017). Providing Low-Cost Private Schooling for the Poor, *Inclusive Innovations Notes Series*, Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. (2018). *World Development Report 2018: Learning to Realize Education's Promise*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. 2019. *World Development Report 2019: The Changing Nature of Work*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. (2020a). *Africa's Pulse, No. 21, Spring 2020: An Analysis of Issues Shaping Africa's Economic Future*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. (2020b). *Poverty and Shared Prosperity 2020: Reversals of Fortune*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. (2020c). *The COVID-19 Pandemic: Shocks to Education and Policy Responses*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. (2020d). *Realizing the Future of Learning: From Learning Poverty to Learning for Everyone, Everywhere*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Health Organization Global Consultation on Violence and Health. (1996). *Violence: A Public Health Priority*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (2002). *World Report on Violence and Health*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (2016). *INSPIRE: Seven Strategies for Ending Violence Against Children*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (2018). *INSPIRE Handbook: Action for implementing the seven strategies for ending violence against children*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (2019). *School-based Violence Prevention: A Practical Handbook*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Yohalem, N., and Wilson-Ahlstrom, A. (2010). Inside the Black Box: Assessing and Improving Quality in Youth Programs. *American Journal of Community Psychology* 45, 350–357.
- Zingraff, M. T., Leiter, J., Johnsen, M., Myers, K. A. and Johnsen, M. C. (1994). The Mediating Effect of Good School Performance on the Maltreatment-Delinquency Relationship. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 31(1):62-91.
- Zolotor, A., Kotch, J., Dufort, V. et al. (2019). School performance in a longitudinal cohort of children at risk of maltreatment. *Matern. Child Health J.*, 3(1):19-27.
- Zollner, H. 2021. Interview with Fr. Hans Zollner, Professor at the Gregorian University. Global Catholic Education Interview Series. Washington, DC: Global Catholic Education.

## STATISTICAL ANNEX

Every year, the Central Statistics Office of the Catholic Church publishes the Statistical Yearbook of the Church. At the time of writing, the latest edition was published in 2021. It provides data for 2019. Data on a wide range of Church activities are collected. For K12 education, the yearbook provides for each country and some territories the number of the schools managed by the Church and the number of students enrolled in those schools at three levels: preschools, primary schools, and secondary education. In addition, the yearbook provides statistics on tertiary education with the number of students enrolled according to three categories: students in higher institutes and students in universities, with a distinction between those engaged in ecclesiastical studies and those engaged in other types of studies.

The data for the yearbook are collected through a questionnaire sent to the chancery offices of ecclesiastical jurisdictions worldwide. The data are self-reported and may not always be fully accurate, especially in contexts where local conditions are not favorable to data collection.

In addition, not all ecclesiastical jurisdictions are able to fill the questionnaire every year. Each year a small number of the more than 3,000 jurisdictions that should fill the questionnaire are not able to do it. Typically, these jurisdictions tend to be small, so that the missing data should not affect the validity of the data substantially.

This statistical annex provides country level data for enrollment in both K12 schools and higher education for 2019. The data are presented in the same way as they are made available in the latest available statistical yearbook<sup>203</sup>. The possibility of errors in reporting enrollment by ecclesiastical jurisdictions cannot be excluded. But overall, while estimates in the yearbooks may not always be fully accurate, especially for large and complex countries that also have comparatively weaker administrative systems, the data appear to be of sufficient quality to suggest broad stylized facts.

Country profiles with trends over time are separately available on the Global Catholic Education website for all countries with at least 10,000 students by level (K12 schools or higher education). In the Global Catholic Education Report 2020, these profiles were included for K12 Catholic education within the report. Because this report is longer and now includes both K12 and higher education, providing country-level profiles at both the K12 and higher education levels within a single document would make the document unwieldy, including for printing. Therefore, separate documents are provided on the Global Catholic Education website for country profiles (one document for Catholic K12 education, and another forthcoming for Catholic higher education).

---

<sup>203</sup> Secretariat of State (2021).

