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Keeping Children Safe at School

A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF WHAT WE DO AND DON'T KNOW ABOUT SCHOOL-RELATED VIOLENCE INTERVENTIONS

David K. Evans, Gabriela Smarrelli, and Yi Ning Wong

Abstract

Violence in and around schools affects more than one hundred million children around the world. A variety of policies, laws, and interventions aimed at addressing that violence have been evaluated. We conducted a systematic review of studies published between 2000 and 2025 seeking to evaluate the causal impact of interventions, laws, and policies on any form of physical, emotional, or sexual violence perpetrated by peers or members of school staff. We searched databases across the medical sciences, education, and economics to identify 41 studies with stronger causal inference claims. (We also examined an additional 72 studies with small samples or weaker identification strategies.) Our analysis shows that most evidence is concentrated in high-income countries, focuses on peer-to-peer bullying, and evaluates small-scale, short-term interventions. Most evaluated interventions focus on strengthening skills, building knowledge, and addressing restrictive norms. There is less evidence on the impact of enacting and enforcing laws and improving institutional responses to violence. We highlight promising interventions (including some with substantively large impacts), and identify key gaps in understanding which intervention components drive change, how to address adult-to-student violence, and what works at scale and over time. We propose how policymakers might act on existing evidence even while supporting the creation of new evidence in understudied areas.

KEYWORDS
education, violence, school-based violence, gender-based violence

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We used AI tools to assist with typos and grammar checks throughout the paper, as well as to support one aspect of the data-processing workflow. Specifically, Claude was used to cross-check our data extraction of effect sizes against the original studies and flag potential inconsistencies, all of which were subsequently reviewed and resolved by the authors. In cases where not all information required for standardization had been included in the initial extraction, Claude was used to retrieve it from the original papers. This included control-group means or prevalences, outcome standard deviations, author-reported standardized effects, and sample sizes. Claude was also used to develop the spreadsheet for converting estimates to a common standardized effect size. Finally, Claude assisted with editing Appendix B of the paper.

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1. Introduction

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child has been ratified by 196 countries—more than any other human rights treaty in history. Signatories agree on their responsibility to protect children from "all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse" (UNCRC, 2022). Yet, violence in and around schools remains a widespread problem. Each year, an estimated 115 million children experience violence in and around schools (UNICEF, 2024). One-third of adolescents report experiencing bullying (UNESCO, 2019), and corporal punishment by teachers remains a common practice (Smarrelli et al., 2024).

Even beyond violating children's rights, school-related violence undermines children's well-being and human capital across their life course. Experiencing school-related violence is associated with a weakening of essential building blocks for human capital, including reduced brain development and learning (Strøm et al., 2013; Ponzo, 2013; Eriksen et al., 2014; Contreras et al., 2016; Delprato et al., 2017; Psaki et al., 2018; Aguirre et al., 2025), higher likelihood of absenteeism and drop out (Carson et al., 2013; Dunn et al., 2013; Psaki et al., 2018), worse mental health (Sarzosa and Urzua, 2021; Baldwin et al., 2023), and weaker employment prospects later in life (Brown and Taylor, 2008).

Evidence on how to prevent and respond to school-related violence has grown, particularly over the last decade, with an increasing number of studies in low- and middle-income countries. Previous reviews have summarized the global evidence on interventions addressing school-related violence (Lester et al., 2017; Gaffney et al., 2021; Sood et al., 2022; Eldred et al., 2026), yet many reviews focus on a single form of violence and primarily on school-based programs (excluding evidence on laws, bans, and national policies). Moreover, existing reviews rarely examine how intervention design and delivery characteristics are associated with changes in violence outcomes.

This systematic review aims to address these gaps. We search databases across the medical sciences, education, and economics for studies published between 2000 and 2025 on the impact of interventions, laws and policies on school-related violence, focusing both on outcomes that measure the prevalence of violence in and around schools (including physical, emotional and sexual violence perpetrated by peers or the school staff) and on intermediary outcomes related to knowledge and attitudes around violence. We exclude from our analysis studies of interventions targeted only to specific subpopulations (e.g., only victims of previous violence or individuals with specific mental health conditions), as well as papers focused on forms of violence that we could not directly link to schools (including corporal punishment by parents and intimate partner violence).

To learn from a wide set of interventions, distinguishing evidence by the evaluation design, we classified studies into two samples. Our main sample includes 48 interventions (41 studies) that used stronger causal identification strategies, including randomized controlled trials and quasi-experimental approaches. We complement that with an exploratory sample that includes evaluations of 81 interventions (across 72 studies) using smaller samples or less rigorous empirical approaches, including simple before-and-after comparisons of non-randomized interventions. We use the

main sample to synthesize the most rigorously assessed evidence, and we use the exploratory sample to examine whether less rigorously evaluated interventions provide additional insights into intervention models, contexts, and remaining evidence gaps.

We extracted information on intervention characteristics, treatment effects, safeguarding practices, and intervention costs. We classify the interventions into three categories: national laws and policies; skills, knowledge, and norms; and response systems.[1] We then examine whether interventions reduce school-related violence, which types of interventions have been evaluated, which components they include, and where evidence remains limited.

Our analysis of the main sample provides insight both on what we do and do not know. On what we do not know—i.e., evidence gaps—the evidence remains concentrated in high-income countries, focuses primarily on peer-to-peer bullying, is often small-scale, and mostly measures short-term impacts. (This is consistent with previous reviews.) This means we know less about what models will work best in lower resource environments, how to address teacher-to-student violence, and particularly how to address sexual violence perpetrated by peers and adults in and around schools. Second, only 2 of 48 interventions evaluated (in 2 of 41 studies) were on the impact of national policies or bans, underscoring the limited causal evidence on system-level reforms, despite their importance for signaling national priorities and changing institutional practices. Third, only 7 of 48 interventions (5 of 41 studies) included components focused on the response to violence, such as reporting mechanisms, counselling, referral pathways, and restorative approaches.

On what we do know, first, most interventions focused on preventing school-related violence by strengthening socio-emotional skills, increasing knowledge and awareness of violence and its effects, and changing school norms and values. This includes examples of successful programs across multiple settings and with different designs, demonstrating that violence in and around schools is preventable. We supplement those studies with a suggestive analysis of some of the characteristics associated with successful programs. That analysis suggests that interventions targeting multiple actors, addressing multiple risk factors at the individual, interpersonal, and institutional levels, and operating over longer implementation periods were associated with reductions in the prevalence of school-related violence. Our analysis of 72 papers in the exploratory sample showed similar overall patterns while also offering insights into interventions implemented in contexts with less regional coverage, particularly in Asia; promising approaches to improving teacher-student relationships; and delivery models involving cross-sectoral collaboration between education, health, and social protection actors.

We also discuss two issues that cut across types of interventions: ensuring children's safety in the context of school-related violence research (i.e., safeguarding) and the current limits

1 These three categories are adapted from the INSPIRE framework to the school context. INSPIRE provides an overarching framework with seven strategies to prevent and respond to violence against children and adolescents (Butchart and Hillis, 2016).

to cost-effectiveness analysis. Finally, we discuss what the evidence suggests in terms of tackling specific types of violence. We lay out implications for future research on this topic. We also suggest what we see as the way forward for policymakers to act on existing evidence to improve school-related violence policies and interventions.

Our study brings together evidence published over more than two decades to draw an actionable picture of what works to prevent school-related violence, and to illuminate those areas needing further research. Our findings complement previous reviews of school-based violence prevention, many of which have focused on specific forms of violence or specific types of interventions.[2] These include reviews of school-based sexual abuse prevention programs (Walsh et al., 2015; Che Yusof et al., 2022), bullying and peer violence interventions (Lester et al., 2017; Sivaram et al., 2019; Gaffney et al., 2021), gender-based, dating, and relationship violence interventions (Lester et al., 2017; Farmer et al., 2023), and interventions to reduce teacher violence (Baumgarten et al., 2023). Other reviews have examined broader sets of outcomes, including effects on educational outcomes and heterogeneous impacts across student subgroups (Eldred et al., 2025; Eldred et al., 2026).

This review advances our understanding in three ways. First, rather than focusing on a single form of violence, we review interventions addressing physical, emotional, and sexual violence perpetrated by peers and school staff, allowing us to examine evidence across forms of school-related violence. Second, we explicitly include laws, policies, and bans alongside school-based programs, broadening the evidence base beyond programmatic interventions alone. Third, we examine which intervention components and delivery characteristics appear to be associated with changes in violence outcomes. Finally, while our main analysis focuses on studies with stronger causal identification strategies, we examine smaller and less rigorously evaluated studies separately to identify approaches that may inform future research. In doing so, this review provides both a synthesis of the strongest available evidence and a map of where further evidence is most needed.

2. Data and methods

2.1. Search strategy

Given the cross-disciplinary nature of violence research and the prevalence of grey literature, we conducted the search in two steps. First, we searched across databases for studies evaluating the impact of interventions, programs, national policies, and laws related to violence in and around schools. We searched in nine electronic databases from medical sciences, education, and economics, including both peer reviewed papers and working papers: PubMed, PsycNet, Cochrane Library, Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), Research Papers in Economics (RePec), World Bank Working Papers, and the African Education

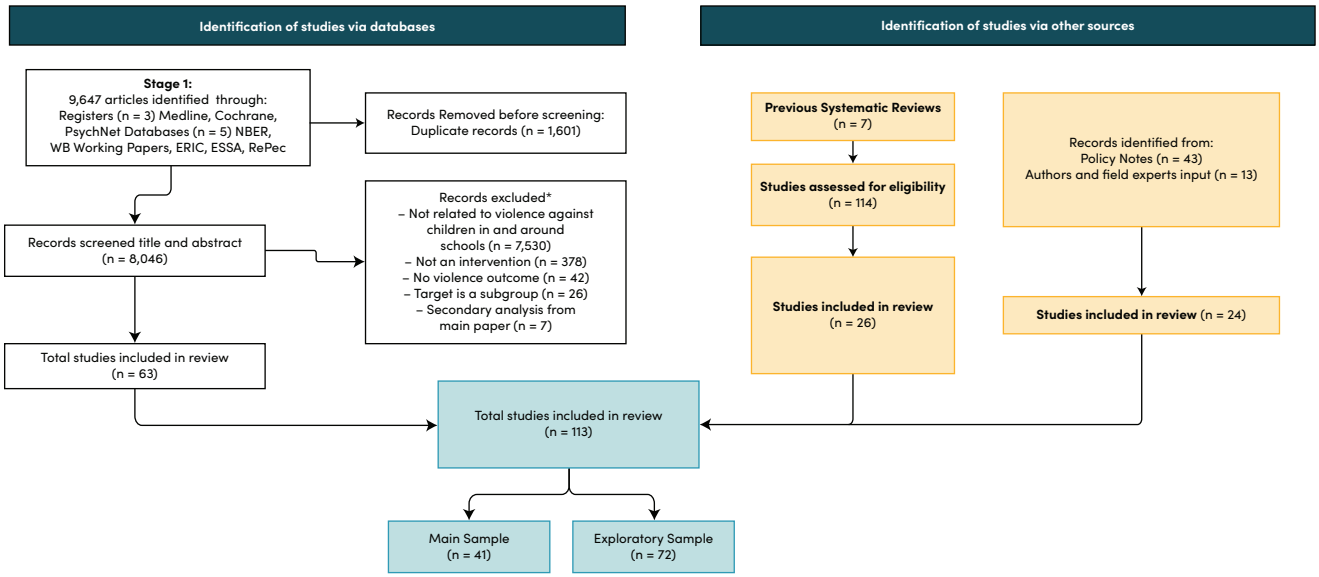
2 See Appendix Table A1 for a more detailed summary of findings from the different systematic reviews.

Research Database (ESSA). We also searched the American Economic Association's RCT Registry to see if any relevant studies were forthcoming.[3] Searches were conducted in May 2025 and included studies published between 2000 and May of 2025. Results were not restricted by language; however, the search terms were in English (and all results were in English).[4]

Second, we incorporated input on relevant papers from experts in the field, along with newly published studies (published within our search timeframe) that may not yet have been indexed in academic databases. We cross-checked our search results against the studies included in related systematic reviews to ensure that our search captured all relevant papers.

The exact search terms are detailed in Appendix Tables A2 and A3. Our initial search from electronic databases identified 9,647 studies (Figure 1). We complemented this with 170 papers from existing systematic reviews and input from experts in the field. We screened titles and abstracts to exclude duplicates and papers falling into our exclusion criteria. We retained studies that (a) focused on interventions, laws, or policies; and (b) measured violence in and around schools, including outcomes on the prevalence of physical, emotional and sexual violence by peers or the school staff, as well as intermediate outcomes such as knowledge and attitudes towards violence (see Appendix Table A4).

FIGURE 1. From search to sample (PRISMA diagram)



3 We supplemented that with an exploratory search in the Pan African Clinical Trials Registry and did not identify studies that would meet the criteria of our main sample.

4 To increase confidence that our English-language search did not exclude key studies, we conducted an additional search explicitly seeking papers in Spanish and Portuguese, two languages with significant academic output. We searched in Cochrane, MEDLINE, PsycNet, and ERIC for papers in Spanish and Portuguese, and expanded the search to two databases that cover academic literature in Spanish and Portuguese: SciELO and Dialnet. We incorporated non-English search terms. This search identified no papers that met our inclusion criteria for the main sample, and only five papers that would have met the inclusion criteria for the exploratory sample. These papers evaluated intervention designs similar to those already represented in the exploratory sample and therefore did not add substantially new evidence.

Based on the empirical approach used, we classified the studies into two groups: a main sample and an exploratory sample. The main sample included interventions evaluated using causal identification strategies, including randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and quasi-experimental methods,[5] and with a reasonably large sample size.[6] The exploratory sample included studies that did not use a rigorous causal identification strategy (e.g., simple before-after designs), as well as pilot or smaller sample RCTs, which were less likely to provide sufficiently precise estimates of intervention effects.

We include studies from countries at all income levels: high-income, middle-income, low-income. This means we include a range of very different settings, and not all the evidence will be relevant in every other setting. However, countries often use adjacent income groups as reference points: so, policymakers in an upper middle-income country (like Brazil) may see more relevance in evidence from a high-income country (like Chile) than from a low-income country (like Mozambique). As such, we include the full range of countries, with varying income and institutional capacity levels, recognizing that adaptation across settings requires complex considerations (Bates and Glennerster, 2017). To focus on interventions that might be scaled up widely, we excluded studies focusing only on specific sub-populations identified through prior screening or diagnosis, including children at high risk of experiencing or perpetrating violence, victims of violence, and children with mental health conditions (26 studies). We excluded purely descriptive studies that did not evaluate an intervention (38 studies) and studies that did not measure violence (N = 42).

Because the education sector has a specific responsibility of care for children in and around school, we focus on studies with a clear link to school-related violence. (Obviously, the education system may affect violence outcomes unrelated to school, but those effects will be less direct.) For that reason, we exclude studies for which it was not possible to determine whether the violence occurred in schools, on the way to or from school, or was perpetrated by members of the school community, including students, teachers, or school leaders (7,530 studies). This means we excluded studies measuring corporal punishment by parents, intimate partner violence, dating violence, or cyberbullying without an explicit connection to the school setting (either because the event did not occur in school, on the way to or from school, or was not perpetrated by a member of the school community). For example, studies measuring dating violence were included only if the violence was clearly linked to the school environment (as it is in Taylor et al., 2015). Similarly, although our search strategy included cyberbullying, studies focusing exclusively on cyberbullying were included only when they also measured traditional forms of school bullying or otherwise established a clear connection to the school context, as in Garaigordobil and Martínez-Valderrey (2015).

5 In this review, we considered the following quasi-experimental methods: difference-in-differences, instrumental variables, regression discontinuity designs, and synthetic control.

6 Studies randomized at the school, community or classroom level with less than 20 randomization units, or studies randomized at the student level with fewer than 100 observations were classified as small sample studies. While any specific cut-off is inherently arbitrary, our analysis is not sensitive to the cut-off (Appendix Table A5).

Finally, when multiple papers reported on the same intervention, we included the main impact evaluation and excluded secondary analyses that focused exclusively on subgroup, mediation, or moderation analyses. After applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the final review sample comprised 113 studies, of which 41 were included in the main sample and 72 in the exploratory sample. A summary of papers in the main sample is in Appendix Table A6, and those in the exploratory sample are listed in Appendix Table A7.

2.2. Data extraction

For both the main and exploratory samples we extracted information on study, intervention, and outcome characteristics. Study and intervention characteristics included target age group, study setting and scale, intervention activities, actors targeted, and intervention duration. Outcome characteristics included the type of violence measured and the perpetrator of violence, when that was specified (see Appendix Table A8 for the full list of variables).

For the studies in the main sample, we further extracted treatment effects for violence-related and intermediate outcomes, including: the type of estimate reported (e.g., odds or incidence ratios, or mean differences), the direction of the outcome, point estimates, standard errors, confidence intervals, and p-values. Where sufficient information was available, we calculated p-values for studies that did not report them. Main sample studies were also assessed for risk of bias (see our discussion in Section 2.5), and we extracted available information on program costs and safeguarding practices (Section 5.1 and 5.2).

2.3. Intervention classifications

We classified the studies into three categories: national laws and policies; skills, knowledge and norms; and response systems. Adapting the existing INSPIRE framework for categorizing interventions related to violence against children and adolescents,[7] these three categories highlight core action areas addressing different but interrelated school violence risk factors and barriers at the individual, community, and institutional level.

National laws and policies: Studies examining the impact of legislation aimed at preventing and addressing violence in and around schools. This includes laws such as bans on corporal punishment, mandatory reporting laws, legislation criminalizing sexual abuse and exploitation of children, and laws restricting access to weapons or firearms. It also includes national policies, protocols, and guidelines focused on addressing school-related violence by providing an overarching vision and framework to establish standards and align school practices with national goals.

7 The INSPIRE framework provides seven strategies to prevent and respond to violence against children and adolescents (Butchart and Hillis, 2016). It provides an overarching framework considering all forms of violence occurring in any setting. For this review, we bring to that framework a focus on violence against children perpetrated by members of the school community in, around, and on the way to and from school. Appendix A9 details the link between our proposed categorization and the INSPIRE framework.

Skills, knowledge and norms: Studies examining the impact of programs and interventions designed to increase knowledge or enhance skills that contribute to changing behaviors, harmful practices, stereotypes, norms, and attitudes related to the prevention of violence. The studies in this category were further classified into three sub-categories: i) skills building, ii) knowledge and awareness, and iii) values and norms. This allowed us to differentiate between papers focused on building skills (e.g., socio-emotional skills, emotional self-regulation, communication skills, interpersonal relationships), those focused on raising knowledge and awareness about violence (e.g., what constitutes violence and its consequences), and those centered on addressing broader values and norms that shape the culture of schools.

Response systems: Studies examining mechanisms for identifying and reporting cases of violence (e.g., phone- or online-based reporting systems, complaint boxes), as well as the systems in place to respond to cases of violence. This includes grievance and response mechanisms, referral systems, psychological support for victims, perpetrators and witnesses, restorative approaches, and programs for offenders.

The national laws and policies category encompasses both prevention and response efforts, while the skills, knowledge, and norms category primarily focuses on violence prevention, and the response systems category focuses, as its name suggests, on violence response. We analyzed the components of each law, program, or intervention and classified them into these categories, allowing them to be included in more than one category, while also specifying the primary focus of the intervention based on its stated goals, coverage, and dosage of specific program components.

2.4. Effect sizes

The studies in our sample use a wide range of outcomes, many of which are not clearly comparable. For example, even setting aside outcomes related to knowledge of and attitudes about violence, actual outcomes on violence in our studies include everything from broad constructs (e.g., have you experienced sexual violence? how often?) to narrow questions (e.g., has anyone slapped you in the face?) to composite scores (e.g., does the intervention affect a bullying index?). Some studies use student self-reports, others use teacher self-reports, others use classroom observation reports and still others look at official reporting. With this variation in outcomes, standardizing effect sizes and reporting findings in, for example, a forest plot carries a serious risk of implying comparability that does not exist. At the same time, while most individual studies focus merely on whether effects are statistically significant or not, the size of an effect matters at least as much as its statistical significance for whether the program is effective at reducing violence.

As a compromise, to avoid projecting an illusion of comparability that does not exist but also to give the reader a sense of the most effective programs, we do a basic standardization of effect sizes but only use this to highlight interventions with relatively large reductions in violence (rather than a broader ranking), in Section 3.2.2.

2.5. Technical characteristics of evaluations

The 41 studies included in our main sample assessed 48 interventions (treatment arms). In total, 36 studies assessed a single intervention, and five assessed between two and three interventions. Tables 1 and 2 show the empirical approaches and data collection methods used in both the main and exploratory samples, for studies in all countries and those in low- and middle-income countries. In the main sample, most interventions were evaluated using randomized controlled trials (N = 44). Quasi-experimental strategies (including difference-in-differences approaches and regression discontinuity designs) were used to assess just four interventions. In the exploratory sample, 56% (45 of 81) of evaluations used descriptive approaches, such as before-and-after comparisons. The remaining exploratory sample (36 of 81) used RCTs but with smaller samples.

