

ANNEX B: Scoping review

Findings

CHARACTERISTICS OF PAPERS

Geographical distribution of papers

Published research on GBV in HEIs is concentrated in certain sub-regions and countries within sub-regions.

The number of papers reviewed were evenly distributed between the two main regions covered in the scoping review: 126 papers in Africa and 122 in MENA. North Africa was the most represented sub-region in the papers reviewed, followed by Southern Africa, with Central Africa the least represented sub-region with only three papers identified (see Figure 1). These results suggest that there are significant discrepancies between sub-regions in the amount of research being published on GBV in HEIs, although this does not necessarily mean that research is not being conducted in the sub-regions less represented in the scoping review. Within sub-regions, there are also wide discrepancies between countries in the amount of research being published. The majority of research is concentrated in specific countries in each sub-region, including Jordan and Saudi Arabia in the Middle East, Egypt in North Africa, Nigeria in Western Africa, South Africa in Southern Africa and Ethiopia in Eastern Africa (see Figure 2). It is notable that these are predominantly middle-income countries, with the exception of Saudi Arabia which is a HIC and Ethiopia which is a low-income country. Overall, there is very little research being published on GBV in HEIs in low-income countries in Africa and the MENA region.

Figure 1: Number of papers by sub-region

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Figure 2: Number of papers by sub-region and country



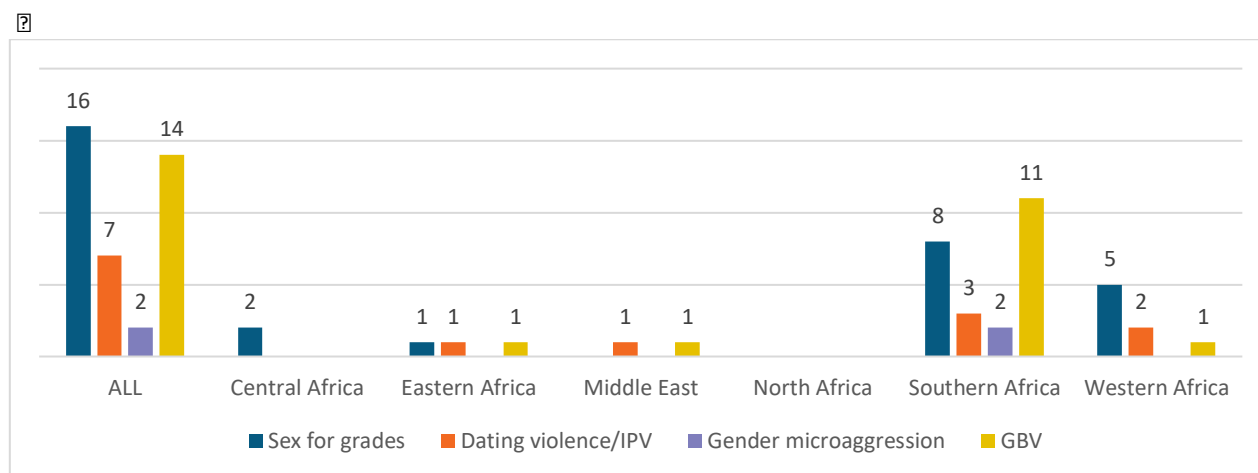
Types and characteristics of GBV

The published research covers a range of different types of GBV in HEIs, with sexual harassment being the most studied type of violence overall followed by cyberbullying, although there are significant regional variations

The most common type of GBV addressed in the research published on GBV in HEIs in Africa and the Middle East is sexual harassment, with 86 papers (35% of the total papers reviewed) focusing on this type of GBV, mostly concentrated in North Africa, Western Africa and Southern Africa (see Figure 6). While not as prolific, the published research on sexual violence has mostly taken place in Southern and Western Africa, with corresponding studies concentrated in South Africa and Nigeria. It is interesting to note a large body of literature on bullying and cyberbullying, which is almost entirely concentrated in the MENA region, particularly North Africa. However, the scoping review has identified that some bullying and cyberbullying literature in the MENA region includes measures of sexual harassment,

despite not necessarily referring overtly to it. There is less research being published on other types of GBV, including 'sex for grades', dating violence on campus and gender microaggressions, with some studies referring more generally to GBV without specifying which type.