**Annex Table: Country-level Data on Catholic Education from the Latest Available Statistical Yearbook of the Church**

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
<b>Africa</b>									
Algeria	-	-	7	602	1	624	-	-	3,614
Angola	80	18,489	257	307,824	158	123,910	9,222	130	8,400
Benin	119	5,625	249	50,281	117	30,593	178	249	2,115
Botswana	23	1,055	11	3,626	3	3,733	-	-	-
Burkina Faso	68	10,232	182	50,309	128	46,541	2,545	250	2,840
Burundi	231	16,816	1,001	410,014	314	68,747	181	-	1,207
Cape Verde	35	3,957	7	2,915	4	2,401	-	-	-
Cameroon	668	55,492	1,107	241,649	277	101,581	4,155	2,372	6,115
Central African Rep.	80	15,007	152	52,931	36	12,376	-	-	-
Chad	92	5,780	140	53,172	63	16,428	-	-	5,025
Comoros	1	50	1	261	4	250	-	-	-
Congo, Republic	60	5,093	133	35,143	79	14,603	7,601	46	-
Congo, Dem. Rep.	679	70,099	11,547	4,672,396	5,423	1,532,682	35,309	17,270	32,444
Cote d'Ivoire	120	8,852	397	80,577	55	45,014	316	2,997	-
Djibouti	5	505	5	1,404	2	419	-	-	-
Egypt	192	38,524	144	68,899	79	45,664	668	45	-
Eritrea	75	11,389	43	13,833	11	4,711	300	-	-
Eswatini	14	11,000	47	21,765	13	6,180	-	-	-
Ethiopia	308	50,278	178	101,988	86	27,829	3,749	185	990
Gabon	50	14,177	225	29,374	24	15,287	-	-	1,987
Gambia	52	7,396	34	25,484	37	6,960	-	-	-
Ghana	1,760	264,155	1,955	488,000	1,230	288,583	10,676	169	4,116
Guinea	38	3,666	32	16,506	21	5,297	883	61	21
Guinea-Bissau	42	4,288	71	21,075	15	7,656	533	-	-
Equatorial Guinea	73	7,833	76	19,129	58	14,057	112	-	-
Kenya	4,804	428,304	5,383	2,687,136	2,189	1,040,969	10,196	8,630	18,410
Lesotho	43	11,227	518	199,010	94	54,386	-	-	-
Liberia	40	2,545	42	9,048	40	13,270	3,625	-	-
Lybia									
Madagascar	1,953	99,330	4,076	434,979	1,074	178,908	13,032	8,950	1,014
Malawi	401	418,459	1,574	1,847,603	167	75,645	4,430	2,543	2,727
Mali	21	3,130	59	25,998	35	12,601	947	-	480
Mauritania	3	430	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	2	262	51	18,311	21	13,066	-	-	-

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
Morocco	13	2,409	13	7,689	7	1,639	90	-	-
Mozambique	121	19,803	77	93,722	84	67,298	981	1,600	18,688
Namibia	47	2,632	17	7,951	9	3,226	22	-	-
Niger	13	1,717	16	7,402	6	3,940	-	-	-
Nigeria	1,944	194,544	2,088	498,930	1,119	359,903	9,667	1,229	11,108
Reunion	22	3,428	29	9,670	14	8,422	387	-	-
Rwanda	977	89,577	1,144	1,076,902	668	342,402	541	2,350	3,821
Sahara, Western	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sa1nt Helena	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sao Tome and Principe	5	1,535	1	645	1	730	-	-	-
Senegal	154	15,615	136	69,426	51	34,980	2,652	127	3,980
Seychelles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SierraLeone	107	11,123	864	272,613	124	70,282	30	-	3,350
Somalia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	245	22,824	202	96,359	111	78,926	-	-	3,033
South Sudan	77	22,256	181	89,436	33	10,867	2,410	200	143
Sudan	93	7,875	79	35,837	16	6,089	2,370	-	-
Tanzania	908	80,172	517	297,013	389	119,536	13,455	488	49,407
Togo	210	6,869	550	112,875	97	27,811	678	320	680
Tunisia	4	386	7	5,187	1	295	-	-	-
Uganda	1,824	188,291	5,251	4,416,774	819	409,695	4,407	742	8,124
Zambia	120	11,458	140	60,470	99	37,603	2,360	-	2,925
Zimbabwe	82	10,526	108	88,444	116	53,639	2,222	288	1,123
<b>Total Africa</b>	<b>19,098</b>	<b>2,286,485</b>	<b>41,124</b>	<b>19,238,587</b>	<b>15,622</b>	<b>5,448,254</b>	<b>150,930</b>	<b>51,241</b>	<b>197,887</b>
<b>North America</b>									
Bermuda	1	46	1	128	1	221	-	-	-
Canada	730	33,924	1,471	463,281	464	281,779	9,166	6,242	7,254
Greenland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Saint Pierre et Miquelon	2	83	2	199	1	122	-	-	-
United States	3,709	150,809	4,876	1,239,344	1,316	551,929	365,686	27,725	848,549
<b>Total North America</b>	<b>4,442</b>	<b>184,862</b>	<b>6,350</b>	<b>1,702,952</b>	<b>1,782</b>	<b>834,051</b>	<b>374,852</b>	<b>33,967</b>	<b>855,803</b>
<b>Central America</b>									
Belize	51	1,058	115	29,422	11	2,385	1,917	-	-
Costa Rica	30	627	37	7,272	47	9,325	1,347	95	1,097
El Salvador	52	3,628	142	46,799	61	26,725	7,400	-	23,150



Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
Guatemala	118	9,734	146	41,355	145	41,791	4,163	1,732	27,586
Honduras	62	2,095	47	7,912	74	11,304	890	7,730	15,134
Mexico	3,139	181,224	2,437	586,532	2,405	420,497	38,414	21,401	176,758
Nicaragua	134	9,937	537	51,996	121	27,015	-	190	3,922
Panama	38	3,232	45	9,463	43	14,699	-	-	-
<b>Total Central America</b>	<b>3,624</b>	<b>211,535</b>	<b>3,506</b>	<b>780,751</b>	<b>2,907</b>	<b>553,741</b>	<b>54,131</b>	<b>31,148</b>	<b>247,647</b>
<b>Antilles</b>									
Anguilla	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Antigua and Barbuda	1	51	1	401	2	466	-	-	-
Aruba	10	1,011	14	4,093	7	3,121	-	-	-
Bahamas	-	-	6	1,670	4	1,542	-	-	-
Barbados	2	232	2	219	1	226	-	-	-
Cayman Islands	1	76	1	286	1	314	-	-	-
Cuba	11	645					400		
Dominica	8	491	5	1,765	4	1,144			
Dominican Republic	147	18,528	303	112,013	247	97,312	26,532	14,800	40,788
Grenada	20	1,058	25	5,334	7	3,987	-	-	-
Guaadeloupe	14	1,332	13	3,146	8	3,449	-	-	-
Haiti	2,081	59,564	3,433	322,435	557	72,531	5,746	438	3,182
Jamaica	33	2,977	52	20,528	16	19,585	704	52	-
Martinique	6	530	7	2,329	4	2,300	-	-	-
Montserrat	-	-	1	146	-	-	-	-	-
Netherlands Antilles	26	2,191	38	11,083	16	7,085	-	-	-
Puerto Rico	46	1,057	87	21,115	52	7,359	1,060	8639	18575
Saint Kitts and Nevis		1 27	1	254	1	195	-	-	-
Saint Lucia		1 21	30	5085	2	1,302	-	-	-
St. Vincent and Grenadines	2	62	1	653	3	1295	-	-	-
Trinidad and Tobago	2	78	126	25,314	22	12,298	115	-	-
Turks and Caicos Islands	1	22	1	61	1	83	-	-	-
Virgin Islands (GB)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Virgin Islands (USA)	-	-	3	285	2	112	-	-	-
<b>Total Central Am. and Antilles</b>	<b>2,413</b>	<b>89,953</b>	<b>4,150</b>	<b>538,215</b>	<b>957</b>	<b>235,706</b>	<b>34,557</b>	<b>23,929</b>	<b>62,545</b>
<b>South America</b>									
Argentina	1,455	235,960	1,668	693,827	1,676	532,645	60,967	654	101,097
Bolivia	267	48,773	545	263,359	259	148,411	6,425	1,688	35,584