TABLE 1. Intervention characteristics – data and methods (all studies)

Group		Main Sample		Exploratory Sample	
		N	%	N	%
Total Count					
	Number of studies	41		72	
	Number of interventions	48		81	
Empirical Method					
	Randomized-Controlled Trial	44	91.7	36	44.4
	Difference-in-Differences	3	6.3	0	0.0
	Fuzzy Regression Discontinuity	1	2.1	0	0.0
	Other (e.g., before-after designs)	0	0.0	45	55.6
Method of Data Collection					
	Face to Face	3	7.1	1	2.2
	Self-administered (computer or paper-based)	31	73.8	43	95.6
	Administrative	8	19.0	0	0.0
	Unclear	0	0	1	2.2

Notes: Under Method of Data Collection, we only consider interventions that measure violence prevalence against children (not interventions that only include intermediate outcomes such as knowledge and attitudes towards violence). We exclude 6 interventions from the main sample, and 36 interventions from the exploratory sample.

TABLE 2. Intervention characteristics – data and methods (low- and middle-income countries)

		Main Sample		Exploratory Sample	
Group		**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Count					
	Number of studies	11		3	
	Number of interventions	14		3	
Empirical Method					
	Difference-in-Differences	1	7.1	0	0
	Randomized-Controlled Trial	13	92.9	3	100
Method of Data Collection					
	Face to Face	3	21.4	1	100
	Self-administered (computer or paper-based)	7	50	0	0
	Administrative	4	28.6	0	0
	Unclear	0	0	0	0

Notes: Under Method of Data Collection, we only consider interventions that report violence prevalence outcomes of students (not interventions that only include intermediate outcomes such as attitudes toward violence). We exclude 6 interventions from the main sample, and 36 interventions from the exploratory sample.

Data collection methods also differ substantially across contexts. Most interventions in the main sample were evaluated using self-administered questionnaires (either using computer or paper-based systems) (74%, or 31 of 42 interventions measuring violence outcomes), generally completed by groups of students at the same time in a classroom, while three interventions were evaluated using data from face-to-face interviews (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017; Santhya et al., 2019). Eight interventions (17%) from six studies in the main sample used administrative data on violence, which included census data, disciplinary records, data from school violence reporting systems and police records (Paluck et al., 2016; Rees et al., 2022; Smarrelli, 2023; Dinarte-Diaz and Egana-delSol, 2024; Amaral et al., 2024; Gutierrez et al., 2025).[8] The exploratory sample almost exclusively used self-administered questionnaires.

2.6. Risk of bias analysis

We adapted Cochrane's Risk of Bias assessment tool, which is used to evaluate the methodological qualities of studies (Sterne et al., 2019).[9] We assessed risk of bias across five domains: the strength of the empirical strategy; whether studies accounted for multiple hypothesis testing; baseline imbalance or equivalent threats to identification; differential attrition across study groups;

8 Our search identified an earlier version of this evaluation—Gutierrez et al., (2018). We draw on updated results from a version available as of 2025.

9 While Cochrane's risk-of-bias tool was developed to assess randomized trials, we adapted key domains within the tool to consider different analytical contexts within social science disciplines relative to clinical trials. For example, behavioral interventions often require actors such as teachers and students' active application, such that domains on whether allocation was concealed would not be applicable. Fidelity and implementation compliance were not considered in our analysis, and we note that the majority of the included studies did not report on them.

and potential spillovers or contamination between treatment and comparison groups. (Appendix A describes each domain in detail, and Appendix Table A10 shows how we scored each domain.)

We used the information provided in the studies and—where available—the supplementary materials to assess risk of bias in each domain. We summed these results and divided them by the total possible points to obtain an overall risk-of-bias score ranging from zero to one (Table 3).[10] These are simplified summary measures, intended to provide an overall characterization of risk of bias in the sample. Overall, we find a relatively low risk of bias across the main sample, with a median score of 0.2. Only seven studies received a risk-of-bias score of 0.6 or above. Attrition was the most frequently scored domain of bias, where 68% (25 of 37 studies) involving primary data collection either did not report attrition or, if they did report attrition, did not adjust for differential attrition.

TABLE 3. Risk of bias scores of studies from our main sample

Study	Program	Not an RCT	No Adjustment for Multiple Hypothesis Testing	Attrition	Baseline Imbalance	Spillovers	Overall RoB
National Laws and Policies							
Nikolaou (2017)	Anti-Bullying Law	1	0	NA	0	0	1/4 = 0.25
Rees et al., (2022)	Anti-Bullying Law	1	0	NA	0	0	1/4 = 0.25
Reporting and Response Systems							
Gutierrez et al., (2025)	Shifting Norms Toward Reporting	0	0	0	0	0	0/5 = 0
Amaral et al., (2024)	Está na Hora de Agir	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Smarrelli (2023)	Nationwide Technical Assistance	1	1	NA	0	0	2/4 = 0.5
Skills, Knowledge, and Norms							
Spoth et al., (2000)	Iowa Strengthening Families Program	0	0	0	0	0	0/5 = 0
Baker-Henningham et al., (2021)	Irie Classroom Toolbox	0	0	0	0	0	0/5 = 0
Achyut et al., (2017)	GEMS India	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Fabbri et al., (2021)	EmpaTeach	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Snyder et al., (2013)	The Positive Action Program	0	1	0	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Coker et al., (2017)	Green Dot	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Williford et al., (2011)	KiVa	0	0	0	1	0	1/5 = 0.20
Devries et al., (2017)	Good School Toolkit	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Paluck et al., (2016)	Roots	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Shinde et al., (2018)	SEHER	0	0	0	1	0	1/5 = 0.20
Jenson et al., (2013)	Youth Matters	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20

(Continued)

10 See Appendix Table A11 for detailed, study-by-study scores.

TABLE 3. (Continued)

Study	Program	Not an RCT	No Adjustment for Multiple Hypothesis Testing	Attrition	Baseline Imbalance	Spillovers	Overall RoB
Rapee et al., (2021)	Friendly Schools/Cool Kids - Taking Control	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Dinarte and Egana-delSol (2024)	Community Schools	0	0	0	0	1	1/5 = 0.20
Valenzuela et al., (2022)	KiVa	0	0	0	1	0	1/5 = 0.20
Brown et al., (2011)	Steps to Respect	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Devries et al., (2015a)	Good School Toolkit	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
McCoy et al., (2021)	Programa Compasso	0	1	0	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Ferreira-Junior et al., (2023)	PROERD	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Waasdorp et al., (2012)	School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports	0	0	0	1	0	1/5 = 0.20
Bonell et al., (2018)	Learning Together	0	0	1	0	0	1/5 = 0.20
Gusmões et al., (2018)	#Tamojunto	0	1	1	0	0	2/5 = 0.40
Achyut et al., (2017)	GEMS Bangladesh	1	0	NA	1	0	2/4 = 0.5
Santhya et al., (2019)	Do Kadam	0	0	0	1	1	2/5 = 0.40
Huitsing et al., (2020)	KiVa/Kiva+	0	0	1	1	0	2/5 = 0.40
Baiocchi et al., (2017)	IMPower, 50:50	0	0	1	1	0	2/5 = 0.40
Taylor et al., (2015)	Shifting Boundaries	0	1	1	0	0	2/5 = 0.40
Fekkes et al., (2016)	Skills for Life	0	1	1	0	0	2/5 = 0.40
Kärnä et al., (2011)	KiVa	0	1	0	1	0	2/5 = 0.40
Cross et al., (2011)	Friendly Schools	0	0	1	1	0	2/5 = 0.40
Simon et al., (2008)	GREAT Teacher Program	0	0	1	1	1	3/5 = 0.60
Botvin et al., (2006)	Life Skills Training Program	0	1	1	1	0	3/5 = 0.60
Fekkes et al., (2006)	Antibullying Program	0	1	1	1	0	3/5 = 0.60
Crooks et al., (2015)	SEL Program	0	1	1	1	0	3/5 = 0.60
Taylor et al., (2010)	Gender Violence/ Harassment Prevention Programming	0	0	1	1	1	3/5 = 0.60
Karmaliani et al., (2020)	Right to Play	0	1	1	1	0	3/5 = 0.60
Cunha et al., (2023)	Parental Involvement Program	0	1	1	1	1	4/5 = 0.80

Notes: 1. Multiple-hypothesis: Takes on a value of 1 if there are more than three hypotheses and adjustments were not made. 2. Attrition: Takes on a value of 1 if there was differential attrition and it was not adjusted for, or attrition was not reported. 3. Baseline balance: Takes on a value of 1 if treatment and control groups were imbalanced at baseline and it was not adjusted for, or baseline balance was not reported. 4. Spillovers take on a value of 1 if units of randomization were at classroom or individual level. NA denotes where the domain doesn't apply due to study design.

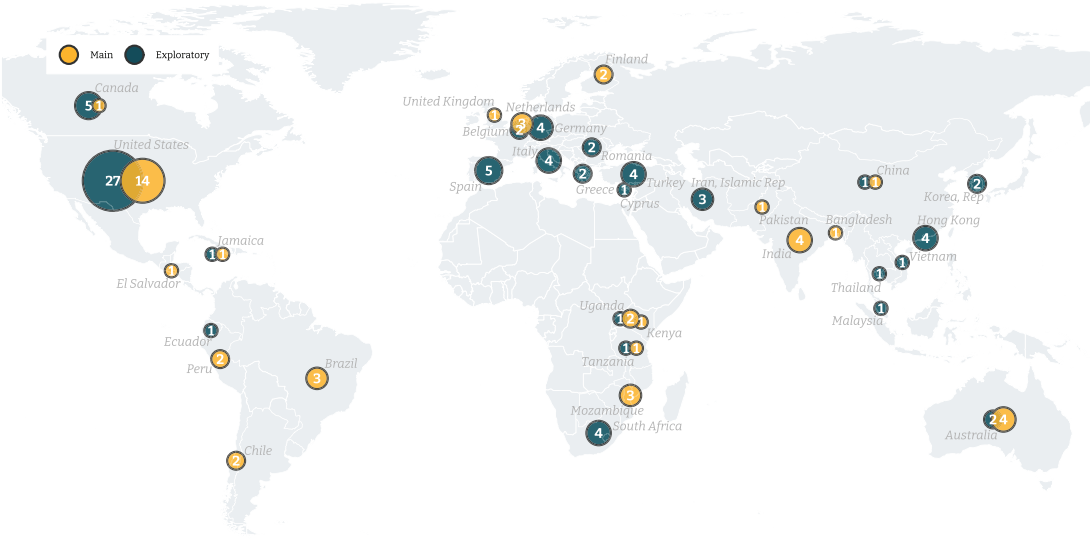
3. Results from analysis of our main sample

3.1. Distribution of study characteristics

3.1.1. Study setting

Globally, we find reasonably well-identified interventions to combat school-related violence in just 19 countries—i.e., less than 10% of countries in the world (Figure 2). Conditional on having any interventions, the median number of interventions per country is two. Only 12 low- or middle-income countries have any evaluated interventions, and the median among those is one. Most interventions have been evaluated in high-income countries such as the United States, Canada, and the Netherlands. But even in these countries, the variation of interventions evaluated is limited: studies in these countries include adaptations of the same anti-bullying programs. If one adjusts for population, the paucity of evidence in low- and middle-income countries grows even more stark: there are 6 times as many studies per 100 million children in high-income countries as there are in low- and middle-income countries.[11]

FIGURE 2. Country coverage of main and exploratory sample interventions



11 We find 4.2 studies per 100 million children in high-income countries and 0.7 in low- and middle-income countries. Population coverage is calculated using the UN Populations Database for the year 2025, for ages 5–18. Low- and middle-income countries include low, lower-middle, and upper-middle income countries.

The concentration of evaluated interventions in high-income countries is consistent with findings from previous reviews on school-based violence interventions (Sivaram et al., 2019; Sood et al., 2022). Encouragingly, more evaluations in low- and middle-income countries have emerged since 2017. Uganda and Mozambique are the only low-income countries with evaluated interventions (Devries et al., 2017; Amaral et al., 2024). We did not identify any evaluations in the Middle East and North Africa. In East Asia and the Pacific, most evaluated interventions are in high-income countries. One evaluation was based in China (Cunha et al., 2023).

Of the 48 evaluated interventions included in our review, 36 (75%) reported whether the students lived in urban, rural, or peri-urban areas (Table 4). Of those, 25% of interventions were implemented in urban settings (N = 12), 42% included both urban and rural settings (N = 20), and only one focused exclusively on a rural population (a study of boys' attitudes toward violence in Bihar, India; Santhya et al., 2019). Three interventions from two studies measure populations in other settings, which include refugee settlements (Fabbri et al., 2021) and peri-suburban areas in the United States (Taylor et al., 2010).

To understand the scale of the interventions (i.e., are these small pilots or policies at scale?), we categorized the interventions as local (taking place in one city or district), regional (taking place in multiple cities or districts in one region or province), multi-regional (taking place in multiple regions), and national (implemented across the country in urban and rural areas).[12] About a third of the interventions in the main sample have been implemented in a single city or district, and another 42% have been implemented in multiple districts in one region Table 4. Multi-regional and national interventions are less common. Only 17% (8 of 48) interventions were multi-regional, including adaptations of antibullying programs in high-income countries (Kärnä et al., 2011), and government-led programs in low- and middle income countries (Amaral et al., 2024). We classified three interventions as *national* as the intervention was implemented across the country in urban and rural settings (Nikolaou 2017; Rees et al., 2022; Smarrelli, 2023). All three national studies rely on quasi-experimental strategies using administrative data or secondary surveys.

12 Detailed definitions are in Appendix Table A12.

TABLE 4. Intervention characteristics – distributions of populations studied

		Main Sample		Exploratory Sample	
		N	%	N	%
Number of countries with studies					
Total	Global	19	9.5	26	12.9
	Low- and Middle-Income Countries	12	9.4	11	8.6
Distribution by Income					
	High income	27	56.3	62	76.5
	Upper middle income	7	14.6	16	19.8
	Lower middle income	9	18.8	2	2.5
	Low income	5	10.4	1	1.2
Distribution by Region					
	East Asia and Pacific	5	10.4	12	14.8
	Europe and Central Asia	6	12.5	26	32.1
	Latin America and Caribbean	9	18.8	2	2.5
	Middle East and North Africa	0	0.0	3	3.7
	North America	15	31.3	32	39.5
	South Asia	6	12.5	0	0.0
	Sub-Saharan Africa	7	14.6	6	7.4
Distribution by Urban/Rural					
	Both	20	41.7	10	12.3
	Urban	12	25.0	35	43.2
	Rural	1	2.1	3	3.7
	Other	3	6.3	3	3.7
	N/A	12	25.0	30	37.0
Distribution by Program Scale					
	Local	17	35.4	52	64.2
	Regional	20	41.7	20	24.7
	Multi-Regional	8	16.7	9	11.1
	National	3	6.3	0	0.0

Notes: Number of countries based on list of World Bank economies classification. Countries with studies are expressed as a percent of total. Regional, urban/rural, and program scale breakdowns are distributions and add up to 100%. For urban/rural, "Other" refers to semi-rural, suburban, or refugee-settlements.

3.1.2. Types of violence and study populations

Many interventions are targeted towards reducing specific types of violence (e.g., anti-bullying laws), but they could have spillovers onto other types of violence. In our sample, 81% of evaluations of interventions (N = 39) measured more than one type of violence. Emotional and physical violence are the most studied form of violence (Table 5). For bullying, this is generally measured in a single indicator, without differentiating between physical and emotional bullying.[13] Sexual violence is a less studied form of violence in our sample: this differs from reviews that consider intimate partner violence or dating violence in their analysis, which leads to a larger set of sexual violence studies (Lester et al., 2017).

13 When studies did not distinguish between physical and emotional bullying, we classified the outcome under both physical and emotional violence.

TABLE 5. Intervention characteristics – distributions of type of violence

		Main Sample (N)	Exploratory Sample (N)
By Violence Type (All Studies)	Emotional	39	57
	Physical	42	62
	Sexual	14	30
By Violence Type (Studies in L/MICs)	Emotional	10	3
	Physical	12	3
	Sexual	7	1

Notes: Studies can measure more than one type of violence. Hence, totals do not add up to sample group totals.

When combining data on violence type and perpetrators, we observe that 73% (35 of 48) interventions have a measure of peer-to-peer violence (Appendix Figure A1). There were 21% (N = 10) of interventions which measured corporal or emotional punishment by teachers. These included evaluations of interventions of teacher training targeted to reduce violence from teachers (Baker-Henningham et al., 2021; Fabbri et al., 2021), and interventions with broader objectives, with teacher violence included as an outcome (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017; Achyut et al., 2017, Smarrelli, 2023; Amaral et al., 2024). Twenty-five percent (N = 12) interventions measure outcomes on sexual violence by peers, and seven on sexual violence by the school staff. Thirteen percent (N = 6) interventions include questions about violence experiences but do not specify a perpetrator.

Half of the interventions were focused on students enrolled in lower secondary education (24 of 48). Of the interventions that do target primary education (37%, 18 of 48), most focus on addressing peer-to-peer violence and were implemented in high income countries. There are three exceptions: Um Compasso Para Aprender [A Compass for Learning], a social-emotional learning program in Brazil (McCoy et al., 2021), Empateach, which seeks to reduce teacher use of physical violence in Tanzania (Fabbri et al., 2021), and a national program to improve management of school-related violence cases in Peru (Smarrelli, 2023). The Irie Classroom Toolbox, which targeted violence against children by teachers in Jamaica, was the only main sample intervention measuring outcomes for kindergarteners (Baker-Henningham et al., 2021).

3.1.3. Targeted actors

We map whether interventions included activities directly targeting children, school staff, parents, or the community (Table 6). We find that 85% of the interventions included activities—often trainings—delivered directly to children. Among these, 32% targeted only children. The remaining interventions also targeted school staff, with some also targeting parents. For example, in China, an empathy education program targeted parents and children through parent-child reading activities and the viewing of empathy-oriented movies, with the aim of improving empathy and reducing

bullying (Cunha et al., 2023). Four interventions (8%) only targeted school staff. This includes Empateach, which trained teachers on positive discipline in Tanzania (Fabbri et al., 2021), and a Peruvian intervention that trained school leaders in managing of cases of violence (Smarrelli, 2023).

TABLE 6. Intervention characteristics – actors involved

Intervention	Actors Involved					
	Children	Teachers	Other Staff	School Leaders	Parents	Broader Community
Nikolaou (2017) - Anti-Bullying Law	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect		
Rees et al., (2022)	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect		
Gutierrez et al., (2025) - Nationwide Initiative to Increase Reporting	Direct			Direct		
Amaral et al., (2024) - Girls Only	Direct	Direct				
Amaral et al., (2024) - Boys Only	Direct	Direct				
Amaral et al., (2024) - Boys and Girls	Direct	Direct				
Smarrelli (2023) - Nationwide Technical Assistance				Direct		
Karmaliani et al., (2020)		Direct			Direct	
Waasdorp et al., (2012) - School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports	Direct	Direct				
Devries et al., (2015a) - Good School Toolkit	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct	
Jenson et al., (2013) - Youth Matters	Direct					
Fekkes et al., (2006) - Antibullying Program		Direct	Indirect	Indirect		
Williford et al., (2011) - KiVa	Direct	Direct		Direct		
Kärnä et al., (2011) - KiVa	Direct	Direct	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect	
Cunha et al., (2023) - Parent Involvement Program	Direct				Direct	
Devries et al., (2017) - Good School Toolkit	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct	
Bonell et al., (2018)	Direct	Direct	Direct			
Cross et al., (2011) - Friendly Schools	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct	
Huitsing et al., (2020) - KiVa/Kiva+	Direct	Direct		Direct	Indirect	
Achyut et al., (2017) - GEMS India	Direct	Direct		Direct	Direct	
Baker-Henningham et al., (2021) - Irie Classroom Toolbox		Direct				
Gusmões et al., (2018) - #Tamojunto	Direct					
Fekkes et al., (2016) - Skills for Life	Direct					

(Continued)

TABLE 6. (Continued)

Intervention	Actors Involved					
	Children	Teachers	Other Staff	School Leaders	Parents	Broader Community
Taylor et al., (2010) - Interaction	Direct					
Coker et al., (2017) - Green Dot	Direct					
Rapee et al., (2021) - Friendly Schools	Direct	Indirect			Indirect	
Ferreira-Junior et al., (2023) - PROERD	Direct					
Rapee et al., (2021) - Both	Direct	Indirect			Indirect	
Rapee et al., (2021) - Cool Kids - Taking Control	Direct	Indirect			Indirect	
Taylor et al., (2015) - Shifting Boundaries	Direct	Direct				
Achyut et al., (2017) - GEMS Bangladesh	Direct	Direct			Indirect	
Taylor et al., (2010) - Law/Justice	Direct					
Fabbri et al., (2021) - EmpaTeach		Direct				
Baiocchi et al., (2017) - IMPower, 50:50 - Girls	Direct					
Shinde et al., (2018) - Delivered by lay counsellor	Direct	Direct				Direct
Shinde et al., (2018) - Delivered by teacher	Direct	Direct				Direct
Valenzuela et al., (2022) - KiVa - Partial (No Online)	Direct	Direct		Direct		
Valenzuela et al., (2022) - KiVa - Full	Direct	Direct		Direct		
Brown et al., (2011) - Steps to Respect	Direct	Direct	Direct	Direct		
Botvin et al., (2006) - Life Skills Training Program	Direct					
Dinarte and Egana-delSol (2024) - After School Program	Direct					
Snyder et al., (2013) - The Positive Action Program	Direct	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect	Indirect	
Santhya et al., (2019) - Do Kadam	Direct					
Crooks et al., (2015) - SEL Program	Direct					
Spoth et al., (2000) - Iowa Strengthening Families Program	Direct				Direct	
Paluck et al., (2016) - Roots	Direct					
Simon et al., (2008) - GREAT Teacher Program	Direct	Direct			Direct	
McCoy et al., (2021) - Programa Compasso	Direct				Direct	

Note: While interventions can take on multiple areas, programs are classified by their primary focus.