Figure 3: Type of GBV by sub-region



Survivor and perpetrator dyads

The majority of literature on GBV in HEIs focuses on students as GBV survivors, with much less research being published on the perpetration of GBV against staff in HEIs

The vast majority of papers focus on GBV perpetrated against students, including by any kind of perpetrator (n=100), by staff (n=35) or by other students (n=32). The literature related to student perpetrators or any perpetrator spans multiple types of GBV, including sexual violence, sexual harassment, bullying and cyberbullying. However, studies on staff-perpetrated GBV is mainly associated with sexual harassment and/or 'sex for grades', with some studies also addressing bullying or discrimination. Only 24 papers address GBV against staff in HEIs, predominantly perpetrated by other staff members, with four of these papers expanding possible perpetration to students or other stakeholders in higher education settings. Just over half of the papers exploring GBV against university staff members comprise studies conducted in the MENA region (n=13), with the other 11 studies spread across Central, Eastern, Southern and Western Africa. Fourteen of the studies focusing on staff survivors of GBV are related to bullying; however, some of these papers from the MENA region include measures of "sexual bullying", which is synonymous with sexual harassment. It is notable that in a large proportion of papers, it is unclear who the main perpetrators of violence are, with studies either not stating this or not including measures of who the main perpetrators in higher education settings are (or are perceived to be).

Methodologies

The vast majority of papers included in the scoping review are quantitative, with fewer qualitative studies being published.

Approximately 70% of the papers included in the scoping review drew from quantitative methods, predominantly cross-sectional surveys, with a few experimental studies also drawing from survey methods. One quarter of the papers drew from qualitative methods, including focus groups discussions and key informant interviews, with few studies drawing from participatory methods. It is notable that only eleven studies employed mixed-methods (4% of the total number of papers reviewed).

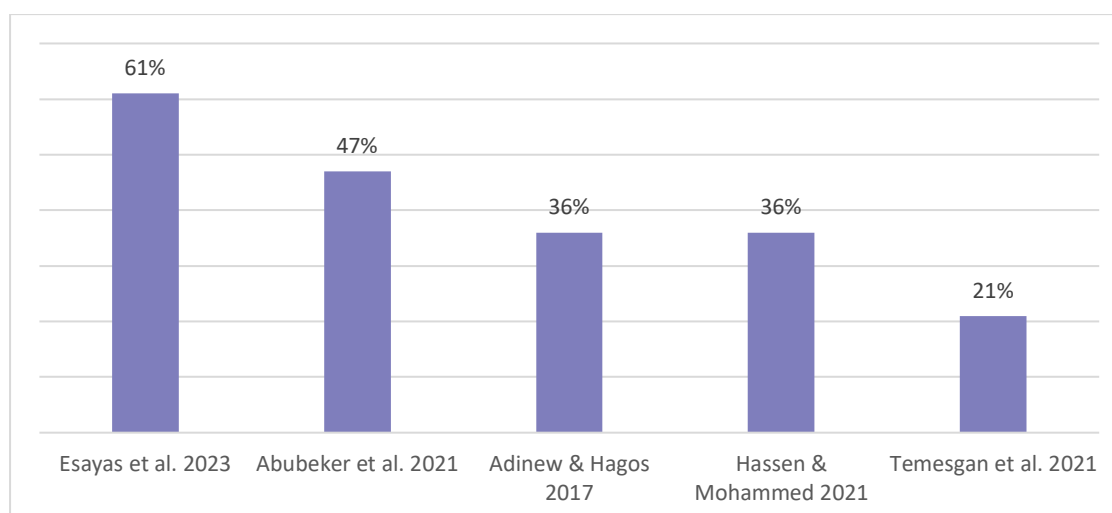
CHARACTERISTICS, PREVALENCE AND CORRELATES OF GBV

Thematically, the literature on GBV in HEIs is mainly focused on understanding prevalence and correlates, but with a focus on GBV experience, with much less research taking place on perpetration.

Sexual violence

Almost all the research reviewed on sexual violence has been conducted in Africa, with very little corresponding evidence found in the MENA region. The review identified alarming prevalence rates of sexual violence in randomly selected university populations. Almost all the studies reviewed that measure prevalence of sexual violence were conducted in Ethiopia and Nigeria, with a few also in Southern Africa (Eswatini and South Africa). There are wide differences in prevalence rates between countries, and also within countries. For example, in Ethiopia, prevalence rates for sexual violence in higher education settings range between 61% and 21% (see Figure 4), although there are some methodological differences in how sexual violence is measured in these studies. While all five studies in Figure 4 include attempted or completed rape in the measurement of sexual violence, four additionally include sexual harassment (with the exception of Abubeker et al. 2021). Further, while the first four studies depicted in Figure 4 measure sexual violence at any time during female students' college or university studies, Temesgan et al. (2021) measure past 12-month sexual violence. Prevalence rates for sexual violence in Nigeria are also high but more difficult to interpret given that several papers do not note the timeframe in which sexual violence is measured, and whether prevalence rates are lifetime, past 12 months, during university studies or another timeframe. Only one study reviewed focused on the perpetration of sexual violence, finding that 22% of students sampled in Nigeria had ever perpetrated sexual violence and 76% of these students had perpetrated in the past six months (Olaleye & Ajuwon 2012).