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
Brazil	1,191	182,394	1,352	620,279	830	197,442	28,603	90,867	446,355
Chile	609	66,452	867	367,038	680	183,858	91,289	323	110,971
Colombia	708	51,209	1,127	248,059	1,496	350,331	16,343	3,245	256,280
Ecuador	355	23,239	494	244,447	343	134,673	1,064	44,261	50,136
Falkland Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
French Guyana	7	-	7	-	6	-	-	-	-
Guyana	2	117	2	407	2	467	-	-	-
Paraguay	211	15,953	261	54,711	200	28,241	3,254	968	13,732
Peru	474	51,391	639	202,983	557	185,147	27,564	645	86,168
Suriname	63	3,560	64	13,210	11	3,019	-	-	-
Uruguay	135	9,394	151	35,084	81	26,521	340	-	1,692
Venezuela	438	73,495	533	321,274	437	135,415	2,997	518	18,706
<b>Total South America</b>	<b>5915</b>	<b>761,937</b>	<b>7,710</b>	<b>3,064,678</b>	<b>6,578</b>	<b>1,926,170</b>	<b>238,846</b>	<b>143,169</b>	<b>1,120,721</b>
<b>Total Americas</b>	<b>16394</b>	<b>1,248,287</b>	<b>21,716</b>	<b>6,086,596</b>	<b>12,224</b>	<b>3,549,668</b>	<b>702,386</b>	<b>232,213</b>	<b>2,286,716</b>
<b>Middle East</b>									
Afghanistan	-	-	1	40	-	-	-	-	-
Cyprus	5	453	5	845	4	607	-	-	-
Iran	2	43	4	291	4	485	-	-	-
Iraq	38	2,293	17	3,171	4	770	378	-	-
Israel	70	7,231	58	19,063	58	15,962	-	193	3,328
Jordan	48	3,848	56	15,760	50	9,746	-	-	1,369
Lebanon	272	38,026	447	116,279	219	62,255	19,144	847	35,866
Syria	36	2,267	18	5,282	11	2,570	124	70	-
Turkey	6	341	6	637	10	4,553	-	-	-
<b>Total Middle East</b>	<b>477</b>	<b>54,502</b>	<b>612</b>	<b>161,368</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>96,948</b>	<b>19,646</b>	<b>1,110</b>	<b>40,563</b>
<b>South, East and Far East Asia</b>									
Bahrain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bangladesh	103	10,181	508	48,010	97	62,309	7,604	125	1,430
Bhutan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Brunei Darussalam	3	400	3	1,079	3	728	-	-	-
Cambodia	61	2,898	20	2,608	17	4,475	46	-	350
China, Mainland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hong Kong	32	10,869	105	70,741	103	62,709	640	641	3,227
Macao	17	6,532	23	13,016	17	9,468	178	26	1,183
Taiwan	123	13,794	11	7,603	34	46,435	7,412	25,419	21,327

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
India	7,709	1,261,560	10,463	4,245,873	7,352	4,084,818	752,739	19,317	133,395
Indonesia	1,544	79,44	2,697	459,511	1,461	356,320	34,985	7,681	76,604
Japan	521	61,490	54	20,291	180	67,143	10,283	33	41,458
Kazakhstan	5	83	-	-	1	160	-	-	-
Korea, Dem. Rep.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea, Republic	222	20,506	12	3,716	68	33,466	3,646	4,104	45,906
Kuwait	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kyrgyzstan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Laos	5	436	3	574	1	46	-	-	-
Malaysia	89	8,568	172	79,423	92	63,693	69	-	-
Maldives	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mongolia	3	335	3	232	1	155	-	-	-
Myanmar	225	6,479	53	1,705	51	1,644	293	34	-
Nepal	23	1,380	29	11,200	25	9,030	3,016	-	166
Oman	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pakistan	111	12,243	126	33,205	193	100,116	9,641	1,579	-
Philippines	1215	240,173	977	503,449	1,229	893,102	340,685	50,635	162,113
Qatar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Russia	4	128	2	223	-	-	-	-	-
Saudi Arabia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Singapore	17	2,762	21	23,756	17	19,717	1,566	268	-
Sri Lanka	318	14,606	150	44,876	70	65,549	3,190	362	5,140
Tajikistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Thailand	211	78,766	222	182,131	175	112,108	3,795	239	11,971
East Timor	95	6,009	179	36,069	61	27,171	531	267	-
Turkmenistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
United Arab Emirates	9	2,752	11	11,078	7	5,150	-	-	-
Uzbekistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vietnam	977	151,654	45	7,953	21	3,048	735	457	-
Yemen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total South, East, F. East Asia</b>	<b>13,642</b>	<b>1,994,044</b>	<b>15,889</b>	<b>5,808,322</b>	<b>11,276</b>	<b>6,028,560</b>	<b>1,181,054</b>	<b>111,187</b>	<b>504,270</b>
<b>Total Asia</b>	<b>14,119</b>	<b>2,048,546</b>	<b>16,501</b>	<b>5,969,690</b>	<b>11,636</b>	<b>6,125,508</b>	<b>1,200,700</b>	<b>112,297</b>	<b>544,833</b>
<b>Europe</b>									
Albania	36	2,040	14	3,089	12	2,327	-	-	2,570
Andorra	3	278	3	877	3	647	-	16	-