About one in five interventions indirectly targeted children, school staff, or parents, through legislation or the dissemination of information and resources, without any training or direct interaction. For example, in the United States, the implementation of antibullying laws indirectly targeted all members of the school community (Nikolaou, 2017; Rees et al., 2022). Similarly, interventions such as the KiVa antibullying intervention—developed in Finland—indirectly targeted parents by providing an online guide containing information about bullying, how to recognize it, and how to support children (Kärnä et al., 2011; Huitsing et al., 2020).

3.1.4. Delivery and duration of interventions

Around one-third of interventions were delivered directly by external actors (e.g., non-governmental organizations, violence prevention experts, or government actors). In the remaining interventions, school staff received training and support from external providers but were then responsible for delivering the implementation of intervention activities (Appendix Table A6, "Implementation Delivery" column). This often involved teachers providing training to students on topics such as the cycle of violence, forms of violence, socio-emotional skills, and strategies to respond to violence (e.g., Kärnä et al., 2011; Achyut et al., 2017). An example is the Good School Toolkit, in which trained school staff implemented an action plan and program activities while receiving ongoing support from external facilitators through in-person visits and telephone follow-ups (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017).

Other implementation characteristics also varied across interventions, including the range of activities delivered and the duration of implementation. While interventions related to laws and policies generally did not involve activities directly delivered within schools (beyond compliance requirements) or have a defined implementation timeline, the rest of the interventions (N = 46) that comprised multiple activities, such as lessons, training sessions, action plans, and role-playing exercises, were implemented over multiple weeks. Intervention duration varied substantially, with 36% of interventions (N = 16) lasting six months or less, 31% lasting seven to 12 months (N = 14), and the remainder lasting more than one year (N = 15).[14]

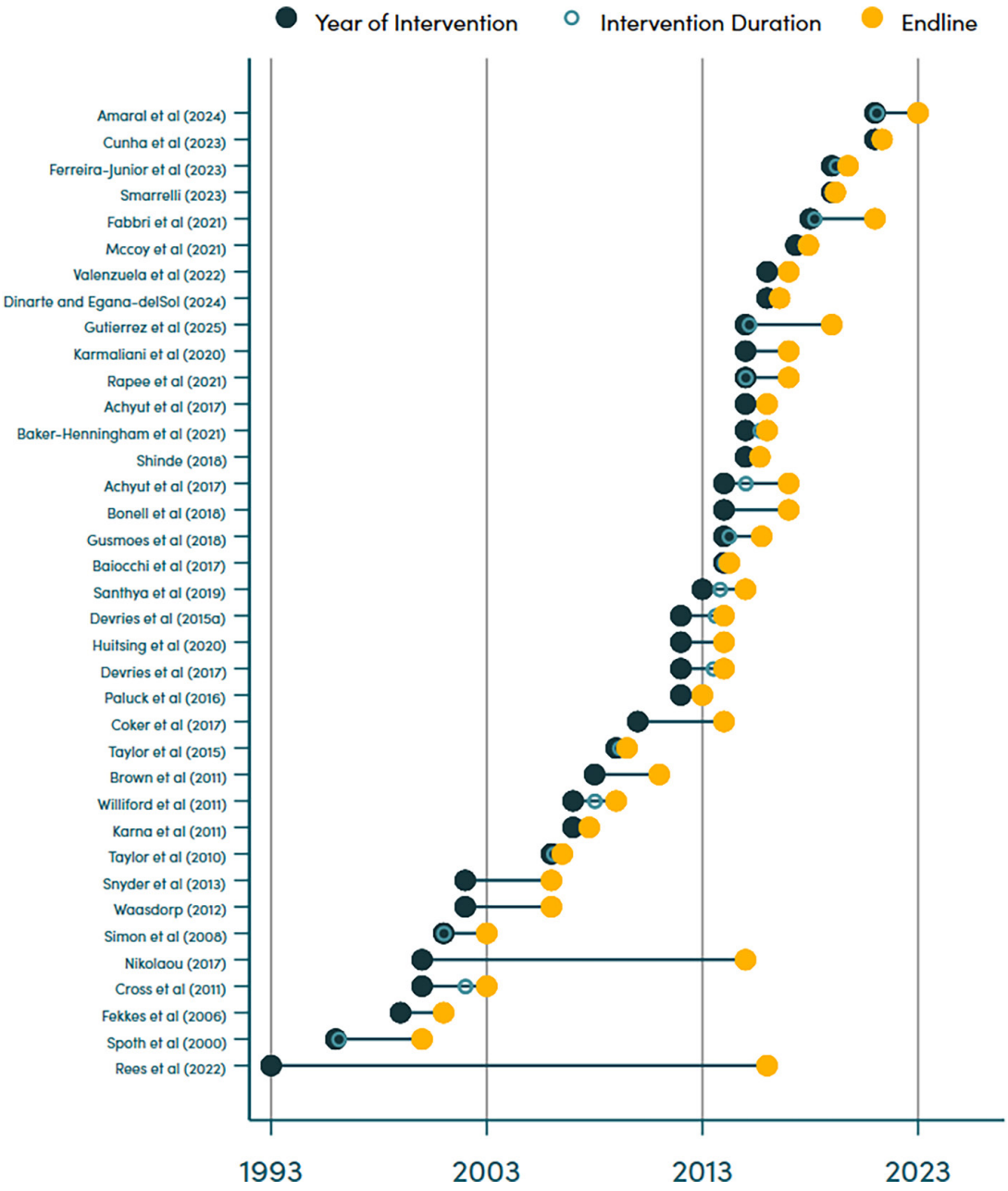
3.1.5. Evaluation timeframe

Drawing on the studies with available data (37 of 41) on intervention year and endline data collection, we estimated the evaluation time frame for interventions in our main sample. Sixty-eight percent of studies (N = 25) measured impacts within the first two years (Figure 3), with 24% of studies (10 of 41) evaluating impacts within the first year only. Ten studies measured impacts between two and five years after the intervention, and only two studies measured impacts more than five years

14 These estimates are based on 45 interventions (38 studies). Three studies were excluded from the analysis of intervention duration: two studies evaluating national antibullying laws that had been in place for several years at the time of evaluation (Nikolaou, 2017; Rees et al., 2022), and one study that reported the delivery of 21 lessons but did not specify the implementation timeframe (Crooks et al., 2015).

after the intervention. The latter were studies evaluating the impact of anti-bullying laws using administrative data (Nikolaou, 2017; Rees et al., 2022).[15]

FIGURE 3. Intervention duration of main sample studies



Notes: The figure includes 37 studies with available information on program timelines. The year of intervention and endline are extracted without months. The duration is converted based on study descriptions from days, weeks, or months, to years.

15 The few studies with any sort of follow-up data limit what we can say about the evolution of effects over time.

3.2. What we learn from the results of the studies in our main sample

Our review of the evidence shows most interventions are small-scale, measure short-term effects, mainly target violence prevention in secondary education, and focus on peer-to-peer emotional and physical violence. In this section we analyze in more detail the types of interventions that have been evaluated and the intervention characteristics that are associated with reduced violence levels.

3.2.1. Types of interventions

As explained in section 2.3, we classified the interventions in our main sample into three categories: national laws and policies; skills, knowledge, and norms; and response systems. In classifying the interventions, we distinguished between each intervention's primary focus and those with components spanning more than one category. As shown in Table 7, column 3, the primary focus of 41 of the 48 of interventions (85%) was on improving skills, knowledge, and norms, while 5 interventions primarily focused on improving response systems to address cases of violence, and 2 focused on the enactment of laws and policies. Notably, only 15% (7 of the 48) interventions had components that overlapped across more than one category, predominantly addressing both skills, knowledge, and norms, and response systems.[16]

TABLE 7. Main sample study and intervention classifications

	(1) Primary Focus (by study)	(2) Total* (by study)	(3) Primary Focus (by intervention)	(4) Total* (by intervention)
Category 1: National Laws and Policies	2	2	2	2
Category 2: Skills, Knowledge, and Norms	36	39	41	46
Category 3: Reporting and Response Systems	3	5	5	7
	41	-	48	-

Notes: *Column "Total" considers all papers that fit into one of the categories, allowing for overlap across categories. We only observe overlaps in 5 papers and 7 interventions focused on category 2 and 3.

National laws and policies

The evidence on the causal impact of laws and policies is scarce, mainly because laws are generally enacted simultaneously throughout a country. This makes it more challenging to assess the impact of changes in laws—such as corporal punishment bans or mandatory reporting laws—in a causal rather than descriptive or correlational way.

Our systematic review prioritizes papers with a causal identification strategy, and hence only two papers on laws and policies met our inclusion criteria (Nikolaou 2017; Rees et al., 2022). Both were conducted in the United States and analyzed the impact of anti-bullying laws introduced across different states at different points in time. Both papers provide evidence that anti-bullying laws reduced

16 Table 8 shows the classification for each paper.

the probability of bullying victimization, with the largest effects observed under stricter enforcement, and particularly among more vulnerable groups, including students who identified as LGBTQ.

The lack of evidence in this category does not necessarily indicate a low return on this type of intervention. Law changes serve to signal the importance of changing practices at the national level. However, careful enforcement and monitoring are essential for translating legal reforms into shifts in norms and practices (Hares et al., 2024). We observe this in the antibullying laws studies included in this review (Nikolaou 2017; Rees et al., 2022), as well as in the context of corporal punishment, where descriptive evidence on the effects of legal bans is mixed, partly because of differences in implementation and enforcement (Elgar et al., 2018; Alampay et al., 2022; Hares et al., 2024). Poor implementation of corporal punishment bans can lead to unintended consequences, particularly when implemented in contexts without majority support, without complementary interventions to raise awareness and train the school community on alternative discipline mechanisms, and with weak reporting and referral systems to identify and address cases of corporal punishment. Evidence from other areas, including bans on early marriage and child labor, serves as example of how weak enforcement can lead to unintended consequences in some cases, resulting in increases rather than decrease in early marriage and child labor (Bharadwaj et al., 2020; Collin and Talbot, 2023). Simply passing a ban will not substantively address school-based violence.

Skills, knowledge, and norms

Most of the evidence is in this category tackles the drivers and risk factors of violence at the individual, interpersonal, and institutional level (Table 8). Given the variety of interventions in this category, we further group them into three subcategories based on whether interventions focused on strengthening skills (socio-emotional, communicational, and conflict resolution, among others), expanding knowledge (of different forms of violence and their consequences), or changing broader values and norms to shift the organizational culture of schools. Interventions could be classified into more than one subcategory based on their components.

Sixty three percent of the interventions tackling skills, knowledge, and norms included components spanning two or three of the subcategories described above, with only 17 of 46 interventions focusing exclusively on a single subcategory. It was less common to find interventions focused solely on changing school values and norms without also incorporating components aimed at changing skills or improving knowledge.

Of the 46 interventions (39 studies) in this category, 72% (N = 33) included components related to strengthening skills. For example, the KiVa intervention,[17] first designed and implemented

17 KiVa is short for Kiusaamista Vastaan [Against Bullying], and it—designed in 2007—represents one of the earliest and most replicated interventions in our sample targeting bullying (Kärnä et al., 2011). An earlier anti-bullying program, developed in Norway, is the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program. Evaluations of Olweus are not part of our Main Sample, as none of the studies fulfilled our selection criteria. Instead, evaluations of Olweus form part of our Exploratory Sample.

in Finland, is one of the earliest whole-school approaches to bullying prevention. It is referred to as taking a whole-school approach because it views bullying as a systemic problem with multilayered causes operating at the individual, classroom and school level and, accordingly, includes components targeting various actors (including students, school staff and parents). One of the central components of KiVa is student lessons that use role-play, group work, and films to strengthen empathy and self-efficacy, while also equipping students with strategies to manage bullying situations. Beyond strengthening skills, the intervention also includes activities to increase students' knowledge of what constitutes bullying. Teachers receive training to implement the KiVa program and respond to bullying incidents, while parents receive information and guidance on bullying prevention. KiVa has been evaluated in Finland and adapted, implemented, and evaluated in other settings, including the Netherlands and Chile. In Finland and the Netherlands, the intervention showed evidence of reductions bullying victimization (Kärnä et al., 2011; Huitsing et al., 2020). However, in Chile, the authors found mixed evidence between two variants of the program: the full KiVa program, which included an online game, had no effects, while a partial version without the online game produced small reductions in bullying victimization (Valenzuela et al., 2022). The authors of the Chile evaluation suggest that differences in the capacity of the education systems in Finland and Chile may partially explain these differences, as well as the fact that, in Chile, the intervention relied on external facilitators rather than school teachers.

Other interventions in middle-income countries have also focused on strengthening socio-emotional skills. For example, the "Tamojunto" program in Brazil reduced the likelihood of bullying by implementing eight 50-minute weekly sessions focused on communication, social skills, and cognitive-behavioral skills to help children recognize their thoughts and feelings, and manage their reactions (Gusmões et al., 2018). In El Salvador, an after-school program that included activities oriented towards fostering social skills, impulse control, self-discipline, and conflict management also resulted in fewer administrative reports of student misbehavior (Dinarte-Diaz and Egana-delSol 2024).

Sixty three percent (30 of 48) of the interventions in our sample included components related to improving knowledge and awareness of violence, covering topics such as what constitutes violence and its consequences, the role of peer groups in maintaining or stopping bullying, recognition of abusive behaviors, children's rights, and how to set boundaries in interpersonal relationships (Taylor et al., 2010; Kärnä et al., 2011; Gutierrez et al., 2025; Karmaliani et al., 2020; Amaral et al., 2024). Among these interventions, evidence shows that improvements in knowledge and awareness do not always translate into shifts in behaviors. For example, in the United States, an intervention focused solely on raising awareness of the definitions of sexual assault and sexual harassment, laws, and penalties, and the importance of boundaries, improved awareness and attitudes toward sexual violence, but did not change sexual harassment victimization (Taylor et al., 2010).

Fifty-two percent (25 of 48) of interventions included actions focused on shifting school values and norms through changing discipline practices, classroom management, and school policies and plans.

Among these interventions, the EmpaTeach program provides an informative example of the challenges around changing norms. Implemented in Tanzania, EmpaTeach targeted teachers and focused exclusively on changing school norms and values by promoting positive discipline through teacher training. The intervention did not reduce teacher-to-student violence. Process evaluation findings suggested that this was because, although teachers increased their use of nonviolent discipline practices, they continued to use corporal punishment as well (Fabbri et al., 2021). The Irie Classroom Toolkit in Jamaica, an intervention also targeting only teachers and focused on classroom behavior management but designed specifically for teachers of preschool children, reduced teacher-perpetrated violence against children but did not reduce aggression between children (Baker-Henningham et al., 2021).[18] This highlights both the limits and the potential of classroom behavior management interventions to reduce teacher-perpetrated violence.

In contrast to the two interventions described above, each focused primarily on classroom discipline or school management practices, the Good School Toolkit in Uganda combined multiple components—in a sequential process—addressing different barriers to violence. While its primary objective was to change school norms and values, it also included activities to increase knowledge and awareness and strengthen students' skills, thereby supporting broader changes in school culture that resulted in reductions on teacher-to-student physical violence by 42% (Devries et al., 2015a). Importantly, the Good School Toolkit has been scaled up following its initial evaluation. Although the scale-up involved adaptations to the original model, descriptive (non-causal) evidence suggests reductions in teachers' reported use of physical punishment (Pearlman et al., 2026).[19]

The evidence on what works within this set of interventions is mixed, with some studies finding changes in either attitudes or violence outcomes; however, disentangling which specific components drove these changes—as well as implementation challenges that might explain the lack of effects in some contexts—remains a question for future research.

Reporting and Response systems

Only 15% (7 interventions, 5 studies) included components aimed at building skills, mechanisms, and systems needed to report and address cases of violence, as well as elements designed to support both victims and perpetrators, including psychological support and restorative approaches. The most common activity across these studies was training on how to report cases of violence—for example, by contacting a helpline or using an online reporting platform. Teachers were generally the primary

18 Our exploratory sample includes an evaluation of the Irie Toolkit for primary schools that also provides suggestive evidence of reductions in teacher-to-student violence (Baker-Henningham et al., 2019).

19 The original randomized controlled trial (RCT) included 42 schools (21 intervention schools), whereas the scale-up reached approximately 1,000 schools. The scaled-up version differed from the original in several ways: it targeted secondary rather than primary schools, included additional content, and relied on a different delivery model using community-based personnel. The scale-up was evaluated in a sample of 95 schools.

target group and recipients of training; however, students also received training, including on the importance of reporting violence.

Thirteen percent (6 interventions, 4 studies) in this category included detailed training for school staff on referral protocols and case management procedures by type of violence (Brown et al., 2011; Gutierrez et al., 2025; Smarrelli, 2023; Amaral et al., 2024). For example, in Mozambique, an intervention called "Está na Hora de Agir (It's time to Act)", co-designed with the Ministry of Education and targeting both students and school staff, combined training sessions (delivered in the form of short videos) on what constitutes violence, proactive behaviors, and how to seek support, with teacher training on effective responses to violence (including where to report and referral procedures) (Amaral et al., 2024). The RCT included 326 schools, of which 239 schools received the intervention, making it the largest RCT to evaluate a school-based violence prevention and response intervention. Amaral et al., (2024) randomized the target population, assigning the intervention to groups of only girls, only boys, or both girls and boys, with the training on response systems for addressing violence remaining the same across intervention groups. They found that, regardless of the group targeted, the intervention reduced teacher-perpetrated violence against girls by approximately 67%, highlighting the value of building school staff skills to respond to violence.

Another relevant example comes from Peru. The Ministry of Education designed an intervention—evaluated via RCT in 66 schools (33 treated)—that provided workshops to students and school staff to raise awareness of school violence and the importance of reporting it, along with training for school personnel on how to use an online reporting platform and respond to cases of violence. The intervention increased the reporting of violent incidents and reduced victimization,[20] with effects persisting four years after implementation (Gutierrez et al., 2025). The Ministry of Education later implemented a larger-scale intervention focused exclusively on training school leaders on school management of violence, response protocols, and positive discipline across all provinces of the country. A quasi-experimental evaluation found that the intervention increased reports of violence, with evidence suggesting that this was driven by reductions in barriers to reporting (Smarrelli, 2023). Together, these examples illustrate that government-led interventions with a strong focus on improving systems of response can be effective. Beyond reporting and response, only one intervention included components related to providing support to both perpetrators and victims, including through restorative approaches, and it had small effects on reducing bullying (Bonell et al., 2018).

20 When analyzing administrative data from police reports or school reports of violence, we have to be careful in interpreting changes in the number of reports, as increases in reporting could either mean reductions in underreporting or increases in violence levels. In many cases, particularly in contexts investing in addressing barriers to reporting, including through better dissemination of reporting mechanisms and strengthening of systems' capacity to respond to cases, increases in the number of reports do not necessarily reflect increases in violence, but instead reductions in underreporting. This is likely the case in Gutierrez et al., (2025), where the evidence shows an increase in reporting but a decrease in children's self-reported victimization, and in Smarrelli (2023), which provides evidence that the increase in reporting was partly due to reductions in barriers to reporting.

