Effectiveness of School-Based Violence Prevention for Children and Youth

Cluster randomized controlled field trial of the Roots of Empathy program with replication and three-year follow-up

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Abstract

Aggression, bullying and violence in children and youth are prevalent in Canada (18%) and internationally. The authors evaluated the effectiveness of Roots of Empathy (ROE), a school-based mental health promotion and violence prevention program for children that has been widely implemented but rarely evaluated.

Eight school divisions were randomly assigned to either a treatment group that received ROE in 2002–2003 (445 students) or a wait-list control group (315 students). These were compared on three child mental health outcomes (physical aggression, indirect aggression and pro-social behaviour), rated by teachers and students (self-rated). The three wait-list school divisions received ROE in 2003–2004 (new cohort of 265 students) and were compared with the control group from 2002–2003 on the three outcomes, for replication purposes. For both comparisons, the authors report multi-level modelling analyses regarding (1) immediate effects after ROE completion at the end of the school year (pretest to post-test) and (2) long-term ROE effects up to three years after post-test.

ROE had replicated, beneficial effects on all teacher-rated outcomes, which were generally maintained or further improved across follow-up. However, ROE had almost no statistically significant or replicated effects on student-rated outcomes. This is the first evaluation to suggest that ROE appears effective when implemented on a large scale under real-world delivery conditions.

he health and well-being of Canada's children and youth, including their mental health, is a top priority for healthcare providers (Andresen 2006; Davidson 2011; Eggertson 2007; Kutcher 2011; McEwan et al. 2007; Sibbald 2006). Aggression, bullying and violence in children and youth are major public and population health problems internationally (Craig and Pepler 2003, 2007; Glew et al. 2005; Murray 2006; Nansel et al. 2001, 2004; Smith-Khuri et al. 2004; Williams et al. 2007), with Canada ranking dismally on bullying (26th) and victimization (27th) among 35 countries (Craig and Pepler 2007). Bullying is prevalent in Canada, where 18% of children have reported being bullied in the previous five days (Craig and Pepler 2003). Bullying is strongly associated with poor child physical health, mental health and psychosocial adjustment (Arsenault et al. 2006; Gini and Pozzoli 2009; Nansel et al. 2001, 2004; Pepler et al. 2011; Rigby 2003), including school and peer problems (Juvonen et al. 2003), youth violence (Nansel et al. 2003) and youth suicide (Kim and Leventhal 2008; Klomek et al. 2010). Herein, healthcare providers have four roles: identifying the problem, screening for mental health comorbidities, counselling families and advocating for violence prevention (American Medical Association Council on Scientific Affairs 2002; Pepler et al. 2011; Weir 2001; Wright 2005). For children with associated problems, the need for specialized treatment far exceeds the available supply (Davidson 2011; Kutcher 2011); developing and disseminating evidence-based mental health promotion and



bullying prevention approaches is therefore imperative (Waddell et al. 2005).

Improving children's social-cognitive skills can be efficacious in preventing chronic aggression and conduct problems (Dodge and Pettit 2003; Rutter et al. 1998). Because of their population reach, schools are a natural setting for mental health promotion and violence prevention (Kutcher 2011; Mytton et al. 2002; Patel et al. 2007) and classroom teaching is the most common efficacious approach (Cooper et al. 2000).

Because of their population reach, schools are a natural setting for mental health promotion and violence prevention.

Preventing childhood aggression, bullying and violence are top priorities for Canadian policy makers also. However, many remain critical of Canada's record at integrating research and practice in the prevention of child and youth mental health problems (Davidson 2011; Kutcher 2011; Kutcher and Davidson 2007; McLennan et al. 2004) because in widely disseminated programs, rigorous evaluation, or even minimal evidence of effectiveness, is frequently absent (Cooper et al. 2000; Smith et al. 2003). For example, several provincial governments have recently begun implementing Roots of Empathy (ROE) (Weir 2005), a new school-based, violence prevention program for children, developed in Canada (Gordon 2005) that has rarely been evaluated.