Figure 4: Prevalence of sexual violence against female students in Ethiopian studies

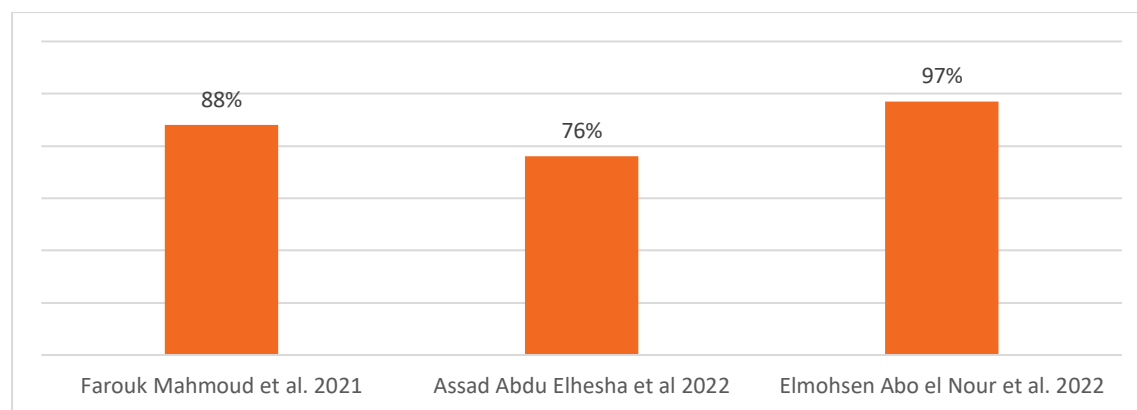


There are few studies exploring correlates of sexual violence. In line with the focus in the literature on victimisation, correlates and drivers of sexual violence in the literature are predominantly based on survivors' characteristics, with very little evidence being generated on the drivers of or risk factors for perpetration. Olaleye & Ajuwon's (2012) study found that alcohol use was a significant predictor of perpetration of sexual violence. Alcohol and drug use are also significant predictors of survivors' experience of sexual violence (Adinew & Hagos 2017; Banda-Chitsamatanga & Ntlama 2020; Dumbili & Williams 2020; Edwards et al. 2021; Esayas et al. 2023; Finchilescu & Dugard 2021; Hassen & Mohammed 2021; Kaufman et al. 2020; Machisa et al. 2021; Makhaye et al. 2023; Temesgan et al. 2019).

Sexual harassment

Much like for other types of GBV, the literature on sexual harassment focuses on prevalence and correlates, and identifies high prevalence rates in different settings. For example, in an Ethiopian sample, 52% of female students had experienced sexual harassment, and in another Ethiopian sample sexual prevalence was 78% for physical harassment, 90% for verbal harassment and 80% for sexual harassment (Mamaru et al. 2015). Prevalence of sexual harassment is very high in Egyptian studies, ranging from 76% to 97% (see Figure 5). There is less evidence related to prevalence of sexual harassment against staff in universities. Two studies in Nigeria show high prevalence rates of staff-perpetrated sexual harassment: in one study 41% of female university staff had experienced past 12 month sexual harassment (Agbaje et al. 2021), and in another study a large proportion of female university staff reported having experienced sexual harassment sometimes (69%) or often (31%) (Anierobi et al. 2021).

Figure 5: Prevalence of sexual harassment against female students in Egyptian studies



Some studies focusing on sexual harassment in higher education settings frame 'sex for grades' or sexual exploitation as a form of sexual harassment, while others frame it as a separate type of GBV. There were no studies identified that measured prevalence data on 'sex for grades' although several studies have measured perceptions of how prevalent this type of GBV is. For example, in a Nigerian study, 42% of students sampled in public institutions and 32% in private institutions reported that 'sex for grades' was common in the school (Aina-Pelemo et al. 2021). The literature on 'sex for grades' provides insights on how 'blame the victim' discourses are mobilised in higher education settings, and how gendered power relationships between staff and students are muted and female students are represented as predatory, provocative and hyper-sexualised and male staff as 'true' victims (Eller 2016; Morley 2011). While reporting of GBV cases in higher education institutions is often limited due to concerns about retaliation or lack of justice, the literature suggests that these concerns are amplified in cases involving 'sex for grades' due to perceptions that universities will protect staff members, particularly male staff members, and blame female students (Mafa et al. 2022; Okafor et al. 2022).

Much like for the evidence on sexual violence, there is a strong focus on experience of sexual harassment in the literature but with few papers focusing on perpetration, or including measures of perpetration in wider prevalence studies. The few studies that do address perpetration are mainly focused on academic staff as perpetrators of sexual harassment or 'sex for grades' against students, but without measuring prevalence.