TABLE 8. Intervention classifications

Study	Intervention Classifications				
		Skills, Knowledge and Norms			
	Enact Laws and Policies	Skills	Norms	Knowledge	Reporting and Response
Rees et al., (2022)	■				
Nikolaou (2017) - Anti-Bullying Law	■				
Gutierrez et al., (2025) - Nationwide Initiative to Increase Reporting - Shifting Norms Toward Reporting				■	■
Amaral et al., (2024) - Está na Hora de Agir - Girls Only				■	■
Amaral et al., (2024) - Está na Hora de Agir - Boys Only				■	■
Amaral et al., (2024) - Está na Hora de Agir - Boys and Girls				■	■
Smarrelli (2023) - Nationwide Technical Assistance			■	■	■
Karmaliani et al., (2020)		■	■	■	
Waasdorp et al., (2012) - School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports		■	■		
Devries et al., (2015a) - Good School Toolkit		■	■	■	
Jenson et al., (2013) - Youth Matters		■			
Fekkes et al., (2006) - Antibullying Program			■		
Williford et al., (2011) - KiVa		■	■	■	
Kärnä et al., (2011) - KiVa		■			
Cunha et al., (2023) - Parent Involvement Program		■			
Devries et al., (2017) - Good School Toolkit		■	■	■	
Bonell et al., (2018)		■	■		■
Cross et al., (2011) - Friendly Schools		■	■	■	
Huitsing et al., (2020) - KiVa/Kiva+		■	■	■	
Achyut et al., (2017) - GEMS India		■	■	■	
Baker-Henningham et al., (2021) - Irie Classroom Toolbox			■		
Gusmões et al., (2018) - #Tamojunto		■			
Fekkes et al., (2016) - Skills for Life				■	
Taylor et al., (2010) - Gender Violence/Harassment Training - Interaction				■	
Coker et al., (2017) - Green Dot				■	
Rapee et al., (2021) - Friendly Schools/Cool Kids - Taking Control - Cool Kids - Taking Control		■	■		
Rapee et al., (2021) - Friendly Schools/Cool Kids - Taking Control - Both		■	■		
Rapee et al., (2021) - Friendly Schools/Cool Kids - Taking Control - Friendly Schools		■	■		
Ferreira-Junior et al., (2023) - PROERD				■	
Taylor et al., (2015) - Shifting Boundaries				■	

(Continued)

TABLE 8. (Continued)

Study	Intervention Classifications				
		Skills, Knowledge and Norms			
	Enact Laws and Policies	Skills	Norms	Knowledge	Reporting and Response
Achyut et al., (2017) - GEMS Bangladesh		■	■	■	
Taylor et al., (2010) - Gender Violence/Harassment Training - Law/Justice				■	
Fabbri et al., (2021) - EmpaTeach		■	■		
Baiocchi et al., (2017) - IMPower, 50:50 - Girls		■		■	
Shinde et al., (2018) - SEHER - Delivered by teacher		■	■	■	
Shinde et al., (2018) - SEHER - Delivered by lay counsellor		■	■	■	
Valenzuela et al., (2022) - KiVa - Partial (No Online)		■	■	■	
Valenzuela et al., (2022) - KiVa - Full		■	■	■	
Brown et al., (2011) - Steps to Respect		■	■		■
Botvin et al., (2006) - Life Skills Training Program		■		■	
Santhya et al., (2019) - Do Kadam		■			
Dinarte and Egana-delSol (2024) - After School Program - Community Schools		■			
Snyder et al., (2013) - The Positive Action Program		■	■		
Crooks et al., (2015) - The Collaborative for Social and Emotional Learning - SEL Program		■			
Spoth et al., (2000) - Iowa Strengthening Families Program		■			
Paluck et al., (2016) - Roots			■	■	
Simon et al., (2008) - GREAT Teacher Program		■	■	■	
McCoy et al., (2021) - Programa Compasso		■			

Note: While interventions can take on multiple areas, programs are classified by their primary focus.

3.2.2. Impact magnitudes

Of the 48 interventions in the analysis, 81% (N = 39) included outcomes measuring changes in victimization and perpetration.[21] Among these 39, 95% (N = 37) show reductions in at least one outcome measuring the likelihood of victimization or perpetration of physical, emotional, or sexual violence by peers or members of school staff. Of these 37 interventions, 69% (N = 27) showed statistically significant reductions.[22] Overall, these findings suggest that the prevention of violence is feasible, with evidence of promising intervention approaches.

21 Nine interventions (9 studies) only measured indicators related to attitudes or knowledge of violence or used administrative records of reported incidents of violence.

22 Following the advice of McKenzie and Brennan (2024), we do not limit our analysis to statistically significant positive or negative results, as this depends on whether individual studies are sufficiently statistically powered in a way that the direction or sign of the effect does not. Vote counting has serious limitations as a summarizing technique, which is why it is not the primary method used in this review.

If studies in this field used comparable measures, then standardized effect sizes would indicate the relative impact across studies. However, as discussed in Section 2.4, measures of victimization and perpetration vary substantially across studies in the type of violence, perpetrator, recall period and question wording, which limits the comparability of effect sizes. With this caveat in mind, we perform a rough standardization to explore which interventions produced the largest impacts (and not for more granular comparisons).[23] We limited our effort to estimates of students' self-reported victimization and perpetration of violence in and around school for which the papers reported sufficient information. This yielded 301 estimates from 26 studies (34 interventions).

Four programs show the largest positive impacts (reductions in violence): the Good School Toolkit in Uganda, *Está na Hora de Agir* in Mozambique, KiVa in the Netherlands, and Right to Play in Pakistan (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017; Amaral et al., 2024; Huitsing et al., 2020; Karmaliani et al., 2020).[24] These large standardized effects line up with substantively large reported effects: e.g., a 42% reduction in teacher-student physical violence in the Good School Toolkit and a 67% reduction in teacher-student violence against girls in *Está na Hora de Agir*.

Three of these programs use a whole-school approach: this is most clearly the case with the Good School Toolkit and KiVa and, to a lesser extent, Right To Play. These three programs also focus on strengthening skills and changing broader values and norms, whereas *Está na Hora de Agir* focuses more strongly on improving response systems, which points to different promising approaches to addressing violence. Disaggregating results by type of violence and perpetrator, some programs show larger reductions for specific forms of violence, notably KiVa for bullying (with mixed evidence in some settings) and the Good School Toolkit for physical violence by school staff.

3.2.3. Correlates of school-based violence reduction

We provide suggestive evidence of characteristics of programs that are associated with reductions in violence. Analyzing the correlates of effective school-based violence reduction interventions in our sample of interventions presents several challenges. First, our coding of components is based on the information reported in the studies. Research evaluations commonly provide incomplete information on the details of the intervention (Popova et al., 2022). Among papers that did not provide detailed explanations of the intervention design, interventions may have included components that we could not identify. Second, the included papers focus on different outcomes (as discussed in Section 3.2.2), and even among those assessing similar outcomes, survey instruments and measurement approaches differ.

Considering these caveats, for each intervention, we calculate the percentage of outcomes on victimization or perpetration in which reductions in violence were observed and examine

23 Appendix B more detail on the method and limitations as well as the forest plots of effect sizes (which should be interpreted with caution).

24 One program, Skills for Life (in the Netherlands) had both large positive and large negative effects (Fekkes et al., 2016).

correlations between this variable and intervention characteristics. We considered four intervention characteristics: the number of intervention category components,[25] whether the intervention had components targeting prevention and response to violence, whether the intervention targeted multiple actors, and whether the intervention lasted 6 months or less. This is not intended to be an exhaustive list as it prioritizes variables that were commonly reported across papers; as such, this analysis should be interpreted as exploratory and suggestive.

Table 9 shows the estimated correlation between each intervention characteristic and the outcomes of interest. We find suggestive associations on three points. First, interventions that address multiple risk factors and drivers of violence—which we classify under multiple intervention categories—is associated with effectiveness. Second, targeting multiple actors (school staff, students, parents, or community members) is similarly correlated with effectiveness. These findings are consistent with recommendations from practitioners who find that intervention designs targeting multiple risk factors of violence and operating at multiple levels are more likely to improve school climates (Wein, 2019). Third, shorter interventions (lasting up to six months) appear less effective than longer interventions.

TABLE 9. Correlations between study characteristics and violence outcomes

	Victimization		Perpetration		All	
	Reduction (1)	Reduction (Sig) (2)	Reduction (3)	Reduction (Sig) (4)	Reduction (5)	Reduction (Sig) (6)
% of interventions with at least one …	**87**	**62**	**62**	**33**	**95**	**69**
A. Number of Components	0.046	0.078	0.164*	0.219**	0.069	0.112
	(0.053)	(0.075)	(0.094)	(0.094)	(0.044)	(0.074)
B. Interaction: Prevalence + Response	−0.010	0.110	0.148*	0.330	0.011	0.162
	(0.103)	(0.144)	(0.082)	(0.296)	(0.094)	(0.156)
C. Multiple Actors	0.258**	−0.024	0.270*	−0.019	0.260**	−0.010
	(0.118)	(0.139)	(0.140)	(0.169)	(0.106)	(0.130)
D. Delivery Duration <= 6 Months	−0.296**	−0.299***	−0.275*	−0.338**	−0.315***	−0.291***
	(0.123)	(0.104)	(0.160)	(0.146)	(0.109)	(0.103)
N	36	26	36	26	36	26

Notes: Each row shows the estimated coefficients from bivariate regression examining the correlation between an intervention characteristic and the proportion of outcomes per intervention that show a reduction in victimization or perpetration. The analysis uses only interventions that measured outcomes related to victimization or perpetration of violence: 39 and 26, respectively. The covariate "Implementation Duration" was only available for 36 of the 39 interventions that measured a victimization outcome. Columns (1), (3) and (5) use the percentage of outcomes showing a reduction in violence victimization or perpetration, regardless of whether the reduction was statistically significant. Columns (2), (4) and (6) use the percentage of outcomes showing a statistically significant reduction in violence victimization or perpetration, where statistical significance is defined at the 5% level. We use this threshold because the information reported in several papers did not allow us to determine whether results were statistically significant at the 10% level. Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis. *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

25 We considered 5 category components: national laws and policies, the three subcategories of the skills, knowledge and norms category, and the reporting and response systems category.

To disentangle the drivers of effectiveness more confidently, we would need studies that measure violence similarly and interventions that include more information on intervention characteristics and implementation challenges. Importantly, these associations are not universal truths. Addressing violence across settings is complex and requires understanding of local knowledge and relationships (Kalanga and Kamanga, n.d.). One study in Zambia shows how even after targeting multiple violence risk factors and multiple actors in the school community, the intervention did not have effects in changing violence due to reliance on volunteer teacher mentors, a lengthy curriculum, inconsistent delivery, and low intervention take-up from teachers and parents (Friedson-Ridenour et al., 2025).[26] This is consistent with a broader literature in education demonstrating that the quality of implementation is just as important as the quality of the design (Angrist and Meager, 2023).

4. Results from analysis of the exploratory sample

The exploratory sample remains concentrated in high-income countries: 77% (62 of the 81 interventions) were conducted in high-income settings. Yet, it expands the geographical coverage of the studies included in the review, including several evaluations from lower and middle-income countries that are not represented, or are less represented, in the main sample. For example, studies in Vietnam and Ecuador addressed norms and knowledge around sexual violence (Achyut et al., 2017; Bustamante et al., 2019), one in Thailand focused on peer-to-peer-violence (Chamroonsawasdi et al., 2010), studies in South Africa examined various forms of violence (Naidoo et al., 2016; Taylor et al., 2020; Hartmann et al., 2025), and two in Iran which included evaluations from a bullying intervention and a national policy (Salimi et al., 2019; Kaveh et al., 2022). Although these studies rely on smaller samples or less rigorous empirical approaches for identifying causal impacts, they provide demonstrations of the feasibility of implementation and useful starting points for future research in these contexts.

Table 4 breaks down the global distribution of studies in detail. The distribution of study characteristics in the exploratory sample largely mirrors that of the main sample. Most studies were conducted in urban areas, and more than half are anti-bullying interventions focused on peer-to-peer violence. A notable difference is the greater number of studies focused on sexual violence (40%, or 29 of 72 studies). However, most of these studies focused on knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes related to sexual violence, rather than violence prevalence itself, limiting how much we can conclude about their effects on reducing violence. Additionally, none of these studies measure sexual violence perpetrated by school staff. Of the 72 studies, we highlight six smaller scale, less rigorously identified evaluations which show promising approaches for future research to tackle school-related violence (in Appendix C).

26 We did not include this in the sample of this review as it was published after our systematic search, but it demonstrates an important point.

5. Cross-cutting issues

5.1. Safeguarding and ethical reporting

Interventions to prevent, reduce, and respond to violence in and around schools need to ensure that children are protected throughout implementation. Likewise, a primary consideration in any research on violence against children must be to ensure children's wellbeing and safety and minimize any risks of harm. Ensuring children's wellbeing and safety includes ensuring that children's guardians and children themselves understand the research objectives, benefits, risks and implications of their participation in the research, taking measures to protect the confidentiality of any information shared, and ensuring that proper referral mechanisms are in place and that sufficient response capacity exists to support children who disclose experiences of violence or who are at risk (Jackson-Hollis, 2019).

While the studies in our sample may have (and hopefully) had safeguarding measures in place, our review finds that only a few reported the measures they implemented. Among the 38 papers in the main sample involving primary data collection, 74% (N = 28) reported receiving ethical clearance from an institutional review board, and 57% (16 of the 28 studies) discussed obtaining active or opt-out based parental consent and child assent.[27] However, only five studies (seven interventions) explicitly mentioned and described the response and referral pathways followed (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017; Bonell et al., 2018; Fabbri et al., 2021; Amaral et al., 2024). (Devries et al., 2015a and 2017 are two analyses of the same RCT. Safeguarding procedures for that RCT are documented in Devries et al., 2015b.) Peterman et al., (2023) find a similar documentation gap in ethics reporting on research related to violence against women and children generally.

Given the documentation gap on referral protocols, in Appendix Table A14 we summarize the safeguarding measures followed by the four studies that reported on these measures to explore in more detail the type of information they provide. We observe that the level of detail varies significantly. Three key findings emerge. First, only three studies (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017; Amaral et al., 2024) discuss the training provided to the field team and the content of the training, with referral protocols highlighted as a key topic. Second, all five studies explain that they obtained consent, but only three provide details on the consent process. Of these, only two explain whether participants were informed about potential referrals to social protection services if the child was at risk (Devries et al., 2015b; Fabbri et al., 2021).

Third, only two studies (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017) provide details on whether counselling was offered to students, whether referral protocols were defined with service providers beforehand, and whether the referral pathways followed depended on the form of violence reported. We note distinct

27 The studies that did not engage directly with human participants and use secondary data from surveys or administrative data (therefore, typically not requiring ethical clearance) included Nikolaou, 2017, Rees et al., 2022, and Smarrelli, 2023.

case management processes across studies. For example, in Uganda, Devries et al., (2015b) explain that cases followed a different pathway depending on the form of violence, including referral to the Community Development Officers and transfers to health centers were needed. In Mozambique, Amaral et al., (2024) explains that school gender focal points referred cases to a specific helpline service staffed by professionals trained to assess cases and determine the appropriate course of action. In the United Kingdom, Bonell et al., (2018) indicates that cases involving serious injuries or hospital admissions were reported to investigators, while concerns about mental health and sexual risk were reported to schools.

Documenting safeguarding practices in research involving direct contact with children can help us better understand how safeguarding is implemented in practice and, in turn, strengthen research practices. This can be done by incorporating reflection on safeguarding practices into papers reporting research findings, including studies evaluating interventions, or through more extensive process evaluations of safeguarding processes, such as those by Devries et al., (2015b) and Evans et al., (2026). Together, these approaches can generate practical learning on how safeguarding can be effectively implemented and strengthened across different research contexts.

5.2. Cost-effectiveness

Child safety is of the utmost importance, but education systems face budget constraints, so finding the most cost-effective ways to reduce violence is crucial. Among the 41 studies in the main sample, only 12% (N = 5) studies reported information on intervention costs in the main paper, supplementary appendices, or study registrations.[28] Our review of the reported costs and outcome measures found that the available information was insufficient to conduct a robust cost-effectiveness analysis (Appendix Tables A15 and A16). A key challenge—as in our discussion of the magnitudes of effects—is the lack of comparability of outcomes across interventions. To conduct a cost-effectiveness analysis, outcomes need to be sufficiently comparable (e.g., to be able to calculate gains in learning or reductions in absenteeism per dollar), but this was not the case across the studies with cost data available. Of the five studies, three measured bullying using different scales, one measured student-reported physical violence at school, and two measured sexual violence (with one focused exclusively on girls).[29] This heterogeneity in outcome measures limits meaningful comparisons of intervention effectiveness relative to costs.

28 We did not include program costs that could not be directly linked to the studies included in this review. For example, for three interventions, general information on program costs was available online rather than reported in the study. However, these costs reflected expenses associated with implementing some version of the program, rather than the costs of implementing the specific version of the program evaluated in the study included in our review (Crooks et al., 2015; Botvin et al., 2006; Waasdorp et al., 2012). For another intervention, information was available on the amount of grant funding provided, rather than on costs that could be directly attributed to implementing the intervention (Baker-Henningham et al., 2021). While the studies evaluating the KiVa and Olweus interventions included in this review did not report cost data, other studies have sought to estimate the costs of these interventions (Beckman and Svensson, 2015; Persson et al., 2018).

29 Further, costs of pilot programs and at-scale programs need to be estimated differently (Nayihouba and Wodon, 2023).

The reported cost data also lacked sufficient detail to support reliable comparisons. All five studies reported costs per student, ranging from USD 1 per student (Cunha et al., 2023) to USD 429 per student (Bonell et al., 2018), but did not clearly specify the population of beneficiaries (i.e., the denominator) used to calculate these estimates.[30] In addition, only three studies provided detail on the types of costs included, with variation in the reporting and categorization of costs.[31] These differences, together with limited information on the scope of costs included, further constrain the comparability of estimates across studies. Notably, only Amaral et al., (2024) reported separate per-student costs with and without fixed costs (i.e., those that do not vary with the number of students served by the program), thereby distinguishing average costs from the marginal cost of offering the intervention to one more student. This distinction is particularly useful for policymakers, as average costs may guide whether to implement a program, while marginal costs provide a better indication of the additional resources required to expand an intervention to reach more beneficiaries.

We converted reported costs to purchasing power parity (PPP) and adjusted them for inflation to express costs in 2024 values, with the aim of improving comparability across interventions (see Appendix Table A16).[32] However, these adjustments should be interpreted cautiously, as standardizing currencies and years cannot overcome underlying differences in the scope of costs included or the populations used to calculate per-student costs. Consequently, the resulting estimates should not be interpreted as directly comparable cost—much less cost-effectiveness—estimates across interventions. For example, the Amaral et al., (2024) intervention appears more costly than some of the lighter touch programs, but it also is one of the only programs both to measure and to substantively reduce teacher-student sexual violence. Future studies should report standardized cost categories and provide clear information on the beneficiary population, timeframe over which costs are incurred, currency, and base year of analysis—consistent with the recommendations of Dhaliwal et al., (2013) and the J-PAL Costing Guidelines (2016).[33]

30 In particular, it was often unclear whether costs were divided by the number of students included in the evaluation sample or by a larger population of students reached by the intervention.

31 Devries et al., (2015a) reported that the costs of the Good School Toolkit (documented in a separate paper, Greco et al., 2018) included administration or start-up costs, such as printing materials, introductory workshops, community visits, and training, as well as implementation costs; and explained that the per student costs only consider implementation costs. Bonell et al., (2018) reported costs related to intervention design, including curriculum development, as well as staff and training costs. Shinde et al., (2018) reported administration, implementation, and monitoring costs. In contrast, Cunha et al., (2023) referred only to organizational costs without specifying what these costs included, while Amaral et al., (2024) did not provide a description of the costs included in their estimates.

32 Costs reported in local currency were converted to international dollars using the World Bank PPP conversion factor (GDP, LCU per international $) for the relevant year and then inflated to 2024 values using the World Bank GDP deflator. For studies reporting costs in US dollars, only the inflation adjustment was applied. However, even these adjustments cannot correct for the fact that costs of different ingredients in policies and interventions may vary dramatically across contexts (Evans and Popova, 2016).

33 Appendix A16 summarizes the cost items and reporting elements recommended by the J-PAL guidelines and highlights gaps in the available evidence.

6. Discussion

6.1. Summary of results

We find that there are interventions that have been effective at preventing school-related violence and that improve the handling of school-related violence. That said, the current evidence remains concentrated in a narrow set of outcomes and contexts. Most evidence comes from high-income countries, focuses on peer-to-peer violence, particularly bullying, and evaluates relatively small-scale programs over short follow-up periods. Evidence is particularly limited on teacher-to-student violence and on sexual violence perpetrated by adults and peers in or around schools. Evidence from low-income and lower-middle-income countries also remains limited, with Uganda and Mozambique the only low-income countries represented in the main sample. This geographic imbalance is important because interventions tested in high-income settings may not transfer to other contexts with different institutional structures, social norms, and resource constraints.

The review also identifies important gaps in the types of interventions that have been rigorously evaluated. Most studies assess programs designed to strengthen skills, increase knowledge, or shift norms to prevent school-related violence, while far fewer evaluate laws, bans, national policies, or institutional response systems. As a result, we know much less about whether system-level reforms reduce school-related violence, how enforcement and monitoring shape their effects, and how schools can build credible systems for reporting and responding to violence.