Intervention

Students in ROE participate in a structured, age-appropriate, 27-session curriculum (Gordon 2005) that is delivered to entire classrooms by trained, certified instructors. ROE centres on classroom visits by a family – a parent and his or her newborn infant. (There are nine pre-family sessions, nine family sessions and nine post-family sessions.) Therein, students observe parent-infant interaction and learn about early brain development, temperament, attachment, the reading of emotional cues, the conveyance of thoughts and feelings and social inclusion. ROE is based on theory that when children learn to label emotions and take the perspective of others, their empathy and pro-social behaviour increase, while their physical and indirect aggression decrease – thereby preventing violence (Gordon 2005).

As of the 2006–2007 school year, ROE was being implemented in over 2,000 kindergarten to grade eight classrooms across Canada, involving over 50,000 children and youth, with pilots in Australia, Japan and New Zealand (Schonert-Reichl and Hymel 2007). Similar numbers of students have been reached annually across Canada in subsequent school years through 2010–2011, with a cumulative estimated total of 363,000 students reached since 1996, according to the ROE website (2011). In 2008, the Assembly of First Nations passed a resolution endorsing ROE, describing it as "compatible with traditional First Nations' teachings and worldviews." Notwithstanding this widespread use and support, to date there has been no published peer-reviewed evaluation of ROE. Most evaluated school-based violence prevention programs have been models or demonstrations that were evaluated for efficacy only; their real-world effectiveness is largely unknown (Wilson et al. 2003; Wilson and Lipsey 2007).

In this article, we follow the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) guidelines (Campbell et al. 2004). The objective of our study was to evaluate the real-world effectiveness of ROE in preventing violence (reducing aggression and increasing pro-social behaviour) in children and youth at the individual level, immediately after program completion and up to three years afterwards, in two successive samples determined via cluster random assignment, in order to provide rigorous evidence to inform provincial government decisionmaking regarding the future expansion of ROE in Manitoba, including questions related to relative effectiveness by student gender and grade level.

Methods

In 2002, a "natural experiment" opportunity arose in Manitoba to rigorously evaluate ROE. Limited provincial government funding was available to implement ROE in five school divisions in the 2002-2003 school year. In June 2002, the provincial government's Healthy Child Manitoba Office (HCMO) invited all 37 public school divisions to express their interest in ROE. Eight school divisions expressed interest by the August 30, 2002, deadline and were eligible for ROE funding. All eight school divisions agreed with our proposal that cluster random assignment (at the school division level) was the fairest approach to ROE resource allocation. This design also reduced the likelihood of ROE "spillover effects" between treatment and control groups (Campbell et al. 2004). School divisions also agreed with our proposal to pre-stratify implementation along three grades (kindergarten, grade four and grade eight) to examine the relative effectiveness of ROE for different grades. School divisions prioritized and identified classrooms in each of these three grades for ROE implementation prior to random assignment in September 2002 and government-funded ROE training in October 2002.

As a quality assurance study, this ROE program evaluation did not require Research Ethics Board review (Canadian Institutes of Health Research et al. 1998, 2010). It was not registered as a clinical trial. Under the *The Healthy Child Manitoba Act*, HCMO is legislatively mandated to evaluate provincial government programs for children and youth.

FIGURE 1.

Selection and flow of clusters and individual participants through the phases of the randomized trial



Randomization

As illustrated in Figure 1, in this cluster randomized controlled field trial, HCMO randomly assigned the eight school divisions to either a treatment group that received ROE in the 2002-2003 school year (ROE1; 445 students) or a wait-list control group (315 students). HCMO used a computerized random number generator for the random assignment process. Sample sizes were determined by the number of students in each of the classrooms prioritized and selected by school divisions prior to randomization.

Measurement

In October 2002, following written school division notification to parents regarding the ROE evaluation, HCMO collected sociodemographic data (student gender and grade level) and pretested ROE1 and control groups on three child mental health outcomes: physical aggression (6 items: e.g., threatening people, bullying others, kicking or hitting other children), indirect aggression (5 items: e.g., trying to get others to dislike a person, telling a person's secrets to a third person) and pro-social behaviour (10 items: e.g., comforting a child who is crying or upset, offering to help other children who are having difficulty, inviting others to join a game). These were rated by teachers (kindergarten, grade four, grade eight) and self-rated by students (grade four, grade eight) using parallel instruments previ-

TABLE 1.