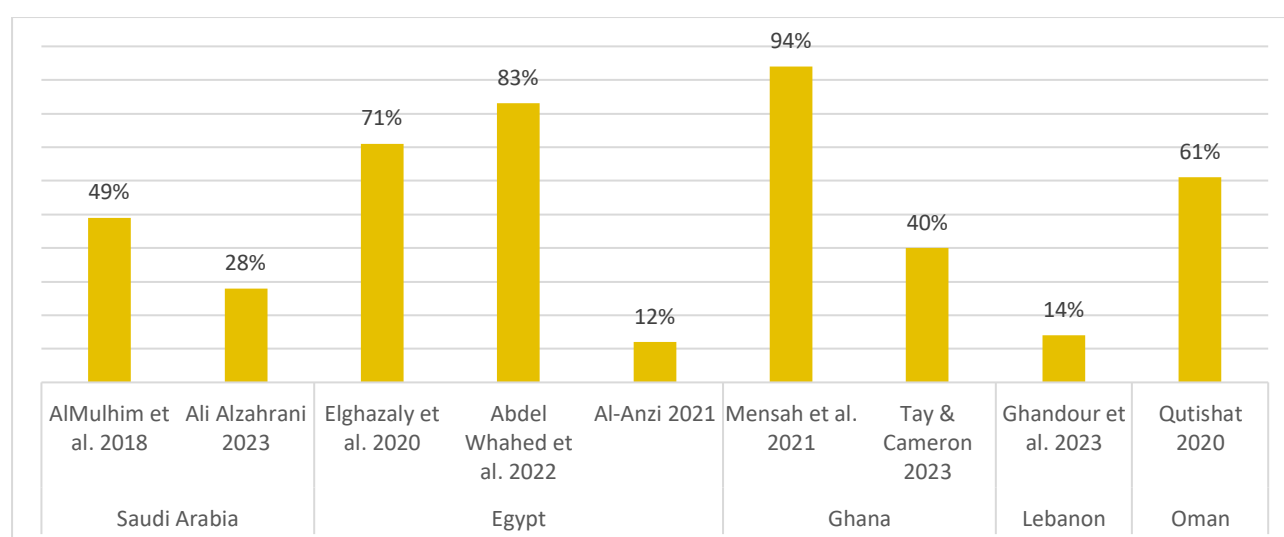
Bullying

The literature on characteristics of different bullying behaviours experienced by students suggests that emotional or psychological bullying are the most common types of bullying and that physical bullying is usually less common (Abdel-Whahed & Eldessouki 2022; Fahmy Qenari et al. 2023; Tay & Cameron

2023), although these patterns vary according to gender (see section below on gendered patterns of GBV in HEIs). Staff-perpetrated bullying behaviours included hostility, humiliation, belittlement, having ones work undermined, being ignored, insulting, criticising and job threatening (Abdul Samad 2020; Al Gharably 2014; Badenhorst & Botha 2022). It is interesting to note that in the literature in MENA, there is sometimes reference to 'sexual bullying' in some studies and this appears to be related to sexual harassment (e.g., Abu El-Diyar 2022; Ali Alzahrani 2012; Ananbeh 2020).

There are very high prevalence rates for bullying victimisation among university students in the MENA region, although the highest prevalence recorded was in Ghana (see Figure 6). As noted elsewhere in the report, prevalence data is challenging to compare given different time scales in measurements and large variations in sample sizes.

Figure 6: Prevalence of bullying among students in five countries



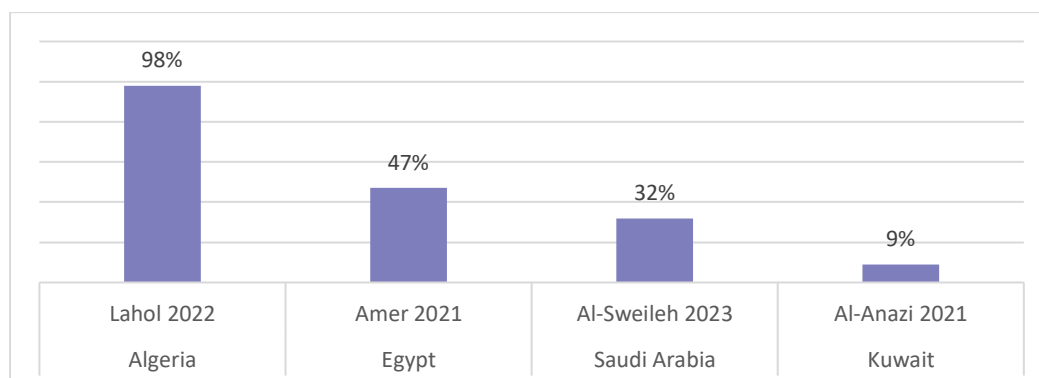
We found a few studies that include measures of bullying perpetration, and also found that research in this area is where most studies involving perpetration are focused (alongside literature on cyberbullying). In Egypt, Abdel-Whahed & Eldessouki (2022) found that 58% of medical students reported having bullied other students, and another study in Egypt found that students rather than staff were the most common perpetrators of bullying behaviours (Elghazally & Atallah 2020). In relation to staff bullying perpetration, in Saudi Arabia Al Rashid (2019) found that 47% of staff had used bullying behaviours with other staff members. Two papers on workplace bullying in HEIs, both from South Africa, suggest that power, status and position are significant factors associated with staff bullying perpetration. De Wet (2014) found that principals are the main perpetrators of workplace bullying and they mostly target those with lesser status (post level 1 educators). Badenhorst & Botha (2022) found that university support staff were more subjected to exclusion, humiliation and belittlement than academic staff.