Comparability across studies remains a central limitation. Even when studies appear to address similar outcomes, they measure violence in different ways. This heterogeneity limits the ability to compare effect sizes across interventions or to draw strong conclusions about which intervention components are necessary or sufficient for reducing violence. Our analysis tentatively suggests that interventions addressing multiple risk factors, targeting multiple actors, and lasting longer than six months are associated with greater reductions in violence outcomes, but these associations should be interpreted cautiously. More standardized outcome definitions, clearer reporting of intervention characteristics, and stronger implementation data are needed to support comparative analyses of intervention effectiveness.

6.2. Tackling specific types of violence

Policymakers may be interested in reducing specific types of violence based on the prevalence of the violence or their values or mandate. The distribution of evidence and data, however, does not necessarily align with what may be the most prevalent forms of violence in every context. The evidence base largely focuses on peer-to-peer bullying, with much of this evidence coming from high-income countries. Available data from international surveys similarly provide more data on peer-to-peer bullying relative to other forms of violence (Evans et al., 2025). In contrast,

we have less evidence on teacher-to-student violence, despite available data suggesting that this is highly prevalent in low- and middle-income countries. We have even less causal evidence or even descriptive data on sexual violence against children. This partly reflects the greater complexity of researching sexual violence against children. The safeguarding and ethical procedures—as well as the measures required when including sexual violence in a study—are more demanding, as barriers to reporting and disclosure, including concerns around trust and privacy, tend to be greater. Research on survey measurement provides some insights into how to address these challenges, including by building rapport (Baseler et al., 2027), making privacy more salient (Barr et al., 2017; Smarrelli et al., 2026), and establishing strong safeguarding protocols (Devries et al., 2015b).

The evidence base is not strong enough to provide a clear guide to which interventions are most effective for addressing particular forms of violence. Among interventions designed to target specific forms of violence, we observe variation in the findings. In the case of peer-to-peer bullying, where building social-emotional, communication, and conflict-resolution skills emerged as a common component, the findings on its effectiveness were mixed (Kärnä et al., 2011; Bonell et al., 2018; Gusmões et al., 2018; Huitsing et al., 2020). Similarly, those interventions designed mainly to address teachers' use of corporal punishment (which generally included training on the use of positive discipline), also show a mix of reductions in corporal punishment from teachers and null effects, partly explained by implementation challenges and stringent norms, behaviors, and attitudes which are difficult to shift (Fabbri et al., 2021; Baker-Henningham et al., 2021).

Among the few interventions that targeted multiple forms of violence and measured them, we observe cases where interventions managed to reduce multiple forms of violence, while others only reduced some. For example, the Good School Toolkit reduced physical and emotional student-to-student and physical and emotional teacher-to-student violence, but it did not reduce physical peer-to-peer violence or sexual violence by teachers or peers (Devries et al., 2017). Other approaches, which combine awareness-raising activities with stronger response systems, reduced teacher-to-student violence but not student-to-student violence (Amaral et al., 2024). More evidence is needed to understand which intervention features are most effective for specific forms of violence, as well as which approaches can effectively address multiple forms of violence simultaneously.

6.3. Implications for research

The gaps we identify in Section 6.1 point to several priorities for future research.[34] More studies of institutional response systems and laws and bans—along with continuing to grow the evidence on strengthening skills, increasing knowledge, and shifting norms—will provide more robust evidence of what works best to prevent and respond to violence in different institutional contexts. Even within more researched categories (like strengthening skills and increasing knowledge), many of the interventions follow a curriculum-based or workshop style, so there may be room for innovation in delivery format.

34 Other scholars working on school-related violence have recently highlighted research priorities (Amaral et al., 2026; Bordoloi and Burzynski, 2026).

Longer-term and scaled evaluations are needed to understand whether impacts endure and whether interventions remain effective when implemented through government systems. Likewise, more studies on types of violence—such as teacher-to-student violence and on sexual violence perpetrated by adults and peers in or around schools—will be important for addressing those types of violence. More evaluations in countries with fewer resources and less institutional capacity—including the lowest income countries—are crucial to make sure all children can be safe. Likewise, more evidence on the effectiveness of interventions for the most vulnerable children will similarly help identify interventions: a recent review found that—of 16 studies—only one separated impacts by socioeconomic status and only one by ethnicity or race (Eldred et al., 2026).

More evaluations of existing country initiatives, using quasi-experimental approaches, can provide insight on what works on a larger scale. This can also help to understand the interactions between innovations to prevent violence and existing systems to respond to violence (and vice versa). Future research can also seek to disentangle the contributions of key components of bundled interventions, which is essential for understanding how to simplify and scale interventions. Detailed descriptions of intervention designs and components, as well as data on implementation quality (including intervention fidelity, dosage, and take-up) are needed to improve understanding of the drivers of effectiveness and whether interventions change behaviors in practice.

Across studies, collecting cost data is crucial for helping policy makers make informed decisions, and reporting information on safeguarding practices is essential to keep children safe even as the field learns to prevent violence. Moreover, documenting the safeguarding practices implemented during violence research directly working with children will ensure better transparency and accountability on whether measures were followed, as well as practical learning to strengthen and improve safeguarding procedures.

A recurring question about preventing and reducing violence in and around schools is its relationship to educational outcomes and—in particular—learning outcomes. The importance of reducing school-based violence is not dependent on its impact on educational outcomes, but a clearer link between the two could lead to stronger support from policymakers whose primary responsibility is improving educational outcomes. Violence itself is correlated with worse learning outcomes (Strøm et al., 2013; Ponzo, 2013; Eriksen et al., 2014; Contreras et al., 2016; Delprato et al., 2017; Psaki et al., 2018; Aguirre et al., 2025), and hence, understanding whether interventions tackling violence conversely improve learning is important. While that is not the focus of this review, Devries et al., (2026) show that few studies of school-based violence prevention interventions measure educational outcomes (including learning, attendance and dropout): from 188 studies included in their review, only 16 included any educational outcome. The review finds little evidence that interventions reducing violence change educational outcomes, but there are several reasons to treat that result cautiously. First, only three of the studies included education as a primary or secondary outcomes in a preregistration. Second, several of the studies rely on student self-reports of educational outcomes rather than direct measures. Third, because education was generally not

the primary outcomes, the studies may have limited statistical power to identify effects in education. Some recent studies, encouragingly, do show improvements in learning or educational access outcomes (Amaral et al., 2024; Dinarte-Diaz and Egana-delSol, 2024; Gutierrez et al., 2025). Future research can, from the design stage, plan for sample sizes that provide enough statistical power to detect effects both in violence and educational outcomes.

6.4. Implications for policy

Despite these gaps, several findings are actionable. School-related violence should not be treated as inevitable: many interventions in the main sample reduced at least one measure of victimization or perpetration. The most promising approaches appear to be those that address multiple risk factors of violence and engage multiple actors. Investments in violence prevention should also be linked more deliberately to strengthening response systems, so that efforts to raise awareness and shift norms are accompanied by safe and trusted mechanisms for reporting violence and receiving support.

In an ideal world, we would be able to point policymakers to interventions that consistently reduce violence across contexts and at scale. However, the literature is not yet mature enough to do that. That said, we believe that the evidence does provide examples that policymakers can move forward with—even as researchers continue to build new evidence. Specifically, this review identifies examples of interventions that have been (a) shown to be effective at small scale and merit adaptation and testing in new contexts, and (b) shown to be effective in high-income contexts and may be adapted and tested in other contexts. Examples of the former include the Good School Toolkit in Uganda, the Está na Hora de Agir (It's Time to Act) program in Mozambique, the Irie Clasroom Toolkit in Jamaica, and the Peruvian Ministry of Education anti-bullying intervention (Devries et al., 2015a, 2017; Amaral et al., 2024; Baker-Henningham et al., 2021; Gutierrez et al., 2025). These interventions demonstrate reductions in different forms of violence, using different delivery models and activities and targeting different school levels. Examples of the latter include the "KiVa" program, which was designed by the Ministry of Education in Finland and subsequently adapted and implemented in other contexts, including Netherland and Chile, with evidence of reductions in bullying in Finland and Netherlands but not in Chile, reminding of the importance of testing interventions in different settings (Kärnä et al., 2011; Huitsing et al., 2020; Valenzuela et al., 2022). This is not an exhaustive list, but these examples point to natural starting points for policy makers seeking concrete, evidence-based actions. Good policy will combine action to prevent violence with better data on violence so that education systems can assess progress in reducing it (Evans et al., 2025): this could include more systematic data collection on violence in schools, standardized and published with regularity.

Taken together, these findings suggest that existing evidence already provides a foundation to support action to prevent and respond to school-related violence, while future research can focus on which approaches work best, which factors drive change, for whom, under what conditions, and how they can be implemented safely, effectively, and at scale.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Risk of bias criteria

We assessed risk of bias in the studies included in our main sample across the following five domains. (Appendix Table A10 summarizes the Risk of Bias (RoB) criteria used in the analysis.)

1. Identification strategy: Randomized control trials are classified to have stronger internal validity compared to quasi-experimental methods.
2. Absence of multiple hypothesis testing: Risk of false positive findings due to testing multiple outcomes, subgroups, or analytical specifications without appropriate adjustment.
3. Baseline imbalance or equivalent: Risk that observed outcome differences are influenced by pre-existing differences between treatment and comparison groups. For randomized studies, this includes baseline imbalance across key covariates. For quasi-experimental studies, this includes equivalent threats to identification, such as insufficient evidence supporting parallel trends with a difference-in-differences specification.
4. Attrition: Risk that student, classroom, or school dropout differs across study groups in ways that could bias estimated treatment effects. This domain applies to studies with primary data collection and does not apply to quasi-experimental studies based solely on administrative or repeated cross-sectional data.
5. Spillovers across studies: Risk that members of the control group are exposed to the intervention, or that treated participants influence untreated participants. This is particularly relevant for interventions randomized at the student or classroom level within the same school.

Appendix B. Approach to the standardization of effect sizes

Comparing the magnitude of effects across papers requires that estimates be placed on a common scale. This presents several challenges. Most importantly, the systematic review covers different forms of violence (bullying, sexual, emotional and physical violence), perpetrated by different groups (peers, school staff and others), and measured over different recall periods using different wording and framing. Unlike some other outcomes—such as child stunting or mortality, for which standardized effect sizes are common and accepted—violence outcomes are more difficult to standardize, and there are no widely accepted guidelines for doing so.[35]

With these limitations in mind, we make a rough effort to standardize effect sizes (only for a subset of effects, as described below), with the particular goal of identifying where the largest changes have

35 Even with outcomes that are commonly standardized for meta-analyses, like student test scores, those standardized estimates can be deeply misleading for reasons similar to those we highlight above for school violence outcomes, as discussed in Rossiter et al., (2026).

been reported. We do not estimate an average effect, and the results should not be interpreted as a definitive ranking of programme effectiveness.

B.1. Steps followed

1. We retained outcomes measuring victimization or perpetration of violence in or around school. We excluded indicators of delinquency (e.g., shoplifting, stealing from others or destroying school property); measures of reports of violence (e.g., the likelihood or number of reports); violent crime unrelated to school; and measures of violence attitudes and knowledge, educational outcomes and mental health.
2. We retained only outcomes self-reported by students. We excluded outcomes reported by teachers, parents, peers (peer nominations), or classroom observers.
3. We classified each outcome by type of violence and perpetrator: bullying; physical, emotional and sexual violence perpetrated by peers, school staff, either group (when the measure explicitly covered both), or an unspecified perpetrator.
4. We standardized each estimate and classified the conversion as either confident or weak (see section B.2.).
5. We excluded item-level outcomes (individual questions forming part of a scale or index already included) to avoid double-counting the same violent incidents and to prevent papers reporting many items from dominating the results.
6. We present the results for all forms of violence combined, and then separately by type of violence (bullying, physical, emotional and sexual) in order to explore which papers seem to consistently have impacts reducing violence in and around schools.

B.2. Standardization

We identified 344 estimates of violence outcomes self-reported by students across 29 studies. Of these, 214 could be standardized with confidence and 117 could be standardized only weakly; the remaining 13 could not be standardized because the papers did not report the information required. Excluding these 13 estimates and the 30 item-level outcomes leaves 301 estimates from 26 studies (184 confident and 117 weak conversions). Of these, 182 indicate a reduction in violence, 116 indicate an increase, and 3 indicate no change.

Studies report effects in different units, so we convert each estimate to a common standardized effect, d.[36] A positive value indicates less violence in the intervention group, whereas a negative value indicates more violence.

36 d is the difference between the intervention and control groups expressed in standard deviations of the outcome. A positive d indicates less violence in the intervention group, and a negative d more. For example, $d = 0.2$ means the intervention group's level of violence was 0.2 standard deviations lower than the control group. For yes/no outcomes, we converted odds ratios to d using $d = -ln(OR) \times \sqrt{3}/\pi$, which assumes the binary outcome reflects an underlying continuous scale with a logistic distribution (Hasselblad and Hedges, 1995; Chinn, 2000; Borenstein et al., 2009).

In Appendix Table A13., we summarize the approaches followed for the standardization. We have greater confidence in the first five conversion approaches, given the information reported in the paper. We have less confidence in two "weak" approaches because each relies on an assumption that is unlikely to hold. We retain weak conversions in this descriptive, appendix analysis because they indicate the direction and statistical significance of the effects, even if their magnitudes are less precise. Nevertheless, readers should interpret these results cautiously and regard them only as suggestive evidence.

Importantly, the standardized effects are not strictly comparable across papers. Even after standardization (and including estimates where we feel more confident of the conversion), they should be interpreted cautiously, as a way to examine the range and direction of effects and identify potential outliers, rather than to pool estimates or rank programmes precisely. We further elucidate limitations below:

- Different outcomes. The estimates combine bullying, physical, emotional and sexual violence; different perpetrators and settings; recall periods ranging from the past week to the past year; follow-up periods ranging from a few months to several years; and differently worded questions. An effect of $d = 0.2$ for corporal punishment in the past week does not describe the same change as an effect of $d = 0.2$ for sexual harassment in the past year.
- Conversion assumptions. Each conversion rests on assumptions that apply to specific approaches (Appendix Table A13). Conversions based on yes/no outcomes (approaches 1, 3, 4 and 6) assume an underlying logistic distribution. Treating risk or prevalence ratios as odds ratios (approach 6) understates d for common outcomes. The t-based conversion (approach 7) ignores the clustering of students within schools and depends on how sample size is defined. Some inputs are also approximate in three studies: a sample mean is used in place of a control-group mean (anti-bullying laws); a counterfactual baseline is used for the difference-in-differences estimate (GEMS); and an approximate sample size per comparison is used for the gender-based violence/harassment programme (USA).
- Small samples and rare outcomes produce extreme, imprecise estimates. Skills for Life (Netherlands, N = 512) (Fekkes et al., 2016) reports odds ratios ranging from 0.08 to 24.3, with confidence intervals extending above 300. Consequently, the programme appears at both extremes of the figures.
- Different designs. The studies range from cluster-randomized trials to difference-in-differences comparisons and evaluations of state policies and use different adjustments for baseline differences and covariates.
- Significance as reported. We take statistical significance from each paper without adjusting for the number of outcomes tested; some tests do not account for clustering.

Appendix Figures A2–A6 summarize the results across the different types of violence. We reference these results in the main paper.

Appendix C. What we learn from studies in the exploratory sample

Proof of concept in new regions

We identified two studies carried out in contexts with less evidence or that incorporated intervention design elements that we did not observe from the main sample. First, an educational curriculum for 8th grade boys in Iran was delivered in Bushehr city for 11 weeks (Kaveh et al., 2022).[37] The curriculum builds on a framework of inducing change through a theory of planned behavior (TPB), where content was designed around behavioral determinants of aggression, and topics included physical and sexual violence, as well as socio-emotional skills building. The study found improvements in anger, hostility, physical, verbal aggression, and perceived behavioral control among the treatment group, and no differences in subjective norms and attitudes.

The second study uses a participatory learning approach focused on changing gender attitudes to prevent physical and sexual violence in Thailand (Chamroonsawasdi et al., 2010). The positive skills curriculum was evaluated with a pre and post design among 2 treatment and control schools in a district of Samutsakorn province and delivered over 11 weeks. The program was designed to motivate students to express their feelings with reflection, brainstorming and groupwork, and measured improved attitudes in treatment schools.

Alternative models to tackle teacher use of violence

While we examine a handful of studies that measure teacher use of violence in our main sample, few focus on tackling corporal punishment as the key intervention component. We find two studies which show promising approaches in this area of research. Developers of the Irie Classroom Toolbox in Kingston, Jamaica (which enters our main sample in a larger scale evaluation of an intervention implemented with preschool teachers), trained Grade 1 primary school teachers through selected core content of the toolbox (Baker-Henningham et al., 2019). The content focused on positive and proactive strategies to promote children's positive behavior and negative behavior, and training was delivered over 11.5 hours. Violence outcomes were measured via classroom observation and supplemented with in-depth interviews with teachers. Endline results found reductions in the frequency of teacher use of violence against children, and improvements in children's learning. However, class-wide child aggression, pro-social behavior, teacher reported professional wellbeing and child behavioral difficulties, as well as academic achievement were not affected. This study expands on the literature of what still works at a smaller scale with a slightly different age group, and limitations in scaling down a program.

Interaction Competencies with Children for Teachers (ICC-T), targets teacher use of violence in secondary schools (Nkuba et al., 2018). The study was evaluated in Tanzania but subsequently proposed to be evaluated in Uganda and Ghana (Scharpf et al., 2021). In the Tanzania evaluation,

37 All references from this section are listed in full in Appendix Table A7.

four intervention schools received ICC-T training for 8 hours per day over 5.5 days. The program was implemented with a participative approach, aimed at improving teacher-student relationships through interaction competencies with children. Outcomes were measured using teacher reported use of violent discipline and attitudes, and students were also asked about their exposure to school violence. The study includes a feasibility analysis which finds high applicability and acceptability of the program's training. The study found decreased prevalence of teacher violence from both teacher and student reports. The multi-setting study suggests potential in adapting training across contexts.

Involving actors across sectors

School-related violence obviously involves both the education and health sectors, with likely benefits cross-sectoral of collaboration. However, different definitions or sectoral priorities can create difficulties in finding common ground. We found one intervention which incorporated health and economic components with safe schools, focusing on girls' risk factors of HIV. The Go Girls! Initiative developed a School Personnel Training program to assist personnel in understanding girls' vulnerability to HIV, and its relationship to school and education (Schwandt and Underwood 2016). The study measures girls' reports of interaction with their teachers, including changes in encouraging girls to participate in class or excel in math, encouraging girls to stay in school, using physical punishment, and asking for sex in exchange for good grades or other "favors". The study found positive findings in Botswana, but not in Mozambique or Malawi, where authors posit the lack of structural and systemic support in schools as a pre-requisite to support educators to induce change through the training.

The second study highlights a similar finding on implementation considerations when involving multiple sectors across activities. The Iranian Health Promoting Schools (IHPS) was established between education and health ministries and implemented through multiple components, tackling violence and bullying, and the study measures the impacts of this policy in student mental health and experience of violence (Salimi et al., 2019). Authors employed a cross-sectional and qualitative survey to understand the effects of a counseling and mental health services component of a nationwide school policy between 2017 and 2018, using data from 12 schools. The component evaluated aimed to improve mental health quality and reduce school violence and bullying. The study found no significant effects in the programs. Qualitative interviews complemented the data, where decisionmakers and school staff discussed funding and logistical challenges to implement prevention programs, particularly where schools face competing priorities with limited resources.