Physical aggression: observed (unadjusted) mean scores and SDs for ROE1, control group and ROE2, across measurement time points, as rated by teachers and students (range of score: 0–12)

			Teacher Ratings					
Comparison Group	Pretest	Post-Test	1 y Follow-Up*	2 y Follow-Up*	3 y Follow-Up*			
ROE1 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.06 2.87 158	1.52 2.70 160	1.71 1.78 261	1.21 2.24 288	1.10 1.80 206			
Control group Mean score SD <u>n</u>	1.10 2.22 243	1.56 2.82 193	2.14 2.11 169	1.49 2.60 215	1.44 2.58 188			
ROE2 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	1.61 2.67 212	1.52 2.73 240	1.92 2.75 233	1.68 3.08 168				

			Student natings					
Comparison Group	Pretest	Post-Test	1 y Follow-Up*	2 y Follow-Up*	3 y Follow-Up*			
ROE1 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.13 2.07 219	2.26 2.10 208	2.69 1.73 234	1.66 1.88 195	2.19 2.15 134			
Control group Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.01 2.41 200	1.88 2.28 146	2.76 1.79 145	1.63 1.87 151	1.80 1.97 137			
ROE2 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.18 1.94 140	2.11 2.22 139	2.25 2.20 129	1.80 1.98 117				

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*Follow-up data were collected annually for three years for ROE1 and collected annually for two years for ROE2.

ROE1 = first Roots of Empathy group; ROE2 = second Roots of Empathy group; SD = standard deviation.

ously validated in Canada's National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada 1996). These individual-level instruments served as our primary outcome measures of violence prevention.

Using the same three measures, rated by teachers and students, we post-tested ROE1 and control groups at the end of the 2002–2003 school year and annually for three years thereafter. Neither students nor teachers were blinded to group assignment at pretest or post-test. It is unlikely that the teachers who provided the three annual follow-up ratings were aware of group assignment (i.e., which children in their class had previously participated in ROE or not), but we did not measure this awareness directly.

The three school divisions randomized to the wait list received ROE in the subsequent 2003–2004 school year (ROE2; new cohort of 265 students). ROE2 was pretested and

TABLE 2.

Indirect aggression: observed (unadjusted) mean scores and SDs for ROE1, control group and ROE2, across measurement time points, as rated by teachers and students (range of score: 0–10)

			Teacher Ratings					
Comparison Group	Pretest	Post-Test	1 y Follow-Up*	2 y Follow-Up*	3 y Follow-Up*			
ROE1 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.35 2.89 159	1.53 2.15 162	1.27 2.15 261	1.66 2.53 264	1.25 2.11 202			
Control group Mean score SD <u>n</u>	1.41 2.25 235	2.02 2.66 188	1.68 2.56 170	1.33 2.21 212	1.49 2.35 186			
ROE2 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	1.61 2.34 208	1.56 2.27 239	1.90 2.42 225	1.64 2.81 161				

Student Ratings

Comparison Group	Pretest	Post-Test	1 y Follow-Up*	2 y Follow-Up*	3 y Follow-Up*
ROE1 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.10 2.01 219	1.87 1.76 209	1.68 1.92 235	1.35 1.62 195	1.49 1.66 136
Control group Mean score SD <u>n</u>	2.16 2.19 204	2.21 2.10 148	1.88 2.13 147	1.33 1.58 157	1.79 1.95 133
ROE2 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	1.77 1.85 141	1.81 1.86 135	1.78 1.89 140	1.54 1.89 118	

*Follow-up data were collected annually for three years for ROE1 and collected annually for two years for ROE2. ROE1 = first Roots of Empathy group; ROE2 = second Roots of Empathy group; SD = standard deviation.

post-tested in 2003–2004 and followed up for two years afterwards, on all outcomes, and compared with the control group from the 2002–2003 sample (see Figure 1).

Analyses

Given clustering in data and ROE delivery, we used multi-level modelling (SAS PROC MIXED) to account for three levels of variability: intra-individual change in students over time (in the three outcomes), inter-individual differences between students (gender) and inter-group differences between classrooms (assign-

ment to ROE or control group, grade level). The latter level encompassed the school division level of randomization, as well as the school level, given that these were fixed (i.e., stratified by grade level and identified as blocks for inclusion in the evaluation prior to randomization). Intra-class correlation coefficients (ICCs: variance between classes divided by [variance between classes + variance within classes + residual]) at pretest (range: 0.11-0.29) indicated that a considerable amount of variance was due to variation between classrooms (i.e., students in the same classroom were more similar to each other than to students from other classrooms). We found ICCs similar to those in other schoolbased studies (Bloom et al. 2007; Hedges and Hedberg 2007; Raudenbush et al. 2007). Multilevel modelling accounted for clustering within classrooms and over time and incorporated all participants who were observed at least once (Allison 2002; Donner and Klar 2004; Murray et al. 2004; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002; Schafer and Graham 2002).