Cyberbullying

Almost all the literature on cyberbullying in HEIs is based on research in the MENA region. Much like for other types of GBV, the prevalence rates for cyberbullying experience vary widely between countries, with prevalence of 98% found in one study in Algeria and 9% found in a study in Kuwait (see Figure 7). Compared to the literature on offline bullying, there is more emphasis in the cyberbullying literature on the intersections between victimisation and perpetration, with several studies finding that there is significant cross over and that cyberbullies are often victimised and vice versa (Al-Ghamdi 2020; Amer 2021). Several papers have reported a significant relationship between cyberbullying victimisation and field of study, but trends are not always consistent when taking gender of respondents into account. For example, three studies with mixed gender samples, including Mohsen

(2022) and Mustafa (2021) (both studies in Iraq) and Al-Mubasher (2021) (in Jordan) found that prevalence of cyberbullying victimisation was higher among students studying science courses than those in arts and humanities. This trend was not observed in a study that only sampled female students: Al-Ruwaili (2022) found no significant difference in prevalence of cyberbullying between female students in science and humanities subjects.

Figure 7: Prevalence of cyberbullying among students in four countries



Gendered patterns in GBV in HEIs

The research team encountered some challenges obtaining sex-disaggregated data, with some studies failing to report or analyse data accordingly. When examining the literature that does disaggregate by sex, it consistently indicates that women (students and staff) are more at risk of sexual violence and sexual harassment than men, although some men do experience both types of violence. The literature on bullying is more mixed. Some studies have found that female students are more at risk of experiencing bullying behaviours than male students, including in Saudi Arabia (AlMulhim et al. 2018) and Ghana (Mensah et al. 2021), while other studies have found that male students are more at risk, including in Saudi Arabia (Ali Alzahanri 2012) and South Africa (Moutloutse et al. 2022). There are also mixed results in relation to bullying of university staff, with female staff found to be more at risk in two studies focused on workplace bullying in higher education settings, including in South Africa (Conco et al. 2021) and Egypt (Abdul Samad 2020), male staff found to be more at risk in a study in Jordan (Al Gharably 2014) and no difference found in a South African study (Badenhorst & Botha 2022). Few studies measure whether gender intersects with different types of bullying. One that does found that physical bullying is more common among male students and emotional or psychological bullying is more common among female students in a sample of Egyptian students (Elghazally et al. 2020). While there were mixed results in terms of gender as a factor for (offline) bullying, the literature suggests that cyberbullying victimisation is more prevalent among male students than female students (Al-Anwar 2020; Al-Mubasher 2021; Alsawalqa 2021; Banat 2021; Mahmoud 2021; Mohamed 2023; Mohsen 2022; Mustafa 2021; Rashid 2022; Shobaki 2021; Shuwail 2023). The literature also suggests that perpetration is more common among male students (Bani Melham 2022; Mohsen 2022; Mustafa 2021; Rashid 2022; Shuwail 2023).

Marginalised groups

There is very little literature published in the region on GBV against people with disabilities in higher education settings. No papers targeting this population group made it into the scoping review.¹ Further, only five studies focusing on GBV against LGBTQI+ students in higher education were identified, four

¹ Three studies focused on people with disabilities were screened out of the scoping review. Two of these studies focused on more general experiences of students with disabilities, of which GBV was one of many, and these were classified as addressing GBV in HEIs as a secondary, not primary theme (Tugli 2013; Tugli 2014). The other study excluded was a quasi-experimental study in Egypt of a group therapy intervention for university students with visual disabilities who had experienced bullying (Kilani 2019). This study was screened out due to not meeting the sample size inclusion criteria.

of which are from South Africa and one from Nigeria. This literature is focused mainly on describing the characteristics of GBV in this population group, and identifies both more subtle daily microaggressions against LGBTQI+ students (Brown et al. 2020) and alarming levels of abuse and discrimination, including homophobic attacks, threats of outing or actual outing, physical violence, and corrective rape (Letsoalo et al. 2020; Nela et al. 2017; Okanlawon 2017). Mavhandu & Sandy (2015) found that LGBTQI+ plus students are subjected to 'religion-related' stigma whereby students are called 'sinners', 'devils' or 'demons', denied financial and healthcare services, and have experienced attempts of forced conversion (i.e., of their sexual orientation). They also found that violence and discrimination, including threats of rape, had led to LGBTQI+ students concealing their sexual identity, not attending specific classes, terminating their studies and even attempting suicide.