Appendix Tables and Figures

APPENDIX TABLE A1. Existing reviews on school violence related interventions

Author	Regional Focus	Years of Analysis	Type of Violence	Number of Papers Included	Identification Strategies Included	Type of Programmes Prioritized	Summary of Findings
Walsh et al., (2015)	Global	1986–2014	Sexual Abuse	24	Quasi-experimental or RCTs	Education Programmes	– Overall effective in vignette-based knowledge, although there is significant heterogeneity – Knowledge retention effective at 6 months – Analysis from 3 studies showed no negative effects in anxiety or fear – Analysis from 3 studies showed improved disclosure, although variance is wide
Lester et al., (2017)	Global	2005–2015	Intimate Partner Violence and Peer Aggression	67	Systematic Reviews	Programmes addressing change in behavior	– Evidence gaps on: teacher-student violence or student-teacher violence – Stronger evidence for effective interventions addressing peer-aggression compared to IPV – Most interventions had short follow up and were concentrated in the USA
Gaffney et al., (2021)	Global	2009–2016	Bullying	67	Quasi-experimental or RCTs	Any Prevention Programs	– Overall effective in reducing perpetration – Overall effective in reducing victimization – However, there is significant heterogeneity in effect sizes across studies – Intervention components were particularly effective for: whole-school approach, anti-bullying policies, classroom rules, information for parents, informal peer involvement, and work with victims
Sood et al., (2022)	Global	2014–2021	Any	54	Any, including, RCTs, qualitative designs, pre-post, quantitative designs without pre-post	Social and Behavior Change Communication Programs	– Findings revolve design and implementation recommendations, including using social and behavior change theories, a whole school plus targeted approach, include community members, considering cascade trading models, and monitoring process

(Continued)

APPENDIX TABLE A1. (Continued)

Author	Regional Focus	Years of Analysis	Type of Violence	Number of Papers Included	Identification Strategies Included	Type of Programmes Prioritized	Summary of Findings
Che Yusof et al., (2022)	Global	2000–2021	Sexual Abuse	29	Quasi-experimental or RCTs	Programmes improving knowledge, skills, and attitudes	– Knowledge acquisition was the most often assessed study outcome – All included studies showed increasing knowledge – Review did not study the prevalence of child sexual abuse
Baumgarten et al., (2023)	Global	Inception - 2022	Teacher Violence	8	RCTs	Any	– Across diverse contexts, interventions to reduce teacher violence are broadly effective – Challenging teacher violence against children who might be most vulnerable is important so teacher relationships can impact the widest range of students
Farmer et al., (2023)	Global	2020–2021	Dating and Relationship Violence, Gender Based Violence	68	RCTs	Any interventions partially or wholly aimed at changing dating violence or gender-based violence outcomes	– Stronger effects found for dating and relationship violence interventions – Effects on knowledge and attitudes were shorter term – Mixed results and outcomes for gender-based violence outcomes
Eldred et al., (2025)	Global	Inception - 2023	School-Based Violence	13	RCTs	Any	– Most RCTs of school-based violence prevention interventions do not report on equity of impact – Those who do report heterogeneous effects show impacts differ by subgroup
Devries et al., (2026)	Global	Inception - 2023	Any	16	RCTs	Any	– Of the 15 interventions, 13 reduced violence – Of the 15 interventions, six improved educational outcomes, four showed mixed results, and two showed no effect

Notes: Evidence gap maps such as Safe Futures Hub (2024) and SVRI (2025) are not included in this list of existing systematic reviews.

APPENDIX TABLE A2. Database and search strategies

Index	Database	Search System	Search Strategy
1	**Medline (PubMed)**	Scientific/MeSH	Full keyword search in title and abstract
2	**PsycNet**	Scientific/MeSH	Full keyword search in title and abstract
3	**Cochrane**	Scientific/MeSH	Full keyword search in title and abstract
4	**ERIC**	Keyword matches with ERIC thesaurus	Full keyword search
5	**NBER**	Basic keyword matches	Full keyword search
6	**RePec**	Basic keyword matches	Full keyword search
7	**World Bank Working Papers**	Basic keyword matches	Full keyword search
8	**ESSA***	Exact keyword matches	Author selection of terms
9	**AEA****	Exact keyword matches	Author selection of terms

Notes: *Database only includes work from 2010 to 2023. **Database only includes work from 2013 onward.

APPENDIX TABLE A3. Database search queries

Database Search Systems	Intervention Based Studies	Studies Capturing Systems Level Analysis, such as Policies and Bans
Scientific or MeSH*	Intervention based studies: (child OR adolescent OR boy OR girl OR youth OR juvenile OR "early adult" OR infant OR student) AND (Schools OR Nursery OR classroom OR education) AND (violence OR Rape OR abuse OR bully OR dating OR neglect OR "school violence" OR "corporal punishment" OR harassment OR aggression OR assault OR cyberbully OR "gender based violence") AND (intervention OR "randomized control trial" OR RCT or quasi-experimental OR quasi-experimental OR "difference in differences" OR "regression discontinuity design" OR "instrumental variables" OR "event study" OR "two-way fixed effects")	("corporal punishment" OR "anti-bullying" OR "child rights" OR "child protection" OR "mandatory reporting") AND (policy OR protocol OR bans OR "laws" OR policies OR bans) AND (intervention OR "randomized control trial" OR RCT OR quasi-experimental OR "difference in differences" OR "regression discontinuity design" OR "instrumental variables" OR "event study" OR "two-way fixed effects")
Exact keyword matches	School Violence, Violence in Schools, Corporal Punishment, Violent Discipline, Child abuse, Child Sexual Abuse, Child Sexual Violence, Child psychological abuse, Child violence, Child physical abuse, Bullying, Cyberbullying, Youth dating violence	Child Rights, Child Protection, Mandatory Reporting, Anti-Bullying Policy

Note: *MeSH stands for Medical Subject Headings, a controlled vocabulary thesaurus produced by the National Library of Medicine (NML) used to index and catalog information to prevent issues with synonyms.

APPENDIX TABLE A4. Violence outcomes included in our study

Outcome Types		Definition
Violence Outcomes	Physical violence	Includes any form of physical aggression perpetrated by peers or members of the school staff. It includes physical bullying, physical attacks, physical fights between students, and corporal punishment by school staff.
	Emotional violence	Includes any form of verbal abuse and social exclusion, including isolating, rejecting, ignoring, exclusion from a group, spreading rumours, name-calling, humiliation, intimidation, and threats perpetrated by peers or members of the school staff. It can include both isolated events of emotional violence and bullying (characterized by occurring repeatedly against the same person).
	Sexual violence	Includes multiple forms of sexual violence, including nonconsensual completed or attempted sexual contact (i.e., touching, attempted unwanted sex, forced sex), non-consensual acts of a sexual nature not involving contact (sexual harassment) and any form of coercion into sexual situations by peers and adults (school staff members).
Intermediate Outcomes	Knowledge	Includes any outcomes that measure individuals' awareness, understanding and recognition of acts and manifestations of violence (including physical, emotional or sexual forms of violence). We also included outcomes measuring understanding of children's rights.
	Attitudes	Includes any outcomes capturing the extent to which individuals consider specific forms of violence to be acceptable or necessary or disapprove of them.

APPENDIX TABLE A5. Study grouping by sample size cut offs

Cut offs	Main Sample N	Exploratory Sample N
Cluster >= 20 or Individual >= 100	41	72
Cluster >= 20 or Individual >= 50	41	72
Cluster >= 20 or Individual >= 150	41	72
Cluster >= 10 or Individual >= 100	57	56
Cluster >= 15 or Individual >= 100	45	68
Cluster >= 25 or Individual >= 100	38	75
Cluster >= 30 or Individual >= 100	34	79

Note: We classify main sample studies with the main cut off, N = at least 20 for cluster randomization, and N = at least 100 for individual-level randomization.

APPENDIX TABLE A6. Summary of studies in the main sample

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Nikolaou (2017)	United States (HIC)	Anti-Bullying Law	Schools	National	50 states and DC from School Survey	State-wide bullying policies	NA		State-wide laws implemented at different points in time	Differences in Differences	Reduction in probability of bullying	
Rees et al., (2022)	United States (HIC)	Anti-Bullying Law	Schools	National	State and National data	State-wide bullying policies	NA		State-wide laws implemented at different points in time	Differences in Differences	Reduction in probability of bullying	Reduction in suicide rates
Smarrelli (2023)	Peru (UMC)	Nationwide Technical Assistance	Schools	National	National	Technical assistance to school leaders on the identification and response protocols to address violence, the use of positive discipline and the creation of school coexistence plans	Provide Training; School Visits and Network Meetings with Beneficiary Schools	Trained facilitator	3 cycles of training activities	Fuzzy Regression Discontinuity	Increased likelihood of reporting violence	– Reduce student school mobility – No effects on learning*
Amaral et al., (2024)	Mozambique (LIC)	Está na Hora de Agir	Schools	Multi-Regional	9,107 6th or 7th graders in 7 districts of Sofala	Teacher and student training to address GBV in schools	Create Mechanisms for Reporting and Responding to Cases of Violence	Trained facilitators	Four two-hour sessions	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Violence against girls by teachers decreased	Student Enrollment Increased
Gutierrez et al., (2025)	Peru (UMC)	Shifting Norms Toward Reporting	Schools	Regional	Regional	Bullying and school-violence related prevention activitie, training and registration to reporting platform	Dissemination of Information; Provide Training	Trained facilitators and staff (by certain activities)	22 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– School violence decrease – Positive changes in attitudes toward reporting – No changes in attitudes toward acceptance of violence	Decrease in probability of dropout*

(Continued)

APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Rapee et al., (2021)	Australia (HIC)	Friendly Schools/Cool Kids - Taking Control	Schools	Regional	8,732 3rd and 4th graders across 135 schools in two states	Curriculums related to social emotional learning and skills, responding and coping to victimization	Dissemination of Information; Create Safety Committees; Provide Training; Establish School Coexistence Rules; 1:1 Psychological Support	Selected Staff and Students	Over 2 school years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	No effects on violence outcomes	No effects on health outcomes
Cunha et al., (2023)	China (UMC)	Parental Involvement Program	Classroom	Local	48 classrooms in 2 schools	Empathy and positive parenting skills activity	Provide Training	Online	8 biweekly activities over 4 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Bullying decreased	– Socioemotional skills increased – Student stress decreased*
Williford et al., (2011)	Finland (HIC)	KiVa	Schools	Regional	78 schools in Finland	Lessons related to bullying	Provide Training; 1:1 Psychological Support	Classroom teachers	1 school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Bullying victimization decreased	
Kärnä et al., (2011)	Finland (HIC)	KiVa	Schools	Multi-Regional	78 schools in Finland	Lessons related to bullying	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information; 1:1 Psychological Support	Trained teachers	9 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Bullying and peer reported victimization decreased	
Achyut et al., (2017)	Bangladesh (LMC)	GEMS	Schools	Regional	280,000 students from 350 schools	Curriculum and activities related to violence and gender attitudes	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information	Select Staff	1 school year	Differences in Differences	– Positive change in gender attitudes toward violence, gender attributes, and division of work – No effect on violence expeirence	*

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Dinarte and Egana-delSol (2024)	El Salvador (LMC)	Community Schools	Individuals	Local	1,056 students from 5 public schools in El Salvador	Lessons and activities related to conflict management, social skills, and violence awareness	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information	Trained facilitators	Two sessions per week that lasted 1.5 hours each over 1 school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Decrease in student bad behaviour at school – Decrease in the likelihood of having a misbehaviour report at school – Decrease in delinquency actions	– Better attitudes towards school – Improvement in test-scores
Crooks et al., (2015)	Canada (HIC)	SEL Program	Schools	Regional	57 schools across 8 School Divisions in a Western Canadian Province	Classes using role plays to practice conflict resolution as participants and bystanders	Provide Training	Teachers	21 lessons (period not clear)	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Knowledge related to impact of violence on victims increased – No effect on acceptance of violence	Knowledge of positive coping strategies for stress increased
Shinde et al., (2018)	India (LMC)	SEHER	Schools	Local	5,539 students in government run secondary scools in Nalanda district in Bihar	School-wide activities and policies, classroom based peer support and workshops, individual counseling for students who were referred to teachers for health complaints, or social/ academic difficulties	Provide Training; Establish School Coexistence Rules; 1:1 Psychological Support; Dissemination of Information; Create Safety Committees	Trained facilitators	16 hours of sessions over 1 school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Reduction in bullying and violence in lay counsellor delivered intervention – Improvements in attitudes in lay counsellor delivered intervention – No evidence of overall effects in teacher delivered intervention	Improvements in depression delivered by lay counselors*

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Valenzuela et al., (2022)	Chile (HIC)	KiVa	Schools	Regional		Lessons and school policies related to bullying	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information; Create Safety Committees; Provide Manuals and Guides	All staff with selected members trained for specific component	8 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Decrease in bullying victimization for partial KiVa arm – No effects on bullying perpetration	*
Gusmões et al., (2018)	Brazil (UMC)	#Tamojunto	Schools	Regional	6637 7th and 8th grade students in 72 public schools in 6 Brazilian cities	Classes on attitudes and knowledge related to drugs, interpersonal skills and personal skills	Provide Training	Selected Staff	50-min weekly classes over 12 weeks	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Likelihood of bullying victimization decreased, but not sustained at follow up – No effect on bullying or physical violence perpetration	
Baiocchi et al., (2017)	Kenya (LMC)	IMPower, 50:50	Schools	Local	5th to 7th graders in 30 primary schools in 5 informal settlements of Nairobi	Gender-separated discussion and skills practice. Support group meeting for sexual assault for girls	Provide Training; Create Safety Committees	Hired Trainers	Six 2-hour sessions, and booster training within 3 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Decrease in risk of self reported annualized rape	
Santhya et al., (2019)	India (LMC)	Do Kadam	Youth Club	Local	Rural areas of Patna district in Bihar	Life skills curriculum and sport coaching	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information	Trained staff	42 weekly sessions, with 1 hour each week devoted to the life skills sessions and 1 hour to cricket coaching. The intervention was delivered over a period of 18 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Positive change in gender attitudes	
Botvin et al., (2006)	United States (HIC)	Life Skills Training Program	Schools	Local	4,858 sixth grade students from 41 New York City public and parochial schools	Curriculum on social emotional skills, substance use, and violence	Provide Manuals and Guides; Provide Training	Trained teacher	15 sessions for about 3 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Likelihood of aggression decreased	Reduction in fighting and delinquency

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Huitsing et al., (2020)	Netherlands (HIC)	KiVa/Kiva+	Schools	National	National	Lessons and school policies related to bullying	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information; Create Safety Committees; Provide Manuals and Guides	All staff with selected members trained for specific component	Two academic years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Frequency of bullying perpetration and victimization decreased	
Baker-Henningham et al., (2021)	Jamaica (UMC)	Irie Classroom Toolbox	Schools	Local	76 preschools in disadvantaged areas of Kingston and St. Andrew	Teacher training tools and activities	Provide Training; Provide Manuals and Guides; Dissemination of Information	Trained Teacher	Five full day workshops, 8 1 hour sessions of class support, fortnightly text messages, over 2 school terms.	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Violence against children by teachers decreased – No effect on childwide aggression	– Classroom prosocial behavior increased – Classroom emotional support and organization improved – Teacher wellbeing and retention increased
Fekkes et al., (2016)	Netherlands (HIC)	Skills for Life	Schools	Regional	26 schools in the region	Curriculum based on behavioral and socioemotional skills	Provide Training	Trained teachers	25 lessons over two school years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Reduction in bullying – Increase in digital bullying and sexual violence perpetration	– Effect on suicide ideation is mixed*
Ferreira-Junior et al., (2023)	Brazil (UMC)	PROERD	Schools	Regional	1,727 5th graders and 2,303 7th graders from 30 public schools in São Paulo	Classes related to bullying	Provide Training	Police Officer	Weekly 50 minute classes for 10 weeks	Randomized-Controlled Trial	No effect in bullying perpetration and victimization	
Devries et al., (2015)	Uganda (LIC)	Good School Toolkit	Schools	Local	3820 5th to 7th graders from 42 primary schools in Luwero	Revising school policy, and activity based tools for teachers and students	Dissemination of Information; Create Safety Committees	Selected Staff and Students	18 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Physical violence decreased	

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Devries et al., (2017)	Uganda (LIC)	Good School Toolkit	Schools	Local	3820 5th to 7th graders from 42 primary schools in Luwero	Revising school policy, and activity based tools for teachers and students	Provide Training; Establish School Coexistence Rules; Dissemination of Information	Selected Staff and Students	18 months	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Staff and Peer violence decrease – Violence among boys decreased	*
Achyut et al., (2017)	India (LMC)	GEMS	Schools	Regional	4000 students from 40 schools in Jharkhand	Curriculum and activities related to violence and gender attitudes	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information	Trained Facilitator	2 years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Positive change in gender attitudes – Peer violence decreased – No effect on teacher violence	*
Brown et al., (2011)	United States (HIC)	Steps to Respect	Schools	Local	3,119 students in 33 schools of a California district	Social emotional skills and bullying response curriculum	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information; Provide Manual and Guides	Select staff	1 school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Physical bullying perpetration decreased – Perceptions of bullying related problems decreased	*
Fekkes et al., (2006)	Netherlands (HIC)	Antibullying Program	Schools	Regional	50 schools in the Netherlands	Lessons and school policies related to bullying	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information; Establish School Coexistence Rules	Trained teachers	1 school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Bullying decreased	– No change in delinquent behavior – Decline in depression
Simon et al., (2008)	United States (HIC)	GREAT Teacher Program	Individuals	Regional	37 schools from four communities	Student curriculum and teacher training on classroom management and assisting students who were victimized	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information; Create Safety Committees; 1:1 Psychological Support	Trained facilitators and staff	12 hour workshop and ten consultation/ support group meetings	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Reductions in violent behaviors for universal intervention	

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Karmaliani et al., (2020)	Pakistan (LMC)	Right to Play	Schools	Local	40 public middle schools in the Hyderabad district of Sindh province	Play-based learning activities	Provide Training; Provide Manuals and Guides; Dissemination of Information	Trained facilitators	Two 35 minute sessions per week to around 60 sessions over a year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Peer violence decreased	– Depression decreased
Jenson et al., (2013)	United States (HIC)	Youth Matters	Schools	Regional	State	Curriculum on social emotional skills and positive relationship	Provide Training	Education Specialists in Project Team	Four curriculum modules over 2 school years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Decrease in bullying victimization and perpetration	
Snyder et al., (2013)	United States (HIC)	The Positive Action Program	Schools	Regional	20 public elementary schools on three Hawaiian islands	Activities based tools for schools and teachers	Provide Training; Provide Manuals and Guides; Dissemination of Information	Classroom teachers	140 lessons per grade per academic year, offered in 15- to 20-minute lessons by classroom teachers over 1 school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Violent behaviors decrease	– Better academic behavior*
Fabbri et al., (2021)	Tanzania (LMC)	EmpaTeach	Schools	Local	27 primary and secondary schools in Nyarugusu Refugee Camp	Activities based tools and resources for teachers	Provide Training	Trained facilitator	10 weeks	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– No effect on violence against children from teachers – No effect on emotional violence	School attendance increased – No change in depressive symptoms*
McCoy et al., (2021)	Brazil (UMC)	Programa Compasso	Schools	Regional	90 public schools in Rio	Socioemotional learning curriculum	Provide Training; Dissemination of Information	NGO trains school staff, and teachers deliver intervention to students	Twenty two 50-minute weekly lessons	Randomized-Controlled Trial	No change in behavioural problems	– No change in socio-emotional skills
Bonell et al., (2018)	United Kingdom (HIC)	Learning Together	Schools	Regional	6,667 students at the end of year 7 in 40 secondary schools in Southeast England	Revising school policies implementing restorative practices, social emotional skills curriculum	Provide Training; Establish School Coexistence Rules	Selected Staff	Two school years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Bullying victimization decreased – No effect in student reports of aggression	– Higher reports of psychological wellbeing*

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Spoth et al., (2000)	United States (HIC)	Iowa Strengthening Families Program	Schools	Local	District	Weekly meetings and skillbuilding curricula for parents and students	Provide Training	Trained facilitators	Seven consecutive weekly meetings (13 hours total)	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Reduction in aggression 4 years past baseline	
Taylor et al., (2015)	United States (HIC)	Shifting Boundaries	Schools	Local	30 public middle schools in New York City, enrolling 117 sixth and seventh grade classes	Curriculum and revising school policy	Provide Training; Establish School Coexistence Rules	Selected Staff	6 to 10 weeks	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Decrease in frequency of sexual harassment perpetration and victimization – No effect in prevalence of sexual harassment	
Paluck et al., (2016)	United States (HIC)	Roots	Schools	Regional	56 public middle schools in New Jersey	Anti-conflict curriculum with schoolwide activities	Dissemination of Information; Provide Training; Create Safety Committees	Trained facilitator	45-60 minute meetings over one school year	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Reduction in disciplinary reports among peers – No change in social norms	*
Waasdorp et al., (2012)	United States (HIC)	School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports	Schools	Regional	37 Maryland public elementary schools	Revising school policy, and activity based tools for teachers and students	Establish Coexistence Rules; Dissemination of Information	Trained teachers	4 school years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Bullying and peer rejection decreased	
Cross et al., (2011)	Australia (HIC)	Friendly Schools	Schools	Local	City	Revise school policy, provide school activities and classroom learning to raise awareness and reduce bullying incidences intervention)	Provide Training	Selected Staff and Students	9 classroom lessons	Randomized-Controlled Trial	Bullying decreased for some grades	

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APPENDIX TABLE A6. (Continued)

Study	Country	Program	Unit of Allocation	Scale	Scale - detailed	Intervention	Activities	Implementation Delivery	Implementation Timeline	Evaluation Method	Violence Related Outcomes	Other Outcomes
Taylor et al., (2010)	United States (HIC)	Gender Violence/ Harassment Prevention Programming	Classroom	Local	123 classrooms in 3 suburban school districts in Cleveland, Ohio.	Interaction-based curriculum on violence and a law and justice curriculum	Provide Training	Trained facilitator or Selected Teachers	Five weekly classroom lessons	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Awareness and knowledge of abusive behaviors improved (in all treatment arms) – Rates of victimization decreased (only in Interaction Curricula Treatment Arm) – No effects on perpetration or victimization of sexual harassment.	
Coker et al., (2017)	United States (HIC)	Green Dot	Schools	Regional	26 Kentucky high schools	Schoolwide presentation, bystander training to student leaders		Trained facilitator	4 years	Randomized-Controlled Trial	– Sexual violence acceptance decreased – Sexual violence perpetration and victimization decreased	