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
Armenia	-	-	-	-	1	35	-	-	-
Austria	600	40,075	95	17,878	197	57,120	4,701	550	1,212
Azerbaijan	-	-	-	-	1	350	-	-	-
Belarus	-	-	-	-	-	-	81	58	-
Belgium	1099	164,832	2,090	522,391	1,051	550,739	125,842	2,731	77,940
Bosnia and Herzegovina	-	-	5	2,401	10	1,951	47	104	-
Bulgaria	1	63	1	31	-	-	-	-	-
Croatia	36	2,304	11	1,588	12	2,305	329	739	7,289
Czech Republic	30	1,453	25	6,276	32	9,214	1,248	750	-
Denmark	7	342	22	10,374	1	207	-	-	-
Estonia	1	60	1	189	1	238	-	-	-
Faeroe Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finland	2	80	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	2,930	378,448	4,092	605,334	2,419	1,163,625	81,013	26,269	17,504
Georgia	2	60	-	-	-	-	-	-	1000
Germany	8,243	607,655	103	24,065	743	350,656	16,172	13,796	2,404
Gibraltar	1	64	1	358	-	-	-	-	-
Great Britain	317	10,837	1,765	437,290	361	322,627	53,550	118	181,123
Greece	9	589	10	3,685	8	3,005	-	-	-
Hungary	173	17,326	226	59,400	95	38,163	2,151	1,480	15,808
Iceland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ireland	138	8,952	3,222	529,281	571	343,035	13,010	878	17,070
Italy	4,868	310,307	1,033	127,396	945	120,845	6,227	23,984	301515
Kosovo	4	270	2	210	4	1,200	-	-	-
Latvia	3	360	4	365	3	66	61	-	-
Liechtenstein	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lithuania	45	8,438	13	10,583	325	83,595	318	126	-
Luxembourg	1	80	1	1,900	5	2,500	-	-	-
Macedonia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Malta	28	1,257	29	8,425	24	8,149	-	-	-
Moldova	4	257	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Monaco	2	60	2	474	1	715	-	-	-
Montenegro	2	110	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Netherlands	-	-	251	-	39	-	12	7	-
Norway	-	-	5	1,193	1	244	-	-	-