ATTITUDES RELATED TO GBV IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Victim-blaming narratives are endemic both in higher education institutions and the research conducted in them in some settings.

It is important to note that during the screening process, 24 papers were excluded because they reproduced 'victim-blaming' discourses, either through the methodologies used, the findings reported or the conclusions and recommendations made. The majority of these papers focused on the clothes that survivors of sexual violence or harassment wear. For example, we identified papers focused on measuring risk factors for GBV experience that emphasised what survivors were wearing at the time of a sexual assault, rather than emphasising the characteristics of perpetrators. Other papers made recommendations about GBV survivors modifying their clothes or universities policing women's dress codes. We also found examples of papers that framed staff-perpetrated sexual harassment or 'sex for grades' through the lens of women being predatory or seeking money and male academic staff being tricked or hard done. These narratives divorce sexual harassment and exploitation from the inherent power relations that exist in staff/student relations. The majority of papers using blame-the-victim narratives were based in religious contexts or universities, particularly Nigeria and the MENA region, with some also found in Zimbabwe.

The scoping review also identified research being conducted on attitudes about GBV showing that stakeholders in HEIs, including both students and staff, reproduce 'victim-blaming' narratives and rape myths that shift responsibility for GBV onto survivors. For example, studies in Cote D'Ivoire (Boateng et al. 2023) and Namibia (Nafuka & Shino 2014) found relationships between rape myths and victim blaming and other attitudinal measures such as date rape attitudes. A study in Ethiopia found that students perceived risk factors for GBV to centre around women's behaviours, including 'improper' dress or personal failure to prevent violence (Kaufman et al. 2019). Studies on staff-perpetrated GBV, including sexual harassment and 'sex for grades', identified staff-reproduced victim-blaming narratives or treatment of sexual harassment as trivial and justified (Onibon Doubogan & Hofmann 2016). The literature has found some gendered differences in attitudes, with women tending to have higher levels of rape myth rejection than men (Boateng et al. 2023; Nafuka & Shino 2014).

CONSEQUENCES OF GBV IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The majority of literature on the impacts of GBV in higher education focuses on health and mental health impacts, with less attention on the educational or professional impacts of GBV in higher education.

The majority of literature on the impacts of GBV in higher education focuses on health and mental health outcomes. For example, studies on bullying and cyberbullying of university students, mainly concentrated in the MENA region, have identified several negative impacts, including poor self-esteem (Alsawalqa 2021), depression and anxiety (AlMulhim et al. 2018; Ben Salem 2020; Omar 2020), suicidal thoughts or attempts (Al Anazi 2021; Ghandour et al. 2023; Shuwail 2023) and poor psychological security (Fadel 2023). The literature has found similar psychological impacts on student survivors of

sexual violence (Enosolease et al. 2023; Makhaye & Anjani 2023; Mezie-Okoye & Alamina 2014) and sexual harassment (Akinbode & Ayodeji 2018; Eagle & Kwele 2021; Farouk Mahmoud & Awadin Ali Hassan 2021; Mamaru et al. 2015; Ogbonnaya et al. 2011). A study in Nigeria on homophobic bullying in universities found that in addition to depression, anxiety and suicidal thoughts, some LGBTQI+ students also experienced forced or voluntary conversion (Okanlawon 2017). Mavhandu & Sandy (2015) also found that violence and discrimination, including threats of rape, had led to LGBTQI+ students in South Africa concealing their sexual identity and attempting suicide.

Overall, fewer studies analyse other types of impacts, including on students' educational outcomes. The bullying literature has identified poor academic performance among students who had been bullied in Lebanon (Ghandour et al. 2023) and intention to drop out among bullied students in Iran (Sharif-Nia et al. 2023). The cyberbullying literature has identified students' inability to concentrate in class in Saudi Arabia (Amber & Ibrahim 2022) and students' poor academic achievement (Shuwail 2023; Ziadah 2022) as negative impacts of cyberbullying victimisation. There is even less literature on the educational impacts of sexual harassment or sexual violence. Two studies in South Africa found that students had failed or repeated courses because they had refused sexual propositions from lecturers (Adams et al. 2013; Hendricks & Kanjiri 2020), and a study in Zimbabwe found that female students had been threatened with retaliation if they were not sexually cooperative (Dhlomo et al. 2012). Other studies have identified associations between sexual harassment or sexual violence and reduced academic performance among female students (Imonikhe et al. 2011; Makhaye & Ajani 2023; Ogbonnaya et al. 2011; Onibon Doubogan & Hofmann 2016).