APPENDIX TABLE A7. List of exploratory studies included in our analysis

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APPENDIX TABLE A8. Outcomes extracted from interventions

Variable	Coding
Sampling Characteristics	
Country	List of World Bank Economies
Student Age at Baseline	Kindergarten; Primary; Lower Secondary; Upper Secondary
Experimental Method	Randomized-Controlled Trial; Fuzzy Regression Discontinuity Design; Difference-in-Differences; Other (eg., before-after designs)
Unit of Randomization	Schools; Classrooms; Individuals
Urban/Rural	Urban; Rural; Both; Not Clear; Other
Number of Clusters	Integer
Number of Individuals	Integer
Intervention Design	
Year of Intervention	Integer
Duration	Continuous
Intervention Endline	Integer
Intervention Type	National Laws and Policies; Skills, Knowledge, and Norms, Reporting and Response Systems
Method of Data Collection	Face to Face; Self-administered (computer or paper-based); Administrative; Unclear
Activities	Dissemination of Information; Providing Manuals and Guides; Create Safety Committees; Create mechanisms for reporting and responding to cases of violence; Provide training; Establish school coexistence rules; 1:1 Support
Activities - Content Covered	Laws on violence/child rights; Consequences of violence; Positive Norms; Positive Discipline; Skills to Identify/Respond to Abuse; Socio-emotional/ coping skills
Timeline	One off; Same Activity overtime; Sequential
Results	
Violence Outcome: Perpetrators	General; Teacher; Peer
Violence Outcome: Types	Physical, Emotional, Sexual
Overall Evaluation	Descriptive
Treatment Effects (Main sample only)	Effect size
Risk of Bias	
Multiple Hypothesis Testing and Adjustments	Binary
Attrition and Adjustments	Binary
Baseline Comparison	Binary
Risk of Spillovers	Binary

APPENDIX TABLE A9. Study classifications and relation to INSPIRE

INSPIRE Category	INSPIRE Objective	Relation to our Categories
Implementation and enforcement of laws	"Ensure the implementation and enforcement of laws to prevent violent behaviours, reduce excessive alcohol use, and limit youth access to firearms and other weapons."	Directly related to our category on *"National laws and policies".*
Norms and values	"Strengthen norms and values that support non-violent, respectful, nurturing, positive and gender equitable relationships for all children and adolescents."	Related to our category on *"Skills, knowledge and norms"*, with the distinction that our category also covers other violence risk factors.
Safe environments	"Create and sustain safe streets and other environments where children and youth gather and spend time."	Covered in our category on *"Skills, knowledge and norms"* if the law, policy or intervention focused on safe pathways to school.
Parent and caregiver support	"Reduce harsh parenting practices and create positive parent-child relationships."	Cover in our category on *"Skills, knowledge and norms"* if the intervention focused on school-related violence targeting parents as a mechanism to address school-related violence. We do not consider interventions focused on parent-child relationships that do not allow for a connection with school-related violence.
Income and economic strengthening	"Improve families' economic security and stability, reduce child maltreatment and intimate partner violence."	Outside of the scope of our classification.
Education and life skills	"Increase children's access to more effective, gender-equitable education and social-emotional learning and life-skills training, and ensure that schools environments are safe and enabling."	Instead of a separate category on safe school environments, we have three categories whose core goal is creating safe school environments.
Response and support services	"Improve access to good-quality health, social welfare and criminal justice support services for all children who need them – including for reporting violence – to reduce the long-term impact of violence."	Directly related to our category on *"Response systems".*

APPENDIX TABLE A10. RoB – coding protocol

Category	Number	Measure	Description	Coding
Study Design	**1.1**	**Is an RCT**	The study is an RCT	0 – No 1 – Yes
Multiple Hypothesis Testing	**2.1**	**Multiple Hypothesis Testing**	Less than 3 Hypotheses	0 – No 1 – Yes
	2.2	**Reports a Summative Index/ Measure(s)**	Study reports some sort of summative index, which is an aggregate of underlying indicators (whether or not those are reported), and there are no single outcome measures in addition to an index outcome	0 – No 1 – Yes
	2.3	**Reports on FWER or FDR**	Study adjusts for MHT using FWER or FDR	0 – No 1 – Yes

(Continued)

APPENDIX TABLE A10. (Continued)

Category	Number	Measure	Description	Coding
Attrition	**3.1**	**Mentioned Attrition**	Said or showed something about attrition in general	NA – Is not an RCT 0 – No 1 – Yes
	3.2	**Test Attrition**	Ran test on differential attrition	Blank – Attrition not mentioned 0 – No 1 – Yes NA – There is no attrition or is not RCT
	3.3	**Address Attrition**	If there is differential attrition, whether or not it was adjusted for	0 – There was differential attrition and it was not adjusted for 1 – There was differential attrition and it was adjusted for NA – There was no differential attrition or is not RCT
Baseline Balanced	**4.1**	**Baseline Comparison**	For this to take a value of 1, a baseline comparison must be available and it must be possible for the reader to infer whether differences are statistically significant.	0 – No 1 – Yes
	4.2	**Baseline Balanced**	Baseline characteristics are balanced across all areas	Blank – Baseline comparison is not available 0 – No 1 – Yes
	4.3	**Addresses Imbalance**	If baseline characteristics are not balanced, adjustments were made to estimates	Blank – Baseline comparison is not available 0 – Baseline is not balanced across all reported characteristics, and it was not addressed 1 – Baseline is not balanced across all reported characteristics, and it was addressed NA – baseline is balanced across all reported characteristics
Spillovers	**5.1**	**Unit of allocation**	The sample is allocated at the school level	0 – No 1 – Yes

APPENDIX TABLE A11. RoB – detailed score

		Identification Strategy	Multiple Hypothesis Testing			Attrition			Baseline Balance		Spillovers	
Study	**Program**	**1.1**	**2.1**	**2.2**	**2.3**	**3.1**	**3.2**	**3.3**	**4.1**	**4.2**	**4.3**	**5.1**
National Laws and Policies												
Rees et al., (2022)	Anti-Bullying Law	0	0	0	1	NA	NA	NA	0	--	--	1
Nikolaou (2017)	Anti-Bullying Law	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	--	--	1
Reporting and Response Systems												
Gutierrez et al., (2025)	Shifting Norms Toward Reporting	1	0	0	1	1	1	NA	1	1	NA	1
Amaral et al., (2024)	Está na Hora de Agir	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	NA	1
Smarrelli (2023)	Nationwide Technical Assistance	0	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA	1	0	1	1
Skills, Knowledge, and Norms												
McCoy et al., (2021)	Programa Compasso	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	NA	1
Snyder et al., (2013)	The Positive Action Program	1	0	0	0	1	1	NA	1	1	NA	1
Baker-Henningham et al., (2021)	Irie Classroom Toolbox	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
Taylor et al., (2015)	Shifting Boundaries	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
Dinarte and Egana-delSol (2024)	Community Schools	1	0	0	1	1	1	NA	1	1	NA	0
Brown et al., (2011)	Steps to Respect	1	0	1	0	0	--	--	1	0	1	1
Fekkes et al., (2016)	Skills for Life	1	0	0	0	1	0	--	1	0	1	1
Bonell et al., (2018)	Learning Together	1	0	1	0	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Jenson et al., (2013)	Youth Matters	1	0	1	0	1	0	--	1	0	1	1
Kärnä et al., (2011)	KiVa	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	--	--	1
Gusmoes et al., (2018)	#Tamojunto	1	0	0	0	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Fabbri et al., (2021)	EmpaTeach	1	0	1	0	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Spoth et al., (2000)	Iowa Strengthening Families Program	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	NA	1	1	NA	1
Achyut et al., (2017)	GEMS India	1	0	1	0	0	--	--	1	0	1	1
Rapee et al., (2021)	Friendly Schools/ Cool Kids - Taking Control	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
Coker et al., (2017)	Green Dot	1	0	1	0	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Shinde et al., (2018)	SEHER	1	0	1	0	1	1	NA	1	0	0	1
Williford et al., (2011)	KiVa	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Devries et al., (2017)	Good School Toolkit	1	0	1	0	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Devries et al., (2015)	Good School Toolkit	1	0	1	0	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Paluck et al., (2016)	Roots	1	0	1	0	0	--	--	1	1	NA	1
Santhya et al., (2019)	Do Kadam	1	0	1	0	1	1	NA	0	--	--	0

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APPENDIX TABLE A11. (Continued)

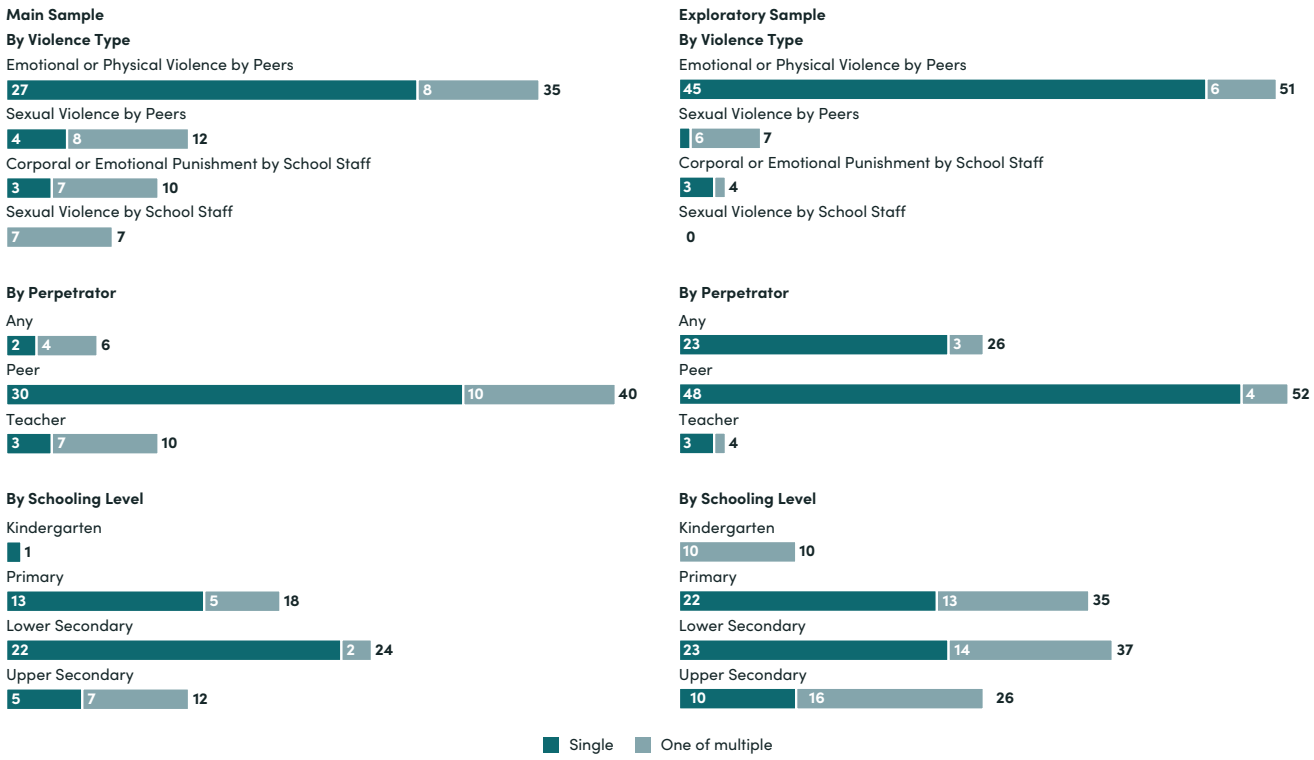
		Identification Strategy	Multiple Hypothesis Testing			Attrition			Baseline Balance		Spillovers	
Study	**Program**	**1.1**	**2.1**	**2.2**	**2.3**	**3.1**	**3.2**	**3.3**	**4.1**	**4.2**	**4.3**	**5.1**
Achyut et al., (2017)	GEMS Bangladesh	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	NA	0	--	--	1
Cross et al., (2011)	Friendly Schools	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
Waasdorp et al., (2012)	School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	1	0	--	--	1
Valenzuela et al., (2022)	KiVa	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Ferreira-Junior et al., (2023)	PROERD	1	1	NA	NA	1	0	--	1	1	NA	1
Crooks et al., (2015)	SEL Program	1	0	0	0	1	0	--	1	0	0	1
Karmaliani et al., (2020)	Right to Play	1	0	0	0	1	0	--	1	0	0	1
Botvin et al., (2006)	Life Skills Training Program	1	0	0	0	0		--	1	0	0	1
Fekkes et al., (2006)	Antibullying Program	1	0	0	0	1	0	--	0	--	--	1
Cunha et al., (2023)	Parental Involvement Program	1	0	0	0	1	0	--	1	0	0	0
Simon et al., (2008)	GREAT Teacher Program	1	0	1	0	0		--	1	0	0	0
Huitsing et al., (2020)	KiVa/Kiva+	1	1	NA	NA	1	0	--	1	0	NA	1
Baiocchi et al., (2017)	IMPower, 50:50	1	1	NA	NA	1	0	--	0	--	--	1
Taylor et al., (2010)	Gender Violence/ Harassment Prevention Programming	1	0	1	0	0	--	--	1	0	0	0

Notes: Numbers in column headers refer specific indicators outlined in Appendix Table A10. "--" denotes inability to tabulate due to failure to satisfy preceding criteria; NA applies to cases where subdomain is not applicable for type of study (such as use of secondary data) or fulfillment of previous domain. For quasi-experimental studies, baseline balance equivalents refer to checks such as parallel trends.

APPENDIX TABLE A12. Study scale definitions

	Number of Cities/Districts	Number of Regions/Provinces	Urban/ Rural	Rule
Local	One	One	Either	Intervention is implemented in schools in one city or province, in one region
Regional	Multiple	One	Either	Intervention is implemented in schools in multiple cities or provinces, in one region
Multi-regional	Multiple	Multiple	Either	Intervention is implemented in schools across more than one region
National	Multiple	Multiple	Both	Intervention is implemented across the country, including urban and rural areas

APPENDIX FIGURE A1. Intervention characteristics – distributions of type of violence, by single or multiple measures



Notes: "Single" denotes that only the specified measure was included in the study (e.g., only measured emotional or physical violence by peers). "One of multiple" denotes that multiple measures were included in the study, for example, an intervention targeting both lower and upper secondary students.

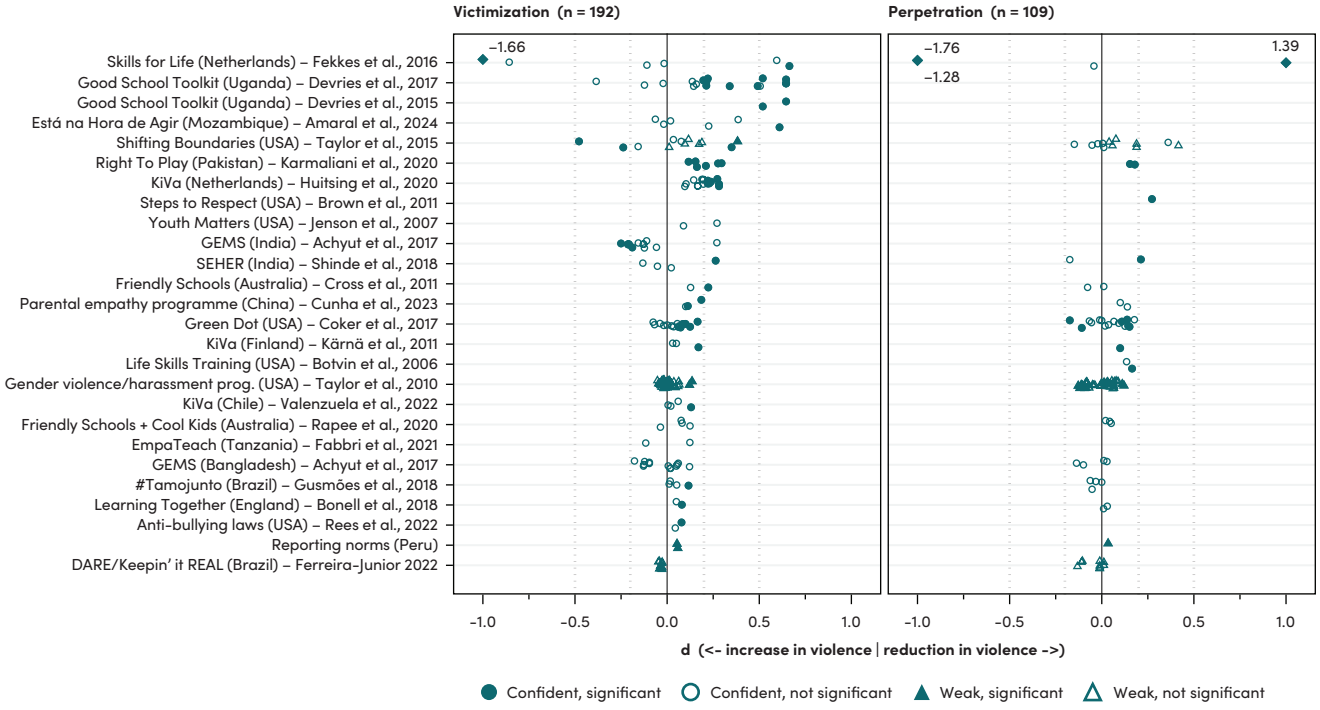
APPENDIX TABLE A13. Conversion approaches and number of estimates

	Reported As	Conversion to *d*	Confidence	All Estimates	Excluding Item-Level Outcomes
1	Odds ratios (incl. adjusted odds ratios and log-odds)	$d = -ln(OR) \times \sqrt{3}/\pi$. *For log-odds coefficients:* $d = -b \times \sqrt{3}/\pi$, *where b is the log-odds coefficient.*	Confident	109	87
2	Effects already in SD units (standardized mean differences; d reported by the authors)	Used as reported	Confident	20	12
3	Risk or prevalence ratios, when the control-group prevalence is known	$OR = RR\,(1 - p_0)/(1 - RR \times p_0)$, *where RR is the risk ratio and* p_0 *is the prevalence in the control.* *Then converted to d as in Approach 1.*	Confident: exact given the control prevalence	34	34
4	Changes in a yes/no prevalence (percentage points), when the control-group prevalence is known	$p_1 = p_0 + \Delta$, *where* Δ *is the estimated change in prevalence.* *Then* $OR = [p_1/(1 - p_1)]/[p_0/(1 - p_0)]$ *converted to d as in Approach 1.*	Confident: exact given the control prevalence	40	40
5	Mean differences, when the SD of the outcome is known	*d = mean difference/SD*	Confident: the definition of d	11	11
6	Risk, prevalence or rate ratios without the control-group prevalence	Treated as odds ratios	Weak: close to exact only for rare outcomes (prevalence below about 10%); understates d for common ones	30	30
7	Mean differences and other coefficients with an SE and sample size, but no SD or control mean	$d = 2t/\sqrt{N}$, *where* $t = estimate/SE$	Weak: ignores clustering; depends on how N is counted	87	87
8	Coefficients without SE, sample size, SD or control mean; chi-square tests	Not converted	–	13	–
	Total			**344**	**301**

Notes: Approaches 3, 4 and 6 all start from yes/no (prevalence) outcomes. A prevalence or risk ratio and a change in prevalence describe the same comparison in two ways: relative (e.g. 15% in the intervention group vs 20% in the control group is a ratio of 0.75) or absolute (a change of −5 percentage points). Either can be combined with the control-group prevalence (p_0) to recover the prevalence in both groups, and hence the odds ratio, which is then converted to *d* as in approach 1 (approaches 3 and 4). When the paper does not report p_0 (approach 6), we treat the reported ratio as if it were an odds ratio. Odds and probabilities are almost the same when an outcome is rare (below about 10%), so the ratio and the odds ratio are close, but they diverge as the outcome becomes more common. For example, a fall in prevalence from 50% to 40% is a ratio of 0.80 but an odds ratio of 0.67; treating the ratio as an odds ratio gives $d = 0.12$ instead of 0.22.