Overall, HCMO obtained data on 93% of the original sample, with approximately 50% of observations missing at any time point (see Figure 1). Our multi-level modelling used maximum likelihood estima-

tion, allowing for results to be interpreted as if there were no missing data, under the assumption that data were missing at random (Allison 2002; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002; Schafer and Graham 2002).

For both comparisons (ROE1 versus control and ROE2 versus control), we report multi-level modelling (intention to treat) analyses for the three outcomes regarding (1) immediate effects after ROE completion at school year end (pretest to posttest) and (2) long-term ROE effects over follow-up (post-test through one year, two years and up to three years). We also

explored student gender and grade level as potential moderators of ROE effects.

Results

For each outcome, Tables 1, 2 and 3 show observed (unadjusted) scores for all groups across measurement times, as rated by teachers and students.

At pretest, teacher ratings of ROE1 and ROE2 indicated statistically significantly higher physical aggression (ROE1 only), higher indirect aggression and lower pro-social behaviour compared with the control group (all p < .05). However, student ratings were generally similar between groups (except higher pro-social behaviour in ROE2, p < .05).

We found acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for all outcomes across all groups and measurement times, with generally higher coefficients for teacher ratings (range .80–.95) than student ratings (range .67–.94).

As shown in Table 4, multilevel analyses found that, as rated by teachers, ROE had beneficial immediate effects on all outcomes, reducing physical aggression and indirect aggression and increasing prosocial behaviour, replicated in both ROE1 and ROE2. By comparison, as self-rated by students, ROE effects were less pronounced and fewer were statistically significant or replicated. For all outcomes across

TABLE 3.

Pro-social behaviour: observed (unadjusted) mean scores and SDs for ROE1, control group and ROE2, across measurement time points, as rated by teachers and students (range of score: 0–20)

			Teacher Ratings					
Comparison Group	Pretest	Post-Test	1 y Follow-Up*	2 y Follow-Up*	3 y Follow-Up*			
ROE1 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	8.84 5.57 158	11.23 5.57 163	10.36 5.91 253	10.61 5.52 282	10.23 5.12 207			
Control group Mean score SD <u>n</u>	10.68 4.95 236	11.28 4.89 184	10.09 5.07 169	9.67 5.90 209	9.49 5.37 186			
ROE2 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	9.37 5.24 206	11.21 5.10 237	9.21 5.45 232	10.35 5.99 163				

Student Ratings

Comparison Group	Pretest	Post-Test	1 y Follow-Up*	2 y Follow-Up*	3 y Follow-Up*
ROE1 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	12.44 3.99 214	12.46 3.78 210	12.86 3.87 226	13.08 3.30 193	12.37 3.37 135
Control group Mean score SD <u>n</u>	12.23 4.09 200	12.27 4.03 142	12.52 3.61 143	13.03 3.41 146	12.84 3.47 132
ROE2 Mean score SD <u>n</u>	13.31 3.78 132	13.77 3.55 128	12.62 3.65 130	13.51 3.19 119	

*Follow-up data were collected annually for three years for ROE1 and collected annually for two years for ROE2. ROE1 = first Roots of Empathy group; ROE2 = second Roots of Empathy group; SD = standard deviation.

measurement times, teacher ratings and student self-ratings were not highly correlated (mean Pearson rs of 0.30, 0.20, and 0.28 for physical aggression, indirect aggression, and prosocial behaviour, respectively).

As shown in Table 5, multilevel analyses found that, as rated by teachers, beneficial outcomes were generally maintained (as indicated by the lack of statistically significant differences between groups) or continued to improve following ROE completion, with one exception: Some of the ROE1 gain in prosocial behaviour was not maintained.

Moderators of ROE

Most interactions between ROE and student gender or grade level were inconsistent across samples, but multi-level analyses may suggest that (1) immediately after completion, ROE is more effective in decreasing indirect aggression in girls than in boys and in improving pro-social behaviour for younger students than for older students; and (2) over follow-up, gains in pro-social behaviour may fade in boys or in older children. All of these interaction effects are exploratory and require replication.