The scoping review identified few studies that measured mediating factors, whether positive or negative, between GBV and the educational impacts of it. In relation to positive mediators, Sharifi-Nia et al. (2023) found that students' sense of belonging acted as a mediator between bullying victimisation and intention to drop out. In relation to negative mediators, several authors reported on pregnancy as both a negative impact of GBV, and one that led to heightened risk of poor educational outcomes, including drop out (Abubeker et al. 2021; Makhaye & Anjani 2023; Olaleye & Ajuwon 2019). Similarly, Von Muellen & Van der Walldt (2022) identified physical injury as negative impact of GBV, with requirements of medical treatment and hospitalisation leading to students' absenteeism and inability to complete studies and exams.

The majority of research being published on the impacts of GBV in HEIs focuses on students, with only five papers identified that measure the impacts of GBV on staff in higher education settings. Studies measuring bullying against staff in higher education settings have found negative impacts on stress at work in Jordan (Al Gharably 2014) and staff performance in Jordan (Al-Harayza 2020), Saudi Arabia (Abu Maleh 2021) and Egypt (Ali 2021). In relation to negative professional impacts for staff, Anierobi et al. (2021) found that job insecurity was identified as the leading consequence of sexual harassment against female university staff, with other consequences including poor work performance.

GBV RESPONSE AND PREVENTION

The available evidence on survivors' help seeking is limited but suggests that survivors face significant barriers to accessing GBV response and reporting cases in higher education settings.

There are gaps in the evidence base on the frequency of survivors' help- and service-seeking after experiencing GBV in higher education settings, with the small body of literature mainly focused on the experience of female students as survivors. The available evidence suggests that help seeking among female students is uncommon. In a large survey sample of female students in Egypt with high prevalence of sexual harassment, none of the women surveyed reported the case to authorities or through formal reporting channels (Ibrahim et al. 2023). Very low levels of help-seeking were also found in other settings, including in Ghana (Norman et al. 2012), Zambia (Kampyongo et al. 2017) and

Zimbabwe (Keratiloe et al. 2022). The literature identifies a number of different barriers to female student survivors reporting cases of GBV, including fear of further victimisation or punishment, including when the perpetrator is a staff member or holds power within the institutional environment (Awaah 2019). Other barriers include survivors feeling embarrassed or ashamed, that they won't be believed, that no action will be taken, that they did not consider the incident important or that university services cannot be trusted (Gordon & Collins 2013; Kamyongo et al. 2017; Norman et al. 2012). Gordon & Collins (2023) also found that social norms that reproduce silence, including that sexuality is a private matter, are strong barriers to help-seeking.

It is important to note that the available evidence focuses on the barriers that female survivors, particularly students, face reporting GBV. Only one study that analyses the experiences of male survivors was identified. Keratiloe et al. (2022) found that in a higher education institution in Zimbabwe, male GBV survivors shared that they had reported cases to campus security and were told to 'deal with it like men'. The study emphasises the social norms related to masculinity that reproduce specific barriers for male survivors' help-seeking. Further, only one study was found that explores the help-seeking behaviours of staff who have experienced GBV, with female academic staff in Egypt sharing that they would not be taken seriously because of social norms that upheld senior, male professors honourable and to be protected (Mousa & Abdelgaffar 2022).

There is a small body of literature on GBV response in HEIs, mostly concentrated in the Middle East and North Africa, particularly Egypt, with promising results.

The scoping review identified a small but growing literature on GBV response interventions in HEIs, particularly emerging in the MENA region. These interventions can be classified under two main types: awareness raising interventions to increase knowledge of GBV and how to seek support; and psychosocial, counselling or cognitive behavioural programmes aimed at directly supporting survivors or working with perpetrators. Awareness raising interventions include for example gaming applications (Sadati & Mitchell 2021) and digital e-learning programmes (Fares 2013) with the latter study finding positive results in participants' knowledge of how to protect themselves from cyber abuse. Studies of counselling and cognitive behavioural programmes have demonstrated positive impacts on survivors' self-esteem, confidence and assertiveness (Alfar 2017; Mounir Hassan Naeim et al. 2023), and reducing bullying behaviours (Zahran 2017).

GBV policies, procedures and interventions in higher education institutions tend to be reactive rather than proactive, and suffer from weak implementation

Several studies assessing GBV policies in higher education institutions, mostly in South Africa, have highlighted the reactive nature of policy content and implementation, which focuses on addressing GBV after it has occurred (Bashonga & Khuzwayo 2017; Kiguwa et al. 2015; Nunlall 2022; Sidelil et al. 2022). It is also evident that implementation is weak, including limited staff guidance and training on policy utilisation and institutions avoiding the punishment of staff (Bashonga & Khuzwayo 2017; Fadipe & Bakenne 2020; Hendricks 2022; Joubert et al. 2011). The evidence suggests that there is variation in GBV policy content and implementation across different types of institutions. For example, a policy study in Kuwait found that foreign partner university campuses were more likely to make sexual harassment policies widely available and have prevention characteristics than national university policies (Fusilier & Denny 2021).