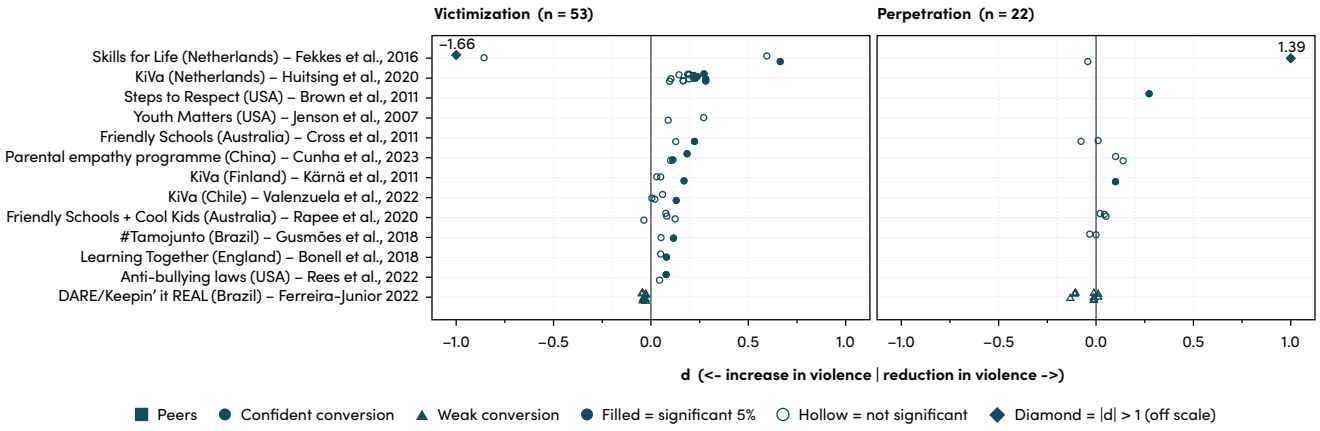
Sources: Approach 1, Hasselblad and Hedges (1995), Chinn (2000) and Borenstein et al., (2009, ch. 7). Approach 3, Zhang and Yu (1998), rearranged to give the odds ratio from the risk ratio and p_0. Approach 4, the definition of the odds ratio for two proportions (Borenstein et al., 2009, ch. 5); approach 5, Cohen (1988) and Borenstein et al., (2009, ch. 4). Approach 6, the approximation of the odds ratio by the risk ratio for rare outcomes (Zhang and Yu 1998). Approach 7, Rosenthal (1994) and Lipsey and Wilson (2001), which give $d = 2t/\sqrt{N}$ for two groups of equal size; on why this conversion is affected by clustering, Hedges (2007). See Appendix Table A16 for references on the approaches used.

APPENDIX FIGURE A2. Appendix all forms of violence: standardized effects (d) by programme



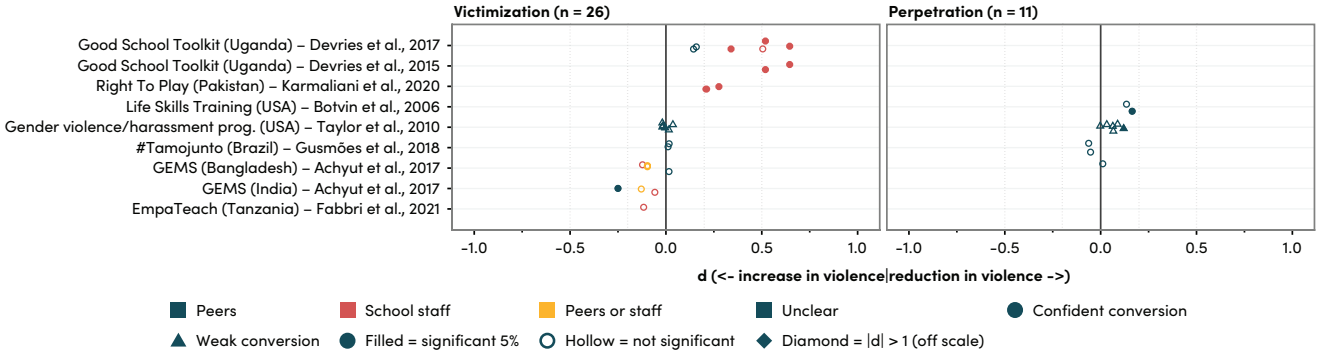
Notes: Each dot represents one estimate; item-level outcomes are excluded. Circles indicate confident conversions; triangles indicate weak conversions; filled markers indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; diamonds indicate |d| > 1 (off scale). Programmes are ordered by their largest d in each figure. A positive d indicates a reduction in violence; a negative d indicates an increase.

APPENDIX FIGURE A3. Bullying



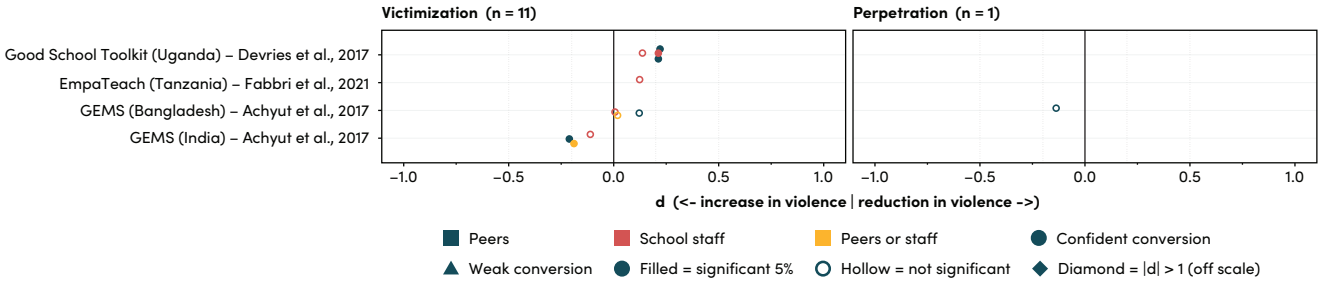
Notes: Each dot represents one estimate; item-level outcomes are excluded. Circles indicate confident conversions; triangles indicate weak conversions; filled markers indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; diamonds indicate |d| > 1 (off scale). Programmes are ordered by their largest d in each figure. A positive d indicates a reduction in violence; a negative d indicates an increase.

APPENDIX FIGURE A4. Physical violence (by peers, school staff, either, or unclear perpetrator)



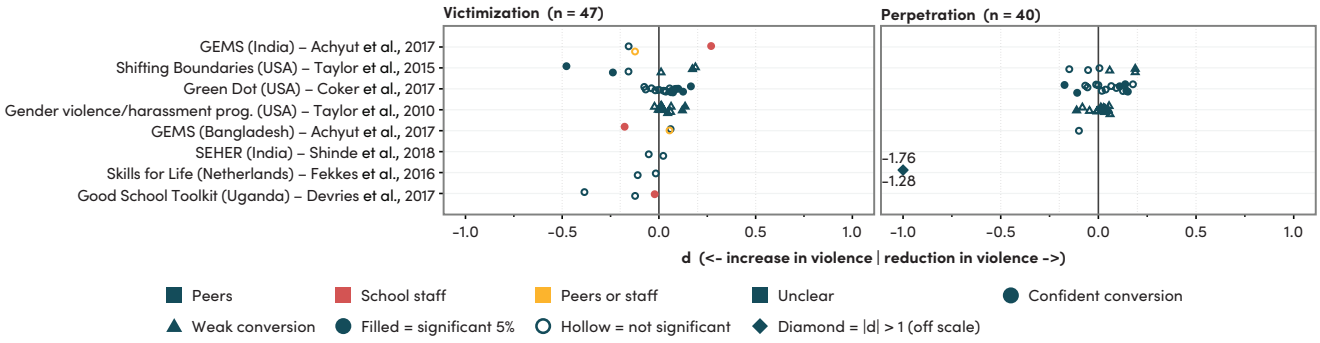
Notes: Physical violence perpetrated by peers is shown excluding bullying because, for most bullying measures, we could not distinguish between physical and emotional forms of bullying. Each dot represents one estimate; item-level outcomes are excluded. Circles indicate confident conversions; triangles indicate weak conversions; filled markers indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; diamonds indicate |d| > 1 (off scale). Programmes are ordered by their largest d in each figure. A positive d indicates a reduction in violence; a negative d indicates an increase.

APPENDIX FIGURE A5. Emotional violence



Notes: Each dot represents one estimate; item-level outcomes are excluded. Circles indicate confident conversions; triangles indicate weak conversions; filled markers indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; diamonds indicate |d| > 1 (off scale). Programmes are ordered by their largest d in each figure. A positive d indicates a reduction in violence; a negative d indicates an increase.

APPENDIX FIGURE A6. Sexual violence



Notes: Each dot represents one estimate; item-level outcomes are excluded. Circles indicate confident conversions; triangles indicate weak conversions; filled markers indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; diamonds indicate |d| > 1 (off scale). Programmes are ordered by their largest d in each figure. A positive d indicates a reduction in violence; a negative d indicates an increase.

APPENDIX TABLE A14. Ethics and safeguarding reporting in studies with the most complete reporting

Domain	Devries et al., 2015a, 2017 (Uganda)	Bonnell et al., 2018 (United Kingdom)	Fabbri et al., 2021 (Tanzania)	Amaral et al., 2024 (Mozambique)
Before Data Collection				
Ethical Clearance	Reported receiving ethical clearance	Reported receiving ethical clearance	Reported receiving ethical clearance	Reported receiving ethical clearance
Interviewer selection and training	– Minimum qualifications and references. – Three weeks of full-time, intensive training on violence topics, child protection, including role plays and feedback. – Interviewers signed a code of conduct, adapted from Save the Children's code of conduct. – Interviewers informed about the consequences of inappropriate behavior and actions with children.	Not reported.	Not reported.	One week of training, including topics on sensitive interviewing, gender norms, gender-based violence concepts, and the World Health Organization protocol in collecting gender-based violence survey data.
During Data Collection				
Informed consent/ assent	– Opt-out informed consent from parents and child assent collected. – During the consent process, children were informed that details would need to be passed on to child protection officers or they disclosed information that suggests their safety or wellbeing might be at risk or they had been hurt. – Interviewers were instructed to stop the interview if children were distressed or did not want to continue.	Informed consent from headteachers, and students collected. Parents were informed about the study and could withdraw their children from research activities.	– Informed consent from headteachers and assent from children collected. Parental consent was not required by ethics committee. – During the consent process, children were informed that details would need to be passed on to child protection officers or they disclosed information that suggests their safety or wellbeing might be at risk or they had been hurt. – Teachers were informed that information disclosed during surveys might be reported to child protection officers.	– Parental and children consent collected. – All survey participants were informed about their right to consent, withdraw, and skip questions without repercussions. – Clear communication about the study's purpose, risks, and right to withdraw or skip questions.

(Continued)

APPENDIX TABLE A14. (Continued)

Domain	Devries et al., 2015a, 2017 (Uganda)	Bonnell et al., 2018 (United Kingdom)	Fabbri et al., 2021 (Tanzania)	Amaral et al., 2024 (Mozambique)
Interview privacy and safety	– Surveys concerning violence and mental health were conducted using face-to-face interviews in schools, where interviewer-child pairs could be seen but not overheard. – Male interviewers interviewed male students, and female interviewers interviewed female students.	Not reported.	Not reported.	– Surveys were conducted using face to face interviews, in schools and private spaces. – Male interviewers interviewed male students, and female interviewers interviewed female students.
Participation Incentives	– No incentives or reimbursements were provided for participation, to avoid inducement to participate, perceptions of unfairness at schools, and expectations that the intervention would provide compensation.	Not reported.	Not reported.	Not reported.
Interviewer Support	Senior study team held daily debriefs with supervisors and weekly debriefs with interviewers. Difficult cases and emotional reactions were discussed.	Not reported.	Not reported.	– Enumerators could stop the interview at any time if their safety was compromised. – Continuous monitoring by the research team was in place to ensure adherence to ethical standards and protocols.
After Data Collection				
Participant feedback	Purposive qualitative interviews with children suggest executed to explore children's views of the survey and referral process.	Not reported.	A letterbox was installed in a central location to allow for anonymous feedback and complaints about the study procedures.	Not reported.

(Continued)

APPENDIX TABLE A14. (Continued)

Domain	Devries et al., 2015a, 2017 (Uganda)	Bonnell et al., 2018 (United Kingdom)	Fabbri et al., 2021 (Tanzania)	Amaral et al., 2024 (Mozambique)
Referral Information/ Facilitated Referrals/ Adverse event protocol	– All participating children were offered counselling through a study-employed counsellor. Where students did not want their experiences to be passed on to a third party, cases were discussed anonymously with the Social Protection District Probation Officer, who would decide on the best course of action. – Criteria and timelines for referrals were predefined with service providers to determine response based on the type and severity of violence reported. – Referral pathways differed by type of violence but were generally led by a Community Development Officer, who reported cases to the District Probation Officer. – Plans for direct transfers to health centres were in place. – The study recruited a counsellor to follow up on outstanding cases where delays in the referral process were identified.	– Serious adverse events defined as death, serious injury or hospital admission were reported to investigators. – Cases that prompted concerns about the student mental health, sexual risk, or child safety were reported to the school staff.	– All participants were offered counselling, including adults. – Algorithms for recommended referral pathways were generated based on age and responses to survey questions, specific forms and time frames were based on predefined criteria.	– Children were informed about the options and possibility of seeking support. – School Gender Focal Points (GFP) would refer cases to Linha Fala Criança (LFC), which is a free service linked with a network of NGOs and other institutional support systems to report and respond to cases of violence. – GFPs were instructed to seek victim consent prior to reporting. – The case workers of the LFC would assess the case and initiate an investigation process to collect more information about the victim and refer victims to support systems close to their residence.
During Intervention				
Monitoring Effects from Intervention	Research personnel checked on student safety during different parts of the child's participation in the program. A dedicated study monitoring officer conducted regular school visits to monitor adverse effects to the intervention. The data was collected via structured classroom observations, formal and informal interviews with staff, and observations of students.	Not reported.	Child protection team made regular visits to study schools to offer routine support and safeguarding services to students.	A range of support resources, including services from paralegals, who were trained to work on GBV issues and case referrals, and a WhatsApp peer support group was available throughout the intervention.

Note: Data Collection domains adapted from Peterman et al., (2023).

APPENDIX TABLE A15. Descriptive costs of main sample studies

Study and Treatment Arm	Types of Costs Reported	Any Other Costs Analysis
Devries et al., 2015 (Uganda) – Good Schools Toolkit	Provide a breakdown of costs, including start-up costs (printing materials, introductory workshops, community visits, training) and implementation costs (described as those related to implementing the intervention in the 21 schools that were part of the trial). They provide **total and per student costs**. (They also include other costs related to staff (programme officers, implementation managers, among others), capital (e.g., office equipment) and materials, but exclude them for the total costs of the intervention.)	– They also provide other staff, capital and transport costs but explain this are excluded from the total costs of the Good School Toolkit intervention. These costs include $156,441 related to staff; $69,164 related to capital, and $171,628 related to materials and transport. – Total cost per physical violence averted: Program cost divided by cases of physical violence averted ($244)
Bonell 2018 et al., (United Kingdom) – Learning Together*	Provide a breakdown of costs, including costs of curriculum development, staff, training. Study provides **costs per school and student**.	– Costs compared to control group: £58 additional pounds per pupil – Incremental cost-effectiveness estimate of £2352 – Staff time and curriculum cost breakdown in supplementary appendix but cannot be backward calculated to results reported in the main paper.
Shinde et al., 2018 (India): SEHER – Lay counselor	Provide a breakdown of costs, including administration, implementation and monitoring costs. Study provides **costs per school and student**.	
Shinde et al., 2018 (India): SEHER – Trained teacher	Provide a breakdown of costs, including administration, implementation and monitoring costs. Study provides **costs per school and student**.	
Cunha et al., 2023 (China) – Parental Involvement Program	Does not provide a breakdown of costs. Study provides **costs per student** including and excluding opportunity costs. They describe costs as being "organizational costs".	– Total benefit per class (2.4 bullies, 2 victims, 3 bully-victims) – Organizational costs per unit of benefits ($12.5 per bully, $15 per victim, $10 per bully-victim) – Opportunity cost per unit of benefit: ($500 per bully, $600 per victim, $400 per bully-victim)
Amaral et al., 2024 (Mozambique) – Está na Hora de Agir	Does not provide a breakdown of costs. Study provides **cost per student** (including a per marginal cost per student that excludes fixed costs).	Marginal cost per student to be USD 10.39

Notes: *Bonell et al. (2018), provide only costs for the intervention group.

APPENDIX TABLE A16. Reported numeric costs of main sample studies, converted to 2024 $ USD (PPP)

Study Treatment	Timeframe	Number of Beneficiaries (children/students)	Reference Year and Currency Reported (cost)	Program Administration and Staff Costs		Targeting Costs	Staff Training	User/ Participant Training	Implementation and Program Material Costs	Monitoring Costs		User Costs	Total Program Cost	Annualized Program Cost	Average Cost per Beneficiary
				Fixed	Recurring										
Study and Treatment Arm			**Year for which Data are Reported and Author Adjusted to USD 2024**	**Cost of All Full-Time Staff Who Worked Throughout Any Phases of Intervention and Implementation, and Other Costs Related to Administration**		**Costs Incurred to Target, Identify, and Raise Awareness Among Potential Subjects as Part of Intervention**	**Training for Staff (excluding enumerators)**	**Costs to Train Participants or Beneficiaries**	**Eg., Items Distributed to Participants, Cost of Distribution, Transportation, Technologies**	**Monitor and Track Program Activities**	**Costs Averted as a Result of the Intervention**	**Any Costs to User as a Part of Intervention, Including Opportunity Costs**	**Sum of All Costs (excluding M&E and opportunity costs)**	**Sum of All Costs (excluding M&E and opportunity costs) Divided by Intervention Years**	**Total Cost Divided by Number of Beneficiaries (as reported in the paper)**
Devries et al., 2015a (Uganda) – Good Schools Toolkit	Implementation costs: 18 months	Not clear.	2015 $USD	117,949		–	–	–	279,284	52,613	–	2,185	397,233	264,822	15.0
		Endline evaluation sample: 3,706 students (1,824 assigned to the intervention)	**2024 $USD**	**152,021**	**0**	–	–	–	**359,962**	**67,812**	–	**2,816**	**511,984**	**341,322**	**19.3**
Bonell et al., 2018 (United Kingdom) – Learning Together*	Three years	Not clear.	2014 £GBP**	–	4,653,400		220,780	–	–	–	–	–	4,874,180	1,624,727	237.1
		Endline evaluation sample: 7,154 students (3,548 assigned to the intervention)	**2024 $USD**	–	**8,419,643**	–	**399,469**	–	–	–	–	–	**8,819,112**	**2,939,704**	**429.0**
Shinde et al., 2018 (India): SEHER – Lay counselor	Not clear, but less than a year considering that the baseline and endline happened 8 months apart.	Not clear.	2015 INR	562,100	4,392,500	–	–	–	171,500	94,825	–		128,152,500	128,152,500	15.0
		Total number of enrolled students in beneficiary schools: 16,443.	**2024 $USD**	**42,832**	**334,712**	–	–	–	**13,068**	**7,226**	–	–	**9,765,317**	**9,765,317**	**19.3**
Shinde et al., 2018 (India): SEHER – Trained teacher	Not clear, but less than a year considering that the baseline and endline happened 8 months apart.	Not clear.	2015 INR	344,784	501,840	–	–	–	147,600	156,864	–	–	27,626,112	27,626,112	7.4
		Total number of enrolled students in beneficiary schools: 15,106.	**2024 $USD**	**26,273**	**38,241**	–	–	–	**11,247**	**11,953**	–	–	**2,105,130**	**2,105,130**	**9.5**
Cunha et al., 2023 (China) – Parental Involvement Program	4 months	Not clear.	2021 USD**	1,400	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1,200	2,600	2,600	0.7
		Endline evaluation sample: 2,246 (1,217 assigned to the intervention)	**2024 $USD**	**1,594**	–	–	–	–	-	–	–	**1,366**	**2,960**	**2,960**	**0.7**
Amaral et al., 2024 (Mozambique) – Está na Hora de Agir	N.A.	Not clear.	2021 $USD **	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	19.4
		Endline evaluation sample: 8,558	**2024 $USD**	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	**22.1**

Notes: We have allocated costs to the categories provided in the JPAL Costing Guidelines (https://www.povertyactionlab.org/sites/default/files/research-resources/costing-guidelines.pdf) based on the information provided by each study. 1. Devries et al., (2015a, 2017) provide few details of the costs. However, Greco et al., (2018) provide a cost-effectiveness analysis of the Good School Toolkit intervention. The paper provides disaggregated costs but explains that the implementation costs of the trial, excluding monitoring and evaluation, are USD 279 284, and only use this to calculate the per student costs. 2. Costs reported in local currency were converted to international dollars using the World Bank PPP conversion factor (GDP, LCU per international $) for the relevant year and then inflated to 2024 values using the World Bank GDP deflator. For studies reporting costs in US dollars, only the inflation adjustment was applied. All costs are as reported in the studies (and then converted), and so in some cases, there are inconsistencies across columns (e.g., if some costs are not reported). *Bonell et al., (2018) provide only costs for the intervention group. **Where costs or currency year is not specified, we use the intervention year.

Appendix references

Note: References for the sample of exploratory studies are in Appendix Table A7.

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