TABLE 4

Immediate effects of the Roots of Empathy (ROE) program in violence prevention: Results of multilevel modeling analyses from pretest to posttest, in ROE1-control group and ROE2-control group comparisons, as rated by teachers and students

	ROE1-control group comparison			ROE2-control group comparison		
Child mental health outcomes	Regression estimate (95% CI)	Effect sizeª (95% CI)	р	Regression estimate (95% CI)	Effect sizeª (95% CI)	p
Teacher-rated:						
Physical aggression	-0.64 (-1.090.20)	-0.25 (-0.430.08)	0.01*	-0.38 (-0.71 – 0.05)	-0.15 (-0.280.02)	0.03*
Indirect aggression	-0.30 (-1.810.80)	-0.51 (-0.700.31)	0.00*	-0.66 (-1.080.24)	-0.26 (-0.420.10)	0.00*
Prosocial behaviour	1.08 (0.43 – 2.12)	0.21 (0.01 - 0.40)	0.04*	0.97 (0.08 – 1.86)	0.18 (0.14 - 0.35)	0.04*
Student-rated:						
Physical aggression	0.18 (-0.29 - 0.65)	0.08 (-0.13-0.29)	0.45	0.06 (-0.47 - 0.60)	0.03 (-0.21 – 0.27)	0.82
Indirect aggression	-0.41 (-0.86 - 0.03)	-0.20 (-0.41 0.02)	0.07	-0.06 (-0.53 - 0.41)	-0.03 (-0.25 - 0.20)	0.80
Prosocial behaviour	0.53 (-0.20 - 1.26)	0.13 (-0.05 – 0.31)	0.15	0.88 (0.04 - 1.71)	0.22 (0.01 - 0.42)	0.04*

*Effect size is calculated using the following formula: unstandardized regression estimate divided by the pooled standard deviation of the outcome of the sample. (Hedges, 2007)

* Difference between program group and control group is statistically significant (p < .05).

CI = confidence interval. ROE1 = first Roots of Empathy group. ROE2 = second Roots of Empathy group.

TABLE 5.

Long-term effects of the Roots of Empathy (ROE) program in violence prevention: Results of multilevel modeling analyses from posttest through up to 3 years follow-up after program completion, in ROE1-control group and ROE2-control group comparisons, as rated by teachers and students

	ROE1-control group o	comparison		ROE2-control group comparison		
Child mental health outcomes	Regression estimate (95% CI)	Effect sizeª (95% CI)	р	Regression estimate (95% CI)	Effect sizeª (95% CI)	p
Teacher-rated:						
Physical Aggression	-0.15 (-0.230.07)	-0.06 (-0.090.03)	0.00*	0.34 (-0.34 – 1.01)	0.14 (-0.14 - 0.43)	0.33
Indirect Aggression	-0.06 (-0.16-0.03)	-0.03 (-0.06 - 0.01)	0.18	-0.04 (-0.33 – 0.24)	-0.02 (-0.14 - 0.10)	0.76
Prosocial Behaviour	-0.65 (-0.880.43)	-0.12 (-0.170.08)	0.00*	-0.20 (-0.47 – 0.08)	-0.08 (-0.20 - 0.03)	0.17
Student-rated:						
Physical Aggression	-0.00 (-0.09 - 0.08)	-0.00 (-0.04 - 0.04)	0.99	-0.10 (-0.36 - 0.16)	-0.04 (-0.15 - 0.07)	0.46
Indirect Aggression	-0.05 (-0.13 - 0.04)	-0.02 (-0.06 - 0.02)	0.26	0.14 (-0.10 - 0.38)	0.06 (-0.04 - 0.16)	0.25
Prosocial Behaviour	-0.19 (-1.63 – 1.26)	-0.08 (-0.69 – 0.53)	0.01*	0.23 (-0.14 - 0.60)	0.10 (-0.06 - 0.25)	0.23

a Effect size is calculated using the following formula: unstandardized regression estimate divided by the pooled standard deviation of the outcome of the sample. (Hedges, 2007)

* Difference between program group and control group is statistically significant (p < .05).

CI = confidence interval. ROE1 = first Roots of Empathy group. ROE2 = second Roots of Empathy group.