The literature on GBV prevention interventions in HEIs is small and largely concentrated in South Africa with a focus on sexual violence, but has some promising results at outcome level

There is little geographic diversity in the GBV prevention interventions in HEIs that are being implemented, rigorously tested and published, with the majority of papers reviewed from South Africa, with a few also published from Ghana, Kenya, Jordan and Zimbabwe. Most of the prevention interventions focus specifically on sexual violence, with few targeting other types of GBV such as sexual harassment, bullying or technology-facilitated GBV or cyberbullying. Nevertheless, the available literature has shown some promising results at outcome level, including in interventions targeting men. These include increased knowledge of GBV and harmful gender norms, reduced tolerance of GBV, reduced rape myth acceptance, stronger skills in bystander intervention and greater confidence in using verbal and physical resistance strategies in risky sexual situations (de Villiers 2016; de Villiers et al. 2021; Edwards et al. 2021; Machisa et al. 2023; Mahlangu et al. 2022; Musungu et al. 2018; Rominski et al. 2017). Despite these promising results, a key gap in the literature is the measurement of higher-level impacts of interventions, with no papers reviewed including longitudinal measurements of GBV, including perpetration. Another gap in the prevention literature is an analysis of gendered differences in change as a result of interventions. For example, the evaluation of one prevention intervention in a Ghanaian university found significant improvements in men's attitudinal outcomes but no change among women (Rominski et al. 2017).

Conclusions and gaps in the evidence

The results of the scoping review indicate that the evidence on GBV in HEIs in Africa and the Middle East is growing and strengthening, but with a number of geographical and thematical gaps.



- The evidence is very much focused on prevalence and correlates of GBV. Less research is being published on the impacts of GBV, particularly educational and professional outcomes on both students and staff. The field also appears to be quite nascent in relation to intervention programming, particularly GBV prevention, institutional policy implementation and GBV interventions at scale.
- The scoping review has identified deep inequalities in scholarship and research on GBV in HEIs in Africa and the Middle East, with published research concentrated in certain sub-regions, and larger countries within those sub-regions. It is notable that very few papers were identified in Central Africa, and no papers published in Portuguese and few published in French were identified and included in the scoping review.
- There is very limited literature available on GBV against marginalised populations in higher education, including LGBTQI+ people, despite high prevalence of violence against these groups and specific types of violence that they are subjected to. Almost no literature related to people with disabilities was identified.
- There is a strong gap in the evidence on perpetration of GBV in HEIs. This gap is observed in the lack of measurement of who the perpetrators of GBV are, even in studies focusing on survivors' experience of violence, and lack of methods being used to understand perpetration. This made it challenging in many cases for the research team to confirm the survivor/perpetrator dyad being addressed in individual studies.
- There is a significant gap in the evidence on social norms that drive GBV in HEIs, with the limited available literature on this topic focused mainly on stigma and normative barriers to survivors' help- and service-seeking and reporting of cases. There is sparse evidence on how gender norms and masculinities are implicated in GBV perpetration.

The scoping review has also identified a number of methodological gaps in the research on GBV in HEIs in Africa and the Middle East.

- Across the literature on different types of GBV, there is weak gender disaggregation of data and analysis overall, despite some studies clearly indicating gendered characteristics of GBV. A large number of studies either did not clearly identify the gender disaggregation of

samples (e.g., number of male and female students sampled) or did not disaggregate data by gender, including prevalence data. This can mask important distinctions in how different populations experience or perpetrate GBV in HEIs.

- The research team encountered various challenges comparing the findings from studies on GBV in HEIs given the wide range of tools used to measure the same types of GBV and the different definitions of GBV employed, particularly in relation to bullying and sexual harassment. Another factor that makes comparison challenging is the wide range of time scales in measurement, with studies measuring lifetime GBV experience (with sub-questions about more recent experience), or GBV experience in the past 12 months, past six months, past three months or anytime during respondents' university studies. Some studies do not specify at all the time scale of measurement. In some cases, these variations can make it challenging to ascertain whether university students experienced GBV during their tertiary studies or in higher education settings, or whether studies are sampling university students as convenience samples for wider measurement of GBV.
- There are some methodological limitations in the evidence on impacts of GBV, the main one being that the literature is predominantly based on quantitative, cross sectional studies and so cannot establish causality or the directionality of the relationship between variables. Another gap is the lack of longitudinal studies to identify the longer-term impacts of GBV in higher education, including on drop out among students, and longer-term professional development and inclusion among both students and staff.

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