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
Poland	534	35,825	473	76,496	391	58,714	7,878	15,957	17,842
Portugal	415	31,729	134	30,143	55	18,079	2,141	903	12,653
Romania	50	2,705	19	3,503	23	6,092	145	762	-
Russia (in Europe)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	-
San Marino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Serbia	2	90	-	-	1	22	18	-	-
Slovakia	76	4,480	109	23,951	69	12,618	-	152	3,627
Slovenia	21	1,656	2	544	5	1,573	-	297	172
Spain	1,821	234,116	1,946	568,892	1,897	582,356	15,797	3,089	96,915
Svalbard and Jan Mayen Island	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sweden	7	140	3	573	3	466	-	-	-
Switzerland	8	215	11	1,230	27	5,973	200	381	80
Ukraine	48	1,850	16	786	5	690	1,377	261	35
<b>Total Europe</b>	<b>21,567</b>	<b>1,869,403</b>	<b>15,739</b>	<b>3,081,171</b>	<b>9,341</b>	<b>3,750,141</b>	<b>332,318</b>	<b>93,458</b>	<b>756,759</b>
<b>Oceania</b>									
Australia	366	20,661	1,320	390,419	460	348,553	238	6,192	40,817
Cook Islands	1	25	1	210	1	150	-	-	-
Fiji	19	591	44	11,211	19	4,222	107	-	-
Guam	11	402	11	3,576	3	1000	-	-	-
Kiribati	83	2,633	-	-	9	3,519	-	109	-
Marshall Islands	3	110	3	530	2	160	-	-	-
Micronesia	2	29	3	664	4	573	211	-	-
Marian Islands	2	57	2	388	1	183	-	-	-
Nauru	1	112	1	500	1	114	-	-	-
New Caledonia	15	2,417	42	10,187	23	7,511	-	-	-
New Zealand	10	467	188	36,054	48	29,947	427	13	-
Niue	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Palau	1	7	1	214	1	121	-	-	-
Papua New Guinea	823	44,721	2,131	340,545	100	72,900	7,528	117	3000
French Polynesia	11	1,711	11	3,550	10	6,538	282	-	-
Samoa	13	720	9	2,599	6	5,700	-	-	-
Samoa, American	2	80	2	300	1	200	-	-	-
Solomon Islands	50	2,310	6	1,926	16	5,715	40	42	3000
Tokelau	1	16	1	88	1	16	-	-	-
Tonga	7	612	2	280	4	2,078	373	-	-

Data are for 2019	Preschools		Primary schools		Secondary schools		Post-secondary (students) (*)		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Higher Inst.	Eccl.	Others
Tuvalu	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vanuatu	58	2,069	56	8,452	19	7,992	-	-	-
Wallis and Futuna Is.	10	521	11	1,034	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total Oceania</b>	<b>1,489</b>	<b>80,271</b>	<b>3,845</b>	<b>812,727</b>	<b>729</b>	<b>497,192</b>	<b>9,206</b>	<b>6,473</b>	<b>46,817</b>
<b>Overall Summary</b>									
<b>Africa</b>	<b>19,098</b>	<b>2,286,485</b>	<b>41,124</b>	<b>19,238,587</b>	<b>15,622</b>	<b>5,448,254</b>	<b>150,930</b>	<b>51,241</b>	<b>197,887</b>
North America	4,442	184,862	6,350	1,702,952	1,782	834,051	374,852	33,967	855,803
Central America	3,624	211,535	3,506	780,751	2,907	553,741	54,131	31,148	247,647
Antilles	2,413	89,953	4,150	538,215	957	235,706	34,557	23,929	62,545
South America	5,915	761,937	7,710	3,064,678	6,578	1,926,170	238,846	143,169	1,120,721
<b>Americas</b>	<b>16,394</b>	<b>1,248,287</b>	<b>21,716</b>	<b>6,086,596</b>	<b>12,224</b>	<b>3,549,668</b>	<b>702,386</b>	<b>232,213</b>	<b>2,286,716</b>
Middle East	477	54,502	612	161,368	360	96,948	19,646	1,110	40,563
Asie South East	13,642	1,994,044	15,889	5,808,322	11,276	6,028,560	1,181,054	111,187	504,270
<b>Asia</b>	<b>14,119</b>	<b>2,048,546</b>	<b>16,501</b>	<b>5,969,690</b>	<b>11,636</b>	<b>6,125,508</b>	<b>1,200,700</b>	<b>112,297</b>	<b>544,833</b>
<b>Europe</b>	<b>21,567</b>	<b>1,869,403</b>	<b>15,739</b>	<b>3,081,171</b>	<b>9,341</b>	<b>3,750,141</b>	<b>332,318</b>	<b>93,458</b>	<b>756,759</b>
<b>Oceania</b>	<b>1,489</b>	<b>80,271</b>	<b>3,845</b>	<b>812,727</b>	<b>729</b>	<b>497,192</b>	<b>9,206</b>	<b>6,473</b>	<b>46,817</b>
<b>World</b>	<b>72,667</b>	<b>7,532,992</b>	<b>98,925</b>	<b>35,188,771</b>	<b>49,552</b>	<b>19,370,763</b>	<b>2,395,540</b>	<b>495,682</b>	<b>3,833,012</b>

Source: Secretariat of State (2021).





# Global Catholic Education Report 2022: Ending Violence in Schools – An Imperative for Children’s Learning and Well-being