Discussion and Conclusion

This is the first evaluation to suggest that ROE is effective when implemented on a large scale under real-world conditions. On average, ROE seems to achieve replicable immediate effects, as rated by teachers (mean absolute effect size [ES] = .25), larger effects than those reported in the most comprehensive metaanalysis to date regarding similar programs implemented as smaller-scale models or demonstrations (mean ES = .21) or in routine practice (mean ES = .10) (Wilson et al. 2003; Wilson and Lipsey 2007). Compared with other systematic reviews, our results show that ROE appears to be as effective as, or more effective than, similar programs that have targeted high-risk students (Mytton et al. 2002) or employed curricula, schoolwide approaches or social skills training (Vreeman and Carroll 2007). Translated into everyday terms, if an estimated 15% of schoolchildren get into a fight in a school year, an ES of 0.25 for ROE represents a reduction in fighting to about 8%, approximately half the baseline rate (Wilson et al. 2003). This suggests practical significance and, given associated morbidity, probable clinical importance from the perspectives of mental health promotion and mental illness prevention. The enhancement of empathy and the promotion of optimal social contact are also essential to reducing mental health stigma (Hinshaw and Stier 2008; Stuart et al. 2011). At an estimated cost for ROE of C\$108 per child per year (C\$4 per child per session for 27 sessions), ROE has high potential cost-effectiveness given the enormous cost of conduct disorder alone (an estimated average of C\$7,944 per child per year from age 10 to 28; Scott et al. 2001). A second cluster randomized trial of ROE, in British Columbia (Schonert-Reichl et al. 2007, March), appears to replicate our immediate effects; it also plans a three-year follow-up. ROE appears close to meeting international standards of evidence for effectiveness (Flay et al. 2005). Few studies of similar programs have followed long-term effects. Our findings suggest that ROE may be beneficial up to three years after completion.

While we found similar results in ROE1 and ROE2, ESs in the latter were more modest. This may be attributable to (1) ROE2 and the control group being from the same school divisions; (2) larger pretest aggression scores in ROE1 (previous studies found larger pretest aggression scores predict larger program ESs; Wilson and Lipsey 2007); (3) differential quality of implementation (Wilson and Lipsey 2007); or (4) school or community context (Hughes et al. 2005; Metropolitan Area Child Study Group 2007). We did not measure implementation or context, and these merit future measurement.

Student self-rated ROE effects were smaller than teacherrated effects, and fewer were statistically significant or replicated. Evaluations of similar programs typically find smaller ESs when using student ratings, and only 22% of studies used them (Wilson and Lipsey 2007). Our modest correlations between student and teacher ratings are consistent with the psychopathology literature; each informant may contribute different but useful information (Achenbach et al. 2005; De Los Reyes and Kazdin 2005).

Strengths of our evaluation include internal validity and ecological validity through a rigorous design (cluster random assignment with multiple outcome informants and longitudinal follow-up) to evaluate ROE under real-world conditions. Our results are notable as many efficacious interventions do not improve outcomes when exported from laboratory conditions into routine practice (Flay et al. 2005), particularly in the first implementation year. We encourage other governments to evaluate untested programs via random assignment prior to larger-scale implementation.

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Our evaluation had limitations. As a natural experiment, our evaluation did not calculate a priori statistical power (Guittet et al. 2005). Our statistically significant findings suggest that our ICCs and number of groups per condition (the two primary determinants of power in cluster randomized trials; Murray et al. 2004) permitted sufficient statistical power. By chance, ROE1 and ROE2 differed from the control group at pretest and, due to limited resources, observations for some time points were missing. Both were addressed through multi-level modelling, which controlled for pretest differences (and other potential confounders over time) and provided robust maximum likelihood estimates of missing data.

Canada faces continuing challenges in improving child and youth mental health, particularly in prevention (Andresen 2006; Davidson 2011; Eggertson 2005; Kutcher 2011; McLennan et al. 2004; Waddell et al. 2005, 2007). As with other major public health problems, the burden of suffering associated with aggression, bullying and violence will not be significantly reduced by clinical services alone; effective prevention programs are also urgently needed (Craig and Pepler 2003; Offord et al. 1998; Waddell et al. 2005, 2007). Our evaluation suggests that ROE is effective and worthy of consideration in emerging evidencebased mental health strategies for children and youth across Canada.

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